МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ, МОЛОДІ ТА СПОРТУ УКРАЇНИ
ТЕРНОПІЛЬСЬКИЙ НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ ЕКОНОМІЧНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ
ФАКУЛЬТЕТ МІЖНАРОДНОГО БІЗНЕСУ І МЕНЕДЖМЕНТУ
КАФЕДРА ІНОЗЕМНИХ МОВ ДЛЯ ЗОВНІШНЬОЕКОНОМІЧНОЇ ДІЯЛЬНОСТІ

ОПОРНИЙ КОНСПЕКТ ЛЕКЦІЙ
З НАВЧАЛЬНОЇ ДИСЦИПЛІНИ

«КОМУНІКАЦІЇ В БІЗНЕСІ (АНГЛІЙСЬКОЮ МОВОЮ)»

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Метою конспекту лекцій є ознайомити студентів з теоретичними основами ділової комунікації іноземною мовою, надати студентам допомогу при підготовці до практичних занять з курсу, активізувати самостійну роботу, щоб сформувати у них стійкі навички і вміння усного і писемного ділового спілкування в ситуаціях професійної сфери діяльності економістів-міжнародників. Запропоновані теми лекцій корелюють з Програмою, відображають останні вітчизняні і зарубіжні теоретичні напрацювання в галузі ділового спілкування, враховують новітні підходи до забезпечення комунікативного спрямування навчальної діяльності.

Module 1. CORE CONCEPTS IN BUSINESS COMMUNICATION
Topic 1. Basics of business communication

PLAN.
1. Communicating as part of a business.
2. A communication model. The components of communication.
3. Strategies for effective oral communication. Barriers to communication.
4. Peculiarities of written communication in business.
5. Ethics in business communication.

1. Communicating as part of a business. Effective communication skills will help you succeed in business. Communication means the exchange of ideas using common symbols. You communicate only when your audience understands your message – communication is a two-way street. Becoming a good business communicator takes practice, but it's worth the trouble.
When are managers and other employees communicating? When they are reading reports, drafting email messages, attending meetings, conducting interviews, conferring with subordinates, holding business lunches, reading mail, dictating correspondence, making presentations, etc. Good communication skills are crucial to your success.
Communication is the means by which information is shared, activities are coordinated, and decision making is enhanced.
Communication is the process of sending and receiving verbal and nonverbal messages – sometimes through spoken or written words and sometimes through such nonverbal means as facial expressions, gestures,, and voice qualities.
Typical characteristics of business communication:
- it is written for an audience who will find the information useful;
- it is written under time and money constraints;
- it often has more than one purpose;
- tone and attitude towards the reader is as important as the information conveyed.

2. A communication model. Two basic elements are necessary before any communication transaction can take place: a sender and a receiver. The channel is the means by which the message is transmitted. Feedback is the response or lack of it. The filter is the total of the communicator's experiences leading up to the communication. Noise is anything that interferes with the free flow of information.
The components of communication consist of the stimulus, filter, message, medium and destination. Ideally, the process ends with feedback to the sender. A **stimulus** is an event that creates within an individual the need to communicate. Our knowledge, experience, and viewpoints act as a **filter** to help us interpret (decode) the stimulus. We formulate (encode) a verbal or nonverbal response (**message)** to the stimulus. To transmit the message to the receiver we must choose a **medium**, or the form of message to send. The message reaches its **destination** and, if successful, is perceived accurately by the receiver.
Decoding and encoding a message causes a lot of troubles in business communication.

- Denotation (dictionary meaning of the word) and connotation (the meaning people attach to the word).
- Cognitive dissonance.
- Cultural differences.

3. Strategies for effective oral communication. Verbal communication is composed of words – either written or spoken. When managers attend meetings, ask questions and answer colleagues' questions, make presentations and appraise performance, handle customer complaints or give instructions – they communicate and perform one of the most common functions in business activity.

- Advantages of oral communication over written communication.
- The importance of listening skills for effective oral communication.

Directions of communication. Communication must flow freely through formal and informal channels. The formal communication network consists of the following:

- Downward communication.
- Upward communication.
- Horizontal communication.
- Cross-channel communication.

The informal communication network consists of the following:

- The grapevine.
- Advantages and disadvantages of the grapevine.

Pay attention to your audience. Remember:

- translate technical terms;
- adjust the amount and tone of information;
- give answers to the following questions:
    - Who is your audience?
    - What information do they already have?
    - How much information do they need?
    - What technical information do they understand?
    - What is their attitude toward your information?
    - What is your relationship to your audience?
    - What actions do you want your audience to take as a result of your message?

Barriers to communication can create an impenetrable "brick wall" that makes effective communication impossible.

Verbal barriers:

- Inadequate knowledge or vocabulary;
- Differences in interpretation;
- Language differences;
- Over abstraction and ambiguity;
- Polarization (i.e., inappropriate *either/or* logic).

Nonverbal barriers:

- Inappropriate or conflicting signals;
- Difference in perception;

- Inappropriate emotions;
- Distractions.

4. Peculiarities of written communication in business. Writing is more difficult than speaking. Writing is crucial to the modern organization because it serves as the major source of documentation. Examples of written communication include emails, memos, letters, reports, contracts, notices, sales literature, etc. Also a crucial skill for managers around the world is the ability to write clearly expressed and logically argued reports, letters, fax messages, minutes of meetings, and memoranda in English. The task is to develop writing techniques in order to make the written transfer of this information as smooth as possible, leaving no possibility that the reader might miss or misunderstand any facts or points. When writing business documents mind the rules of sending information directly and indirectly:

- Put your main idea up front.
- Concentrate on one or two subjects.
- Use emphasis and subordination of ideas.
- Explain terms.
- Use examples to explain.

Writing is a series of steps:

- Planning - 40 per cent of your time.
- Writing a rough draft - 20 per cent of your time.
- Revising your message - 40 per cent of your time.

Consider other ideas concerning writing process:

- Gather information before you begin writing.
- Revision - you can get down to details. Look at the big picture first.
- Consider the “you” attitude.
- Look at your paper personality.
- Consider the design of your layout.
- Proofread your message.

5. Ethics in business communication. The matter of ethics governs not only one’s behavior but also one’s communication of behavior. In other words, how we use language involves ethical choices. Consider the following:

- Oral and written defamation (slander and libel).
- Invasion of privacy.
- Fraud (making a deliberately false statement or concealing some information).
- Misrepresentation (a false statement made innocently with no intent to deceive the other party).
- Other ethical considerations.

The matter of ethics governs not only one’s behavior but also one’s communication of behavior. In other words, how we use language involves ethical choices.

Six basic principles of business ethics:

1. Be in time.

2. Be discreet.
3. Be courteous, pleasant and positive.
4. Be concerned with others, not just yourself.
5. Dress appropriately.
6. Use proper written and spoken language.

Module 1. CORE CONCEPTS IN BUSINESS COMMUNICATION
Topic 2. Writing with style
PLAN.

1. Style as the way to express an idea.
   a) Adaptation and word choice.
   b) Developing logical paragraphs.
   c) Writing a complete message.
2. Overall tone and readability.
   a) What do we mean by tone?
   b) Keeping emphasis on the reader.
   c) Effective document design.
3. An overview of the writing process.
   a) Planning.
   b) Drafting.
   c) Revising.
   d) Formatting.
   e) Editing.
4. Different types of business letters.

1. Style as the way to express an idea. To have style the complete message should be readable, with clarified relationships among the sentences, concise, familiar language, and ideas presented in logical order. By style, we mean the way in which an idea is expressed. A written message with a good style is considered to be readable: it clarifies relationships among the sentences, uses concise and familiar language, presents ideas in logical order. While writing the first draft of a message, you should be more concerned with content than with style and mechanics – spelling, punctuation, abbreviations, capitalization, number expression, and word division.
Adaptation and word choice. Adaptation in writing means a process of fitting the message to the specific reader or audience. In adapting to multiple readers you need to write to the lowest level you need to reach. The first step in adapting your message to the reader is forming a mental picture of what the reader is like. Adapting to the reader supports the use of a writing style that stresses simplicity in word choice.

