Communication Skills & Entrepreneurship Development

7. Entrepreneurship Development and Communication Skills (HMC 101) 2 (1+1)

Entrepreneurship Development: Assessing overall business environment in the Indian economy. Over view of Indian social, political and economic systems and their implications for decision making by individual entrepreneurs. Globalisation and the emerging business entrepreneurial environment. Concept of entrepreneurship; entrepreneurial and managerial characteristics; managing an enterprise; motivation and entrepreneurship development; importance of planning, monitoring, evaluation and follow up; managing competition; entrepreneurship development programs; SWOT analysis, Generation, incubation and commercialization of ideas and innovations. Government schemes and incentives for promotion of entrepreneurship. Government policy on Small and Medium Enterprises(SMEs) / SSIs. Export and Import Policies relevant to horticulture sector. Venture capital.Contract farming and joint ventures, public-private partnerships. Overview of horti inputs industry. Characteristics of Indian horticultural processing and export industry. Social Responsibility of Business. Communication Skills: Structural and functional grammar; meaning and process of communication, verbal and non-verbal communication; listening and note taking, writing skills, oral presentation skills; field diary and lab record; indexing, footnote and bibliographic procedures. Reading and comprehension of general and technical articles, précis writing, summarizing, abstracting; individual and group presentations, impromptu presentation, public speaking; Group discussion. Organizing seminars and conferences.

Practical: *Listening and note taking, writing skills, oral presentation skills; field diary and lab record; indexing, footnote and bibliographic procedures. Reading and comprehension of general and technical articles, precis writing, summarizing, abstracting; individual and group presentations.*

Syllabus - Theory

- Entrepreneurship Development: Assessing overall business environment in the Indian economy.
- Overview of Indian social, political and economic systems and their implications for decision making by individual entrepreneurs.
- Globalisation and the emerging business / entrepreneurial environment.
- Concept of entrepreneurship; entrepreneurial and managerial characteristics; managing an enterprise; motivation and entrepreneurship development; importance of planning, monitoring, evaluation and follow up; managing competition; entrepreneurship development programs; SWOT analysis, Generation, incubation and commercialization of ideas and innovations.
- Government schemes and incentives for promotion of entrepreneurship.
- Government policy on Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) / SSIs.
- Export and Import Policies relevant to fisheries sector.
- Venture capital. Contract farming and joint ventures, public-private partnerships.
- Overview of fisheries inputs industry.
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- Social Responsibility of Business. Communication Skills: Structural and functional grammar; meaning and process of communication, verbal and non-verbal communication; listening and note taking, writing skills, oral presentation skills; field diary and lab record; indexing,

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Syllabus - Practical

- Listening and note taking; writing skills; oral presentation skills; field diary and lab record; indexing, footnote and bibliographic procedures.
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Unit 1: Assessing overall business environment in the Indian economy

Chapter 1: Characteristics of business

Topic 1

Unit 1: Assessing overall business environment in the Indian economy

Chapter 1: Characteristics of business

1.1.1 Introduction

The present day business is associated with vast and fascinating problems. It encompasses the use of latest scientific knowledge and technical know-how, different challenges and difficulties encountered in converting raw materials into saleable products and problems confronted in raising and spending money for the success of business units.

1.1.2 Main characteristics of today's business

The following chart shows the main characteristics of the present day business as:

1.1.2.1 Change

Of course, change is the law of nature. Modern business is dynamic.New technologies herald the arrival of new products leaving behind old ones. For example, man-made fibres have out dated cotton fabrics.

Smart products will have special features:

(i) The more you use knowledge-based offerings, the smarter they get.

(ii) The more you use knowledge-based products, the smarter you get.

(iii) Knowledge-based products and services adjust to changing circumstances.

(iv) Knowledge-based business can customize their offerings.

(v) Knowledge-based products and services will have relatively shorter life cycles.

(vi) Knowledge-based businesses enable customers to act in real time.

1.1.2.2 Growing Size of Business

Mass production and mass marketing are the order of the day. Machines are gradually replacing manual labour in the manufacturing process. With machines operating machines, production in bulk has become possible. Marketing activities are being stepped up to match massive production. New channels of distribution, super-bazaars, discount houses and trade fairs have sprung up to meet the challenges of mass production.

1.1.2.3 Diversification

Today's business is characterized by diversification. The product portfolio of any medium or large business house reads like who is who. For example, The Tata group, a premier business house, has already iron and steel, fertilizers, light commercial vehicles, power-chemicals, tea, textiles, shipping hotel services, electronics, marine products, printing, oil and consultancy under its belt. It has now plans to foray into such areas as passenger cars, computers biotechnology, housing development and leasing activities.

Diversification, on the other hand, implies introducing different lines of products, mostly unrelated to each other. Diversification and product proliferation are used as measures to face server competition so characteristic of modern business.

1.1.2.4 Globalisation

Going international is yet another quality of modern business. Political boundaries are no barriers to business. Production facilities are being set-up in different countries and products are being sold world wide. Gradually, business houses are exposed to global competition which augurs well for consumers.

1.1.2.5 Science

The development of atomic power, advances in metallurgy and allied fields; accomplishments relating to the space-age programmes; application of mathematics in managerial decision-making; and progress in miniaturization are illustrations from the myriad of contributions being made to business by science.

1.1.2.5 Science

The development of atomic power, advances in metallurgy and allied fields; accomplishments relating to the space-age programmes; application of mathematics in managerial decision-making; and progress in miniaturization are illustrations from the myriad of contributions being made to business by science.

1.1.2.6 Information

The whole area of information gathering and sharing including data processing, information systems analysis, and preparation of effective records and reports, has achieved a major status. The complexities of modern business and government requirements have spearheaded this growth.

1.1.2.7 Government Interference

Interference of government in business is common in every country. In the name of self-reliance and protecting domestic industry, restrictions are placed on the import of foreign goods. In order to reduce inequalities of income, to prevent concentration of economic power restrictions and levy taxes on domestic industries. Today, there is no government in the world which does not interfere in business activities in some respect or the other .

1.1.2.8 Competition

Competition is another feature of modern business. Gone are the days of sheltered markets, subsidies, licences, quotas and restriction. Businessmen are asked to stand on their feet, to eliminate inefficiencies, cut down costs and improve productivity. Fittest will survive. Inefficient and marginal firms will be forced to wind up.

Competition is beneficial to the competing firms besides benefiting the consumers. How competition benefits consumers is obvious to substantiate.

1.1.3 Economic factors

Coming to the economic environment, we list the following factors which for our purpose, constitute the economic environment of business. We are not confining ourselves to pure economic principles such as the law of demand and supply, marginal utility and the like. There are major macro-economic factors which have considerable influence on business. Such factors are:

- Growth strategy,
- Economic system,
- Economic planning,
- Industry,
- Agriculture,
- Infrastructure,
- Financial and fiscal sectors,
- Removal or regional imbalances,
- Price and distribution controls,
- Economic reforms,
- Population, and
- Per capita and national income.

• 1.1.4 India's abundant Natural Resources

"Indian enjoys a prominent position as a producer of various agricultural and mineral raw materials. In the production of oilseeds like groundnuts, linseed and copra, India occupies the most important position in the world. India has about a third of the world's cattle population and produces the largest quantity of milk and cattle hides in the world. India is the second largest producer of raw materials like cotton and the largest producer of raw jute in the world. India's forest resources are also considerable and India is one of the leading producers of timber in the world. All these augur well for the development of agro-based and forest based industries in the country.

1.1.5 Problems of Industrialisation

The haphazard and uneven growth of industrial activites have given rise to various evils which must be eradicated for sound and effective industrialization. The principle industrial concentration in India is to be found at the ports and commercial centres such as Coimbatore, Chennai, Mumbai, Ahmedabad, Kolkota,Delhi and Kanpur. The iron and steel and various ancillary industries are located in West Bengal and Bihar where coal and iron-ore are found in close proximity, while the other main industries like jute and cotton textiles and largely concentrated in the vicinity of ports and commercial centres. Ports provide an ideal location for the cotton textile and jute mill industries, since these industries depend largely on the export market.

1.1.6 Pattern of Industrialisation

While there is now universal agreement on the importance of industrialization there is still much debate left for the proper pattern of industrial development. Historically, it has proceeded in three stages. In the first stage, industry is concerned with the processing of primary products, milling grain, extracting oil, tanning leather, spinning vegetable fibres, preparing timber and smelting ores.

The second stage in the evolution of industry comprises the transformation of materials, making bread and confectionery, foot-wears, metal goods cloth, furniture and paper.

The third stage consists of the manufacture of machine and other capital equipment to be used not for the direct satisfaction of any immediate want but in order to facilitate the future process of production.

In India, imported supplies of consumer manufacture are generally a marginal element in total consumption and, therefore, the scope for further reduction is small. Thus the import substitution of the type becomes very important. India is facing a problem of a choice between expansion of export-oriented or of import substitution industries. The capital available for investment being limited in underdeveloped countries, the allocation of funds to an export project reduces the scope of investment-oriented towards import substitution.

Now coming to the practical side, if export-oriented industries are successful in stimulating exports, it will result in increase in the supply of foreign exchange and if import-substitution is effective, it reduces foreign exchange reserve. So the effect of these alternatives on the supply of foreign exchange is identical. Which should be preferred out of the above two? Import-substitution industry strengthens the economic independence of the country, while export-oriented project, on the contrary, increases its dependence on the fluctuations of prices and volume of trade in foreign markets. Therefore, it is very safe, in general, that import substitution project should be preferred to an export-oriented project.

Unit 2: Indian Social, Political and Economic systems and their implication for decision making by individual entrepreneur

Topic 2

Unit 2: Indian Social, Political and Economic systems and their implication for decision making by individual entrepreneur

2.1.1 Introduction

The important phase of entrepreneurial development was after 1947. Entrepreneurship began to grow faster, as Government of India through favourable industrial policy statements pushed. for rapid and balanced industrialization of the country. It recognised the responsibility of the State to promote, assist and develop industries in the national interest. It also recognised the vital role of the private sector in accelerating industrial development. The Government decided to pursue the following objectives:

(i) To maintain the balance on economic powers between private and public sectors.

(ii)To decentralize the industries by spreading enterpreneurship from the existing centres to other cities, towns and villages.

(iii)To disperse the entrepreneurial spirit concentrated in a few dominant communities to large number of industrially potential people of varied social strata.

In order to achieve the above objectives, the Government decided to encourage the development of small scale industries, by providing various incentives and concessions in the form of capital, technical know-how, markets and land to establish industries particularly in the backward regions of the country.

Industrial entrepreneurship prior to 1850 was negligible lying dormant in artisans. The artisan entrepreneurship could not develop due to inadequate infrastructure and negative attitude of the colonial rulers. From 1850 onwards, the East India Company pursued the policy of encouraging small scale industries which provided seedbed for the emergence of manufacturing entrepreneurs. The family entrepreneurship units like Tata, Birla, Mafatlal, Dalmia, Singhania,Kirloskar and others came into existence.

2.2.1 Environmental factors influencing entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship does not emerge and grow spontaneously. It is dependent upon several economic, social, political and psychological factors. The environmental factors may have both positive and negative influences on the growth of entrepreneurship.

Environmental factors comprise the following:

(1) Economic environment

(2) Social environment

(3) Phychological environment

(4) Government

2.2.1.1 Economic environment

Economic environment exercises perhaps the most direct and immediate influence on entrepreneurship. Capital, labour, raw materials and markets are the main economic factors.

2.2.1.1.1 Capital

Capital is one of the most important prerequisites to establish an enterprise. Availability of capital facilitates the entrepreneur to bring together the labour, machine and raw materials to combine them to produce goods. Capital is, therefore, regarded as a lubricant in the process of production. The timely and adequate supply of capital increases entrepreneurship.

2.2.1.1.2 The Good Quality of Labour Force

The good quality of working force is another factor which needs attention and influences the emergence of entrepreneurship. It is seen that cheap labour is less mobile, and the advantage of cheap labour is that they can stay more hours on work and will remain on duty as and even on holidays.

2.2.1.1.3 Raw Materials

The necessity of raw materials hardly needs any emphasis for establishing any industrial activity and, therefore, its influence in the emergence ofentrepreneurship. In the absence of raw materials, neither any enterprise can be established nor an entrepreneur can be emerged. Of course, in some cases, technological innovations can compensate for raw material inadequacies.

2.2.1.1.4 Market

The fact remains that the potential of the market constitutes the major determinant of probable rewards from entrepreneurial function. Both the size and composition of market influence entrepreneurship in their own ways. Practically, monopoly of a particular product in the market becomes more influential for entrepreneurship than a competitive market.

2.2.1.2 Social Environment

No one can under-rate the social environment in a country exercises a significant impact on the emergence of entrepreneurship. The main components of social environment are as follows;

(i) **Legitimacy of Entrepreneurship** . The proponents of non-economic factors give emphasis to the relevance of a system of norms and values within socio-cultural setting for the emergence of entrepreneurship.

(ii) **Social Mobility** . Social mobility involves the degree of mobility, both social and geographical, and the nature of mobility channels within a system. The opinion that social mobility is crucial for entrepreneurial emergence is not unanimous. Some hold the view that a high degree of mobility is conductive toentrepreneurship.

(iii) **Security** . Several scholars have advocated entrepreneurial security as an important facilitator of entrepreneurial behavior. One regard security to be a significant factor for entrepreneurship development. This is reasonable too because if individuals are fearful of losing their economic assets or being subjected to various negative sanctions, they will not be inclined to increase their security by behaving entrepreneurially.

2.2.1.3 Psychological environment

Many entrepreneurial theorists have propounded theories of entrepreneurship that concentrate specifically upon psychological factors. We consider these theories separately for that reason.

Need Achievement . To the best of our knowledge, the best known of primarily psychological theories is David McClelland's theory of need achievements. According to McClelland, a constellation of personal characteristics comprises enterpreneurship.

2.2.1.4 Governmental Influence

The government by its actions or its failure to act does influence both the economic and non-economic conditions for entrepreneurship. Any interested government in economic development can help, through its clearly expressed industrial policy, promote entrepreneurship in one way or other. By creating basic facilities, utilities and services and by providing incentives and concessions, the government can provide the prospective entrepreneurs a facilitative socio-economic setting. Such conductivity setting minimizes the risks which the entrepreneurs are to encounter in future. Thus, the supportive actions of the government appear to be the most conductive ones to the entrepreneurial growth.

2.2.2 Factors Influencing entrepreneurship

Facilitating factors to the emergence of entrepreneurs:	**Barriers to the emergence of entrepreneurs**
1. Technical knowledge supply 2. Entrepreneurial training facilities 3. Market contact through Govt. 4. Family business 5. Availability of capital from sources 6. Successful role models 7. Cheap manpower 8. Capable advisors and supporters 9. Governmental and institutional	1. Lack of technical skills 2. Lack of proper market 3. Lack of capital 4. Lack of business knowledge 5. Social stigma 6. Time pressures and discussions 7. Legal and bureaucratical constraints on the Govt. part 8. Political instability 9. Non co-operative attitude of banks and other support financial institutions.

Unit 3: Globalisation and Liberalisation –Influence in Indian Business environment

3.1.1 Introduction

Entrepreneurship is a process undertaken by an entrepreneur to augment his business interests. It is an exercise involving innovation and creativity that will go towards establishing his/her enterprise.

One of the qualities of entrepreneurship is the ability to discover an investment opportunity and to organize an enterprise, thereby contributing to real economic growth. It involves taking of risks and making the necessary investments under conditions of uncertainty and innovating, planning, and taking decisions so as to increase production in agriculture, business, industry etc.

Entrepreneurship is a composite skill, the resultant of a mix of many qualities and traits – these include tangible factors as imagination, readiness to take risks, ability to bring together and put to use other factors of production, capital, labour, land, as also intangible factors such as the ability to mobilize scientific and technological advances.

3.1.2 Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship is the propensity of mind to take calculated risks with confidence to achieve a pre-determined business objective. In substance, it is the risk-taking ability of the individual, broadly coupled with correct decision-making. An enterprise, ready for the persuit of business and responsive to profit by wayof producing and/or marketing goods and commodities to meet the expanding and diversifying actual and potential needs and demands of the customers is what constitutes the entrepreneurial stuff. In countries like India, a new species of entrepreneurs is desirable because here the economic progress has to be brought about along with social justice. Entrepreneurship in India therefore, has to sub-serve the national objectives. The apparent conflict between social objectives and economic imperatives has to be resolved first by the individual entrepreneur in his own mind and initiate economic growth which includes business development as one of the instruments of attaining the social objectives. A high sense of social responsibility is thus as essential attribute of the emerging entrepreneurship in India.

Topic 4

Unit 4: Entrepreneurship

4.1.1 Concept of Entrepreneur

Richard Canilton conceived of an entrepreneur as a 'bearer of risk and uncertainty. This definition explains an important characteristic of an entrepreneur.

Webster's dictionary defines an entrepreneur as one who organizes, manages and assumes the risks of a business enterprise. Joseph Schumpeter regarded entrepreneur as an innovator who carries out new combinations to initiate and accelerate the process of economic development. This innovation could occur in the following forms:

(a) Introduction of new goods

(b) Introduction of new methods of production

(c) Opening of a new market.

(d) Conquest of new sources of materials, and

(e) Organization of a unit in a new way.

Peter F. Drucker defines an entrepreneur as one who always searches for change, responds to it and exploits it as an opportunity.

Entrepreneurship can be described as a creative and innovative response to the environment.

4.1.2 Characteristics of Entrepreneurs

David McClelland feels that an entrepreneur is one who is driven by the need for achievement towards accomplishment of tasks that challenge his competence. An Entrepreneur exhibits the following characteristics or traits which clarify the nature of entrepreneurship:

(i) **Innovative ability** . An entrepreneur has a creative ability to search for new opportunities.

(ii) **Desire to accomplish** . The entrepreneur has a strong desire to accomplish.

(iii) **Energetic activity.** The entrepreneur exhibits a high level of energy and spends a large proportion of his time in finding out novel ways of getting done the set task.

(iv) **Risk taking** . The entrepreneur takes moderate risks to achieve his goals.

(v) **Perception of good ideas** . It involves collecting and analyzing facts and thereafter falling upon his own self-confidence for accomplishing the task.

(vi) **Future-oriented** . The entrepreneur plans and thinks for the future. He anticipates possibilities that lie beyond the present.

(vii) **Desire for responsibility** . The entrepreneur is ready to be personally responsible for the results of his decisions.

(viii) **Skill in organizing** . Entrepreneurs have remarkable skill in organizing work and human resources.

(ix) **Flexibility** . Achievement-oriented entrepreneurs are adaptable and flexible to adjust with the changed circumstances.

(x) **Self-confidence** . The entrepreneur has his own individuality and possesses great amount of confidence in himself. This helps in trying out new ideas.

4.1.3 Profile of an Entrepreneur

Characteristics	**Traits**
Self-confidence Result orientation Risk-taking Leadership Originality Future outlook	Independence, Individuality, optimism. Need for achievement, profit-oriented, persistence, perseverance, determination, hard-work, drive, energy, initiative. Risk taking ability, likes challenges. Capacity to lead, gets alongwith others, responsive to suggestions

	and criticism. Innovative, creative, flexible, open-minded, versatile, knowledgeable. Foresighted, perceptive.

Joseph Schumpeter made a distinction between entrepreneur and manager. According to him, a manager is one who deals with day-to-day affairs of a going concern. But an entrepreneur attempts to change the factor combinations and thus increases productivity and profits. An entrepreneur launches a new enterprise whereas a manager operates an existing enterprise. The roles of entrepreneur and manager may, however, overlap in many situations. Entrepreneurs who start enterprises must use managerial skills to implement their innovative ideas successfully. Similarly, managers must use entrepreneurial skills in order to manage change and innovation to effectively deal with uncertain external environment of business.

4.1.4 Importance of Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship is essential for economic development. In capitalist and developed countries, private entrepreneurs have played an important role in their economic development. In socialist countries, the State (or Government) is the entrepreneur. In under developed countries, the government, has to play a vital role in economic development. But in a developing country like India which follows a mixed economy, the role of both the government and the private entrepreneurs is equally important. The role of private entrepreneurs has further increased because of liberal economic policies followed by the Indian Government in the recent years.

1. The entrepreneur is an innovator. He tries to find new technology, products and markets. He increases the productivity of various resources.

2. The entrepreneur stands at the centre of the whole process of economic development. He conceives business ideas and puts them into effect to enhance the process of economic development.

3. Entrepreneur is an agent of progress in the society.

4.1.5 Kinds of entrepreneurs

We can classify entrepreneurs into the following categories:

(i) **Innovating Entrepreneur** . He is one who introduces something new into the economy or employs a new technique of production, opens a new market, exploits a new source of raw material and reorganizes the whole enterprise. Generally, such entrepreneurs are found in developed economies because of open competition and less government controls.

(ii) **Imitating Entrepreneur** . They lap up the innovations brought by innovating entrepreneurs. They are suited to developing countries which are constrained to take up expensive research.

(iii) **Fabian Entrepreneurs** . Such entrepreneurs are very cautious and skeptical in adopting and implementing any change. They are lazy and shy and lack the will to adopt new methods.

(iv) **Drone Entrepreneurs** . Drone entrepreneurship is characterized by a refusal to adopt and use opportunities to make changes in production. They are laggards as they continue to operate in their traditional way and resist changes.

4.1.6 Role and Functions of an Entrepreneur

The various roles performed by an entrepreneur are as under:

1. **Innovation** . An entrepreneur is basically an innovator who tries to develop new technology, products and markets. It may involve introduction of new techniques, introduction of new goods and services, developing a new market, etc.

2. **Bearer of Risks and Uncertainty** . An entrepreneur assumes business risks and is prepared for the losses that may arise because of unforeseen contingencies in future.

3. **Promoter.** They conceive the business idea, conduct feasibility studies, take steps to get the company registered and raise capital for the company from the public and other sources.

4. **Supplier of Capital** . Entrepreneurs supply initial capital to the business and undertake business risks. Technocrat entrepreneurs approach financial institutions to raise 'risk capital' for their ventures or enter into partnership with those who can contribute capital to the business.

5. **Management** . As a manager, the entrepreneur plans, organizes, directs and controls the activities of the business. He leads the workers, coordinates their operations and motivates them for higher productivity.

4.1.7 Qualities of a Successful Entrepreneur

An entrepreneur is supposed to possess the following qualities:

1. Wide knowledge
2. Foresight.
3. Open Mind .
4. Adaptability.
5. Business Morality and Social Responsibility
6. Dependability
7. Innovative Attitude
8. Self-Confidence
9. Business Connections and Goodwill
10. Leadership Qualities .

11. 4.1.8 Circumstances Favouring Entrepreneurship

The growth of entrepreneurs requires the presence of a number of factors and some of which are as follows:

(i) **Independent way of life** . Entrepreneur likes to earn his livelihood independently instead of working as an employee of the Government or of a private enterprise.

(ii) **Achievement orientation** . Such a person is ambitious and hard-working and wants to prosper quickly.

(iii) **Implementation of ideas.** A person may become an entrepreneur to put his plan for a product into practice.

(iv) **Insecurity of job.** A person may become an entrepreneur because he does not feel secure in his present job or he may believe that his employer is likely to wind up his business.

(v) **Family business** . If a young graduate or diploma-holder has the background of a business family, he may think of setting up his business after training.

(vi) **Government encouragement** . A person may decide to start a new enterprise if he feels that the infrastructural facilities and financial assistance provided by the state are more favourable.

(vii) **Risk-Taking** . The risk-taking spirit of a man often influences him to become an entrepreneur.

Topic 5

Unit 5: Managing an enterprise – Motivation and entrepreneurship development

5.1.1 Introduction

Motivation is the driving force by which humans achieve their goals. Motivation is said to be intrinsic or extrinsic . The term is generally used for humans but it can also be used to describe the causes for animal behavior as well.. According to various theories, motivation may be rooted in a basic need to minimize physical pain and maximize pleasure, or it may include specific needs such as eating and resting, or a desired object, goal , state of being, ideal , or it may be attributed to less-apparent reasons such as altruism , selfishness , morality , or avoiding mortality .

5.1.2 Definition of Motivation

Motivation has been defined as

1. A desire or need which directs and energizes behavior that is oriented towards a goal.

2. The influence of the needs and desires on the intensity of behavior and direction it will follow.

3. The arousal, direction, as well as persistence of one's behavior.

According to the various definitions there are varied sources of motivation,

such as

1) **Behavioral :** This is either to obtain desirable and pleasant consequences or to avoid undesirable and unpleasant consequences
2) **Social :** This is related to the need to be a part of a group
3) **Biological :** This is related to the need to fulfill all biological needs such as hunger, thirst, satisfying the senses, etc.
4) **Cognitive :** This is to satisfy the various intellectual needs
5) **Affective :** This relates to the emotional needs
6) **Conative :** This pertains to achieving personal goals and do away with any threats that come in the way of achieving goals
7) **Spiritual :** This relates to the goal of self-realization

5.1.3 Motivation concepts

Intrinsic motivation

Intrinsic motivation refers to motivation that is driven by an interest or enjoyment in the task itself, and exists within the individual rather than relying on any external pressure. Intrinsic motivation has been studied by social and educational psychologists since the early 1970s. Research has found that it is usually associated with high educational achievement and enjoyment by students evaluation theory. Students are likely to be intrinsically motivated if they:

· Attribute their educational results to factors under their own control (e.g., the effort expended),

· Believe that they can be effective agents in reaching desired goals (i.e. the results are not determined by luck),

· Are interested in mastering a topic, rather than just rote-learning to achieve good grades.

Intrinsic motivation and the 16 basic desires theory

Starting from studies involving more than 6,000 people, Professor Steven Reiss has proposed a theory that find 16 basic desires that guide nearly all human behavior. The 16 basic desires that motivate our actions and define our personalities as:

1. Acceptance
2. Curiosity
3. Eating
4. Family
5. Honor
6. Idealism
7. Independence
8. Order
9. Physical activity
10. Power
11. Romance
12. Saving
13. Social contact
14. Status

15. Tranquility
16. Vengeance

In this model, people differ in these basic desires. These basic desires represent intrinsic desires that directly motivate a person's behavior, and not aimed at indirectly satisfying other desires. People may also be motivated by non-basic desires, but in this case this does not relate to deep motivation, or only as a means to achieve other basic desires.

Extrinsic motivation

Extrinsic motivation comes from outside of the individual. Common extrinsic motivations are rewards like money and grades, coercion and threat of punishment. Competition is, in general, extrinsic because it encourages the performer to win and beat others, not to enjoy the intrinsic rewards of the activity. A crowd cheering on the individual and trophies are also extrinsic incentives.

5.1.4 Categories of Motivation

The motivation is categorized into three. They are

(i) Security.

(ii) Achievement

(iii) Social Recognition.

5.1.4.1 Security

A person who is motivated by security strives to build a safe and secure life for themselves and their families. If security is your prime motivation, then to Be Master of Your Life means building a solid foundation to which you can anchor each aspect of your life.

When you join an organisation it is because it provides support, and shares risk. Morals, duty, intellect, creativity, philanthropy, and honor are important to you. Security Motivated people are fixers. They fix the problems, and prevent crisis.

5.1.4.2 Achievement

A person who is achievement oriented, is motivated to do things for their own sake. If achievement is your prime motivation, then 'To Be Master of Your Life' means innovating, experiencing, climbing to the top. When you join an organisation it is because it provides a vehicle for advancement, supplies goals to be met. For you, accomplishment is important for its own shake rather than for the rewards that accompany it. Skill, ability, innovation and know-how are important to you. Achievers are seekers.

5.1.4.3. Social Recognition

A person who seeks social recognition is motivated by the need to be recognized, to look good. If social recognition is your prime motivation, then 'To Be Master of Your Life' means standing out from the crowd, to be looked up to.You are constantly striving to succeed for the recognition which goes with success. When you join a group it is to rise to prominence within the group. Respect, admiration, regard, esteem, notoriety and celebrity are all important to you. These people like to be seen as leaders.

5.1.5 Types of motivation

There are two types of motivation, Intrinsic and Extrinsic motivation. It's important to understand that we are not all the same; thus effectively motivating your employees requires that you gain an understanding of the different types of motivation. Such an understanding will enable you to better categorize your team members and apply the appropriate type of motivation. You will find each member different and each member's motivational needs will be varied as well. Some people respond best to intrinsic which means "from within" and will meet any obligation of an area of their passion. Quite the reverse, others will respond better to extrinsic motivation which, in their world, provides that difficult tasks can be dealt with provided there is a reward upon completion of that task. Become an expert in determining which type will work best with which team members.

Based on the drive of the individual, motivation could be classified into the following types:

(i) Achievement motivation

(ii) Affiliation motivation

(iii) Competence motivation

(iv) Power motivation

(v) Attitude motivation

(vi) Incentive motivation

(vii) Fear motivation

5.1.5.1 Achievement Motivation

It is the drive to pursue and attain goals. An individual with achievement motivation wishes to achieve objectives and advance up on the ladder of success. Here, accomplishment is important for its own shake and not for the rewards that accompany it. It is similar to 'Kaizen' approach of Japanese Management.

5.1.5.2 Affiliation Motivation

It is a drive that relate people on a social basis. Persons with affiliation motivation perform work better when they are complimented for their favorable attitudes and co-operation.

5.1.5.3 Competence Motivation

It is the drive to be good at something, allowing the individual to perform high quality work. Competence motivated people seek job mastery, take pride in developing and using their problem-solving skills and strive to be creative when confronted with obstacles. They learn from their experience.

5.1.5.4 Power Motivation

It is the drive to influence people and change situations. Power motivated people wish to create an impact on their organization and are willing to take risks to do so.

5.1.5.5 Attitude Motivation

Attitude motivation is how people think and feel. It is their self confidence, their belief in themselves, their attitude to life. It is how they feel about the future and how they react to the past.

5.1.5.6 Incentive Motivation

It is where a person or a team reaps a reward from an activity. It is "You do this and you get that", attitude. It is the types of awards and prizes that drive people to work a little harder.

5.1.5.7 Fear Motivation

Fear motivation coercions a person to act against will. It is instantaneous and gets the job done quickly. It is helpful in the short run.

Motivation is a very important for an organization because of the following benefits it provides:-

(i) Puts human resources into action

(ii) Improves level of efficiency of employees

(iii) Leads to achievement of organizational goals

(iv) Builds friendly relationship

(v) Leads to stability of work force

5.1.6 Motivation is important to an individual as

(i) Motivation will help him/her achieve his/her personal goals.

(ii) If an individual is motivated, he/she will have job satisfaction.

(iii) Motivation will help in self-development of individual.

An individual would always gain by working with a dynamic team.

Motivation is important to a business as:

(i) The more motivated the employees are, the more empowered the team is.

(ii) The more is the team work and individual employee contribution, more profitable and successful is the business.

(iii) During period of amendments, there will be more adaptability and creativity.

(iv) Motivation will lead to an optimistic and challenging attitude at work place.

Topic 6

Unit 6: Entrepreneurs Development Programmes (EDPs) and SWOT Analysis

6.1.1 Introduction

Planning means looking ahead and chalking out future courses of action to be followed. It is a preparatory step. It is a systematic activity which determines when, how and who is going to perform a specific job. Planning is a detailed programme regarding future courses of action. It is rightly said "Well planed is half done". Therefore, planning takes into consideration available and prospective human and physical resources of the organization so as to get effective co-ordination, contribution and perfect adjustment. It is the basic management function which includes formulation of one or more detailed plans to achieve optimum balance of needs or demands with the available resources.

6.1.2 Definition

According to Urwick, 'Planning is a mental predisposition to do things in orderly way, to think before acting and to act in the light of facts rather than guesses'. Planning is deciding best alternative among others to perform different managerial functions in order to achieve predetermined goals.

According to Koontz & O'Donell, 'Planning is deciding in advance what to do, how to do and who is to do it. Planning bridges the gap between where we are to, where we want to go. It makes possible things to occur which would not otherwise occur'.

6.1.3 Importance of Planning

Good planning is good stewardship. Success in any endeavor requires careful preparation and planning. Without proper planning and preparation, failure is almost guaranteed. Good planning conserves resources, prevents wasted effort, and saves time and money. Good planning prevents small problems from becoming big problems.

The importance of planning function can be summarized as follows:

(i) It provides direction

(ii) It Provides opportunity to analyze alternative courses of action

(iii) It reduces uncertainties

(iv) It Minimizes impulsive and arbitrary decisions

6.1.4 Characteristics of Planning

1. Planning is goal-oriented

2. Planning is looking ahead

3. Planning is an intellectual process

4. Planning involves choice & decision making

5. Planning is the primary function of management / Primacy of Planning

6. Planning is a Continuous Process

7. Planning is all Pervasive

8. Planning is designed for efficiency

9. Planning is Flexible

6.1.5 Steps in Planning Function

Planning function of management involves following steps:-

1. Establishment of Objectives

2. Establishment of Planning Premises

3. choice of alternative course of action

4. formulation of derivative plans

5.Securing co-operation

6. Follow up/appraisal of plans

6.1.5.1. Establishment of Objectives

1. Planning requires a systematic approach.
2. Planning starts with the setting of goals and objectives to be achieved.
3. Objectives provide a rationale for undertaking various activities as well as indicate direction of efforts.
4. Moreover objectives focus the attention of managers on the end results to be achieved.
5. As a matter of fact, objectives provide nucleus to the planning process. Therefore, objectives should be stated in a clear, precise and unambiguous language. Otherwise the activities undertaken are bound to be ineffective.
6. As far as possible, objectives should be stated in quantitative terms. For example, number of men working, wages given, units produced, etc. But certain objectives cannot be stated in quantitative terms like performance of quality control manager, effectiveness of personnel manager, etc.Such goals should be specified in qualitative terms.
7. Hence objectives should be practical, acceptable, workable and achievable.

6.1.5.2. Establishment of Planning Premises

1. Planning premises are the assumptions about the lively shape of events in future.
2. They serve as a basis of planning.
3. Establishment of planning premises is concerned with determining where one tends to deviate from the actual plans and causes of such deviations.
4. It is to find out what obstacles are there in the way of business during the course of operations.

5. Establishment of planning premises is concerned to take such steps that avoids these obstacles to a great extent.
6. Planning premises may be internal or external. Internal includes capital investment policy, management of labour relations, philosophy of management, etc. whereas external includes socio-economic, political and economical changes.
7. Internal premises are controllable whereas external are non-controllable.

6.1.5.3.Choice of Alternative Course of Action

1. When forecast are available and premises are established, a number of alternative course of actions have to be considered.
2. For this purpose, each and every alternative will be evaluated by weighing its pros and cons in the light of resources available and requirements of the organization.
3. The merits, demerits as well as the consequences of each alternative must be examined before the choice is being made.
4. After objective and scientific evaluation, the best alternative is chosen.
5. The planners should take help of various quantitative techniques to judge the stability of an alternative.

6.1.5.4. Formulation of Derivative Plans

1. Derivative plans are the sub plans or secondary plans which help in the achievement of main plan.
2. Secondary plans will flow from the basic plan. These are meant to support and expediate the achievement of basic plans.
3. These detail plans include policies, procedures, rules, programmes, budgets, schedules, etc. For example, if profit maximization is the main aim of the enterprise, derivative plans will include sales maximization, production maximization, and cost minimization.
4. Derivative plans indicate time schedule and sequence of accomplishing various tasks.

6.1.5.5. Securing Co-operation

1. After the plans have been determined, it is necessary, rather advisable, to take subordinates or those who have to implement these plans into confidence.

2. The purposes behind taking them into confidence are that :-

(i) Subordinates may feel motivated since they are involved in decision making process.

(ii) The organization may be able to get valuable suggestions and improvement in formulation as well as implementation of plans.

(iii) Also the employees will be more interested in the execution of these plans.

6.1.5.6. Follow up/Appraisal of plans

1. After choosing a particular course of action, it is put into action.
2. After the selected plan is implemented, it is important to appraise its effectiveness.
3. This is done on the basis of feedback or information received from departments or persons concerned.
4. This enables the management to correct deviations or modify the plan.
5. This step establishes a link between planning and controlling function.
6. The follow up must go side by side the implementation of plans so that in the light of observations made, future plans can be made more realistic.

2. 6.1.6 Advantages of Planning

(i) Planning facilitates management by objectives.

(ii) Planning minimizes uncertainties.

(iii) Planning facilitates co-ordination.

(iv) Planning improves employee’s moral.

(v) Planning helps in achieving economies.

(vi) Planning facilitates controlling.

(vii) Planning provides competitive edge.

(viii) Planning encourages innovations.

6.2.1 Need for EDPs

- Entrepreneurs are the persons with a vision, with the urge to achieve and with the abilities and competencies to bear the risks and achievements.
- EDPs play a vital role so that the entrepreneurs are motivated and develop entrepreneurial skills to achieve the set goals.
- EDPs are essential for the country's development in which the entrepreneurs use the factors of production and generate employment opportunities.
- EDPs play a critical role in solving the problem of unemployment and involed in proverty alleviation of the citizens of a country.

6.2.2 Objectives of EDPs

The important objectives of the entrepreneurship programmes are developing and strengthening the following qualities among the entrepreneurs.

(i) Analysing environmental set up as to small business and industry.

(ii) Selecting project.

(iii) Formulating the project.

(iv) Understanding the process and procedures of setting up of a small enterprise.

(v) Knowing the sources of assistance available for managing an enterprise.

(vi) Acquiring the necessary managerial skills for managing an enterprise.

(vii) Knowing the *pros* and *cons* of being an entrepreneur.

(viii) Acquainting the required entrepreneurial disciplines.

(ix) Identifying and training potentital entrepreneurs.

(x) Providing post-trading assistance.

(xi) Accelerating business development.

(xii) Solving unemployment problem.

6.2.3 Components of EDP

There are six major components of a typical EDP. They are:

(i) Introduction to entrepreneurship.

(ii) Motivating entrepreneurs.

(iii) Imparting managerial skills.

(iv) Exposure to support systems and procedures.

(v) Guidance to conduct feasibility studies.

(vi) Taking for field visits.

6.2.3.1.Introduction to entrepreneurship

This is the first in Entrepreneurial Development Programme where the trainees are introduced to the fundamentals of entrepreneurship, role of entrepreneurs in the economic development of a nation, qualities of an entrepreneur, facilities available for establishing small enterprises etc.

6.2.3.2.Motivating entrepreneurs

The next step is taking initiative to motivate them towards entrepreneurship. Efforts are taken to inject confidence and positive attitude among the participants towards business. It aims at strengthening achievements need, self-awareness, confidence building, creativity etc.

6.2.3.3.Imparting managerial skills

Managerial skills are a must for running an enterprise, it imparts basic and necessary managerial skills in various functional areas of management like finance, production, marketing, human resource management etc.

6.2.3.4.Exposure to support systems and procedures

The next step is making the participants aware of the various policies and procedures formulated by the government, various industrial service agencies, financial institutions etc., which aid in setting up and running enterprises in the country.

6.2.3.5.Guidance to conduct feasibility studies

Knowledge about conducting of feasibility study is a must for the trainees. They are guided as to how to conduct it in an effective manner in areas such as marketing, organization, technical, financial, social, legal, locational and commercial viability of the project.

6.2.3.6.Taking for field visits

Trainees are taken to industries to familiarize them with real-life situation of the entrepreneurs in small business. It gives them first-hand knowledge and exposure to the participants regarding the problems as well as the prospects of an industrial concern. Sometimes, successful entrepreneurs are invited to speak on their experiences during the course of EDP, which enable the trainees to have an idea about the entrepreneurship.

6.2.4 Phases of EDP

An EDP possesses the following three phases:

(i) Pre-training phase.

(ii) Training phase.

(iii) Post-training phase i.e. Follow-up phase.

6.2.4.1 Pre-training Phase

Pre-training phase refers to the activities and preparatory work made before the actual conduct of training. In this phase, actual preparations are made for launching the programme. It involves the following activities:

(i) Selection of area.

(ii) Selection of course coordinator.

(iii) Arrangement of infrastructure.

(iv) Conducting the market survey to identify good business opportunities.

(v) Formulating the programme which includes training programme organization, trainer selection and training syllabus finalisation etc.

(vi) Getting support from various agencies such as DICs, SFCs, SISI etc.

6.2.4.2 Training Phase

It involves three phases in it, which are as follows:

1. Raising motivational level i.e. Confidence building.

The entrepreneurial training programme are normally designed so as to raise their motivation to a higher level. Each session in the training programme should aim at strengthening their confidence and expanding their vision. Motivational level must be raised to a greater extent because only motivated participants will take efforts to start a venture.

2. Improvement of Managerial talents.

They must be made to understand the basic principles of management and to realise the benefits and significance of the management functions likeplanning, organizing, staffing, directing, controlling and coordinating. The various techniques involved in the management process must be explained.

3. Developing the Technical Competence

The technical competence suitable to the product selected should be developed in the participants. For this purpose, many details are required to be given to participants. Such as details of technology,plant and machinery and its cost, the name of suppliers, its life-span, special features of the machinery etc.,raw materials and their availability, special characteristics and the like, manufacturing process and requirement of labour

6.2.4.3 Post-training Phase (Follow up phase)

In this phase, assessment as to how far the objectives of the programme have been achieved has been made. It indicates past performance, drawbacks if any in the past work and suggest guidelines for formulating future policies.

This phase comprises the following steps:

(i) Registration of the enterprise.

(ii) Arranging finance for starting the unit.