Building your business vocabulary is a big job. You look at the meanings of frequently occurring words in different subject areas in the context of real examples from newspapers and business books. You then go on to apply and develop your knowledge of meaning and usage in specially designed language activities to enrich your knowledge of key business vocabulary and how to use it in discussing current business topics.

Each language activity gets you to do one of these things, or a combination of them:

- Find a word missing from a number of different contexts.
- Think about words and their meanings by putting them into an overall context.
- Match words to their definitions.
- Match sentences to take meaning, context, and grammar into account.
- Re-order sentences and paragraphs to build logically developed texts.
- Look at networks of meaning, reusing the key vocabulary of the chapter.
- Test your knowledge of meaning and spelling of words.

Individual words are our basic units of writing, the bricks with which we build meaningful messages. The care with which we select and combine words can make the difference between a message that achieves its objective and one that does not. The given below principles of word choice will help you write more effectively.

1) Write clearly. You can achieve clarity by making your message **accurate** and **complete**, by **using familiar words**, and by **avoiding dangling expressions** and **unnecessary jargon**.
2) Prefer short, simple words. **Short** and simple words are more likely to be understood, less likely to be misused, and less likely to distract the reader.
3) Write with vigor (i.e., with mental or physical strength; energy). Vigorous writing holds your reader’s interest. Vigorous writing tends to lend vigor to the ideas presented. Vigorous language is **specific** and **concrete**. Avoid **clichés, slang, and buzz words** (used to impress other people).
4) Write concisely. Avoid **redundancy, wordy expressions, hidden verbs and nouns, and other “space-eaters.”**
5) Prefer positive language. Words that create a positive image are more likely to help you achieve your objective than are negative words.

Writing effective sentences. A sentence has a subject and predicate and expresses at least one complete thought. Sentences vary widely in style, length, and effect. They are also very flexible to express different ideas and emphasize different points. To build effective sentences, follow some rules:

1) Use a variety of sentence types. There are three basic sentence types which are appropriate for business writing. A **simple sentence** contains one independent clause. A **compound sentence** contains two or more independent clauses. A **complex sentence** contains one independent clause and at least one dependent clause. The dependent clause provides *subordinate* information related to the independent clause.
2) Use active and passive voice appropriately. In the **active voice**, the subject *performs* the action expressed by the verb. In the **passive voice**, the subject *receives* the action expressed by the verb. Use active sentences most of the time in business writing. Passive sentences – when conveying negative information.

There are some linguistic guidelines to develop skills for writing sentences:

- Limit a sentence to a single statement of fact or one idea.
- The optimum sentence length is approximately twenty words.
- Ensure that your sentences are properly linked.

- Check your pronouns and prepositions.
- Make a conscious choice between using active or passive sentences.
- If you are not fully satisfied with a sentence, rewrite it completely.
- Reread everything you write, with the aim of removing ambiguities.
- Learn to identify and avoid verbiage, jargon, circumlocution, clichés and slang.
- Check the word order of your sentences.
- Check all tenses and subject/verb agreements, spelling and punctuation.

Developing logical paragraphs. A paragraph is a group of related sentences that focus on one main idea. The main idea is often identified in the first sentence of the paragraph, which is then known as a *topic sentence.* The body of the paragraph supports the main idea by giving more information. Paragraphs must be unified and coherent, be stated in parallel structure, and be of an appropriate length. There are some rules to follow:

1) Keep paragraphs unified and coherent. A paragraph has ***unity*** when all its parts work together to develop a single idea consistently and logically. A paragraph has ***coherence*** when each sentence links smoothly to the sentences before and after it. The major ways to achieve coherence are to use transitional words, repeat key words and ideas.
2) Use parallel structure. Parallel structure smoothly links ideas and adds a pleasing rhythm to sentences and paragraphs, thereby enhancing coherence.
3) Control paragraph length. Most paragraphs of good business writers fall into the 60- to 80-word range – long enough for a topic sentence and three or four supporting sentences. Thus, your purpose and the needs of your reader should ultimately determine paragraph length.

Writing a complete message take into account the abovementioned principles of choosing the right words, composing proper sentences and combining them into logically structured paragraphs. When producing a business document always try to apply the techniques of formal style: avoid redundancy; never use words relating to conversation when more formal words can be employed; remember that the passive voice helps to focus from the writer to the message; for expressions of formality avoid the use of personal pronouns; never contract two words by using the apostrophe; explain abbreviations or technical words. The business text must therefore be easily and quickly read and its message must be understood exactly as intended.

Remember the following rules for creating an effective business message:

- keep it simple
- make it concise
- be sure it’s complete
- think of your reader first
- run your spell-check program
- proofread

2. Overall tone and readability. ***What do we mean by tone?*** Having chosen the right words to construct effective sentences and then having combined these sentences into logical paragraphs, we now examine the tone of the complete message. Tone in writing refers to the writer’s attitude toward both the reader and the subject of the message. The overall tone of your written message affects your reader just as your tone of voice affects your listener in everyday exchanges. The business writer should strive for an overall tone that is confident, courteous, and sincere; that uses emphasis and subordination appropriately; that contains nondiscriminatory language; that stresses the “you” attitude; and that is enhanced by effective design. Remember the following:

1) ***Write confidently.*** Confidence has a persuasive effect on your audience. If you believe in what you have written, write in such a way that your reader will also.

2) ***Use a courteous and sincere tone.*** It builds goodwill for you and your organization and increases the likelihood that your message will achieve its objective.

3) ***Use appropriate emphasis and subordination.*** Let your reader know which ideas you consider most important. To do so, use appropriate techniques.

4) ***Use nondiscriminatory language.*** Competent communicators make sure that their writing is free of sexist language and free of bias based on such factors as race, ethnicity, religion, age, sexual orientation, and disability.

Keeping emphasis on the reader. The style and tone must match the message and its reader. It is therefore important for you to be able to analyze your relationship with your reader(s) and then to choose the appropriate language and tone for your message.

Stress the “you” attitude. The **“you” attitude** emphasizes what the *receiver* (the listener or the reader) wants to know and how he or she will be affected by the message. Emphasize how the *reader* will benefit from doing as you ask. In some situations, however, you may want to avoid focusing on the reader; these situations all involve conveying negative information.

Effective document resign. The physical appearance of your document also affects **readability.** Contemporary word processing software makes it easy for writers to *design* their documents for maximum impact and effectiveness. There is no denying that an attractively formatted document, with legible type and plenty of white space, will help you achieve your communication objectives.

Design your documents for readability. The term **readability** refers to the ease of understanding a passage based on its style of writing and physical appearance. The most important design guidelines can help you achieve impact and readability:

- Keep it simple. Use a simple, clean, and consistent [последовательный] design.
- Use white space to advantage.
- Select a suitable line length and type size.
- Determine an appropriate justification format /left margin/.
- Format paragraphs correctly /single spacing – indenting the first line/.
- Emphasize words and ideas appropriately /larger type size, boldface lettering, italic type, underlining, solid capitals/.
- Format lists for readability /numbered or bulleted lists/.
- Use graphics only when they help you achieve your report objectives.

The more familiar you are with basic stylistic principles, the easier it will be to write your first draft and the less editing you will need to do later.

3. An overview of the writing process. There is no single "best" writing process. In fact, good writers develop their own process that suits their own ways of tackling a problem. But competent communicators typically perform the following five steps while writing:

Planning a message for your intended audience is a major part of your writing process. Planning involves making conscious decisions about the purpose, audience, content, and organization of the document. Many business messages have more than one purpose. The purpose should be specific enough to serve as a yardstick for judging the success of the message. Start with a general purpose and then refine it into a specific one. The specific purpose should indicate the response desired from the reader.