(iii) Guidance with respect to purchase of plant and machinery.

(iv) Providing land, shed, power connection etc. for establishing the project.

(v) Obtaining of licences for scarce raw materials.

(vi) Granting incentives such as capital investment subsidy, interest subsidy, tax relief etc.

(vii) Assistance by way of management consultancy.

(viii) Setting up marketing facilities.

(ix) Providing up-to-date information on the industry.

6.2.5 Criteria for Evaluating EDPs

The behaviourial scientists used the following criteria to assess the effectiveness of EDPs in motivating the entrepreneurs:

(i) Activity level of the respondents.

(ii) New enterprise creation.

(iii) Employment generation in quantifiable terms.

(iv) Creation of job opportunities both directly and indirectly.

(v) Increase in sales and profit.

(vi) Enterprise expansion.

(vii) Enterprise transformation.

(viii) Improvement in quality of products or services.

(ix) Repayment of loans.

(x) Total investments made.

(xi) Investments in fixed assets made.

(xii) Number of people employed.

6.2.6 Role of government in organising EDP

EDPs are otherwise known as the Human Resource Development Programmes. They deal basically with human motivation, skills, competencies, creativity, social and economic risks and investment of financial and physical resources of the state. Therefore, the role of government in organizing EDPs is considered significant in a country like India. It requires the conversion of surplus labour force into real entrepreneurs to tackle the problems of unemployment and poverty by means of the EDP mechanism. For organizing EDPs on sustained manner, the Union and State governments have undertaken the following activities.

6.2.6.1 Establishment of Specialised Institutions at National Level

The following specialized EDP organizations have been set up by the Government of India to promote entrepreneurship in the country.

(i) National Institute for Entrepreneurship and small Business Development (NIESBUD)

It is an Apex organization for organizing and conducting EDP under the Ministry of Industry, Government of India. It is located at Noida (UP).

(ii) Small Industries Service Institutes (SISIs)

It is set up by Government of India. It is having its network of branches in many states in India.

(iii) National Institute for Small Industry Extension and Training (NISIET)

NISIET is established in 1960, under Ministry of Small Scale Industries, Government of India. It is located at Yousufguda, Hyderabad. The Institute strives to achieve its objectives through a gamut of operations ranging from training, consultancy, research and education, to extension and information services.

(iv) Entrepreneurship Development Institute of India (EDI)

The Entrepreneurship Development Institute of India (EDI), an autonomous body and not-for-profit institution, set up in 1983, is sponsored by apex financial institutions, namely the Industrial Development Bank of India (IDBI), the Industrial Finance Corporation of India (IFCI), the Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation of India (ICICI) and State Bank of India (SBI).

(v) National Science and Technology Entrepreneurship Development Board (NSTEDB)

In order to focus on special target groups like science and technology personnels, the Union Government has established the NSTEDB, operating under the Department of Science and Technology, Government of India.

(vi) IEDs and CEDs in different states of India

Various IEDs and CEDs have been set up in different parts of India. The objective of these specialized institutions is to equip the ordinary person with basics of entrepreneurial and managerial skills in order to enable him to be an effective entrepreneur.

(vii) The Indian Institute of Entrepreneurship (IIE)

The Indian Institute of Entrepreneurship (IIE) was established in 1993 by the Ministry of Industry, Government of India with its headquarters at Guwahati to undertake training, research and consultancy activities in the field of small industry and entrepreneurship.

6.2.6.2 Establishment of District Industries Centres (DICs)

District Industries Centres have been established in every district of almost all the states of India. It focuses primarily on entrepreneurship awareness programmes and tiny and small-scale sector projects.

6.2.6.3 Institutional Support System for entrepreneurial development

Small scale enterprises are important for generation of employment, utilization of available resources, creation of infrastructure facilities and acceleration of economic development. Some of the provinent organization providing institutional support system for entrepreneurial development in our country are:

(i) Small Industries Development Organisation (SIDO).

(ii) National Small Industries Corporation Ltd. (NSIC).

(iii) State Small Scale Industries Development Corporations (SSIDCs).

(iv) Small Scale Industries Board (SSIB).

(v) India Investment Centre (IIC).

(vi) Small Industries Service Institutes(SISIs)

(vii) District Industries Centres (DICs).

(viii) Industrial Estates.

6.2.6.4 Specialised Support Institutions for EDP promotion

(i) National Institute for Entrepreneurship and Small Business Development (NIESBUD), New Delhi.

(ii) Central Institute of Tool Design (CITD), Hyderabad.

(iii) Central Tool Room and training Centres (CTTC).

(iv) Central Institute of Hand Tools (CIHT).

(v) Institute for Design of Electrical Measuring Instruments (IDEM), Mumbai.

(vi) National Institute of Small Industries and Extension Training (NIDIET), Hyderabad.

(vii) Technical Consultancy Organisations (TCOs).

(viii) Institutes of Entrepreneurship Development (IEDs) and Centres for Entrepreneurship Development (CEDs).

(ix) Central Silk Board.

(x) The Coir Board.

(xi) Entrepreneurship Development Institute of India (EDI), Ahmedabad.

(xii) Rural Development and Self –Employment Training Institute (RUDSET).

(xiii) Integrated Training Centre, Nilokheri.

6.2.6.5. Financial Institutions for sponsoring EDPs

(i) Industrial Development Bank of India (IDBI).

(ii) Industrial Finance Corporation of India Ltd. (IFCI).

(iii) Industrial credit and Investment Corporation of India Ltd. (ICICI).

(iv) Life Insurance Corporation of India (LIC).

(v) Unit Trust of India (UTI).

(vi) Small Industries Development Bank of India (SIDBI).

(vii) Industrial Reconstruction Bank of India (SIDBI).

(viii) State Financial Corporations (SFCs).

(ix) National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD).

(x) Export-Import Bank of India (EXIM Bank).

(xi) Regional Rural Banks (RRBs).

(xii) National Industrial Development Corporation Ltd. (NIDC).

(xiii) Commercial Banks.

(xiv) Khadi and Village Industries Commission (KVIC).

Chapter 3:Swot analysis and Swot matrix

6.3.1 SWOT analysis

A comprehensive study of the internal and external environment is an important part of the strategic planning process. Environmental factors internal to the firm usually can be classified as strengths (S) or weaknesses (W), and those external to the firm can be classified as opportunities (O) or threats (T). Such an analysis of the strategic environment is referred to as a **SWOT analysis.**

6.3.1.1 Strengths

A firm's strengths are its resources and capabilities that can be used as a basis for developing a competitive advantage. Examples of such strengths include:

- Brand name

- Good reputation among customers

- Cost advantage

- Competitive quality

- Accessibility to distribution networks.

6.3.1.2 Weaknesses

The absence of certain strengths may be viewed as a weakness. For example, each of the following may be considered weaknesses:

- Unpopular brand

- Poor reputation among customers.

- High cost

- Lack of access to distribution network.

6.3.1.3 Opportunities

The external environmental analysis may reveal certain new opportunities for profit and growth. Some examples of such opportunities include:

- An unfulfilled customer need

- Arrival of new technologies

- Loosening of regulations

- Removal of international trade barriers

6.3.1.4 Threats

Changes in the external environmental also may present threats to the firm. Some examples of such threats include:

- Shifts in customer tastes away from the firm's products

- Emergence of substitute products

- New regulations

- Increased trade barriers

6.3.2 SWOT Matrix

To develop strategies that take into account the SWOT profile, a matrix of these factors can be constructed. The SWOT matrix is shown below.

	Strengths	**Weaknesses**
Opportunities	S-O strategies	W-O strategies
Threats	S-T strategies	W-T strategies

S-O strategies pursue opportunities that are a good fit to the company's strengths.

W-O strategies overcome weaknesses to pursue opportunities.

S-T strategies identify ways that the firm can use its strengths to reduce its vulnerability to external threats.

W-T strategies establish a defensive plan to prevent the firm's weaknesses from making it highly susceptible to external threats.

Unit 7:Government Schemes and Incentives for Promotion of Entrepreneurship

- **Chapter 1: Government schemes and incentives for promotion of entrepreneurship**

• 7.1.1 Government schemes and incentives for promotion of entrepreneurship

The various important incentives and subsidies available to the small scale industrial units are listed below:

• 7.1.1.1.Capital Investment Subsidy Scheme Offered by Central Government

One of the policy measures designed for the development of backward areas is provision of capital investment subsidy. Under this scheme , a subsidy will be granted on the capital investment. A grant of 10% of the capital invested in industrial units is available in the areas notified y the Central and State Governments.

• 7.1.1.2.Sales Tax Exemptions

New small scale units located in places outside some specified distance from the cities, are eligible to get sales tax concessions and exemption. Interest Free Sales Tax Loan is given for the first five years of commencement of production, which is recoverable in 3 equal annual instalments from 6^{th} year onwards.

Some products like life saving drugs and essential chemicals are exempted from sales tax. In order to boost small scale sector, the Government has reduced sales tax on different items, as package of incentive.

• 7.1.1.3.Provision of Seed Capital

The financial institutions provide a sum towards marginal money to obtain loan. The initial capital helps the poor but deserving entrepreneurs to enter into business and industry.

7.1.1.4.Provision of Concessional Power and Water

New units started in the notified backward areas are eligible to get power as well as water at concessional rates in order to have uninterrupted production.

7.1.1.5.Purchase of raw materials

Scarce raw materials like iron & steel, coke, match wax, potassium chloride, caustic soda, fatty acids etc. are produced and supplied to SSI Units.

7.1.1.6.Allotment of Industrial Sheds

Work shed is the basic infrastructure required for an industry. The Government allots work sheds to the entrepreneurs. At present, in our country, there are mainly two agencies offering this facility to the entrepreneurs. They are:

(i) Directorate of Industry and Commerce.

(ii) Small Industries Development Corporation (SIDCO).

7.1.1.7.Export Incentives and Subsidies

With a view to boost the export market and earn foreign exchange, the Government is granting subsidies to the units exporting goods.

7.1.1.8.Subsidy for Power Generators

In many states, the industrial units suffer from power shortages, power shedding and fluctuation problems. Hence, the government is giving loans to purchase **"Generators"** to solve the power problems. The entrepreneurs can obtain this subsidy on easy terms and install a generator in their units.

7.1.1.9.Special Incentives to Women Entrepreneurs

Special incentives are offered to Women entrepreneurs who would like to join in the manufacturing line. Government agencies as well as private voluntary agencies also do provide various assistances including vocational training to women.

- **7.1.1.10.Exemption from Stamp Duty**

Government example the entrepreneurs from paying stamp duty for the registration of plots allotted to them by the State-owned financial institutions.

- **7.1.1.11. Special Concessions to Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe Entrepreneurs**

As per current provisions, SC/ST entrepreneurs need not pay 25% of the margin money requirements. They have to pay just 10% as margin money for availing the financial assistance. There is also reduction in the rate of interest to the extent of 1.5% provided the units are started in the notified backward areas.

- **7.1.1.12.Preferential Purchase from SSI Units**

The Government of India had reserved more than 900 items for the exclusive production of SSI units in accordance with Industrial Policy Resolutions. In the interest of growth of small scale units, Government departments make preferential purchases from this sector. The SSI units are also given price preference up to a maximum of 15% in the case of items purchase from both small and large scale units.

Chapter 2: Government policy on Small and Medium Enterprises

7.2.1.Definition of Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises in India

There exists several definitions of the term small and medium enterprises (SMEs), varying from country to country and varying between the sources reporting SME statistics . The commonly used criteria at the international level to define SMEs are the number of employees , total net assets, sales and investment level . If employment is the criterion to define, then there exists variation in defining the upper and lower size limit of a SME .

The European Union makes a general distinction between self-employment, micro, small and medium sized businesses based on the number of employees:

0 Self-employed

2 - 9 Micro business

10- 4 9 Small business

50-249 Medium - size business

In the Indian context, micro, small and medium enterprises as per the MSME Development Act , 2006 are defined based on their investment in plant and machinery (for manufacturing enterprise) and on equipments for enterprises providing or rendering services. According to this a micro enterprise is where the investment in plant and machinery does not exceed twenty five lakh rupees. A medium enterprise is where the investment in plant and machinery is more than five crore rupees but does not exceed ten crore rupees. A small enterprise is where the investment in plant and machinery is more than twenty five lakh rupees but does not exceed five crore rupees .

In the case of the enterprises engaged in providing or rendering of services,

(a) a micro enterprise is where the investment in equipment does not exceed ten lakh rupees .

(b) a small enterprise is where the investment in equipment is more than ten lakh rupees but does not exceed two crore rupees .

(c) a medium enterprise is where the investment in equipment is more than two crore rupees but does not exceed five crore rupees.

Before going further, it is important to mention some of the organisations that are associated with small-scale industry/ MSMEs :

(i) Small Industries Development Organisation (SIDO),

(ii) Small Scale Industries Board (SSIB),

(iii) National Small Industries Corporation Ltd. (NSIC),

(iv) Confederation of Indian Industry (CII),

(v) Federation of Indian Chamber of Commerce and Industry (FICCI),

(vi) PHD Chamber of Commerce and Industry (PHDCCI),

(vii) Associated Chamber of Commerce and Industry of India (ASSOCHAM),

(viii) Federation of Indian Exporters Organisation (FIEO),

(ix) World Association for Small and Medium Enterprises (WASME),

(x) Federation of Associations of Small Industries of India (FASII),

(xi) Consortium of Women Entrepreneurs of India (eWEI) ,

(xii) Laghu Udyog Bharti (LUB),

(xiii) Indian Council of Small Industries (ICSI),

(xiv) Indian Institute of Entrepreneurship (IiE),

(xv) National Institute of Small-Industry Extension Training(NISIET),

(xvi) National Backward Caste Finance Development Corporation,

(xvii) National Institute for Entrepreneurship and Small Business Development (NIESBUD),

(xviii) Small Entrepreneurs Promotion and Training Institute (SEPTI),

(xix) Small Industries Development Bank of India (SIDBI) etc .

India went for rapid industrilisation during the II and III Five Year Plans, which was capital intensive in nature and thus could not solve the problem of unemployment . Moreover, it created regional disparity in development outcomes. The Karve Committee Report (1955) was one of the earlies to the exercises, which recommended a protective environment for the growth of small industries in India. Reservation of items for exclusive manufacture in SSI sector statutorily provided for the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951, has been one of the important policy measures for promoting this sector.

After the liberalisation of the economy, government 's attitude towards the MSME sector changed and many of the products exclusively manufactured by these units earlier, got dereserved. No more the MSME sector continued to be treated as 'infant industry '. Presently , only 21 items are reserved for exclusive manufacturing in the MSE sector. These include bread, pickles, wooden furniture, wax candles , exercise books and registers, safety matches, incense sticks , fireworks, and stainless steel and aluminium utensils. The phased deletion of products from the list of items reserved for the exclusive manufacture by micro and small enterprises is being continued. In October 2008, the government deleted 14 items from this list .

The MSME sector today faces competitive environment owing to:

(a) liberalisation of the investment regime during the 1990s, favouring foreign direct investment (FDI);

(b) the formation of the World Trade Organisation (WTO) in 1995, forcing its member-countries (including India) to drastically scale down quantitative and non-quantitative restrictions on imports, and

(c) domestic economic reforms.

The MSME Development Act 2006, came into being with effect from 2nd October, 2006, subsequent to which, both the Central and State Governments took effective measures towards implementation of the Act. In order to increase the competitive edge of the MSME s *vis - a -vis* the multinational corporations (MNCs), the Government of India announced the National Manufacturing Competitive ness Programme (NMCP) during 2005-06. One of the objectives of NMCP is to ensure healthy growth of the MSME sector. Under this Programme, five components have been made operational, which include quality management systems and quality technology tools, building awareness on intellectual property rights, support for entrepreneurial and managerial development through incubators, setting up of new mini tool rooms and marketing assistance/ support to MSEs .

An important component of the NMCP is " Building Awareness on Intellectual Property Rights (IPRs)" for the MSMEs. The objective here is to create and enhance awareness about Intellectual Property Rights (IPRs) among the MSME units so as to enable them to take appropriate measures for protecting their ideas and business strategies and also avoiding infringement of the intellectual property belonging to others. This has been deemed important since India is a signatory of the Trade related Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPs) under the World Trade Organisation (WTO) pact .

7.2.2.Policies and incentives

The Ministry of Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises is the nodal nistry for formulation of policies, programmes and schemes, their implementation and related co-ordination, for the promotion and development of small scale industries in India. The role of the Ministry is to assist the States in their efforts for the growth of the small scale sector, by enhancing their competitiveness in an increasingly liberalised economy. It is assisted by an attached office and two public sector enterprise, namely:-

7.2.2.1 Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises Development Organisation (MSME-DO)

The Office of the Development Commissioner (Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises) is also known as Micro, small and Medium Enterprises-Development Organisation (MSME-DO**).** It is the apex body for assisting the Government in formulating, coordinating, implementing and monitoring policies and programmes for micro, small and medium enterprises (MSMEs) in the country. MSME-DO provides a comprehensive range of common facilities, technology support services, marketing assistance, entrepreneurial development support, etc.

7.2.2.2 National Small Industries Corporation Ltd (NSIC)

It was established by the Government with a view to promoting, aiding and fostering the growth of micro, small and medium enterprises in the country, with a focus on commercial aspect of their operations. It implements several schemes to help the MSMEs in the areas of raw material procurement, product marketing, credit rating, acquisition of technologies, adoption of improved management practices, etc. .

7.2.2.3. Khadi and Village Industries Commission (KVIC)

It is established under the Khadi and Village Industries Commission Act, 1956, as a statutory organization engaged in promotion and development of Khadi and Village Industries for providing employment opportunities in the rural areas.

7.2.2.4. Coir Board

It is a statutory body, established under the coir Industry Act, 1953, for the promotion and development of coir industry in India as well as for uplifting the living conditions of the workers engaged in this industry.

Also, a National commission on Enterprises in the Unorganised Sector (NCEUS) has been set up for addressing the wide range of issues affecting the productive potential of the unorganized micro and small productive units.

7.2.3.MSMED Act

The "Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises Development (MSMED) Act, 2006" is the first single comprehensive legislation in India, covering micro, small and medium enterprises. Under the Act, the terms "medium sector" and "micro enterprises" have been defined for the first time. Also, the concept of 'Industries' has been widened to that of 'Enterprises'. Enterprises have been classified broadly into two categories, namely, enterprises engaged in the manufacture/production of goods pertaining to any industry; and enterprises engaged in providing/rendering of services. The term "enterprises" has been defined in terms of investment in plant and machinery/equipment (excluding land & building).

In order to protect, support and promote small enterprises as also to help them become self-supporting, a number of protective and promotional policy measures have been undertaken by the Government.

The promotional measures cover:-

(i) industrial extension services;

(ii) institutional support in respect of credit facilities;

(iii) provision of training facilities;

(iv) supply of machinery on hire-purchase terms;

(v) assistance for domestic marketing as well as exports;

(vi) technical consultancy and financial assistance for technological upgradation; etc.

7.2.4.Credit for Small Scale Sector

Recognising the role of credit for the small scale sector, a focused credit policy has been in place since the early days. Priority sector lending is its most important component. Under it, banks are compulsorily required to ensure that defined percentage of their overall lending is made to the priority sectors, which includes small industries. As a part of the in stitutional arrangement, Small Industries Development Bank of India (SIDBI) has been set up as the apex refinance bank. Term loans are provided by State Financial Corporations (SFCs) and Scheduled Banks.

Besides, several schemes and programmes have been undertaken by the Government with the aim of facilitating access to :- (i) adequate credit from financialin stitutions; (ii) funds for technology upgradation and modernisation; (iii) integrated infrastructural facilities; (iv) modern testing facilities and quality certification laboratories; (v) modern management practices, entrepreneurship development and skill upgradation through appropriate training facilities; etc .

7.2.5.Incentive schemes for the development of Small Scale Sector

The schemes so announced include:-

(i) Tax Holiday Scheme
(ii) Composite loan Scheme
(iii) Industrial Estate Scheme
(iv) Scheme for International Cooperation
(v) Scheme of Surveys, Studies and Policy Research
(vi) Scheme of Fund for Regeneration of Traditional Industries(SFURTI)
(vii) Scheme of Product Development, Design Intervention and Packaging (PRODIP)
(viii) Scheme of Khadi Karigar Janashree Bima Yojana for Khadi Artisans
(ix) Scheme of Interest Subsidy Eligibility Certification (ISEC)

Small Industry Development Organisation also operates a number of schemes for the sector such as

- Credit Linked Capital Subsidy Scheme for Technology Upgradation
- Credit Guarantee Fund Scheme for Small Industries
- ISO 9000/ISO 14001 Certification Reimbursement Scheme

- Scheme for reimbursement of fees to adopt barcoding
- Integrated Infrastructure Development (IID Scheme)
- Scheme for setting up of Mini Tool Rooms
- Scheme for setting up of testing centres
- Scheme for Market Development Assistance(MDA) for SSI exporters
- Assistance for Strengthening of Training Infrastructure of existing and new Entrepreneurship Development Institutions
- Scheme of Micro Finance Programme

National Small Industries Corporation Ltd(NSIC) schemes for small scale industries relate to:-

- Bill Financing
- Working Capital Finance
- Export Development Finance
- Equipment Leasing Scheme
- Raw Materials Procurement Support
- Marketing Assistance Programme and Exports Assistance;
- Stores Purchase Programme
- Single Point Registration Scheme and other services.