To perform an audience analysis means that you should identify the interests, needs, and personality of your receiver.

- Who is the primary (the person whose cooperation is crucial if your message is to achieve its objectives) and the secondary audience (others who will also read and be affected by your message)?
- What is your relationship with the audience?
- How will the audience react (reaction – positive, neutral, negative)?
- What does the audience already know?
- What is unique about the audience?

The role of persuasion in communicating. Every document you write seeks to persuade – through credibility, emotion, or logic. Your ability to persuade ultimately determines the degree of success or failure that you will achieve. In his work *Rhetoric,* Aristotle identified three methods by which people can be persuaded: *Ethos,* an appeal based on credibility; *Pathos,* an appeal based on emotion; and *Logos,* an appeal based on logic. These methods remain relevant also today.

Content. The next step is to decide what information to include. The trick is to include enough information, yet to avoid including irrelevant material. Different writers use different methods for identifying what information is needed. Useful strategies – brainstorming and mind mapping or clustering.

Organization determines in what order to discuss each topic. Base your organization on the expected reader reaction. Useful strategies:

- group related ideas,
- differentiate between the major and minor points
- choose direct or indirect approach.

Having now finished planning, you are finally ready to begin drafting a message.

Drafting presupposes composing a first draft of the message. You needn't write the parts of a message in the order in which they will finally appear. Begin with the easiest parts. To have creativity and concentration on the process of drafting and to increase the ability to focus on the writing process apply the following strategies:

- Choose the right environment.
- Schedule a reasonable block of time.

- State your purpose in writing.
- Engage in free writing (write continuously for five to ten minutes without stopping).
- Avoid the perfectionism syndrome.
- Think out loud.
- Write the easiest parts first.

Separate the drafting stage from the revising because they involve two separate skills.

Revising. Here you pay attention to **content**, **style**, and **correctness**. You modify a document to increase its effectiveness. When you get down to details you should look at the *big picture* first:

- Have you met your planning goals elated to audience, purpose, and organization?
- Is all the information covered?
- Is the message clear?

Then consider the "you" attitude:

- Have you put the reader first?
- Is you style appropriate for the reader?

Look at your *paper personality*:

- Do you use too many or wrong words?
- Does your style sound like a person?

Formatting. The document should be arranged in an appropriate format. No one format for any type of business document is universally accepted as standard. The important point is to use the format that is appropriate for each specific message – a letter, a memo, an email.

Proofreading (editing) means that the document should be revised to check for content and different errors: spelling, punctuation, agreement of subjects and verbs, nouns and pronouns.

Thus, we have considered the major items devoted to the problem of writing all business documents with style. Following the abovementioned guidelines will make your writing effective and efficient. Thus we can conclude that well-written letters can go a long way to build relationships, assist others in solving problems, ease tense situations, clarify or verify important information, and motivate others to act.

4. Different types of business letters. A ***request*** is routine if you anticipate that the reader will readily do as you ask without having to be persuaded. The letter of inquiry should make absolutely clear the information wanted. It should leave no possibility of the recipient's having to write to ask for explanation or extension of any of its parts. It should be as brief as is in keeping with courtesy and clarity. If it relates to matters of no interest to the recipients, a stamped addressed envelope should be enclosed for reply. Remember:

- ***Major idea first.*** When making a routine request, present the major idea – your request – clearly and directly in the first sentence or two.
- ***Explanation and details.*** Explain why you are making the request. Include any needed background information or details.
- ***Friendly closing.***

A ***reply*** provides the information requested in the original message. Like the original request letters, replies are organized in a direct organizational style, putting the "good news" up front. All inquiries should be answered, even those that, for some reason, cannot be given a complete response. An inquiry indicates interest of the writer in the company or its products, so an inquirer is a potential customer. The inquiry reply should not only increase that interest, but also inspire the inquirer to action. Thus, one who receives an inquiry should reply promptly unless it is a type of inquiry out of keeping with business ethics. Even when the matters of inquiry are of no interest to the recipient, he should give the information as courteously and as fully as if it meant material profit to him. He should give not only complete information for every detail of the inquiry but also should give any additional information which the writer feels would make clearer the information desired. In short, the writer should write just the kind of reply he should wish were he the inquirer.

An inquiry reply should begin by thanking the reader, acknowledging the interest in your company and end by offering further assistance – but ONLY if you actually want additional inquiries from this person. And finally – answer promptly.

A ***claim letter*** is written by the buyer to the seller, seeking some type of action to correct a problem with the seller's product or service. A claim letter differs from a simple complaint letter in that it requests some type of adjustment (such as repairing or replacing the product). Write your claim letter promptly. Be courteous and avoid emotional language. A letter of complaint or claim should always be courteous, dignified, and fair. It should state exactly the cause for complaint and should outline clearly the reasonable adjustment expected. If you want to write a letter of complaint, do not delay and do not apologize; delay not only weakens your case, but can complicate the matter as the people you are dealing with might forget the details. Apologizing for the need to complain also weakens your case. If you complain, make sure you get your facts right. The complainant who imputes blame or becomes sarcastic or abusive only emphasizes his own lack of refinement and makes less probable the adjustment he seeks. If the writer gives the impression that he knows that he is dealing with those who are absolutely honest and eager to make any reasonable adjustment, he will seldom fail to get satisfaction. If he has had previous satisfactory dealings with the company, it is well to mention it to substantiate his expressed confidence. It would be an unworthy company indeed that would not respond favorably to such a complaint.

An ***adjustment letter*** is written to inform a customer of the action taken in response to the customer's claim letter. If the action taken is what the customer asked for or expected, a routine adjustment letter using the direct organizational plan would be written. The writing of the letter of adjustment calls for diplomacy. If you have to answer an unjustified complaint, be polite and restrained, and remember that we can all make mistakes. Those who write letters of complaint often do so while they are angry or in a disagreeable mood, but those who answer them should do so in such a way as to allay all ill feeling. Even when the complainant is most unreasonable and abusive, a reply showing courtesy and fairness is usually most effective. When replying to letters of complaint it is necessary to acknowledge that you have received the complaint, and thank your customer for informing you. Sometimes you cannot deal with a complaint immediately, as the matter needs to be looked into. Do not leave your customer waiting, but tell him what you are doing straight away. If the complaint is justified, explain how the mistake occurred but do not blame your staff. Put matters right as soon as possible and tell your customer that you are doing so. If you think that the complaint is unjustified, you can be firm but polite in your answer. The structure of such a letter includes the following:

- Overall tone.
- Good news first.
- Explanation.
- Positive, forward-looking closing.

A ***goodwill message*** is one that is sent strictly out of a sense of kindness and friendliness. To ensure that your goodwill messages achieve their desired effect, follow these five guidelines:

- Be prompt.
- Be direct.
- Be sincere.
- Be specific.
- Be brief.

The letter of ***introduction*** is used to introduce two of the friends or acquaintances of the writer. It may be given for either business or social reasons, but it should never be given except in all seriousness. One should never give a letter of introduction for business purposes unless one is absolutely sure of the ability and integrity of the person introduced. It would be much better to refuse to give the letter than to give less than full approval of the person or to run the risk of introducing one not thoroughly competent and reliable. The message should be simple and as brief as is consistent with completeness and courtesy. The letter, delivered in person by the one introduced, should be enclosed in an unsealed envelope, bearing in proper position the name and full address of the one for whom it is intended and in the lower left-hand corner the words introducing the person.

Congratulatory messages or notes should be sent for major business achievements. To write a letter of congratulation is one of the best ways to promote good will. The occasion may be a promotion, a new appointment, the award of an honor, the establishment of a new business, success in an examination, or even a marriage or a birthday. Whatever the occasion, your letter is sure to be well received. It may be either short and formal or conversational and informal, depending on the circumstances and the relationships between you and your reader. A short, straightforward letter is usually all that is necessary. Between persons in business, letters of congratulation sent to mark the award of a public honor need as a rule be only short and formal. Courtesy requires that letters of congratulation should be acknowledged. Like letters of condolence, letters of congratulation should never be written on someone else’s behalf.