7.2.6.Problems of credit flows to Micro and Small Enterprises

Banks show their reluctance to extend credit to small enterprises because of the following reasons:

(i)□High administrative costs of small-scale lending;

(ii)□Asymmetric information;

(iii)□High risk perception; and

(iv)□Lack of collateral.

Credit guarantee schemes diminishes the risk incurred by lenders and are mainly a reaction to small firms' lack of collateral. Such schemes do have the potential to reduce the costs of small-scale lending and to improve the information available on borrowers. They enable small firms to access formal creditand also improve the terms of a loan. Such schemes assist small enterprises to obtain finance for working capital, investment and/or leasing purposes atreasonable conditions. This enables SMEs to improve their competitiveness and to extend their economic activity. Weaknesses of credit guarantee schemes can be avoided through proper design and private sector involvement.

7.2.7.Factors affecting MSMEs

Some of the key constraints that are being faced by the Indian MSMEs are:

a. Accessing adequate and timely financing on competitive terms, particularly longer tenure loans.

b. Accessing credit on easy terms in the backdrop of current global financial crisis and the resultant liquidity constraints in the Indian financial sector,which has held back the growth of SMEs and impeded overall growth and development.

c. Constraints attributable to a combination of factors that include policy, legal/regulatory framework (in terms of recovery, bankruptcy and contract enforcement), institutional weaknesses (absence of good credit appraisal and risk management! monitoring tools), and lack of reliable credit information on SMEs.

d. Difficulty for lenders in assessing risk premiums properly, creating differences in the perceived versus real risk profiles of SMEs.

e. Limited access to skilled manpower, R&D facilities and marketing channels.

f. Lack of availability of finance at cheaper rates, skills about decision-making and good management and accounting practices, and access to moderntechnology.

Chapter 3: Export and Import policies of Fisheries Sector

7.3.1.Exim policy

The exim policy of Foreign Trade Policy is a set of guidelines and instructions established by the DGFT(Directorate General of foreign trade) in matters related to the import and export of goods in India. and is regulated by the Foreign Trade Development and Regulation Act, 1992.

DGFT is the main governing body in matters related to Exim Policy. The main objective of this Act is to provide the development and **regulation of foreign trade** by facilitating imports into, and augmenting exports from India, thereby creating favourable balance of payment positions. This Act has replaced the earlier law known as the imports and Exports (Control) Act 1947.

Indian **EXIM Policy** contains various policy related decisions taken by the Government in the sphere of foreign trade, i.e., with respect to imports and exports from the country and more specifically, export promotion measures, policies and procedures related thereto. Trade Policy is prepared and announced by the Central Government (Ministry of Commerce).

7.3.2.Promotional Measures of Exim Policy 2004-2009

The Government of India has set up several institutions whose main functions are to help an exporter in his work. It would be advisable for an exporter to acquaint him with these institutions and the nature of help that they can provide so that he can initially contact them and have a clear picture of what help he can expect of the organized sources in his export effort. Some of these institutions are as follows.

- Export Promotion Councils
- Commodity Boards
- Marine Products Export Development authority
- Agricultural & Processed Food Products Export Development Authority
- Indian Institute of Foreign Trade
- India Trade Promotion Organization (ITPO)
- National Centre for Trade Information (NCTI)
- Export Credit Guarantee Corporation (ECGC)
- Export-Import Bank
- Export Inspection Council
- Indian Council of Arbitration
- Federation of Indian Export Organizations
- Department of Commercial Intelligence and Statistics
- Directorate General of Shipping

- Freight Investigation Bureau

7.3.3.Duty Exemption / Remission Schemes of Exim Policy

The Duty Exemption Scheme enables import of inputs required for export production. It includes the following exemptions.

Duty Drawback:- The Duty Drawback Scheme is administered by the Directorate of Drawback, Ministry of Finance. Under Duty Drawback scheme, an exporter is entitled to claim Indian Customs Duty paid on the imported goods and Central Excise Duty paid on indigenous raw materials or components.

Excise Duty Refund:- Excise Duty is a tax imposed by the Central Government on goods manufactured in India. Excise duty is collected at source, i.e., before removal of goods from the factory premises. Export goods are totally exempted from central excise duty.

Octroi Exemption:- Octroi is a duty paid on manufactured goods, when they enter the municipal limits of a city or a town. However, export goods are exempted from Octroi.

Duty Remission Scheme: It enables post export replenishment/remission of duty on inputs used in the export product.

Duty Entitlement Pass Book (**DEPB)**

The objective of **DEPB Scheme** is to neutralize the incidence of basic custom duty on the import content of the exported products.

Duty free Replenishment certificate(DFRC)

Under this scheme, import incentives are given to the exporter for the import of inputs used in the manufacture of goods without payment of basic customs duty. Duty Free Replenishment Certificate (DFRC) shall be available for exports only up to 30.04.2006 and from 01.05.2006 this scheme is being replaced by the Duty Free Import Authorization (DFIA)

Duty Free Import Authorisation(DFIA)

Effective from 1st May, 2006, Duty Free Import Authorisation is issued to allow duty free import of inputs which are used in the manufacture of the export product (making normal allowance for wastage), and fuel, energy, catalyst etc., which are consumed or utilized in the course of their use to obtain the export product. Duty Free Import Authorisation is issued on the basis of inputs and export items given under Standard Input and Output Norms(SION).

7.3.4.Export Promotion Capital Goods Scheme (EPCG) of Exim Policy 2004-2009

Introduced in the EXIM policy of 1992-97, Export Promotion Capital Goods Scheme(EPCG) enables exporters to import machinery and other capital goods for export production at concessional or no customs duties at all. This facility is subject to export obligation, i.e., the exporter is required to guarantee exports of certain minimum value, which is in multiple of total value of capital goods imported.

Capital goods imported under EPCG Scheme are subject to actual user condition and the same cannot be transferred / sold till the fulfillment of export obligation specified in the licence. In order to ensure that the capital goods imported under EPCG Scheme, the licence holder is required to produce certificate from the jurisdictional Central Excise Authority(CEA) or Chartered Engineer(CE) confirming installation of such capital goods in the declared premises.

7.3.5.Special Economic Zone (SEZ) Under the Exim Policy 2004-2009

A Special Economic Zone is a geographically distributed area or zones where the economic laws are more liberal as compared to other parts of the country. SEZs are proposed to be spacially delineated duty free enclaves for the purpose of trade, operations, duty and tariffs. SEZs are self-contained and integrated having their own infrastructure and support services.

The area under ‘SEZ’ covers a broad range of zone types, including Export Processing Zones(EPZ), Free Zones(FZ), Industrial Estates(IE), Free Trade Zones(FTZ), Free Ports, Urban Enterprise Zones and others.

In India, at present there are eight functional Special Economic Zones located at Santa Cruz(Maharashtra), Cochin(Kerala), Kandla and Surat(Gujarat), Chennai(Tamil Nadu), Visakhapatnam (Andhra Pradesh), Fatla (West Bengal) and Noida (Uttar Pradesh). Further a Special Economic Zone at Indore (Madhya Pradesh) is also ready for operation.

7.3.6.Free Trade & Warehousing Zones of Exim Policy 2004-2009

Free Trade & Warehousing Zones(FTWZ) shall be a special category of Special Economic Zones with a focus on trading and warehousing. The concept of FTWZ is new and has been recently introduced in the five-year foreign trade policy 2004-09. Its main objective is to provide infrastructure for growth of the economy and foreign trade. Free Trade & Warehousing Zones (FTWZ) plays an important role in achieving global standard warehousing facilities as free trade zones. Free Trade & Warehousing Zones is a widely accepted model with a history of providing Substantial encouragement to foreign trade and warehousing activity.

Deemed Exports under the Exim Policy 2004-2009

Deemed Export is a special type of transaction in the Indian Exim policy in which the payment is received before the goods are delivered. The payment can be done in Indian Rupees or in foreign Exchange. As the deemed export is also a source of foreign exchange, so the Government of India has given the benefit duty free import of inputs.

EXIM policy is the Export-Import policies regulating international commerce in India.

7.3.7. Special focus initiatives

Marine products exports are benefited by these special initiatives

The major benefits are as follows:-

1. **Market Diversification**

To insulate Indian exports from the decline in demand from developed countries, Policy focus is given on diversification of Indian exports to other markets, specially those located in Latin America, Africa, parts of Asia and Ocenia. To achieve diversification of Indian exports, following initiatives have been taken.

a. 26 new countries have been included within the ambit of Focus Market Scheme.

b. The incentives provided under Focus Market Scheme have been increased from 2.5% to 3%.

c. There has been a significant increase in the outlay under 'Market Linked Focus Product Scheme' by inclusion of more markets and products. This ensures support for exports to all countries in Africa and Latin America.

7.3.7.1.Agriculture and Village Industry

a. Vishesh Krishi and Gandhi Udyog Yojana

b. Capital goods imported under EPCG will be permitted to be installed anywhere in AEZ..

7.3.7.2.Marine Sector

a. Imports for technological upgradation under EPCG in fisheries sector (except fishing trawlers, ships, boats and other similar items) exempted from maintaining average export obligation.

b. Duty free import of specified specialized inputs / chemicals and flavouring oils is allowed to the extent of 1% of FOB value of preceding financial year's export.

c. To allow import of monofilament longline system for tuna fishing at a concessional rate of duty and Bait Fish for tuna fishing at Nil duty.

d. A self removal procedure for clearance of seafood waste is applicable subject to prescribed wastage norms.

e. Marine products are considered for VKGUY scheme.

7.3.8.GENERAL PROVISIONS REGARDING IMPORTS AND EXPORTS

Exports and Imports free unless regulated

Exports and Imports shall be free, except where regulated by FTP or any other law in force. The item wise export and import policy shall be, as specified in ITC (HS) notified by DGFT, as amended from time to time.

Interpretation of Policy

If any question or doubt arises in respect of interpretation of any provision contained in FTP, or classification of any item in ITC (HS) or HBP- v1 or HBP-v2, or Schedule of DEPB rates (including content, scope or issue of an authorization there under) said question or doubt shall be referred to DGFT whose decision thereon shall be final and binding.

<u>Restricted Goods</u>

Any goods, export or import of which is restricted under ITC (HS) may be exported or imported only in accordance with an Authorization or in terms of a public notice issued in this regard.

Free Exports

All goods may be exported without any restriction except to extent such exports are regulated by ITC (HS) or any other provision of FTP or any other law for time being in force.

Realization of Export Proceeds

If an exporter fails to realize export proceeds within time specified by RBI, he shall, without prejudice to any liability or penalty under any law in force, be liable to action in accordance with provisions of FT (D&R) Act, Rules and Orders made there under and FTP.

Export Promotion Councils (EPC)

Basic objective of export promotion councils (EPCs) is to promote and develop Indian exports. Each council is responsible for promotion of a particular group of products, projects and services as given in HBP-v1.

Registration –cum- Membership Certificate (RCMC)

Any person, applying for;

(i) an Authorization to import / export, [except items listed as restricted items in ITC (HS)] or

(ii) any other benefit or concession under FTP

shall be required to furnish RCMC granted by competent authority in accordance with procedure specified in HBP-v1 unless specifically exempted under FTP.

Certificate of registration as Exporter of Spices (CRES) issued by Spices Board shall be treated as Registration –Cum-Membership Certificate (RCMC) for the purposes under this Policy.

7.3.9.Promotional measures

Market Access Initiative (MAI)

Under MAI scheme, financial assistance is provided for export promotion activities on focus country, focus product basis. Financial assistance is available for Export promotion councils (EPCs), Industry and Trade Associations (ITAs), Agencies of state government, Indian commercial missions (ICMs) abroad and other national level institutions/eligible entities as may be notified.

Meeting expenses for statutory compliances in buyer country for Trade related Matters

DOC provides for reimbursement of charges / expenses for fulfilling statutory requirements in the buyer country, including registration charges for product registration for pharmaceuticals, bio-technology and agro-chemicals products on recommendation of EPCs. Financial assistance is also provided for contesting litigations(s) in the foreign country concerning restrictions/anti dumping duties etc. on particular product(s) of Indian origin, as provided under the market Access Initiative (MAI) Scheme of DOC.

Towns of Export Excellence (TEE)

A number of towns have emerged as dynamic industrial clusters contributing handsomely to India's exports. It is necessary to grant recognition to these industrial clusters with a view to maximizing their potential and enabling them to move higher in the value chain and tap new markets.

Selected towns producing goods of Rs.750 Crore or more will be notified as TEE based on potential for growth in exports. However for TEE in handloom, handicraft, agriculture and fisheries sector, threshold limit would be Rs.150 Crores.

Brand Promotion and Quality

DOC provides funds for capacity building for up-gradation of quality to national level Institutions and EPCs to organize training programmes for the skill improvement of the exporters for quality up-gradation, reduction in rejection, product improvement etc. as provided under the Market Access Initiative (MAI) Scheme of DOC.

Test Houses

Central Government assists in modernization and up-gradation of test houses and laboratories to bring them at par with international standards.

7.3.10.Focus Market Scheme(FMS)

Objective

Objective is to offset high freight cost and other externalities to select international markets with a view to enhance India's export competitiveness in these countries.

Entitlement

Exporters of all products to notified countries (as in Appendix 37C of HBPv1) shall be entitled for Duty Credit Scrip equivalent to 3% of FOB value of exports (in free foreign exchange) for exports made from 27.08.2009 onwards.

7.3.11.Duty Exemption and Remission Schemes

Duty exemption schemes enable duty free import of inputs required for export production. Duty Exemption Schemes consist of (a) Advance Authorization scheme and (b) Duty Free Import Authorization (DFIA) scheme. A Duty Remission scheme enables post export replenishment / remission of duty on inputs used in export product. Duty remission Schemes consist of (a) Duty Entitlement Passbook (DEPB) Scheme and (b) Duty Drawback (DBK) Scheme.

7.3.12.Advance Authorisation Scheme

Advance Authorisation

An advance Authorisation issued to allow duty free import of inputs, which are physically incorporated in export product (making normal allowance for wastage). In addition, fuel, oil, energy, catalysts which are consumed / utilized to obtain export product, may also be allowed.

7.3.13.Duty Free Import Authorisation (DFIA) Scheme

Scheme

DFIA is issued to allow duty free import of inputs , fuel, oil, energy sources, catalyst which are required for production of export product.

7.3.14.Duty Entitlement Passbook (DEPB) Scheme

Objective of DEPB is to neutralize incidence of customs duty on import content of export product. Component of customs duty on fuel (appearing as consumable in the SION) shall also be factored in the DEPB rate. Component of Special Additional Duty shall also be allowed under DEPB (as brand rate) in case of non-availment of CENVAT credit. Neutralization shall be provided by way of grant of duty credit against export product.

7.3.15.Export Promotion Capital Goods (EPCG) scheme

Zero duty EPCG Scheme

Zero duty EPCG scheme allows import of capital goods for pre-production, production and post-production of zero custom duty, subject to an export obligation.

EXPORT ORIENTED UNITS (EOUs), ELECTRONICS HARDWARE TECHNOLOGY PARKS (EHTPs), SOFTWARE TECHNOLOGY PARKS (STPs) AND BIO-TECHNOLOGY PARKS (BTPs)

Eligibility

Units undertaking to export their entire production of goods and services (except permissible sales in DTA), may be set up under export oriented Unit (EOU) Scheme.

PACKAGE FOR MARINE SECTOR

a. Duty free import of specialized inputs / chemicals and flavoring oils as per a defined list shall be allowed to the extent of 1% of FOB value of preceding financial years export. Use of these special ingredients for seafood processing will enable us to achieve a higher value addition and enter new export markets.

b. To encourage the existing mechanized vessels and deep sea trawlers to adopt modern technology for scientific exploitation of our marine resources in an eco-friendly manner and boost marine sector exports, it is proposed to allow import of monofilament long line system for tuna fishing at a concessional rate of duty.

c. A self removal procedure for clearance of seafood subject to wastage norms.

7.3.16.Major marine items which are either prohibited / restricted are as follows

Sl. No.	Tariff Items HS Code	Unit	Item Description	Export policy	Nature of Restriction
1.	0508 00 50	Kg.	Sea Shells, including polished sea shells and handicrafts made out of those species included in the Schedules of the Wild Life (Protection) Act, 1972.	Prohibited	Not permitted to be exported
2.	1212 20 10 1212 20 90	Kg.	Seaweeds of all types, including G-edulis but excluding brown seaweeds and agarophytes of Tamil Nadu Coast origin in processed form.	Restricted	Exports permitted under license
3.	0302 69 30 0303 79 50	Kg.	Fresh or Chilled or Frozen silver pomfrets of weight less than 300gms.	Restricted	Exports permitted under license
4.	0303 79 99	Kg.	Beche-de-mer	Prohibited	Not permitted to be exported irrespective

					of its size.
5.	0306 12 10	Kg.	Sand Lobster (under sized)	Prohibited	Not permitted to be exported

Chapter 4: Joint ventures, sub contracting, venture capital and public and private partnerships

7.4.1.Joint Venture

Joint venture is one of the types of external strategy followed by business concerns. It is a temporary partnership between two or more firms to undertake joinly to complete a specific venture. The parties entering the venture by means of an agreement are known as co-ventures. The agreement entered will come to an end on the completion of the work for which it was formed. The co-ventures take part in the operations of the ventures equally and share the profits or losses in their agreed ratio. However, in the absence of such agreement, the profits/losses are shared equality.

7.4.1.1.Advantages of Joint Venture

Joint venture offers the follows benefits:

1. It reduces risk involved in the business.

2. It helps to increase the competitive strength of business.

3. It enables the use of advanced technology and know-how.

4. It enables the firms to avail the benefits of large scale economies.

7.4.1.2.Disadvantages of Joint Venture

It also suffers from certain drawbacks, which are as follows:

1. The functioning of the business may be badly affected due to misunderstanding between the co-ventures.

2. In case of foreign ventures, it may be in a position to face a lot of legal restrictions.

3. Lack of co-ordination among co-ventures is another drawback of joint venture.

4. Conflicts among co-ventures due to unequal equity participation is a common feature of joint venture.

7.4.2.Sub-contracting

Sub contracting refers to a mutually beneficial commercial relationship between two companies. It is also called as ancillarisation. In sub-contracting, contractor places order with sub-contractor for the production of parts, components, assemblies or sub-assembiles to be incorporated into a product sold by the contractor. Sub-contractee produces accordingly and supplies the same. In large-scale industries, sub-contracting is common because they do not produce all goods on their own.

Sub-contracting is of two types such as: 1. Industrial sub-contracting, and 2. Commercial sub-contracting. Sub-contractors normally work for more than one contractor.

The birthplace of model sub-contracting system is Japan. Sub-contracting system has become basic to the character of Japanese industries. About 60% of the small manufacturing industries are producing under sub-contracting system. In our country, they are called as ancillary units.

7.4.2.1.Advantages of sub-contracting

Sub contracting enjoys the following advantages:

1. It increases the production.

2. In minimizes investment in plant and machinery.

3. It enables the use of technical and managerial abilities of sub-contractor.

4. It ensure the existence of sub-contractors by placing orders with them.

5. It makes the main concerns more flexible in production.

7.4.3.Venture capital

Some people are endowed with good product ideas, but lack the necessary funds to translate these ideas into production. The concept of venture capitalwas evolved to help such persons. Venture capital is a form of equity financing of projects with high risk and high return. It is meant for financing high technology projects. Besides financing high technology, venture capital fosters the growth and development of industries. It helps to convert research and development projects into commercial production.

The concept of venture capital originated in the USA. Now it has become a world-wide concept in the field of funding technology-based industrial projects. It is of recent origin in India. IFCI started this concept in 1975 by setting up “Risk Capital Foundation” (RCF).RCF was converted into a company known as ‘Risk Capital and Technology Corporation Limited’ (RCTC) in January 1988.

IDBI also started a venture capital fund scheme in 1986. The ICICI also set up the ‘Technology Development and Infrastructure Corporation of India (TDIC) in 1988. TDICI provides technological information and finances intensive development activities including commercial research and development. It also manages the venture capital fund of Rs. 20 crores which ICICI has set up along with UTI in 1988.