Thank-you notes or appreciations, especially handwritten, are often valued more than a monetary reward.

Sympathy notes or expressions of condolence to a person who has experienced pain, grief, or misfortune are especially difficult to write but are also especially appreciated.

Module 2. WRITING BUSINESS DOCUMENTS
Topic 3. Writing routine messages

PLAN.
1. Planning the routine and persuasive messages.
2. Common types of routine messages.
3. Design and style of business letters.
4. Accessing and sharing electronic messages.
5. Using modern technologies in business communication.

1. Planning the routine and persuasive messages. There are business letters appropriate to all phases of business; therefore it would be almost impossible to classify all types of the business letter. Most of the typical manager's correspondence consists of communicating about routine matters.
When we convey routine information and are sure that the reader will probably be interested in its contents, we use a ***direct organizational plan:*** the main idea is stated first, followed be any needed explanation, then a friendly closing. Using direct organizational plan, when you put the major news first, saves the reader time. The ***indirect organizational plan*,** in which the reasons are presented before the major idea, is often used for persuasive and bad-news messages.
Persuasion is the process of motivating someone to take a specific action or to support a particular idea. Persuasion motivates someone to believe something or to do something that he or she would not otherwise have done. Thus, persuasion is necessary when the other person initially resists the efforts. A persuasive writing requires careful planning; you need to define your purpose clearly and analyze your audience.
The purpose of a persuasive message is to motivate the reader to agree with you or to do as you ask. Knowing your purpose lets you know what kind of information to include in your persuasive message. The more you're able to promote the features of your idea or product as satisfying a *specific* need of your audience, the more persuasive your message will be. Use the "you" attitude to achieve the results you want. It means the following:
- Knowledge and attitude of the reader.
- Effect on the reader.
- Writer credibility.

2. Common types of routine messages. The purpose of your message and your knowledge of the reader will help determine the content of your message and the sequence in which you discuss each topic. In persuasive letters you should use *a subject line* that doesn't announce your purpose immediately. An opening sentence should be interesting enough to catch and keep the reader's attention. The usual types of evidence which will enable the reader to make an informed decision:
- Facts and statistics.
- Expert opinion.
- Examples.

Ignoring any obvious obstacles to granting your request would provide the reader a ready excuse to refuse your request. Make the specific action that you want clear and easy to take.

Next we'll consider specific strategies and examples for selling an idea, requesting a favor, and writing a persuasive claim.

Selling an idea. On the job you will frequently write messages proposing one alternative over another, suggesting a new procedure, or in some other way recommending some course of action. Organize such messages logically, showing what the problem is, how you intend to solve the problem, and why your solution is sound.

Requesting a favor. A request for a favor differs from a routine request in that routine requests are granted almost automatically, whereas favors require persuasion, because the reader gets nothing tangible in return. Discuss at least one reader benefit before making your request. Keep a positive, confident tone throughout, and make the action clear and easy to take. Keep your request reasonable.

The letter of ***recommendation*** may be either personal or general. The personal type is addressed to some person or firm by some writer who is recommending someone for a position. It may be written at the request of the one seeking the position or in answer to inquiry of the prospective employer. It should give definitely and clearly the information which would help the employer most in determining the applicant's fitness for the position. There should be no vague statements and no over-stressing of good qualities to make the applicant seem super-human. The general type of recommendation, which is placed in the hands of the one recommended, is not much in favor at present and does not carry much weight because the tendency of the writer is to give only favorable facts. The employer of today prefers to send a questionnaire to references furnished by the applicant. In this way he gets information which might be omitted from the regular letter of recommendation. Of course, he interprets failure of a reference to answer the questionnaire or any item of it as unfavorable to the candidate.

The goal of your ***persuasive claim letter*** is not to vent your anger but to solve a problem. And that is more likely to happen when a calm atmosphere prevails. For that you will need to explain in sufficient detail precisely what the problem is, how it came about, and how you want the reader to solve the problem.

Writing a sales letter. Much of a company's sales effort is accomplished through the writing of effective sales letters – either individual letters for individual sales or form letters for large-scale sales. The indirect organizational plan is used for sales letters. It is sometimes called the *AIDA* plan, because you first gain the reader's *attention*, then create *interest* in and *desire* for the benefits of your product, and finally motivate *action*.

Selecting a central selling theme. Your first step is to become thoroughly familiar with your product, its competition, and your intended audience. Then, you must select a **central selling theme** for your letter. Two means of achieving emphasis are *position* and *repetition*.

Gaining the reader's attention. A reply to a request for product information from a potential customer is called a **solicited sales letter**. An **unsolicited sales letter,** on the other hand, is a letter promoting a firm's products that is mailed to potential customers who have not expressed any interest in the product. For opening sentences you may use a

rhetorical question, a though-provoking statement, an unusual fact, a current event, an anecdote, or a direct challenge. This technique will make the opening of a sales letter interesting, short, and original. Nevertheless, avoid irrelevant, obvious, or timeworn statements.
Creating interest and building desire. If your opening sentence is directly related to your product, the transition to the discussion of features and reader benefits will be smooth and logical.

- Interpreting features.
- Using vivid language.
- Using objective, ethical language.
- Focusing on the central selling theme.
- Mentioning price.
- Referring to enclosures.

Motivating action. Although the purpose of your letter should be apparent right from the start, delay making your specific request until late in the letter – after you have created interest and build desire for the product. Then state the specific action you want. However, make your push for action *gently*. Use confident language when asking for action.
Thus, we can see that the ability to write persuasively is crucial for success in business. To write persuasively, you must overcome the reader's initial resistance, establish your own credibility, and develop an appeal that meets a need of the reader. You must also become thoroughly familiar with your reader so that you can translate the advantages of your idea or the features of your product into specific reader benefits.

3. Design and style of business letters. Correspondence is essential in establishing and confirming transactions in commerce, because it reflects you or your business. Therefore <u>what</u> is written and <u>how</u> it is expressed is much a part of a business education.
1. ***Sender's address.*** It is not usual to write the sender's name before the sender's address.
2. ***Date.*** The date is written below the sender's address, sometimes separated from it by a space.
3. ***Inside (or receiver's) address.*** This is written below the sender's address and on the opposite side of the page. Courtesy titles used in addresses are as follows:

- Mr (with or without a full stop) – for a man
- Mrs – for a married woman
- Miss – for an unmarried woman
- Ms – for both married and unmarried woman
- Messrs – for two or more men, but more commonly forms part of the name of a firm (Messrs Collier&Clerke&Co).

4. ***Order of inside address.*** After the name of the person and/or company receiving the letter, the order and style of addresses in the UK is as follows:

- Name of house or building;
- Number of building and name of street, etc.;
- Name of town or city and postcode;

- Name of country.

If punctuation is used, each line of the address is followed by a comma, except the last line. But majority of firms now use open punctuation, i.e. without any commas.

5. ***'For the attention of'.*** An alternative to including the recipient's name or position in the address is to use an "attention line".

6. ***Salutations:***

Dear Sir opens a letter to a man whose name you do not know.

Dear Sirs is used to address a company.

Dear Madam is used to address a woman, whether single or married, whose name you do not know.

Dear Sir or Madam is used to address a person of whom you know neither the name nor the sex.

Note that in the USA a letter to a company usually opens with Gentlemen, followed by a colon, not with Dear Sirs.

7. ***The body of the letter.*** This may be indented or blocked. It is usual to leave a line space between paragraphs in the body of the letter; if the blocked style is used, this is essential.

8. ***Complimentary closes.*** If the letter begins Dear Sir, Dear Sirs, Dear Madam or Dear Sir or Madam, it will close with Yours faithfully. If the letter begins with a personal name – Dear Mr James – it will close with Yours sincerely.