Besides, public financial institutions, commercial banks have also entered venture capital business. SBI capital markets, Can Bank, Financial Services and Grindlays Bank have established venture capital funds. The India Investment Fund of Grindlays Bank provides venture finance to suitable projects of NRIs.

In the private sector, the Credit Capital Corporation launched Credit Capital Venture Fund India Ltd. with the help of Asian Development Bank and Commonwealth Fund.

7.4.3.1.Guidelines for Venture Capital

On November 25, 1989, the Government of India issued certain guidelines regarding establishment and functioning of venture capital funds. These guidelines are as follows;

i. **Establishment.** All India public financial institutions, scheduled commercial banks including foreign banks operating in India and their subsidiaries would be eligible to start venture capital funds/companies subject to approval from the Reserve Bank of India/Government of India.

ii. **Size.** The minimum size of a venture capital fund/company would be Rs. 10 crore. If it desires to raise funds from the public, the promoters’ share shall not be less than 40 per cent. The minimum debt equity ratio would be 1:15.

iii. **Assistance.** Assistance would be provided mainly to enterprises with comparatively high risk due to technology/entrepreneur being relatively new. The total investment in the enterprise should not exceed Rs. 10 crores.

7.4.4.Public Private Partnership(PPP)

Definition

Involvement of private enterprise in the form of management expertise and/or monetary contributions in the government projects aimed at public benefits.

PPP has benefited many nations in undertaking works for common public. There are always been a debate on whether the public sector companies or the private sector firms contribute to the real growth of a country. While some analysts are in favour of the public sector, others think that achieving the growth targets is impossible without private participation. Recent history shows that whenever there is a partnership between public sector undertakings and the private companies, the results have been phenomenal and have benefited the common man greatly.

The ppp model can work efficiently if implemented well. As per the agreement between the government controlled and privately run organizations, both entities agree to work closely and provide research and technical support for completing the projects on time. The rules of the agreement are binding on both of them and hence there is more efficiency and discipline in the way of functioning. There are various types of public private partnership and the initiative for such partnership is taken by the government authorities. The government authorities select the private firm which will be the partner of public firm after considering the track record of the private firm in successfully delivering projects on time and maintaining high quality standards.

7.4.4.1. Advantages of PPP

Efficient Management

Efficiency in project management is the need of the hour to get the desired results. Efficient management of welfare projects can be achieved when people working in public and private sectors come together, chalk out plans and strategies, and executes them to the satisfaction.

High Quality Output with Technological Advancement

PPPs are formed in a number of sectors of the economy to provide great solutions for industrial development. There are many private sector firms which have very advanced technology and by partnering with such firms, the government companies will be able to get the desired quality output on time.

Project Execution

Problems of project execution have been the biggest challenge nowadays. The project execution speed is very impressive in case of public private joint venture and this plays a key roe in the overall development of the nation.

Cost Reduction

Most infrastructure development related projects require a lot of capital and projects get delayed due to lack of capital for their execution. In case of a partnership between public and private sector, this problem can be sorted out by taking measures such as cost reduction, by utilizing available resources and time effectively. This is one of the most important joint venture advantages of these two sectors.

7.4.4.2.Disadvantages of PPP

Work Culture Difference

Work culture difference or the differences between the functioning of the public or government agency and private sector firm can lead to problems in project execution. So, this can be one of the biggest disadvantages of the PPP, if proper care is not taken to resolve differences in time.

Changing Government Policies

The PPP can get affected because of the change in government policies and priorities affecting the flow of capital. The redirection of capital meant for a favorable plan by the government can lead to losses for such partnerships.

Mismanagement

Mismanagement is always a potential threat to programs which are jointly undertaken by the public and private sector. Poor management due to unforeseen and unplanned for difficulties can lead to wastage of resources and money.

Construction of dams, roads or over-bridges can be one of the finest PPP example. In most countries, the government welcomes bids from private companies in the infrastructure and construction sector to implement these projects. The project is awarded to the deserving firm and is executed by it by strictly following government norms and guidelines. PPP creates employment on a large scale which is a healthy sign for the economy of any country.

Unit 8: Structural and functional grammar

Learning Objective

Function grammar is essentially required as fundamentals to professional graduates

Chapter 1: Functional grammar

8.1.1.Functional grammar

Functional Grammar is a model of grammar motivated by functions. The model was originally developed by Simon C. Dik at the University of Amsterdam in the 1970s, and has undergone several revisions ever since. The latest standard version under the original name is laid out in the two-volume 1997 edition, published shortly after Dik's death. The latest incarnation features the expansion of the model with a pragmatic/interpersonal module by Kees Hengeveld and Lachlan Mackenzie. This has led to a renaming of the theory to "Functional Discourse Grammar". This type of grammar is quite distinct from systemic functional grammar as developed by Michael Halliday and many other linguists since the 1970s.

a) Functions

The notion of "function" in FG generalizes the standard distinction of grammatical functions such as subject and object. Constituents (parts of speech) of a linguistic utterance are assigned three types or levels of functions:

1. Semantic function (Agent, Patient, Recipient, etc.), describing the role of participants in states of affairs or actions expressed
2. Syntactic functions (Subject and Object), defining different perspectives in the presentation of a linguistic expression
3. Pragmatic functions (Theme and Tail, Topic and Focus), defining the informational status of constituents, determined by the pragmatic context of the verbal interaction

Chapter 2: Parts of speech

8.2.1.Parts of Speech

Every Language has a set of rules, which govern the use of the language. In English there are eight parts of speech : **Noun, Pronoun, Verb, Adjective, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction and Interjection**

8.2.2.Noun

A noun is the name of a person, place, animal, thing, quality, action, feeling etc.

1) Anil is a cunning boy - name of persons
2) Kolkata is a very large city - places
3) The eagle is the king of birds - birds
4) The pen is in the inkpot - things
5) Honesty pays in the long run - Qualities
6) Prosperity attracts friends - States
7) Lata sings very sweet songs - Actions

Concrete noun

A concrete noun is one that names a concrete object – person, place, thing, material or a collection of things or persons etc.

Dara singh is a great boxer

Delhi is an ancient town

Proper nouns

A proper noun is the name given to a particular place, person or thing to single it out from other of its clags.

Paris is the capital of France

Common noun

A common noun is the name of a person, place or thing of whose kind there are many others

The dog is a very faithful animal

Material noun Bread - Flour

Collective noun Flock, army

Collective noun - is the name of a number of persons / things taken together

Cattle - herd

Soldiers - army

Sailors - crew

Abstract Noun

Name of quality (action / state considered apart from the objective)

Quality - Goodness, kindness, whiteness, honesty, wisdom, bravey

Action - Laughter, theft, movement

State - Childhood, boyhood, youth, slavery, sleep

Countable Nouns

The nouns that can be counted are called countable nouns

E.g. Cars, sharpeners, pencils

Uncountable nouns

The nouns that cannot be counted (only their units are counted)are called uncountable noun

E.g. : Sugar, petrol, coffee

8.2.3.Pronoun

Pronoun : A pronoun is a word used in the place of an noun. ‘Pro’ means ‘for’ – word which stands in the place of.

Example : I, we, you, he, she, it, they.

Pronoun Chart

Subject	Possessive adj.	Object	Possessive	reflexive
I	My	Me	Mine	Myself
We	Our	Us	Ours	Ourselves
They	Their	Them	Theirs	Themselves
You	Your	You	Yours	Yourself/yourselves
He	His	Him	His	Himself
She	Her	Her	Hers	Herself
It	Its	It	Its	Itself

Note : If a sentence begins with a pronoun, it should begin only with the root form of the pronoun.

Example : I came to the Institute. (correct usage)
I myself came to the Institute. (correct usage)
Myself came to the Institute. (wrong usage)

Exercise : Identify the pronouns in the following sentences.

1. I bought a book.
2. My brother goes to school on a cycle.
3. His uncle is a doctor.
4. It is a dog.
5. She is my sister.
6. You are a student.
7. Your bag is on the table.
8. This pen is mine.
9. They are teachers.
10. We are children.

Keys :

1) I 2) My 3) His 4) It 5) She, my 6) You 7) Your 8) This, mine 9) They 10) we

8.2.3.1.Kinds of Pronouns

(i) Personal Pronouns : I, we, you, he, she, it and they are called personal pronouns because they are mostly used for persons. They are also called as the subject/root/basic form of the pronoun.

First Person : The person who speaks is the first person.

I - 'I' is the first person singular.

We **-** ‘We’ is the first person plural

Example : **I** am a painter.

We are Indians.

Second person : the person whom the first person speaks to is the second person.

You - ‘You’ is the second person. ‘You’ is used both in singular and plural.

Example - **You** are my friend.

Third Person : The person or persons about whom a person speaks is the third person(s).

He

She **-** these three pronouns are third person singular.

It

They - ‘They’ is the third person plural.

He likes ice cream.

She drinks milk.

It is a pen.

They play football.

(ii) Possessive Pronouns : A possessive pronoun stands for possession. They are **mine, ours, theirs, yours, his, hers, its.**

The house is **ours.**

The camera is **mine.**

The bag is **hers.**

The books are **yours.**

It is **his** mistake.

The trees are **theirs.**

It is **its** tail.

(iii) Demonstrative Pronouns : Pronouns which directly point out or refer to the objects are called demonstrative pronoun. They are **– this, that, these** and **those.**

This is my book.

That is your car.

These are his photographs.

Those were the happiest days.

(iv) Distributive pronouns : Pronouns which refer to persons or things one at a time are called distributive pronouns.

They are – **'each' 'either'** and **'neither'**

Each of the boys got a prize.

Either of them can do the work.

Neither of the pens is mine.

(v) Interrogative Pronouns : An interrogative pronoun is a pronoun that asks a question about the noun which it stand for. They are **– what, who, whom, which** and **whose.**

What does the woman do?

Who is there at the door?

Whom were you talking to?

Which of these is yours?

Whose house is that?

(vi) Emphatic Pronouns : An emphatic pronoun emphasizes the action of the subject. They are – **myself, ourselves, themselves, yourself, yourselves, himself, herself, itself.**

Example : I **myself** completed the work.

She **herself** learnt it.

He **himself** carried it.

(vii) Reflexive Pronouns : A reflexive pronoun is used when the action of the subject reflects upon itself.

Example : **I** cut **myself.**

They helped **themselves.**

She did it **herself.**

8.2.4.Verb

A verb is a word that denotes are action or predicates a fact A **verb** is a word that states an action, a fact or a happening. Without a verb a sentence cannot be formed. The **verb** is the most important part in a sentence.

Actions Facts

1) We came by bus Ramu is a driver

2) I shall help you in trouble They were fast friends

3) Birds fly in the air Lucy was a pretty girl

Kinds of verbs

1) Principal verbs

2) Auxillary verbs

Principal verbs

I lift this load

He finished his home work

Auxiliary verbs

1) I can lift this load

2) He has finished his home work

Each of these verbs helps the principal verbs to form its tense mood (or) voice. So such a verb is called a helping (or) Auxiliary verb.

E.g: 1) be, have, do, can, may, must, need, will shade used.

The Verb : person & number

The verb like the personal pronouns has three persons – the thirst, the second & the third.

I speak

You speak

He speak

He speaks

They speak

The verb must agree with its subject in number & person

First person

I am here

If the subject is of the plural number. Third person the verb must be of through plural number

They are here

Example : Ram **worships** God – (action)

The sun **rises** in the east – (fact)

Yesterday it **rained** heavily – (happening)

Verbs can be classified into **main verbs** and **auxiliary verbs.** Verbs that can stand by themselves and convey a meaning are called **Main verbs.**

Example : Rama **drinks** juice every morning.

Mohan **plays** tennis on Sundays.

An auxiliary verb is used to help a main verb in expressing the progress of an action/ a fact or happening.

Example : Sita is **dancing** at a concert.

Rama **is reading** an interesting novel.

Rama **is drinking** apple juice now.

The dog **is chasing** the man.

8.2.4.1.Exercise 1 : Pick out the verbs in the following sentences

1.The king appointed ten ministers.

2. He broke the glass.

3. I have sold my bicycle.

4.The horse is a faithful animal.

5.The sun rises every day.

6. I go to school daily.

7. I speak English.

8. He kicked the ball.

9. The leaves are green.

10. She jumped into the river.

11. He wrote the poem.

12. She will write a letter.

13. Sita helped Kamala in her homework.

14.You are teaching English.

15. Children were making noise when the teacher entered the class.

16. They have seen the movie.

17. He is drawing a picture.
18. I eat chocolates almost everyday.

19. She learns swimming.

20. Padmini was dancing when I visited her yesterday.

Keys : (1) appointed (2) broke (3) have sold (4) is (5) rises (6) go (7) speak (8) kicked (9) are (10) jumped (11) wrote (12) will write (13) helped (14) are teaching (15) were making (16) have seen (17) is drawing (18) eat (19) learns (20) was dancing

8.2.5.Kinds of verbs

'Be' verbs

Am, is, are, was, were, be, been are the **'be'** verbs.

Present	**Past**	**Future**	**Past Participle**
am	was	will be	been
is	was	will be	been
are	were	will be	been

'Have' verbs

Have, has, had are the **'have'** verbs.

Present	**Past**	**Future**	**Past Participle**
Have	Had	Shall/will/have	Had
has	had	shall/will/have	had

Transitive verb :

A transitive verb is a verb that passes the action of the does(subject) to the **object.**

I **wrote** a letter to my friend.
She **drinks** boost in the morning.
Mother **prepares** ice cream on Sundays.

Intransitive verb :

An intransitive verb is a verb that does not pass the action of the subject to the object

Some trees **grow** very tall.
She **laughs** heartily.
I **get up** early in the morning.

The baby **is sleeping.**

8.2.5.1. Exercise 1 : Pick out the transitive and intransitive verb in the following sentences

1. I went to Delhi.
2. He bought a pen.
3. My grandfather drinks milk.
4. We wrote the test yesterday.
5. She is happy.
6. The driver drives the car.
7. Mother prepares food.
8. My sister gave me a purse.
9. I need a pen.
10. The computer is mine.

Keys : (1) went - IV (2) bought –TV (3) drinks – TV (4) wrote – TV (5) is – IV (6) drives – TV (7) prepares – TV (8) gave – TV (9) need – TV (10) is – IV

(IV – Intransitive Verb, TV – Transitive Verb)

8.2.6.Modal Auxiliaries

Can, could, may, might, shall, should, will, would, ought, to, have to, must, need are also called auxiliary verbs. They are used along with main verbs to indicate the mood of the speaker.

8.2.7.Adjective

Adjective means Additional

An adjective is a word that adds to the meaning of a noun or a pronoun

1. Raju is a tall boy (before the noun)

2. Ramu is very lazy (after the noun)

Eight different kinds

1. Adjectives of quality /Description adjective

It shows the kind or quality of a person/thing

Colkata is a large city

He is an honest man

(Denotes some quality of its noun/pronoun)

2. Adjectives of quantity

Show now much of a thing is meant

I ate some rice

Much

Little

Enough

You have no sense

3. Proper adjectives

A proper adjective is formed from a proper – noun

The Indian nation is a great nation

The handhiam ideas are very popular

4. Classs Adjectives

A class adjective describes the class or category to which its noun belongs

Dowry is a social evil

Domestic animals are useful to me

5. Colour adjectives

A colour adjective describes the colour of its noun

1) She has brown hair and blue eyes

6. Emphasizing adjectives

An emphasizing adjective lays stress on a fact about is noun

1) We are pure vegetarians

2) She is a true patriot

7. Precision Adjectives
A precision adjective is used before the main adjective to make the description previze

1) He <u>certain</u> basic human needs are common

8. Adjectives of number

Show how many persons or things are meant

The hand has five fingers

Sunday is the First day of the week.

a) Definite numberal Adjective - One, two, three

- First, second, third ordinals

b) Indefinite numberal adjectives – Do not denote (Exact number)
All, no, many, few some, any, certain, several

c) Distributive numeral Adjectives

Refer to each one of a number boy must take his turn

Each

Every

Either
Neither

8.2.7.1. Exercise 1 : Identify the <u>Adjectives</u> in the following sentences

1. The coffee is hot.
2. She is beautiful girl.
3. Ram is a nice person.
4. Viji has soft hair.
5. Vikram is a brave soldier.
6. The elephant is a big animal.
7. The snake is a dangerous creature.
8. Hari is an intelligent boy.
9. Harishankar is a good boy.

10. It was a brilliant performance.

Keys : (1) hot (2) beautiful (3) nice (4) soft (5) brave (6) big (7) dangerous (8) intelligent (9) good (10) brilliant

8.2.8.Kinds of adjectives

(1) Adjective of Quality (Descriptive Adjective) – It is used to describe the quality of person or thing.

Chennai is a **big** city.

Hari is a **smart** boy.

Anirudh is **mischievous** boy.

Jyotsna is a **beautiful** woman.

The ball is **dirty.**

The weather is **cold.**

(2) Adjective of Quantity : It shows the quantity of a thing and answers the question 'how much'?

I have got **some** money.

There is a **little** water in the jug.

We had **enough** number of sweets.

She has **no** money to study further.

All his life he worked hard.

Have you got **any** money to spare?

(3) Adjective of Number : It indicates the number of persons or things or their order. It can be classified into two types, namely definite numeral adjective and indefinite numeral adjective.

a. **Definite Numeral Adjectives** are used to denote the exact number.

One, two, three etc. (These are called **cardinals.** They denote. **'how many'**)

First, second, third etc. (These are called **ordinals.** They denote **order)**

She has **two** cars.

I am the **third** daughter in my family.

b. **Indefinite Numeral Adjectives :** They do not indicate the exact number.

Several students were there.

Many attended the party.

Few girls have secured centum in Physics.

(4) Distributive Adjectives : They are used to refer to each one of a number.

Either of them can do it.

Neither of the statements is true.

Each boy must pay the fees.

(5) Demonstrative Adjectives : They point out the thing or things.

This pen is better than that.

That car is mine.

Those trees were planted by us.

These students are hard working.

(6) Interrogative Adjectives : Interrogatives adjectives are used to ask questions.

What work did you do yesterday?

Which pen do you like best?

Whose book is that?

What food do you eat?

(7) Possessive Adjectives : Possessive pronouns function as possessive adjectives.

Example : My friend is an intelligent boy.

I – my we – our she – her you – your

He – his it – its they – their Ram – Ram's

a) My friend is an industrious boy.

b) Our flag has got three colours.

c) Her charms are the talk of the town.

d) His efforts bore no fruit.

e **) Her** pet dog has take **its** food.

f) The good are blessed for **their** deeds.

g) Ram's brother is an engineer.

8.2.9.Adverb

Adverb : An adverb is a word which gives additional information about a verb. An adverb answers the questions **when, how where.** It modifies a verb.

List of frequently used Adverbs

slowly	bravely	regularly	promptly	willingly
harshly	hardly	deeply	happily	loudly
shortly	possibly	friendly	quickly	kindly
easily	suddenly	directly	boldly	immediately
strongly	luckily	extremely	fortunately	comfortably
generally	surely	definitely	punctually	cleanly
daily	repeatedly	unexpectedly	wholeheartedly	

8.2.10.Kinds of adverbs

(i) Adverb of Time : Adverbs of time answer the question **'when'.**

We bought a flat **last year.**

I **generally** watch English movies.

He **usually** drinks milk at night.

We shall visit the exhibition **tomorrow.**

(ii) Adverb of Place : Adverbs of place answer the question **'where'**

The ball rolled **down.**

Let us wait **here.**

We went to **Madura** during the holidays.

She saw me **in the market**

(iii) Adverb of Manner : Adverbs of manner answers the question **'how'.**

She spoke **gently.**

They behaved **nicely.**

She danced **beautifully.**

The sun shines **brightly.**

(iv) Adverb of Frequency : Adverbs of frequency tell us **'how often'**.

She **always** asks for books

The newspaper is published **daily.**

The **often** meet.

I play chess **regularly.**

Examples :

He came **late** last night (when?) – Adverb of time.

He stayed **there** for two days (where?) – Adverb of place.

He ran **fast** (how?) – Adverb of manner.

He **rarely** sees films (how often?) – Adverb of frequency

8.2.11.Preposition

Preposition : A preposition is a word placed before a noun, pronoun or '-ing-form' to show its relation with another word in the same sentence. (They link nouns and pronouns with other words.) A preposition is also used with a verb.

Example : The cat is **under** the table.

I gave a chocolate **to** him.

The ball is **in** the shelf.

List of frequently used prepositions

at	it	on	by	to	far
near	of	off	into	for	up
down	from	after	above	below	under
since	about	along	before	beyond	behind
against	around	across	beside	with	without
within	inside	outside			

Chapter 3: Sentence structure

8.3.1.Sentence Structure

S: substantive, subject (noun/pronoun) – (who/which)

V: verb, predicate – action

O: object – (whom, what)

A: adjunct (answer to ‘how’, ‘when’, ‘where’ etc.)

C: complement (a word which completes the meaning of verbs of incomplete predication, like ‘to be’ (am, is, was, were, will be etc.), ‘appear’, ‘look’, ‘elect’, ‘appoint’, ‘become’ etc.

Note : A complement is either a noun or an adjective.

Example:

1.Raju is good (adjective complement)

2.Raju is a doctor. (noun complement)

Sentence Table: Example

Subject	**Verb**	**Object**
Raju	buys	milk
Ram	sells	tea
Kala	drinks	juice

Chapter 4: Sentences

8.4.1.Sentences

A sentence is a group of words that makes complete sense.

Subject - Noun / Pronoun

Mary has a little lam

Subject - Predicate

Predicate - Affirms something about subject

Dog bark at night

8.4.1.1.Kinds of sentences

1. Declarative or Assertive sentence

2. Interrogative sentence

3. Imperative sentence

4. Exclamatory sentence

1. A Sentence that makes Statement / assertion is called declaration Assertive sentence

(A cat sat on the walls)

2. A sentence asks question is called as Interrogative

(Where do you live)

3. A sentence that expresses a commend / request

(Be querit have mercy using us)

4. A sentence that expresses story feeling is called as exclamation

(How cold the night)

Topic 9

Unit 9: Meaning and process of communication

To understand meaning and process of communication

Chapter 1: Communication concepts and process

9.1.1. Communication Concepts and Process

Our ability to communicate and the different forms our communication takes are very often taken for granted. The communication process is fundamental for human survival. It is essential to the development of the individual, to the formation and continued existence of groups and to the interrelations among groups.

Communication is as old as human history; many indicators prove that effective communication is the main factor enhancing civilization through history. This is why communication is ,considered multi-culture phenomena, Ancient-Greeks, Ancient Egyptians, Ancient-Chinese, Arabs, Europeans and Americans have got their impact on communication.

On the other hand, the study of human communication is interdisciplinary. It began with the mathematically theory of communication by Claude E.Shanon and Warren Weaver in 1949, scientists considered as strictly mathematical. Their aim was to measure the amount of information, in the mess ages, that is transmitted through the media the telephone; however, as years passed by, inter-disciplinary approaches to study human communication came up. They rely on psychology, sociology, speech communication, political, journalism, anthropology management, education, marketing and philosophy. Thus, we can say that every discipline concerned with human behaviour must deal with communication.

There are many definitions of communication:

Definitions of Communication

Schramm defines communication as "a tool that makes societies possible and distinguish human from other societies". Berelson and Steiner define communication as the transmission of· information, ideas, emotions, skills through the use of symbols, words, pictures, figures, and graph. Rogers says, "Communication is the process of transmitting / ideas, information, and attitudes from the source to a receiver for the purpose of influencing with intent". Kar defines communication as "all those planned or unplanned processes through which one person influences behaviour of others."

A more comprehensive suggested definition to define communication would be: "a process of transmitting ideas, information, attitudes (images which we have formulated for ourselves) by the use of symbols, words, pictures, figures from the source (who is the originator of the message) to a receiver, for the purpose of influencing with intent", So communication is considered as a process through which senders and receivers of messages interact in a given social context.

We can conclude that communication is a process used to timely and properly exchange information between a sender and a receiver to achieve a desired goal.

A) Process: It suggests that the components of interaction are dynamic in nature. They can not be regarded as unchanging elements in time and space. This simply means that no single aspect of communication can be meaningfully understood apart from the other elements

B) Interaction: It is the process of linking between senders and receivers of the message. The process specifies interaction or linkages between or among countless factors; so that the changes in any set of forces affect the operation of all other processes to produce a total effect.The concept of interaction is central to an understanding of the concept of process in communication. Communication is an attempt to bridge the gap between two individuals through producing and receiving messages which have meaning for both.

C) Social Context: Human communication is, to a great extent, . Influenced by the social context in which it occurs. The context or the situation that consists of a set of rules which govern the origin, flow and effect of the messages.

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9.1.3. Types of communication

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

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

38% by the tone of voice, and

7% by the content or the words used in the communication process.

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

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

There is no defined line between a language and a dialect, but the linguist Max Weinreich is credited as saying that "a language is a dialect with an army and a navy". Constructed languages such as Esperanto, programming languages, and various mathematical formalisms are not necessarily restricted to the properties shared by human languages. Communication is usually described along a few major dimensions: Content (what type of things are communicated), source, emisor, sender or encoder (by whom), form (in which form), channel (through which medium), destination, receiver, target or decoder (to whom), and the purpose or pragmatic aspect. Between parties, communication includes acts that confer knowledge and experiences, give advice and commands, and ask questions. These acts may take many forms, in one of the various manners of communication. The form depends on the abilities of the group communicating. Together, communication content and form make messages that are sent towards a destination. The target can be oneself, another person or being, another entity (such as a corporation or group of beings).

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

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

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

In a simple model, information or content (e.g. a message in natural language) is sent in some form (as spoken language) from an emisor/ sender/ encoder to a destination/

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

Theories of coregulation describe communication as a creative and dynamic continuous process, rather than a discrete exchange of information. Canadian media scholar Harold Innis had the theory that people use different types of media to communicate and which one they choose to use will offer different possibilities for the shape and durability of society (Wark, McKenzie 1997). His famous example of this is using ancient Egypt and looking at the ways they built themselves out of media with very different properties stone and papyrus. Papyrus is what he called ' Space Binding' . it made possible the trasnsmission of written orders across space, empires and enables the waging of distant military campaigns and colonial administration. The other is stone and ' Time Binding' , through the construction of temples and the pyramids can sustain their authority generation to generation, through this media they can change and shape communication in their society (Wark, McKenzie 1997).

9.1.5. Verbal Communication

The basis of communication is the interaction between people. Verbal communication is one way for people to communicate face-to-face. Some of the key components of verbal communication are sound, words, speaking, and language. At birth, most people have vocal cords, which produce sounds. As a child grows it learns how to form these sounds into words. Some words may be imitative of natural sounds, but others may come from expressions of emotion, such as laughter or crying. Words alone have no meaning. Only people can put meaning into words. As meaning is assigned to words, language develops, which leads to the development of speaking.The actual origin of language is subject to considerable speculation. Some theorists believe it is an outgrowth of group activities such as working together or dancing. Others believe that language developed from basic sounds and gestures.Over 3,000 languages and major dialects are spoken in the world today. The development of languages reflects class, gender, profession, age group, and other social factors. The huge variety of languages usually creates difficulties between different languages, but even within a single language there can be many problems in understanding.Through speaking we try to eliminate this misunderstanding, but sometimes this is a very hard thing to do. Just as we assume that our messages are clearly received, so we assume that because something is important to us, it is important to others. As time has proven this is not at all true. Many problems can arise is speaking and the only way to solve these problems is through experience.

Speaking can be looked at in two major areas: interpersonal and public speaking. Since the majority of speaking is an interpersonal process, to communicate effectively we must not simply clean up our language, but learn to relate to people. In interpersonal speaking, etiquette is very important. To be an effective communicator one must speak in a manner that is not offending to the receiver. Etiquette also plays an important role in an area that has developed in most all business settings: hierarchical communication. In business today, hierarchical communication is of utmost importance to all members involved. The other major area of speaking is public speaking. From the origin of time, it has been obvious that some people are just better public speakers than others. Because of this, today a good speaker can earn a living by speaking to people in a public setting. Some of the major areas of public speaking are speaking to persuade, speaking to inform, and speaking to inspire or motivate.

9.1.6. Nonverbal communication

Nonverbal communication (NVC) is usually understood as the process of communication through sending and receiving wordless messages.

NVC can be communicated through gesture and touch (Haptic communication), by body language or posture, by facial expression and eye contact. NVC can be communicated through object communication such as clothing, hairstyles or even architecture, symbols and infographics. Speech contains nonverbal elements known as paralanguage, including voice quality, emotion and speaking style, as well as prosodic features such as rhythm, intonationand stress. Likewise, written texts have nonverbal elements such as handwriting style, spatial arrangement of words, or the use of emoticons.

However, much of the study of nonverbal communication has focused on face-to-face interaction, where it can be classified into three principal areas:

environmental conditions where communication takes place, the physical characteristics of the communicators, and behaviors of communicators during interaction.

Chapter 2: Verbal vs Oral communication

9.2.1. Verbal vs Oral communication

Scholars in this field usually use a strict sense of the term "verbal", meaning "of or concerned with words," and do not use "verbal communication" as a synonym for oral or spoken communication. Thus, vocal sounds that are not considered to be words, such as a grunt, or singing a wordless note, are nonverbal. Sign languages and writing are generally understood as forms of verbal communication, as both make use of words — although like speech, both may contain paralinguistic elements and often occur alongside nonverbal messages. Nonverbal communication can occur through any sensorychannel — sight, sound, smell, touch or taste. NVC is important as:

"When we speak (or listen), our attention is focused on words rather than body language. But our judgement includes both. An audience is simultaneously processing both verbal and nonverbal cues. Body movements are not usually positive or negative in and of themselves; rather, the situation and the message will determine the appraisal."

9.2.2. History

The first scientific study of nonverbal communication was Charles Darwin's book *The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals* (1872). He argued that all mammals show emotion reliably in their faces. Studies now range across a number of fields, including , linguistics, semiotics and social psychology.

9.2.3. Arbitrariness

While much nonverbal communication is based on arbitrary symbols, which differ from culture to culture, a large proportion is also to some extent iconicand may be universally understood. Paul Ekman's influential 1960s studies of facial expression determined that expressions of anger, disgust, fear, joy, sadness and surprise are universal.

Uniforms have both a functional and a communicative purpose. This man's clothes identify him as male and a police officer; his badges and shoulder sleeve insignia give information about his job and rank.

Elements such as physique, height, weight, hair, skin color, gender, odors, and clothing send nonverbal messages during interaction. For example, a study was made in Vienna, Austria, of the clothing worn by women attending discotheques. It was found for certain groups of women (especially women which were in town without their partners) that motivation for sex, and levels of sexual hormones, were correlated with aspects of the clothing, especially the amount of skin displayed, and the presence of sheer clothing, e.g. at the arms. Thus, to some degree, clothing sent signals about interest in courtship.

Research into height has generally found that taller people are perceived as being more impressive. Melamed & Bozionelos (1992) studied a sample of managers in the UK and found that height was a key factor affecting who was promoted. Often people try to make themselves taller, for example, standing on a platform, when they want to make more of an impact with their speaking.

9.2.4. Physical environment

Environmental factors such as furniture, architectural style, interior decorating, lighting conditions, colors, temperature, noise, and music affect the behavior of communicators during interaction. The furniture itself can be seen as a nonverbal message

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9.2.5. Proxemics

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

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

Proxemics was first developed by Edward T. Hall during the 1950s and 60s. Hall's studies were inspired by earlier studies of how animals demonstrateterritoriality. The term territoriality is still used in the study of proxemics to explain human behavior regarding personal space. Hargie & Dickson identify 4 such territories:

1. Primary territory: this refers to an area that is associated with someone who has exclusive use of it. For example, a house that others cannot enter without the owner's permission.
2. Secondary territory: unlike the previous type, there is no "right" to occupancy, but people may still feel some degree of ownership of a particular space. For example, someone may sit in the same seat on train every day and feel aggrieved if someone else sits there.
3. Public territory: this refers to an area that is available to all, but only for a set period, such as a parking space or a seat in a library. Although people have only a limited claim over that space, they often exceed that claim. For example, it was found that people take longer to leave a parking space when someone is waiting to take that space.
4. Interaction territory: this is space created by others when they are interacting. For example, when a group is talking to each other on a footpath, others will walk around the group rather than disturb it.

9.2.6. Chronemics

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

- Monochronic time schedule (M-time): Time is seen as being very important and it is characterized by a linear pattern where the emphasis is on the use of time schedules and appointments. Time is viewed as something that can be controlled or wasted by individuals, and people tend to do one thing at a time. The M-pattern is typically found in North America and Northern Europe.
- Polychronic time schedule (P-time): Personal involvement is more important than schedules where the emphasis lies on personal relationships rather than keeping appointments on time. This is the usual pattern that is typically found in Latin America and the Middle East.

- **9.2.7. Movement and body position**

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

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

9.2.8. Posture

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

Unit 10: Listening and note taking, writing skills

To learn listening, note taking and writing skills by the students.

Chapter 1: Listening

10.1.1. Listening

Listening is both a physiological as well as a cognitive process, a sort of qualitative add-on to hearing. Listening also helps the cultivation of smooth interpersonal relationships with fellow workers, which is essential for efficient functioning of the organization.

Listening skills

Research studies and surveys have shown that most of the adults are poor listeners. A basic reason for this is that we practice it seldom though few of us have been taught how to listen; listening efficiency can actually be raised by merely giving some attention to it. A prime cause of poor listening is the difference between the think speed and a person's rate of speech. This refers to the difference between the average rate of speech-about 125 to 175 words a minute and brain's capacity to think words , which is at the rate of 500 to 1000 words a minute or in some case 5000 . Thus, our brain works too fast and the relatively slow input of these 125 to 175 words a minute leaves the mind much room to think about other things. When we are engaged in conversation we find so many times that the listener is miles away.

Guidelines for listening effectively

Active and effective listening is must to become an effective speaker. By listening carefully to his audience, a communicator can gauge how his message is being received. By listening patiently to their comments and questions, he can tell how his points are being understood. The listeners can see the following techniques/ideas to improve their basic listening. A communicator can put them to use to improve his overall listening ability.

Stop talking: You cannot listen if you are talking.

Put the talker at ease: Help a person feel free to talk. This is often called a permissive environment. In this environment speaker feels to express opinions, feelings ideas and attitudes.

Show a talker that you want to listen: Look and act interested. Do not do any other (reading mail) while someone talks. Listen to understand rather than to oppose.

Remove distraction: Do not tap or shuffle papers. If there is some noise or distraction from outside it will be better to shut the door.

Give feedback: When you are communicator, immediate feedback is very important. If there is a misunderstanding, the best time to rectify it is immediately, to avoid future problems.

Listen between the lines: Very often, we may say one thing while we really mean something quite different. Others may also do like this. So, it is important to remember this advice. Do not listen to what I say, listen to what I mean.

Listen for purpose motive: Every speaker hopefully has a purpose, but it may not related to the content of the speech. In order to determine the speaker's motive, free your mind of traditional evaluative thoughts and ask yourself the question what is the speaker's purpose. Listen carefully and get an idea of the speaker's perspective. Try to understand the framework and point of view.

Listen for attitudes: Our behavior is a reflection of our attitudes, and our attitudes are shaped by our motives. To understand a person's motives, you must listen carefully or expressions about other people, classes, groups or ideas. People reveal their attitudes in their comments about others. So listen attentively and do not lit a contrasting attitude or value stop you from listening.

Listen to non-verbal language: This language is expressed through eye contact and facial expressions such as smiles, frowns, raised eye brows, moving versus steady eyes, a tense versus a relaxed face, and look of approval or disapproval etc. Finger pointing, covering the mouth with hand and toughing are also ways of non verbal expression. Another way of non-verbal communication is how say words. This includes voice intonation, inflections, and smoothness of speech and so on. How a person says words, can greatly after their meaning. Often this non-verbal communication takes place simultaneously with verbal speaking which can amplify or change the meaning of woks. It also expresses attitudes and emotions. So consider these non verbal cues within the physical and cultural context and in reference to the individual using them.

Avoid negative feedback: When people become emotionally upset they tend to interrupt, argue with, or criticize the speaker. It makes the speaker defensive and he/she can hide his real opinions, feelings, ideas and attitudes.

Emphasize with the talker: Perhaps the best trait of a good listener is that of empathy. Being able to put ourselves in other's positions and sincerely trying to see things from their point of view is truly an ability teacher and trainers should cultivate.

Be patient: allow plenty of time. Do not interrupt a talker. Do not start for the door or walk away.

Hold your temper: an angry of disturbed person takes the wrong meaning from words. An individual is better able to deal with the situation if he fully understands the opposing position. So, if you are to understand other person, you must keep yourself cool and hold your temper. Try to listen empathetically to something that disturbs you.

Go easy on argument and criticism: This puts people on the defensive, and they may ' clean-up ' or become angry. Do not argue. Even if you win, you lose. Ask questions: This encourages a talker and shows that you are listening. It helps to develop points further.

Stop talking: This first last, because all other guides depend on it. You cannot do an effective listening job while you are talking.

Nature gave people two ears but only one tongue which is a gentle hint that they should listen more than they talk. Listening requires two ears, one for meaning and one for feeling.

To develop your listening skills, evaluate your communication with another person after the discussion ends. Ask yourself, what did I do effectively in term soft these techniques? Then ask, what do I need to improve on?

Barriers to listening:

i) Adverse physical atmosphere:

Proper physical environment induces good listening.

ii) Lack of motivation

The lack of a strong desire to understand, to learn, to acquire skills, or to gain knowledge binders effective listening.

iii) Improper perception

A distorted or truncated perception of the relevance and usefulness of the topic affects listening adversely.

iv) Negative personality traits

Studies on the relationship between listening and personality traits show that in general, those persons who are self-centered, boastful and down.

10.1.2. Developing listening skills

1. Familiarise yourself with the sound system of English
The sound system of every language is unique. So listening sometimes suffers because the sound system of one's mother tongue interferes with the sound system of English. Apart from individual sounds, there are other important features which play a significant role in conveying meaning. To

comprehend fully it is essential to recognize the difference between a stressed word and an unstrugged word, falling intonation and rising information, short pause and long pause.

2. Focus on your purpose

Listening serves a number of purposes. As a student, when you attend lectures and seminars, your purpose is to gather information, to gain knowledge, to understand concepts, and to learn the procedure or process of doing things. Sometimes your listening has to be critical as well. For example, when proposal is put forward or plan of action is suggested you have to be critical in your approach while examining their suitability or feasibility.

3. Have a positive attitude towards the speaker and the topic

Prevent yourself from paying attention to the dress and physical features of the speaker. Keep your mind open and ready to receive.

4. Listen with your eyes as well as Ears

You must carefully pay attention not only to the spoken words but also on how they are being attend and the accompanying body language. The non-verbal.

10.1.3. Art of Listening

Many professionals do not wait and listen. Lack of listening may lead to erroneous communication. Managers and teachers should develop the art oflistening and not assume that they know what is being said. Good and active listening requires careful hearing and understanding of the message to make out its meaning. Listening is often undermined by distractions arising from the environment, the learner and the speaker.

Listening is a part of good communication. Active listening, sometimes by writing notes, responses greater confidence in the listener. Listening is to showing respect to the speaker and his/her view point. A number of package courses on effective listening are marketed. In such courses, managers are made to listen over extended durations and capture the critical information, constantly analyse the message, retain keywords, organise their thoughts and then respond to the situation

10.1.4. How to develop listening skills

Good listeners make good communicators. They listen carefully to what others say. Here are some suggestions to improve your listening skills:

1. Stop talking sometimes. Most communicators tend to talk too much.

2. Put the audience at case. Show them that you respect their opinions.

3. Concentrate on what someone is saying.

4. Don't allow others to talk and to distract you from listening

5. Avoid making assumptions. Don't assume that you know what someone is going to say to you.

6. Look for hidden or deeper messages.

7. Ask questions. Questions will often prompt students to respond better.

8. Listen actively; restate and rephrase what has been said to you before responding.

Are you a good listener

Give score 1 for Yes and 0 for No

As you Listen:

1. Do you ask questions and wait for an answer?

2. Do you respond quickly and directly to the questions that are asked?

3. Does the other person feel that you are listening actively to him/her?

4. Do you give an occasional nod, or an 'uh-huh' or an "I see" while you listen?

5. Do you shift your posture or lean forward in the chair and at appropriate moments smile or shake your head meaningfully while you listen?

6. Do you maintain strong eye contact with your conversation mate?

7. Do you go ahead and ask a question that follows closely from what was just said after the other person comes to a break in his or her talking?

8. Are you mentally "with your speaker" every moment?

9. Are you tempted to interrupt the speaker in between if you disagree with him on an issue?

10. Do you listen patiently with an open mind?

11. Do you encourage your speaker to express his ideas fully?

12. As a listener are you able to take time away from your most important focus yourself?

Scoring

Correct answers: ‘Yes’ answers for all questions except no. 9 are correct answers.

Interpretation

8 and above: You really are a “people’s a person”. You are a good listener and intelligent enough to understand that listening intently to people is one of the highest compliments we can pay anyone. So, you have others think of you as really interested in them when in reality you simply listen to them and encourage them to talk. This way you learn things and people respond to you since you listen to them. You are thus an effective communicator and can become a successful leader. Keep it up!

Less than 8: You seem to be too preoccupied with your own self to listen. Come out of your self-centred approach. You have to learn to listen to others – your employees, customers, friends, family as well as your critics. Get involved in others. People must be treated as individuals. They’re people first, employees second. This is a special motivation technique. So get set and step outside yourself to discover what’s important to someone else.