Avoid closing with old-fashioned phrases.

The comma after the complimentary close is optional.

Note that Americans tend to close even formal letters with Yours truly or Truly yours, which is unusual in the UK in commercial correspondence. But a letter to a friend or acquaintance may end with Yours truly or the casual Best wishes.

9. ***Signatures.*** Always type your name after your handwritten signature and your position in the firm after typed signature.

10. References. References are quoted to indicate what the letter refers to (your Ref-) and the correspondence to refer to when replying (Our Ref) .

11. ***Per pro.*** The term per pro (p.p.) is sometimes used in signatures and means for and behalf of .

12. ***Enclosures.*** Many firms write Enc. or Encl. at the bottom of the letter if these are any enclosures and list the number of documents.

13. ***Private and confidential!*** This phrase may be written at the head of the letter, and more importantly on the envelope, in a case that's the letter is intended only for the eyes of the named recipient.

14. ***Subject titles.*** Some firms open their letters with a subject title. It is not necessary to begin the subject title with Re:

15. ***Copies.*** C.C. is written usually at the end of the letter, when copies are sent to people other than the named recipient.

16. ***Addressing envelopes.*** Envelope addresses are written in a similar way to inside addresses, but for letters in or going to the UK, the postcode is usually written on a line by itself at the end of the address, and the name of both the town and the country are written in capital letters.

Now let's consider the ***style*** for writing business letters.

1. The length. The length of the letter depends on the subject of the letter. The right length includes the right amount of information. Your letter should be neither too long nor too short. It is better to include too much information than too little. Your reader cannot read your mind.
2. Order and sequence. Your letter should make all the necessary points in a logical sequence, with each idea or piece of information linking up with the previous one in a pattern that can be followed.
3. Planning your letter. The way to get the right amount of information in your letter, and to get it in the right order, is by planning your letter in advance.
a) First paragraph
The first sentence or paragraph of a letter is an important one since it sets the tone of the letter and gives your reader his first impression of you and your company.
b) Middle paragraph
This is the main part of your letter and will concern the points that need to be made, answers you wish to give, or questions you want to ask.
c) Final paragraph
When closing the letter, you should thank the person for writing, if your letter is a reply and if you have not done so at the beginning. Encourage further enquiries or correspondence.
4. Style and language.
a) Simplicity
b) Courtesy
c) Idioms and colloquial language
5. Clarity. Confusion in correspondence often arises through a lack of thought and care, and there are a number of ways in which it can happen.
a) Abbreviations
b) Figures
c) Prepositions
6. Accuracy. Careless mistakes in a letter can create a bad impression on your reader. Spelling, punctuation, and grammar should all be checked carefully.

4. Accessing and sharing electronic messages. ***Email*** may be your most frequent form of written communication on the job. Email is a message sent both internally and externally through computers. It is a fast and inexpensive way to communicate and a less formal method of correspondence. There are usually five parts to **an email message**: the sender's name, the date and the time, the address of the person receiving the message, the subject, and the message. Follow the rules of etiquette suggested below.

The Good E-mailer	The Bad E-mailer
❖ Keeps messages short. ❖ Presents information clearly with bullet points. ❖ Enters a precise subject in the subject box. ❖ Doesn't over-use the reply function. ❖ Checks their mail box at least three times daily.	❖ Writes too informally. ❖ Writes in capitals for effect. ❖ Sends huge attachments. ❖ Loves abbreviations / symbols. ❖ Uses e-mail to avoid phoning.

❖ Limits personal mail and small talk. ❖ Gives people time to reply. ❖ Doesn’t forward mail without thinking. ❖ Creates a filing system for mail attachments. ❖ Reports offensive mail. ❖ Adds key information in the e-mail signature. ❖ Never abuses the system for private messages. ❖ Thinks twice about attaching very large files. ❖ Telephones if an immediate answer is required. ❖ Keeps address book up-to-date. ❖ Is professional at all times.	❖ Sends offensive material. ❖ Prints every e-mail.

5. Using modern technologies in business communication. The Internet gives us an access to information stored in thousands of computers worldwide and provides us with the ability to chat with anyone around the globe at any hour of the day. Much of the information we need is too new and more current than printed databases because they are updated weekly or monthly. Finally, electronic databases are extremely flexible, economical, and easy to use. A mailing list is a discussion group in which messages are sent directly to members via email. A newsgroup is a discussion group in which messages are posted at the newsgroup site.

Browsing and searching the internet. The massive amount of information available on the Internet is not neatly and logically organized for easy search and retrieval. Don’t believe everything you read! You are responsible for the quality of retrieved from the Internet information you include in your correspondence, reports, and presentations. You will often incorporate the information you access electronically into your own electronic communications – correspondence, reports, phone calls, and the like.

Fax communication. Fax machines are fast, inexpensive, easy to use, and available worldwide. In addition, personal computers with fax modems allow computer users to send and receive documents through their personal computers. Follow these guidelines:

- Always use a cover sheet when you send a fax.
- Ensure that the document to be faxed is legible.
- Be mindful of the cost of faxing.
- Be courteous.

Groupware is a form of software that automates information sharing between two or more remote users and enables them to communicate electronically and coordinate their efforts easily. For example, groupware can function quite effectively for editing team writing projects.

Teleconferencing and videoconferencing. A teleconference is a meeting of three or more people, at least some of whom are in different locations, who communicate via telephone. A videoconference is an interactive meeting between two or more people using video linkups at two or more sites.

Module 2. WRITING BUSINESS DOCUMENTS
Topic 4. Writing bad-news messages

PLAN.

1. Negative business situations.
2. Planning the bad-news messages.
3. Psychological reasons for indirectness.
4. Bad-news replies and announcements.
5. Handling negative and sensitive information.

1. Negative business situations. Some common negative or sensitive situations that occur in business are refusals, adjustments and claims, order problems, personal problems, etc. The basic skill of a good communicator is the skill to say <u>no</u> without actually <u>saying</u> so. Saying “thanks, but no thanks” (TNT in brief) may build goodwill and preserve potential customers for your business.

Order. The letter ordering goods should be made so clear that it could not possibly be misunderstood. It should be exact and complete in every detail as to quantity, quality, size, number, catalogue page and number, shape, style, color, price of each, or other item (e.g., sample of paper, cloth). If the buyer is to pay transportation charges, he should specify how the order is to be shipped – mail, express, or freight – unless he leaves this matter to the one who ships. Give complete instructions for shipping. Printed order forms, which have a date and a reference number that should be quoted in any correspondence connected with the definite order, may be used, but in any case few words should be written in addition to those giving the items and exact instructions relative to the order. Write each item on a separate line beginning at the paragraph margin. Also a covering letter may accompany the order form as it allows you the opportunity to make any necessary points and confirm the terms that have been agreed (for example, the terms of payment, discounts, delivery dates, etc.). If payment is enclosed, state the exact amount and the form in which it is sent – stamps, currency, check, draft, or money order. An enclosure should be clipped to the letter, and in the lower left-hand corner should be written ‘Enclosure’. Orders should be acknowledged as soon as received. If there are problems with delivery, tell your customer immediately what you intend to do to correct them. Apologize for the inconvenience. In case of turning an order down, be polite, and generalize the terms you use so that the customer does not think this refusal only applies to him or her.

When a thorough response to an incoming letter must be delayed, receipt of the letter must be acknowledged. These acknowledgement letters are called *stopgap letters*. They let your customer know that the inquiry will not be ignored and that it will be responded to as soon as possible. A stopgap letter informs your customer that you need time to process the request. Necessary information or materials, for example, may not be immediately available. Or your company may have set procedures for responding to certain inquiries. Credit applications and insurance claims, for instance, take time to be processed. They are often answered promptly with a stopgap acknowledgement.