Chapter 2: Note taking

10.2.1. Note taking

Studies find that note taking helps students' focus attention, promotes more thorough elaboration of ideas, and encourages efforts to relate ideas and organize materials. In short, notetaking helps students to process information more deeply. As an instructor, you can do a number of things to help your students take and use their notes more effectively. Here are some tips:

OUTLINE YOUR LECTURE/USE TRANSITION PHRASES

Be overt in the organization of your lecture, both orally and visually. For example, write your lecture outline on the board. Second, since studies show that students usually record what the instructor has written, be discriminating in your use of the board or transparencies. Third, during the lecture, refer to your outline to highlight shifts in topic. Last, use signaling phrases and transition statements such as "this is important," "you'll want to remember," "these differ in three important ways," "the second point is, "or "next,..."

USE A FRAMEWORK

If appropriate to your subject matter, give students a framework or schema for how to organize information. Most information can be organized into one of two frameworks:

sequence or classification. Sequence is used to explain change, influence, or phases. For example, if you're presenting information that illustrates time, space, or a process it's most likely a sequence; "stages of development" suggests a process that can be illustrated with arrows.

For example:

infancy---->childhood---->adolescence---->young ---->adulthood

On the other hand, if the information consists of types, parts, characteristics,

components, or elements, you can classify it and present the information as a hierarchy.

For example:

Behaviorism

Humanism

Major Theorist

Central Premise

Examples

Therapy

Both patterns can help students contrast and compare the material for similarities and differences.

TELL STUDENTS WHAT TO RECORD.

Should they record examples, sample problems, the questions discussed in class? What about explanations of examples and solutions to problems? Is it necessary to record names, dates, and research cited? The answers to such questions differ from one course to another. You can help students by providing explicit instructions, at least in the first few classes, about what to include in class notes.

CHALLENGE STUDENTS TO THINK

Pause from time to time and ask them to paraphrase what they have written in their notes -- to rewrite definitions, to restate relationships, to retell an example. Urge them to use their own words. Suggest that they explain their notes to a student seated near by. They, ask them to write their paraphrased explanation in their notes.

To get students to elaborate and extend their notes (and their understanding), ask them to write endings to sentences: "Another example of this might be..."; "The last time I saw a problem like this was..."; "I remember talking about this issue with..."; "This information might explain why..." Such prompts encourage students to connect new material to what they already know, another step toward understanding and retention.

TRAIN STUDENTS TO TAKE BETTER NOTES

Give students feedback on their notes. Occasionally hand out your version of lecture notes after class, so that students can compare their notes to yours. Note: Just be sure your lecture actually corresponds to the notes you give them!

When you meet with students who are having trouble with your course, ask them to bring in their lecture notes. Poor notes (or no notes!) may be the source of much of their problems. Many faculty also recommend that students in trouble re-copy their notes, and in the process organize them, fill in gaps using the text, and ferret out the points not completely understood which require extra study.

MAKE TIME FOR NOTETAKING ACTIVITIES IN CLASS

Remember: you are using note taking as a vehicle for encouraging students to think more deeply about the lecture content. Many students do learn from taking notes and reviewing them. By showing concern for note taking in your classes, you exhibit your interest in helping students "learn how to learn." And you may increase the likelihood that your students learn what you teach them.

10.2.2 Note taking techniques

What is note taking?

It is a practice of recording information captured from a transient source, such as an oral discussion at a meeting, or a lecture. Notes of a meeting are called minutes. The format of the initial record is informal or unstructured one common format for such notes is short hand. Which can allow large amounts of information can be put on a paper very quickly. Notes are usually written in note books, some people also use post it notes.

The pre requisite:

Note Taking is a skill you can develop. However, you have to develop another skill before you become a good note maker. This prerequisite is goodlistening skill. Concentrate on the lecture (contents) rather than the lecturer. Listen with an open mind finally, sit in the front (if possible) row and maintain eye contact with speaker and take notes.

Why to take lecture notes?

1. Taking notes forces you to listen carefully and tests your understanding of the

material.

2. Reviewing notes helps you to guage what is important in the text.

3. Personal notes are easier to remember than the text.

4. Taking notes helps you to remember longer.

Clues to important points in lectures

1. The words written on the black board are usually those that the teacher feels Important and must be remembered and understood.

2. The teachers usually repeat words phrases or information he deems important.

3. The importance of the contents can also be judged by the tone, voice and gestures of the teachers or the amount of time he spends on the points and number of examples he gives.

4. Summary given by the teacher at the end of the class.

5. Reviews given at the beginning of class are also clues to important points.

Develop a method of taking notes.

Each student has his known method of taking notes. However,

1. Make your notes brief never use a complete sentences.

2. Use abbreviations and symbols as much as possible.

Example:

fr -From	Vs-against
w/ -with	N.B –Note well
w/o- without	etc – and so forth
e.g. – example	? – questionable item
c.f. – compare with	Q – question
re – in reference to	ref – reference

i.e - that is

ˆ - therefore

ø - important

3. Omit vowels in words such as transfer becomes transfer

4. Write your notes in your own words

5. Use numbering system or out line form

a)Charting : Creating graphs or tables with row and columns or flow chart.

b)Outlining: I First topic

A. Sub topic

1.

2.

B. Sub – Topic

II. Main topic

C. Sub topic

1.

2.

6. Use mapping: Ideas are written in free structure with lines connecting them together. Usually starts from centre and branches out also use different color to represent each idea.

7. Date your notes and number the pages too.

8. Do not use every space of the page. Leave some space so that missing words or your inference can be written at the end of the lecture or co ordinate with text books.

9. Give visual emphasis to the important ideas by doing

1. Underline key statements or important concepts may be with colors.

2. Use signal marks: Arrows, asterisks.

10. Take notes on only one side of the papers not both sides.

Although, economising is secondary importance.

Suggested note taking techniques .

Enough research as been done on note taking two techniques have been fond best.

The 2 – 3 – 3 - 2 Technique.

When the lecturer present or discus the contents of Text book then go for this method.

Headings		
A	B	C
2 O	3 O	3 O
2 O D		

Use this column

A = Recall clues helps you to recall concepts / ideas

B = Use this for lecture notes

C = Use this for text book notes

D = Write your own observation

The 2 - 5 – 1 Technique.

Use this technique when the lecture and the readings (text book) are not closely related.

Headings		
A	B	C
2 O	5 O	1 O

ie (lecture notes)

Headings		
A	B	C
2 O	5 O	1 O

ie (Text book notes)

A = Use this column for recall clues.

B = Use this column for lecture or Text notes

C = Use this column for your observations.

10.3.1. Effective writing

You cannot make people understand a subject unless you understand that subject yourself.

- *William Jennings Bryan*

Researches conducted in the area of effective writing have mainly established four important steps viz., plan, write, trim and check.

1. Planning

Good planning always helps the writer in visualising receivers and identifying their interests and felt needs. Actually a good writer plans his/her writing like an architect who first drafts his plan and designs every details and thus prepares a blue print of the build.ing before its construction.Before writing, purpose of writing, message one wants to tell and characteristics of audiences/farmers/farm women should be very clear. Then rearrange ideas in order: Bait your reader i.e. catch their interest by drawing their attention by giving a good title. While writing, it is very important for writers to follow the 'Principle of empathy' i.e. putting himself in the reader's place and start judging the writing. Before you put words on paper that will bait, hold, sell and tell readers you must answer six questions.

(a) Who? - Your Readers: Who are the people you want to reach?

You can not help people solve their problems until you know who they are and what their problems are? Know what your readers know and what they want to know. Visualize their educational, social, and· economic level, their interests, attitudes and beliefs.

Do your readers have the equipment, environment and capacity to use your information? Remember you are writing for readers; the more you know about them, the better your chance of havin~ readers.

Always remember that it is dangerous to try to reach too many different kinds of readers. A publication that has been planned for one kind of reader may not appeal to a reader in another group.

(b) Where? : Where do the intended readers live? Where will they use the publication? -rural area, urban areas, worldwide, continental, in school, at home, in the library, regional, national, provincial, local, in the office, in an entreprise etc?

(c) What?: Your facts: Have something to say and be sure of your facts? List facts that help readers solve a problem. Find a slant, a central theme to develop. Weigh facts. Is information timely and of local interest? does it meet a need? It is practised: Can people use it, can they afford to use it?

(d) Why? : Your reasons for writing the publication. What is your purpose? What do you want your information to accomplish? Do you want to stimulate interest in a programme, or are you trying to show people how to do something? Whether you want to teach, to record, to announce, to persuade, to entertain, to please the boss, or for personal advancement. What response is wanted from the reader? What feedback should you expect.

(e) When?: When is the material going to be used? Will it be of value only for a short time? for many years? It is needed at once? If not, when?

(f) How?: Your outline for writing facts. Think through - how you are going to package your tacts, how are you going to present them? First make a rough outline of facts listed.

2. Writing

After preparing a writing plan you should start putting down your ideas.

While writing:

Make it brief: Try to say what you want to say as briefly as you can. Of course, do not miss an)! of the important things you want to say.

Write as you talk: Simple writing is like talking with your readers.

When you talk : to a farmer, you bring your language down to his level, so that he understands you and you understand him. You thus create a common denominator between yourself and him.Simple writing is much the same.

Write in clean terms: Award may mean different things to different people. Your reader attaches a meaning to a word, prompted by his own experience. Use words which bring only one meaning you want him to have. You cannot go wrong, if you stick to simple words.

Use concrete words: Use concrete word, which create a picture in the readers mind. Concrete words always makes meaning clear.

Use personal sentences: Like questions, exclamations sentences starting with verbs, spoken sentences directed to your reader.Sentence pattern should vary and sentence length on an average , should be about 17-19 words.

Use familiar words: Use familiar, every day words and the reader will feel that your writing is specially addressed to him. Technical words should be translated to their language without losing exact meaning, if possible.

Say things accurately : Use words that are precise and say exactly what you want to say. Check your facts and include only those which make the reader understand the subject. Don't generalize, give concrete examples, whenever possible which make him understand easily what you want to say.

Make it short tales: Use mostly short sentences. Let each sentence talk about one idea. Use a noun in each sentence. Use a strong verb too. Then yourwriting will carry your thoughts forward and smoothly. Do not make the sentence all of the same length, use a longer sentence now and·then.

Add human interest: Write about people. Include names. Identify people.

Address it to the reader: Write directly to the reader. He will then feel your writing is specially meant for him.

Make your writing friendly: Do not sound bossy in your writing.Make yours a friendly approach, use appeals, persuade rather than force.

Make it interesting: Do not make your writing a drab account of facts. Adopt a style that will be interesting to read. See how others do it. You can adopt a style of writing that appeals to you most.There is nothing wrong in copying someone else's way of writing, till you are able to, through experience, develop your own.

Sift, sort and sell facts: Screen out irrelevant ideas. Group facts under main heading, this helps you sort facts. Keep related ideas together, put first thing first. Rearrange ideas in the order your reader will take. Motivate your readers to read, believe and use your information must entertain as well as inform, must be clever as well as clear.

3. Trimming of Written Material

Actually there is no such thing as good writing, there is only good rewriting.

-Never write more than required to convey the message.

-Say the same thing in few words. Change passive verbs to active so your reader can understand your writing more easily.

- Weed out unnecessary ideas, introductions, irrelevant sentences or parts of sentences, words and conductance like and, as, while, because, with a semi colon, if possible.

-Weed out articles - a, an, the. You do not need them half the time e.g. (The) making (of) silage is one of the best way of preserving (the) roughage.

-Avoid vague adjectives and adverbs - those, indefinite words that express degree, such as substantial (substantially), appreciable (appreciably), considerable (considerably). These words clog your message; they give your reader no standard of comparison e.g. 'This is a subject of considerable importance'. Tell the same message with 'this is important'.

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Technical writing is a special form of writing. Such writings appear in manuals, journals, magazines, newspapers, newsletters, bulletins and reports etc. Its types are :

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-Science writing

A scientific writer is a scientist by profession while a science writer is a professional writer. The former writes for information of fellow-scientist and the latter writes to educate about scientific ways of life for general public. The writing styles differ in these writings as the objective of writing, the audience and the publication modes are different. Hence, the approach to writing differ.

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1. SCIENTIFIC WRITING

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It is the duty of the scientist to report work accurately, completely, clearly and promptly. Science writings are published/communicated largely through journals, books, conference/seminar proceedings, bibliographies, indexes, abstract journals, synoptic journals, reviews, review articles, institutional publications, technical bulletins, monograms and newsletters. Among the numerous ways of communicating result of research, the most important are primary publications. These are considered prestigious and given due weight age in self assessment reports, promotion, interviews etc.

A journal is a primary publication that gathers and publishes work of many authors, according to its editorial guidelines. Journals vary gmeJlf in quality, reputation and nature. Journals of repute use referees while others solely depend upon the judgment of the editor/editorial board.

Standard Structure for Scientific Writing

Over the years, the editors of scientific journals have developed a standard structure for writing. The basic parts of a scientific article are:

title·materials and methods

author results

abstract discussion

text references

introduction foot notes, Acknowledgements
Besides this general format, journals prescribe rules for authors. Before you start writing, read these requirements and rules and write accordingly. As all the parts of the article are important, the authors should give due consideration to each component.

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The title is likely to be reprinted in bibliographies and subject indexes, stored in bibliographic data bae!s. At first glance on the basis of the title a paper/article may be rejected or opened up by the readers.

A good title is one that contains few words/is short

- describes the contents of the paper. accurately/clearly.
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In this section the author should explain what the results mean, how they relate with previous work undertaken by others, discuss implication and significance, state conclusion and implication for future study.

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- Curr.Sci. ·
- Ind. J. Ext. Edu.
- Maha. J. Extn. Edu.
- Ind. J. Genet & Plant · Breeding
- Plant Physiol.
- Plant Dis. Rep.

2. Science Writing

The purpose of science writing is to communicate or inform the general public about important discoveries of science. This form of writing generally appears in newspapers and magazines. Since a large population of the readers have limited educational credentials the findings of science need to be written in a simplified form for easy readability and understandability. The rule of thumb to be followed is that the reader should be able to grasp what is written rather than looking to grasp what is written rather than looking up a dictionary or contacting a scientist. The common reader is not bothered about the technical details while his interest is to satisfy his curiosity or to give him scientific information that is useful in his daily life for his own self, his family members, his peers and the near and dear ones.

Journalism is getting simplified the world over. At the. same time this is getting more important. The print media is giving more space and coverage to science writing. The shorter the article is, the greater are the .chances that it will be read in full and therefore besides simplifying language a writer should learn the art of condensing his thoughts in minimum possible words (Chandel, 1996). Use of photographs adds to appeal and interest.

Writing for Easy Reading

As the goal of your writing is to be ·understood follow the following simple rules:

- Keep the audience in mind.
- Use the familiar and easy words.

- Try to use more personal words as I, me and you.
- Use short sentences.
- Create short paragraphs.
- Each paragraph should have limited ideas.
- Write in a logical manner.
- Write in a consistent manner.
- Give facts and figures with references.
- Give short and suitable title, headings and sub-headings.
- Scratch what is repetitive.
- Incorporate new ideas and novelty.
- Start well to attract and motivate.
- Give graphs and pictorial depictions, if needed.
- Be clear of the purpose of writing.
- Keep the length of the article appropriate.
- Write to read fast.
- Edit what you write.
- Develop your style of writing.

Chapter 3: Writing

10.3.1. Effective writing

You cannot make people understand a subject unless you understand that subject yourself.

- William Jennings Bryan

Researches conducted in the area of effective writing have mainly established four important steps viz., plan, write, trim and check.

1. Planning

Good planning always helps the writer in visualising receivers and identifying their interests and felt needs. Actually a good writer plans his/her writing like an architect who first drafts his plan and designs every details and thus prepares a blue print of the build.ing before its construction.Before writing, purpose of writing, message one wants to tell and characteristics of audiences/farmers/farm women should be very clear. Then rearrange ideas in order: Bait your reader i.e. catch their interest by drawing their attention by giving a good title. While writing, it is very important for writers to follow the 'Principle of empathy' i.e. putting himself in the reader's place and start judging the writing. Before you put words on paper that will bait, hold, sell and tell readers you must answer six questions.

(a) Who? - Your Readers: Who are the people you want to reach?

You can not help people solve their problems until you know who they are and what their problems are? Know what your readers know and what they want to know. Visualize their educational, social, and· economic level, their interests, attitudes and beliefs.

Do your readers have the equipment, environment and capacity to use your information? Remember you are writing for readers; the more you know about them, the better your chance of havin~ readers.

Always remember that it is dangerous to try to reach too many different kinds of readers. A publication that has been planned for one kind of reader may not appeal to a reader in another group.

(b) Where? : Where do the intended readers live? Where will they use the publication? -rural area, urban areas, worldwide, continental, in school, at home, in the library, regional, national, provincial, local, in the office, in an entreprise etc?

(c) What?: Your facts: Have something to say and be sure of your facts? List facts that help readers solve a problem. Find a slant, a central theme to develop. Weigh facts. Is information timely and of local interest? does it meet a need? It is practised: Can people use it, can they afford to use it?

(d) Why? : Your reasons for writing the publication. What is your purpose? What do you want your information to accomplish? Do you want to stimulate interest in a programme, or are you trying to show people how to do something? Whether you want to teach, to record, to announce, to persuade, to entertain, to please the boss, or for personal advancement. What response is wanted from the reader? What feedback should you expect.

(e) When?: When is the material going to be used? Will it be of value only for a short time? for many years? It is needed at once? If not, when?

(f) How?: Your outline for writing facts. Think through - how you are going to package your tacts, how are you going to present them? First make a rough outline of facts listed.

2. Writing

After preparing a writing plan you should start putting down your ideas.

While writing:

Make it brief: Try to say what you want to say as briefly as you can. Of course, do not miss an)! of the important things you want to say.

Write as you talk: Simple writing is like talking with your readers.

When you talk : to a farmer, you bring your language down to his level, so that he understands you and you understand him. You thus create a common denominator between yourself and him.Simple writing is much the same.

Write in clean terms: Award may mean different things to different people. Your reader attaches a meaning to a word, prompted by his own experience. Use words which bring only one meaning you want him to have. You cannot go wrong, if you stick to simple words.

Use concrete words: Use concrete word, which create a picture in the readers mind. Concrete words always makes meaning clear.

Use personal sentences: Like questions, exclamations sentences starting with verbs, spoken sentences directed to your reader.Sentence pattern should vary and sentence length on an average , should be about 17-19 words.

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- Give graphs and pictorial depictions, if needed.
- Be clear of the purpose of writing.
- Keep the length of the article appropriate.
- Write to read fast.
- Edit what you write.
- Develop your style of writing.

Unit 11: Oral presentation skills

11.1.1. Making Oral Presentations

For many people, giving an oral presentation can be a daunting prospect. The key to a good presentation lies in preparation and rehearsal. The following are some guidelines for planning, preparing and practising your presentation.

11.1.2. Planning

What is the purpose of your presentation?

- Why are you giving a presentation? To explain, to convince, to entertain, to justify? The purpose of your presentation will determine how you structure it, what information you will include, what format you will adopt, the type and form of your visual aids, etc.

Who is your audience?
Your audience will most likely include fellow classmates and your tutors or lecturers.

- What will they know of your subject?
- What background information do you need to provide?
- What technical terms or complex matters will you need to explain and what can you assume they already know?
- How can you keep them interested?
- What questions might they ask?
- Will your presentation be marked? If so, what are the marking criteria?

11.1.3. Preparing

The introduction

Introduce your talk with a brief overview of the points you will cover, locating the topic in its wider context and clearly stating your argument or thesis. Describe what the presentation is about and how it will develop.

For example:
'I'm going to talk about ....'
'This morning I want to explain ....'
'The points I will focus on are first of all..... Then...... This will lead to..... And finally...'

Tip: Display the outline of your talk in key points on an OHT or slide. Try to begin with an attention grabber to capture your audience's interest. Some ideas are:

* a startling fact
* a cartoon
* a pertinent question
* an interesting statistic
* a dramatic visual aid

Tip: Avoid telling a joke unless you know it is going to work. If it falls flat, so will your confidence.

11.1.4. The body

Decide the main ideas you want to get across and group them into logical and coherent 'chunks' of information.
* Keep focused on what's important.
* Ensure key ideas stand out.
* Keep relevant and to the point. Omit trivial details and waffle.
* Provide the necessary evidence to support your conclusions.
* Use clear examples to illustrate your points.
* Use 'connective devices' to move from point to point, to help your audience follow your thread of ideas , e.g.
- 'The next point I want to make is ...'
- 'From this we can see that ....'
- 'As a consequence ...' 'In spite of this, the results showed that ...'
- 'An example of this was when ....'
- 'On the other hand, it is also true that ....'

11.1.5. The conclusion

Conclude by briefly summing up everything that you covered and restate your thesis and your findings. For example:
'To sum up ...'
'From this we can see ...'
'To recap the main points ...'
'My intention was to show that .... and the results confirmed that ....'
You might also like to indicate areas for further research or follow-up but don't

introduce any new material.
Thank the audience for their attention and ask if there are any comments or questions.
Tip: Be prepared for questions but if you cannot answer, don't be thrown.
Think of some strategies to handle any tricky ones.
Visual Aids
Keep visual aids clear, simple and uncluttered.
* With overhead transparencies and slides, avoid too many words and use key words only, not full sentences.
* Don't use a font smaller than 16 on OHPS -- even bigger is desirable.
* Break statistics down into easily readable pie charts or graphs. If you have quantities of statistics you wish to convey to your audience, do so on a hand-out.

11.1.6. Practicing

Being prepared means rehearsing your presentation as many times as it takes to get it right. Even experienced presenters advocate plenty of run-throughs. Use family, friends, or a mirror. This will increase your confidence and allow you to feel more relaxed and sure that everything will work on the day. You will know that your visual aids will fit in with your text, that you won't be shuffling around in a heap of notes, and that you will not 'dry up'. Also, most important, you'll get the timing right.

11.1.7. Delivery

* Make sure you know what type of equipment will be in the room and how to use it.
* Do not read from pages of notes. Use your visual aids for cues and have brief back-up notes on cards or light cardboard about A5 size or smaller. (Don't try to memorise your talk).
* Use appropriate language -- e.g. get the right level of formality/informality.
* If you think you are going to stumble over a particular word or phrase, use a different one if you can. Otherwise, rehearse it enough times so that it trips off the tongue.
* Don't use too much 'filler speech' -- too many 'ums' and 'ahs' will irritate your audience.
* Sound and look enthusiastic. If you want your audience to be interested in your talk, then you must show interest and enthusiasm yourself.
* Pitch your voice at the back row, not the front row.

Tip: If you have difficulty in speaking loudly enough, go into a largish room and practise shouting to the back of it -- you'll soon increase the volume of your voice.

11.1.8. Body language

* Where will you stand in relation to the equipment you are using? If you are using a screen, make sure you don't stand in front of it.

* Try to adopt a relaxed posture but not so relaxed that you look sloppy or unprofessional.
* Avoid nervous gestures such as waving hands around, clicking pens, or brandishing a pointer.
* Make eye contact with your audience. Try to avoid gazing over people's
* heads or looking down at your notes too much. If you find it difficult to make eye contact, concentrate on a couple of friendly faces for a few seconds at a time.

Tip: Hold your hands loosely crossed in front of you with one hand holding your cue cards and occasionally make a gesture with one hand to avoid looking too stiff.

11.1.9. Handling anxiety

According to the book of lists, the fear of speaking in public is the #1 fear of all fears. (The fear of dying is #7!) Almost everyone feels nervous when giving a presentation or speaking in public so if you feel nervous, it is perfectly natural and understandable. If you have prepared and rehearsed well, you will have done a great deal already to reduce nervousness.
* If you think your hands might shake, it's another good reason to use cards instead of paper for your notes. A4 sheets held between two shaking hands will draw your own and everyone else's attention to the fact that you are nervous and will distract from the content of your talk.
* Know the room and know the equipment. Something unexpected could cause you to fluster.
* Take some deep breaths, in through the nose and out through the mouth, half a dozen times before you start.

* On the day, arrive early and greet people as they walk in and have a chat. This breaks the ice and creates a nice relaxed atmosphere.

* If you are feeling nervous, don't call attention to it. Your audience probably won't even notice.
* In the weeks/days leading up to your presentation, do some positive visualisation. Sitting quietly or lying in bed, imagine yourself standing in front of the group, feeling very calm and relaxed, speaking in a loud, assured voice. Run this through your head like a videotape. (Don't 'negatively rehearse' by imagining yourself blowing it.)
* Nerves can cause us to 'babble' and our ideas to race. Don't be afraid to take a pause ... slow down ... take a breath. If you become confused and momentarily lose your thread, don't panic. Calmly check your cue cards and continue.

Tip: One experienced speaker recommends having the first four minutes or so 'hot-wired' - so well rehearsed that you know every word and gesture for that first few minutes.
Try to enjoy your presentation. Look on it as a performance -- you are a bit like an actor playing a part. Even if you are not feeling confident and at ease, pretend that you are.

11.1.10. Self-assessment checklist

Did you introduce yourself to your audience?	Yes No
Did you aim to arouse the interest of your audience?	Yes No
Did you begin with a clear introduction of your topic with an overview of what you would cover?	Yes No
Were your ideas presented clearly with a logical flow from one point to the next?	Yes No
Did you conclude by summing up what you had covered?	Yes No
Were your visual aids clear and easy to read?	Yes No
Did you have good control of your material with everything in the correct	Yes

order?	No
Did you give the right amount of facts and figures? Could your audience understand them?	Yes No
Did you avoid reading too much from your notes?	Yes No
Did you look comfortable and relaxed?	Yes No
Did you display any nervous gestures, such as hand-waving or pen-clicking?	Yes No
Did you look and sound interested and enthusiastic?	Yes No
Was your voice loud enough to be heard?	Yes No
Did you speak too quickly or too slowly?	Yes No
Were there any words you had problems pronouncing?	Yes No
Did you get your timing right? Too long? Too short?	Yes No
Did you allow time for questions, and invite your audience to make comments (rather than just asking, 'any questions?')?	Yes No
Did you provide hand-outs for people to take away?	Yes No

Unit 12: Field diary and lab record

12.1.1. Field diary

The field diary is the basic document which contain all the data collected. Facts and interpretations are to be written separately and conversations to be noted in the vernacular languages. Two kinds of field notes are to be observed

a) Taking notes on the spot

b) Writing detailed diary

Daily field diary

It is instructed to write the field diary everyday in which

a) Detailed notes of observations

b) Field notes on discussion and conversations

c) Details of Interpersonal communication, gossips, fold history's similar events

d) Specific details of special events

Specific reference about the main field of study for instance, the details about the process of message diffusion, various kinds of channels of communication were described in detail.

Field diary for Research Process documentation

The most useful tool for a process documenter is a field diary. The documenter uses a field diary to record his or her observations and thoughts in an orderly fashion. Recording observations and impressions enables a researcher to pick up clues about how the system is operating.

A field diary should help the investigator understand the systems physical and social setting. It should help describe who, what, why, where, when and how. Who refers to the people or system being studied. What concerns the information gathered. Why, where, when and how provide important details about the observation.

There is no special format in writing a field diary but entries should be written daily in chronological order so information is not forgetten or changed because of forgetfulness. The critical concern is that observations are recorded in a diary regularly.

Diary content should be organized into two categories.

1) Observations

2) Impressions

Observations should be objective, the documenter should only write down what she/he actually saw or heard. Observations include descriptions of the physical setting (Climate, geographic area and resources), the demographics settings (concentration, movement and general characteristics of people) and the organizational setting (the different social levels in the system, the communication network and the degree of complexity in the social system).

The researcher also observes individuals, small groups, families ethmic groups, villages and government organizations. Observations can be made of situations and human actions, including actors between farmers between farmers and government agencies and between different government agencies.

The subjective impressions of the documenter make up the second category in a field diary. Impressions should be clearly differentiated from observations. If for instance the researcher observes a bitter argument between two farmers about water distribution in a canal, she/he should write down what was actually seen and then write down his or her own impressions of the vent. Impressions are important because they help the researcher evaluate and give meaning to the observations. Thus, impressions should be recorded for all observations. As a result of recording impressions, new ideas may emerge that may lead to a better understanding of the irrigation system.

12.2.1. Laboratory Record

Guidelines for Keeping a Laboratory Record

The following is a general description of how to keep a proper laboratory notebook. Requirements for different teaching, research, clinical, or industrial labs will most likely vary. Some institutions/labs will require less stringent record keeping, others will hold you to a very strict protocol. A well kept notebook provides a reliable reference for writing up materials and methods and results for a study. It is a legally valid record that preserves your rights or those of an employer or academic investigator to your discoveries. A comprehensive notebook permits one to reproduce any part of a methodology completely and accurately.

Choosing a notebook

For most purposes you may select a bound notebook, quadrille-ruled. A teaching lab may require tear-out duplicate pages for making carbon copies. An engineering or industrial research/development lab will likely require a specific type notebook with prenumbered pages and places for date and investigator's and supervisor's signatures on each page. Pads of tear-out graph paper or spiral bound notebooks without pre numbered pages are not acceptable. It must be impossible to tear out a page without leaving evidence. It is safest to select something that is clearly labeled as a laboratory notebook.

Preparing the Notebook

Please use a ball point pen for all entries, so that the marks will not smear nor will they be erasable. Put your name, a telephone number and/or address, and project name or course number on the outside front cover of the record. Put that same information on the first page inside, or on the inside front cover. If your notebook does not include a prelabeled table of contents section, then reserve the next several pages for a table of contents by labeling the top of each page as Table of Contents and numbering each page. If your notebook does not have prenumbered pages, you may wish to use lower case Roman numerals, as in a standard publication. Next, number the next several pages with Arabic numerals in sequence, and you are ready to begin recording data.

What to enter

Above all, it is critical that you enter all procedures and data directly into your notebook in a timely manner, that is, while you are conducting the actual work. Your entries must be sufficiently detailed so that you or someone else could conduct any procedure with only the notebook as a guide. Few students (and not that many researchers for that matter) record sufficiently detailed and organized information. The most logical organization of notebook entries is chronological. If a proper chronological record is kept and co-signed by a coworker or supervisior, it is a legally valid record. Such a record is necessary if you or your employer are to keep your rights to your discoveries.

Depending on requirements set by a teacher, superivsor, company, or whatever, you may not have to confine your notebook entries to lab notes only. On the other hand a student might record your class lecture notes, lab lecture notes, ideas, questions, library research notes, and notes that are part of any pre-lab preparation. The bare minimum entries for an academic lab course, for each lab study, should include title of the lab study; introduction and objectives; detailed procedures and data (recorded in the lab itself); summary.

We usually record a lot more information in a laboratory notebook than we would report in a research paper. For example, in a published article we don't report centrifuge type, rpm, rotor type, or which machine was used. However, if a procedure is unsuccessful you may want to check to see that you used the correct rpm or correct rotor. Perhaps the centrifuge itself was miscalibrated. You would need to know which machine you used. In a research paper one does not report which person performed which tasks, because such information is useless to a third party. However in the notebook it is important to note who was responsible for what procedure. Again, you may need such information to troubleshoot your experiments.

Making entries

Someone else may need to consult your notebook sometime, so please make your entries clear and legible. When you make your first entries of the day, start by entering the date, writing out the month or abbreviation for the month (e.g., 5 Apr '04, or April 5, 2004, but not 4/5/04). The use of numerals only can cause confusion. For example, in Europe the day comes before the month. Thus April 5, 2004 would be written as 5/4/04.

When you start each new page of a notebook enter the date next to the page number. Each page should be numbered and dated consistently. Most of us use the upper right corner of each page for date and page number.

Depending on how your notebook is designed you may choose whether or not to use the backs of pages. If you leave them blank, put a corner-to-corner line through them to void all blank spaces. Some people use the backs for rough calculations, then void remaining blank space. You might also decide to save space (and trees) and use both sides of each page. Obviously you cannot use both sides with notebooks that are designed to make duplicate copies. In situations where you turn in duplicate copies to a supervisor, you obviously must start each new set of entries on a new page.

Write a title for each and every new set of entries. Distinct sets of entries should be separated by using informative headings and by leaving a single space or two between individual sets of entries. Specific information can be more readily located that way. For a new laboratory study, write down a very brief introduction to the study, and list the objectives. If you have a specific hypothesis, write it down. The object is to make it completely clear what you intend to do.

Record everything you do in the lab, even if you are following a published procedure. For example, if you started by obtaining a quantity of tissue from an instructor, then write down that you obtained tissue, describe it, note how much, what condition, etc. How much you write down is up to you, but any relevant information should be there. For example, it doesn't matter much if you received a chunk of liver in a red ice bucket or a black one. However, it does matter that the material was on ice. If you change a protocol in any way or decide between alternative methods, then the correct information must be recorded in the notebook.

If you make a mistake, put a line through the mistake and write the new information next to it. Never erase or obliterate an entry. When you finish a page, put a corner-to corner line through any blank parts that could still be used for data entry. Every bit of every page must be legible and filled, either with information or with a mark that voids the section (see examples).

The summary

When you have finished a project, summarize what you have accomplished. You don't have to draw conclusions, just indicate what sort of data or observations you collected, samples you saved (and where and how you saved them), or any other relevant information that wraps up the study. For a continuing study keep the summary extremely brief. In fact, if the notes are well organized and it is obvious where the study left off, you need write nothing more than "To be continued..." Summaries help maintain continuity. They indicate where the work left off and how it might resume.

Are things getting too sloppy?

Perhaps your data records are scattered throughout the notebook, and you would like to summarize them. Go ahead. You may re-enter tables or figures any time you wish to organize your work a bit better. To prevent confusion over duplication of data you may put a line through a table or figure you intend to re-draw, initial and date the change, and note the page on which the re-organized data can be found. Just don't obscure any of the original entry.

Repeated procedures

So far you have been advised to record each step you perform in the laboratory, regardless of whether the procedure is published somewhere. However, once you carry out a procedure, you can refer to that part of your notebook, and only note changes you make. For example, the first time you prepare a sequencing gel you should write down the exact formulation, how you mix the gel, how long you let it cure, etc. The next time, just refer to the name of the procedure and the appropriate page(s) of your notebook.

Loose materials

Suppose you enter raw data into a computer and have a printout with 400 pieces of data. or, suppose you generate a graph using a software program. You might even have a silver-stained gel that you wish to refer to frequently, or a fluoroescence photomicrograph that sums up your results nicely. Some investigators prefer to attach such materials to the notebook itself, but too many such items make a sloppy notebook and can stress the binding. Loose data should be kept in a separate folder or notebook, with location noted in the book.

Table of Contents

Record all entries in the table of contents as you go along. You can organize it anyway you like but it is advisable to include multiple levels in a table of contents, that is, indicate where a new study starts and include subheadings for specific parts of a study, methods, sets of data, etc. The idea is to enable someone (such a supervisor, grader, or yourself a year from now) to find anything quickly. List each set of entries with dates and page numbers. If you are seriously anal-retentive, you might record every experiment in chronological order, then use the remaining blank space to cross reference the contents experiment by experiment.

For a teaching lab you might list each and every set of entries made in your notebook, in chronological order, including complete and informative titles. Examples of sets of entries include an introduction, a summary, a set of procedures for a specific preparation, a complete data set, calculations for diluting samples or preparing assay standards, etc. A grader should be able to find any specific entry quickly, without flipping through pages.

Notebook Checklist

As you record your activities in the laboratory, ask yourself, "Did I..."

- Keep up with the table of contents?
- Date each page?
- Number each page consecutively?
- Use continuation notes when necessary?
- Properly void all blank pages or portions of pages (front and back)?
- Enter all information directly into the notebook?
- Properly introduce and summarize each experiment?
- Include complete details of all first-time procedures?
- Include calculations?

Chapter 1: Field diary

Chapter 2: Lab record

Unit 13: Indexing

To know indexing procedures

Unit 14: Footnotes and Citation

Chapter 1: Footnotes

14.1.1. Referencing using footnotes

Most students will have to reference an assignment at some stage of their studies. Understanding the correct way to reference, will help students to avoid plagiarism. The footnote system of citation is used in some disipline areas, eg History, Fashion, Art & Design. Footnotes must be used to reference and acknowledge the sources of your information. This unit will take you through how to reference using footnotes.

14.1.2. Using Footnotes

Example
The footnote system of referencing uses a numeric reference to the citation in the body of the text, with the citation details at the bottom of the page.

14.1.3. Inserting footnotes

How to insert footnotes using Word XP

1. Place cursor where the footnote is to be inserted

2. From the menu bar, select Insert

3. Select reference>footnote and select options

4. The (next) numeric footnote will automatically be inserted and also placed at the bottom of the page.

How to insert footnotes using Word 2000

1. Place cursor where the footnote is to be inserted

2. From the menu bar, select Insert>footnote and select options

3. The (next) numeric footnote will automatically be inserted and also placed at the bottom of the page

Chapter 2: Citation

14.2.1. Citation

- All literature cited in the text should: be included in the list of references giving complete details.
- Standard style of literature citation should be followed.

A. Citation in Text

  - Citation style of references in the text varies from journal to journal and therefore consult the guidelines of the journal and go to references cited for noting style.
  - In case of one author, give last name/surname first, year of publication within parentheses, e.g. Singh (2002).
- In case of two authors, give first the last name of first author followed by last name of second author, year of publication e.g.Singh and Grover (2002).
- In case of more than two authors give last name of first author followed by et al. and year of publication e.g. Singh et al. (2002).

  - · In case the author is referred at more than one place in the same year, number

references as 'a' and 'b' e.g. Singh (2002Sa)........Singh (2002b).

B. Citation in Journal

This must include the name of author(s), followed by year of publication within parentheses or stops, title of the paper/article, name of the journal/periodical, volume and number in brackets, and page number. In case of male authors, initials are used and in case female authors give full name e.g. Singh, J. and Grover, Indlj. 2002.

Academic achievement and entrepreneurial performance of undergraduate students of CCS Haryana Agricultural University, CCSHAU J. Research. 88(3), 416-421.

Note: In some journals the name of journal is written in italics.

C. Citation from Book

1. Khetarpaul, Neelam and Grover, Indu.2000. A Consumer Guide for Home Makers. Agrotech Publishing Academy, Udaipur, p 40.

2. Khetarpaul, Neelam; Katyal, Sudha and Grover, Indu. 2001.nfant Health and Nutrition. Agrotech Publishing Academy. p 298.

(In this example, total pages of the book have been referred).

Citation from an Edited Book

Grover, Indu., Agarwal, Deepti and Grover, O.K. 2000. Gender perception of voters towards women and governance. In: Singh Raj (ed.). New Panchayati Raj: A functional analysis, Anmol Publications Ltd. pp 66-77.

(pp 66-77 indicates that chapter is within these pages).

Citation of Seminar/Conference Proceedings

Sinhg, Saroj., Grover, Indu and Grover, O.K. 2001. Participatory role and adoption of buffalo management practices by rural women in Haryana (India). In: National Conference on Extension Education for Sustainable Devel,?pment, Mumbai, 29-31 December, 2000.Proceedings edited by O.S. Verma, AK Singh and J.P. Yadav, New Delhi, ISEE. pp 201-222.

Rana, Manju. 1992. Effectiveness of training methods among farm women. Thesis, Ph.D., CCS Haryana Agricultural University, Hisar, p 156.

Citation from Institutional Publication

Department of Science and Technology, New Delhi. 1997. General information on research and development funding schemes of Central Government departments/agencies, New Delhi. GOI, Ministry of Science and Technology, Deptt. of Science and Technology, p 135.

Citing Government Publications

India. 2002. Ministry of Human Resource Development. Annual Report. New Delhi. p 270.

India. 2001. Ministry of Agriculture, Department of Agriculture and Cooperation, Directorate of Economics and Statistics. Indian Agriculture in Brief. (30th ed.), Delhi. Controller df Publication. p 389.

Abbreviations for Names of Journals

The names of journals should be abbreviated according to international standards/rules. Most journals give abbreviated forms on top/bottom side of each page. Some examples are as follows:

- Curr.Sci. ·

- Ind. J. Ext. Edu. ·
- Maha. J. Extn. Edu. ·
- Ind. J. Genet & Plant · Breeding
- Plant Physiol.
- Plant Dis. Rep.

14.2.2. Paraphrasing

Paraphrasing is when you use someone else's ideas and put them in your own words. Even though you are not using the original author's exact words,**you must still cite the author as the source of your ideas.**

Paraphrases & footnotes

1. Read the original text.
2. Write down your version of it, changing the keywords and structure of the sentence(s). It is best to close the book so you do not copy word-for-word. It is important that the sentence structure and the vocabulary are different to the original.
3. Place the (sequential) footnote number at the end of the sentence containing the paraphrase.
4. Complete footnote citation process. Page numbers are not given in paraphrases.

Example

14.2.3. Abbreviations in citations

Two abbreviations are useful when footnoting:

- Ibid - citation is from the preceding reference
- Op Cit - citation is from a previously cited reference (not the preceding reference)

Ibid

Ibid is used when citing a new reference that is from the same text as the preceding reference. In the first reference to the text give the full details of the source and use ibid for the second. If the citation is from the same page as the previous reference, simply use ibid. If it is from a different page, use ibid + page number, eg ibid p. 56.

Unit 15: Reading and comprehension of general and technical articles Chapter 1: Introdution to Reading