Acknowledgement. The receipt of an order or a remittance should be acknowledged at once. If the acknowledgement is of order, it should refer to the date of the order with other definite reference to identify it clearly. Detailed explanation should be given if there is any delay in filling the order. If the order lacks necessary details or specifications, the writer of the acknowledgement should refer to the omission without showing impatience. In short, the acknowledgement should reflect sincere appreciation and should foster a spirit of good will. An acknowledgement of remittance should be made promptly, accompanied be receipted bill in case of final payment; it should always express sincere appreciation which encourages further business relations.

Confirmations are routine for such businesses as hotels and travel agencies, but other businesses may also need to send them. For example, doctors and repair services can avoid wasted time by contacting patients and customers a day or so in advance of scheduled appointments. Such confirmations are frequently made by telephone, but a form letter or postcard also effectively transmits clear, correct, and complete information, particularly when the type of business requires numbers of confirmations. As it is often the case, however, a letter written to a specific individual, can turn this customer into a regular customer be adding a personal touch. When canceling an appointment, you should say why you are unable to keep it.

Order problems fall into three main groups:

- Back orders.
- Missing information.
- Substitutions.

2. Planning the bad-news message. Like persuasive messages, bad-news messages require careful planning. Your purpose in writing a bad-news message is twofold. To communicate these goals, you must communicate your message politely, clearly, and firmly. Sometimes you can achieve your purpose better with a phone call or personal visit than with a written message. Frequently, a written message is most appropriate.

Organizing to suit your audience. The reader's needs, expectations, and personality – as well as the writer's relationship with the reader – will largely determine the content and organization of a bad-news message. Put yourself in the place of the reader. Decide whether to use the direct or the indirect plan. However, messages written to one's superior are typically written in the direct style.

Direct plan – present the bad news immediately. Use this plan when

1. The bad news can be considered routine.
2. The reader prefers directness.
3. The reader expects a "no" response.
4. The writer wants to emphasize the negative news.
5. The reader – writer relationship is at either extreme.

Indirect plan – buffer the bad news. When giving bad news to subordinates, customers, readers who prefer the indirect approach and readers you don't know, you will often want to use an indirect plan. A ***buffer*** between the reader and the bad news that will follow lessens the impact of bad news and it should be neutral, relevant, supportive, interesting, and short. Ethical communicators use a buffer not in an attempt to manipulate or confuse

the reader but in a sincere effort to help the reader accept the disappointing information in an objective manner.
Justifying your decision. For routine bad-news messages the reasons can probably be stated concisely. Indirectly written messages, however, require more careful planning. Provide a smooth transition from the opening buffer and present the reasons honestly and convincingly. If possible, explain how the reasons benefit the reader. Show the reader that your decision was a *business* decision, not a personal one. Show that the request was taken seriously, and don't hide behind company policy. The reasons justifying your decision should take up the major part of the message.
Giving the bad news. The bad news is communicated up front in directly written messages. To retain the reader's goodwill, state the bad news in positive or neutral language. When using the indirect plan, phrase the bad news in impersonal language. In this case the bad news will not be perceived as a personal rejection.
Closing on a pleasant note. End your message on a more pleasant note. Make your closing original, friendly, and positive. Avoid referring again to the bad news.

3. Psychological reasons for indirectness. Indirect message softens the blow and can prepare your audience for your explanation. When you refuse someone's request, you need to consider the human interaction that's taking place. You need to say "no" tactfully. Give priority to the priority to the human considerations of the situation. When writing a bad-news message, your goal is to convey the bad news and, at the same time, keep the reader's goodwill. Depending on the individual circumstances, either the direct or the indirect organizational pattern may be used to reject an idea, refuse a favor, deny a claim, or present bad news about the organization itself.
Audience analysis. In indirect messages, you need to prove your case before offering your conclusion or action to allow the reader time to accept your point of view.

4. Bad-news replies and announcements.
a) Bad-news replies.
Rejecting an idea. A bad news message which rejects someone's idea or proposal is very challenging. Put yourself in the role of the person making the suggestion.
Refusing a favor. Many favors are asked and granted almost automatically. The type of message written to refuse a favor depends on the particular circumstances. Remember that although the refusal itself might not lose the reader's goodwill, a poorly written refusal message might.
Refusing a claim. The indirect plan is almost always used when refusing an adjustment request because the reader is emotionally involved in the situation. The tone of your refusal must convey respect and consideration for the customer – even when the customer is at fault. To separate the reader from the refusal, begin with a buffer. Use impersonal, neutral language to explain the basis for the refusal. Close your message on a friendly note.
b) Bad-News Announcements.
Bad news about normal operations. If the reader will not be personally disappointed in the bad news, present it directly – in the first sentence of your message, followed by the

details. If you need to justify your bad news, you should present the reason for it – even in a message written in a direct pattern. If the reader must be persuaded of your bad-news decision, use the indirect approach.

Another situation that calls for indirect organization is one in which a change in organizational policy will adversely affect. When dealing with issues that are of such personal interest to the reader, don't hurry your discussion. Deliberate use of language does not manipulate the reader; it simply uses good human relations to bring the reader to an understanding and appreciation of the writer's position.

Bad news about the organization. If your organization is experiencing serious problems, your employees, customers, and stockholders should hear the news from you. Throughout your message, choose each word with care. In general, avoid using words with negative connotations and emphasize those with positive connotations. If the reader has already learned about the bad situation in your company from other sources, your best strategy is to use a direct organizational pattern. If the reader is hearing the news for the first time, you best strategy is to use the indirect pattern, using a buffer opening and stressing the most positive aspects.

5. Handling negative and sensitive information.

A conventional outline for an indirect message is as follows:

- Begin with a buffer to set up the situation.
- Explain the problem.
- Imply or imbed the negative message.
- Get the necessary or desired action.
- End on a positive tone.

How to convey negative information? Use passive voice to describe problem areas rather than active voice, which places responsibility more firmly. Emphasize the positive side of things. Tools of (1) emphasis and (2) subordination are as follows:

(1) More words on the subject; active voice verbs; specific nouns; bold print, lists, headings.

(2) Fewer words; passive voice; general nouns; straight narrative.

For emphasis use pronouns and people while for subordination mention things, ideas.

Module 3. ORAL BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

Topic 5. Interpersonal communication in business practice

PLAN

1. Communicating at work in a diverse environment.
2. Developing good listening skills.
3. Telephoning in business.
4. Nonverbal communication.

1. Communicating at work in a diverse environment. A team is a group of individuals who depend on one another to accomplish a common objective. Successful interpersonal behavior in organizations depends on communicators' willingness to work toward openness, cooperation, trust, teamwork, and group or organizational goals.

- Teams versus individuals.
- The danger of *social loafing*.

The variables of group communication.

- ***Conflict.*** Groups can use conflict productively to generate and test ideas before they are implemented. Conflict, then, is the essence of group interaction.
- ***Conformity.*** It is an agreement with regard to ideas, rules, or principles.
- ***Consensus.*** Consensus means reaching a decision that best reflects the thinking of all team members. Consensus does not mean a unanimous vote.

The initial group goal is to get to know one another. We cannot inform others unless we know who they are, what they already know, what they need, and why they need it. When we receive, process, and evaluate incoming information accurately, we begin to know how to influence and inform.

Giving and receiving feedback. The guidelines for giving feedback:

- Be descriptive and give specific examples.
- Avoid using labels, such as *unprofessional, irresponsible, etc.*
- Don't exaggerate and be exact.
- Speak for yourself and don't refer to anonymous people.
- Use "I" statements to tell specifically how someone's behavior affects you.

Conflict resolution. If a group develops itself into a team, most conflicts can be prevented.

- Think of each problem as a group problem.
- Examine how to encourage constructive behavior.
- Consider how to contribute more to the collaborative effort.
- Be realistic – you are responsible for behaving ethically, but not for the solving other people's personal problems.

Cultural differences. International business would not be possible without international communication. Ethnocentrism and cultural differences do have profound effects on our lives and diversity poses a growing challenge for managers. Cultures differ not only in their verbal language but also in their nonverbal language. Also cultures differ in the traits they value:

- emphasis on individualism;
- time orientation;
- power distance (decisions are made by the boss only);
- uncertainty avoidance (people want predictable and certain future);
- formality (importance to tradition, ceremony, social rules, rank);
- materialism (the acquisition of money and material objects);
- context-sensibility (emphasizing the surrounding circumstances to build relationships and establish trust).

Strategies for communicating across cultures.

- ***Maintain formality.*** Most cultures value a formal approach to business dealings.

- ***Show respect.*** Listen carefully; learn about your host country.
- ***Communicate clearly.*** Avoid slang; be specific; encourage questions; use a variety of media; avoid attempts at humor; speak plainly and slowly.
- ***Value diversity.*** Cultural diversity provides a rich environment for solving problems and for expanding horizons.

2. Developing good listening skills. There is a difference between hearing and listening. For oral communication to be effective we require good listening skills because nearly 60% of all communication problems in business are caused by poor listening. The good listener is much more likely

- To receive useful information;
- To learn how to meet expectations
- To learn how to avoid career-limiting errors.

Keys to better listening:

- Give the speaker your undivided attention: physical distractions; mental distractions; avoid dismissing a topic.
- Stay open-minded: listen objectively; be willing to accept new information; concentrate on the content of the message; don't jump to conclusions too quickly.
- Don't interrupt: interruptions are rude; they interfere with the speaker's train of thought and hinder communication.
- Involve yourself: summarize to yourself what the speaker is saying; jot down points; concentrate on the main ideas; evaluate the validity of the overall argument.

3. Telephoning in business. Telephoning in business has been largely replaced by the email correspondence, but still 26% of executives prefer the phone for management communication. Your company will be judged on your or your people telephone manner. So it is very important that the first contact the caller has is with someone who is courteous, happy, and ever so willing to help. That is why it is necessary to polish up your telephone techniques.

Structural elements of phone communication:

- greetings and identifying the participants of the conversation;
- explaining the reason for calling;
- discussing the main theme;
- summarizing the theme;
- expressing appreciation, saying goodbye.

Taking messages. It is important that you get the following details from the caller: name, phone number, what the call is about. Your written message should also contain date, time, and your name or the name of the person who took the call. If you are having difficulty understanding what the caller is saying, try spelling out the particular words.

Making a call. Always announce yourself and either say who you wish to speak to or what the matter is about. If the caller isn't in, find out the most convenient time to try again, or have them return your call.

Leaving a phone message. Sometimes there may not be anyone to answer the telephone call and you will need to leave a message recorded on the answering machine. Follow these guidelines:

- Introduce yourself.
- State the reason for calling.
- Leave your telephone number.
- End your call with a “goodbye” message.

Making a call it would be reasonable if you:

- Try not to ramble, mumble, hesitate or whisper.
- Prepare beforehand what you want to say.
- Sound businesslike – state your name and the reason for the call.
- Never feel compelled to tell all to the machine.
- Include a time when you can be reached for a return call.

Competent communicators use technology to full advantage to accomplish their communication goals but are mindful of the need for shared personal interactions as well. In short, they practice both high-tech *and* high-touch communication.

4. Nonverbal communication. Nonverbal messages are unwritten and unspoken. Nonverbal communication implies the following:

- Body movement. Facial expressions. Eye contact. Gestures.
- Physical appearance.
- Voice qualities (volume, speed, pitch, tone, accent)
- Time.
- Touch.
- Space and territory (intimate zone; personal zone; social zone; public zone).

We cannot but communicate nonverbally. Evaluate other’s nonverbals cautiously. Control the nonverbal signals you send. They carry higher risks of ambiguity for several reasons.

- Nonverbals occur in clusters – in endless combinations (eye muscles, hands, surrounding space).
- Different cultures’ meanings for nonverbal signals differ.
- When a nonverbal message contradicts a verbal one, receivers tend to believe the nonverbal message.
- The same nonverbal signal can send different messages.
- The same nonverbal message can be sent by the same person in multiple ways.

Module 3. ORAL BUSINESS COMMUNICATION
Topic 6. Communicating in organizations
PLAN.

1. Corporate culture.
2. Power in organizations.
3. Organizational communication networks.
4. Small group meetings.
5. Business etiquette.

1. Corporate culture. The corporate culture can be relatively formal or informal, open or close-mouthed, punitive or indulgent, innovative or conservative. Some organizations create their cultures deliberately.

- Training of newcomers.
- Policy of the firm.
- The plans, goals, and objectives cover <u>what</u> the firms and their employees are to do. Often other kinds of policies and rules cover <u>how</u> they are to do it.

2. Power in organizations. Much communication and much influence travel along informal lines. There are five kinds of power:

- Position power.
- Reward power.
- Punitive power.
- Expert power.
- Referent power.

Both organization and employee prosper when the employee's personal goals are well matched with the organization's goals. Power and the ability to persuade are intricately linked. Power adds weight to persuasion and often the ability to persuade increases power.
Means of building power in organizations:

- Environmental scanning.
- Boundary spanning.
- Networking.

People make serious political mistakes when they fail to pay attention to power factors. Somebody who knows everything but does nothing will not be esteemed.
You can empower (=give authority to) peers and subordinates.

3. Organizational communication networks. A classic definition states that a formal organization is "a system of coordinated activities of a group of people working cooperatively toward a common goal under authority and leadership" (William G. Scott, <u>Organization theory.</u> Homewood, Ill., Richard D. Irwin, 1967).
The typical business organization is ***a pyramid-shaped hierarchy***, with

- A president or CEO at the top.
- Several vice presidents reporting to the president or CEO.
- Several managers reporting to each vice president.

- Supervisors reporting to each manager.
- A number of workers reporting to each supervisor.

The sequence of reporting relationships, from low to high, is called the *chain of command.* The number of people reporting directly to an individual is called that person's *span of control.*
Informal networks.
Grapevine.
Transfer stations.
Information overload.
Bottlenecks.
Information is an organization's life blood.
Withholding information.
Clique groups.
LANs - local area networks.
WANs - wide area networks.

4, Small-group meetings. Before ***meetings*** take place, it is important to invite participants to propose items or points for the agenda. Drawing up the agenda is usually the responsibility of the secretary or the chair. When the chair opens the meeting, it is usual to run through the agenda quickly. The first item is usually Matters Arising to allow participants to go through the minutes of the previous meeting. After this, the discussion of the other points can begin. During the discussion participants make recommendations and proposals in order to solve problems. At the end of the meeting the last or next-to-last point is often AOB (Any Other Business) which gives participants the opportunity to raise other issues not included in the main agenda. During the meeting someone is nominated to take the minutes and after the meeting this person will write up the minutes for circulation to the other participants before the next meeting. Finally, the chair will close the meeting.
The ability to conduct and participate in meetings is a crucial managerial skill. To use meetings as an effective managerial tool, you need to know not only how to run them but also when to call them and how to follow up afterward.
Planning the meeting. Managers must make sure they're getting their money's worth from a meeting, and that guarantee requires careful planning:

- identifying the purpose of the meeting;
- determining whether a meeting is necessary;
- preparing an agenda for the meeting;
- deciding who should attend;
- determining logistics.

Conducting the meeting. A manager must be a leader during the meeting, keeping the group focused on the point and encouraging participation. An efficient leader keeps in mind the following:

- punctuality;

- following the agenda;
- leading the meeting;
- parliamentary procedure – the minority is heard and the majority prevails.

Following up the meeting. If the meeting was routine and informal, follow it up with a memo summarizing the major points of the meeting. Formal meetings or meetings where controversial ideas were discussed require formal minutes of what took place. **Minutes** are an official record of the proceedings; they summarize what was discussed and what decisions were made. ***While chairing the meeting,*** follow the guidelines given in tables. ***While participating in the meeting,*** follow the guidelines given below.

Chairing the meeting

DO	**DON'T**
➢ Plan the meeting thoroughly: agenda, format, people, minutes. ➢ Begin by reviewing objectives. ➢ Encourage ideas from all the participants. ➢ Listen: clarify, summarize and focus the discussion. ➢ Impose control on strong personalities. ➢ Respect time: maintain pace but slow down for analysis. ➢ Guarantee result: identify the issues and find consensus. ➢ Summarize decisions at the end. ➢ Implement any action plan and organize the next meeting.	➢ Forget the environment: you may need name cards, flipcharts, refreshments. ➢ Dominate and bully people with your authority. ➢ Allow over-elaboration or irrelevance. ➢ Postpone decisions too quickly to another meeting. ➢ Close a meeting without reviewing decisions.

Participating in the meeting

DO	**DON'T**
➢ Read the agenda before and bring supporting documentation. ➢ Speak with sufficient volume and clarity for everyone to hear you. ➢ Respect and support other speakers: develop their ideas. ➢ Be flexible and willing to improvise. ➢ Listen and check to make sure that you understand. ➢ Give direct replies: don't digress. ➢ Build to a consensus.	➢ Leave meetings to make "important" phone calls. ➢ Interrupt too much or disagree too strongly. ➢ React personally to differences of opinion. ➢ Use over-complex language. ➢ Pretend to understand. ➢ Leave meeting without clearly understanding the decision.

5. Business etiquette is the practice of polite and appropriate behavior in the business setting. Each organization has its own rules about what is and is not considered fitting in terms of dress, ways of addressing superiors, importance of punctuality, and the like. In addition, every country and every culture has its own rules. Etiquette is important when

- meeting and greeting;
- dining;

- giving gifts;
- dressing appropriately;
- around the office.

Etiquette of the business communication plays an important role in the success or failure in business. Good manners, being polite and considerate, using appropriate language and dressing are some of the traits which generally make people likely to succeed.

Module 3. ORAL BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

Topic 7. Communication in managing and supervising

PLAN

1. Managerial interviewing.
2. Appraising performance.
3. Disciplining and motivating.
4. Communication and conflict.
5. Communicating with publics and shareholders.

1. Managerial interviewing. An interview is a meeting in which two or more individuals give and receive information. In a business interview, the participants typically serve both the organization's goals and their own goals. Plan the interview beforehand. Make at least a mental agenda. A manager mentally lists what is already known and what must be learnt from the persons in conflict.

Negotiating. Most managers are involved in negotiating. Successful negotiation is where you get what you want. There are a number of factors that affect the negotiating process. All these factors - attitudes, personal needs, sources of power - should be considered before the negotiations. Your attitude means your high aspiration for good results, your commitment to the deal and determination to win. You should encourage and take into account the personal needs of the other party. Then people will be more willing to go along with you. The more you know about the other party, the more time you have to negotiate, the more power you'll have. Start negotiations with a firm demand, but don't be hostile. You may refer to the policy of your company or regulations. Before making concessions, find out what the other party wants. The longer you hold out, the more likely you are to get something in exchange. Don't be afraid of reaching a deadlock, but do it in a way that doesn't reduce your credibility. Try to keep the relationship friendly. It's easier to get the agreement you want when the other party is well-disposed towards you. It's essential to maintain trust and integrity.

The art of negotiation incorporates the following:

PLANNING

- Read and gather pre-negotiation documentation.
- Clarify important questions prior to the negotiation.
- Know the other party: business and culture.
- Decide objectives, strategy and agenda.
- Specify roles and responsibilities within the team.
- Inform people about date, location, and time.

- Prepare and rehearse your opening statement.

BEGINNING THE NEGOTIATION

- Create a positive atmosphere quickly.
- Respect cultural expectations of behavior.
- Establish a framework: agenda, procedure, roles.
- Agree on a timetable.
- State your position.
- Stress common interests.

DURING THE NEGOTIATION

- Listen and clarify the objectives of the other party.
- Check to make sure they understand you.
- Focus initially on areas of agreement.
- Make constructive proposals.
- Be clear, firm and to the point.
- Handle conflict positively.
- Be creative and flexible when bargaining.
- Reach a position of mutual advantage.
- Establish a positive working relationship at the outset.

ENDING THE NEGOTIATION

- Summarize and confirm the deal.
- Clarify future responsibilities.
- End positively.

AFTER THE NEGOTIATION

- Recognize successes.
- Learn from failure and improve for next time.
- Build up and extend the new relationship.

Watch nonverbals. Do not judge anything too soon. It is a good idea to list the questions in writing and to make notes of the applicant's responses. BFOQ (bona fide occupational qualification). Use the interview time efficiently.

Handling complaints. Managers would prefer to avoid complaints, but in fact a complaint should be welcomed. Any contact with a customer is an opportunity to improve business, and even a dissatisfied customer is no exception. A complaint can be turned into good public relations. In case of complaint try to see the situation from the customer's viewpoint. Show the customer that you're concerned, that you take his complaint seriously. You can always show sympathy for the customer's problem without actually accepting responsibility for it. Show the customer that you understand him, negotiate patiently and make some concession. Complaints should be dealt with as quickly as possible, but avoid making a decision right away. Promise to investigate the matter and arrange meeting with the customer. It's a good idea to take notes because this shows you think the customer's complaint is important. If you have to reject the complaint, you should show that the rejection is in no way due to a lack of respect. If the complaint is justified, you should accept responsibility, apologize and compensate. Finally, always investigate the causes of complaint. Find out what went wrong and make sure it doesn't happen again.

A problem-solving interview. **Steps:**

- recognizing and defining the problem;
- determining source or cause;
- considering alternative means of solution;
- determining objectives to be achieved;
- choosing a means of solution;
- devising means of implementing the solution;
- monitoring and following up.

2. Appraising performance. Try to make daily contact with your subordinates. Some experts call this process *managing by walking around* (MBWA). Advantages:

- avoids the halo or horns effect;
- makes the appraisal task less heavy.

Consulting staff. The main concern of managers is getting things done by other people. For this the managers should have the skills to make decisions, to see that the decisions are carried out and to get people to go along with your decisions. Consultation is an essential part of this process. Before consultation the manager should consider the company's policy and objectives, the available resources, the deadline for reaching a decision and people who will be affected by your decision. Consultation isn't a matter of collecting facts but the consequences of your decision. For this you must gather opinions and decide which facts are relevant. The purpose of consultation is to get assistance in making the decision, and acceptance of the decision once made. Getting assistance means getting ideas, criticising each other's suggestions, generating dissention. To get such productive disagreement your staff must have no fear of saying what they think. When the time comes to make the decision, review your priorities, consider the alternatives, weigh up the pros and cons of each. Then decide what action is to be taken, who is to take it and who must be informed of it. Communicate your decision and check that everyone has understood. Finally, follow up the implementation of your decisions. Remember that others may carry out the work but the responsibility is yours. That's why:

- Schedule the interview several days in advance.
- Fill out your company's appraisal form carefully.
- Do document the appraisal. These records might be crucial.

Staff assessment has great potential for improving the efficiency of an organization. Staff assessment requires a well thought-out and systematic approach. The purpose of staff assessment is not to make immediate decisions about promotion or salary increases. The primary purpose is to improve the performance of the individual and the whole organization. The annual staff assessment interview is an excellent opportunity to resolve problems and develop possibilities. At the beginning of the interview encourage an employee to speak openly of his successes and failures, let him analyze his work. When you come to give your own views treat the interview as a two-way discussion. Focus on the performance in the job, not on personality traits that have no connection with his work. Don't compare him with other employees. When criticizing his performance, do so with reference to concrete examples and with the focus on the future. Don’t dwell on mistakes, but praise his achievements. He must know that his successes have been recognized. Finally, there should be an agreement on a plan of actions to improve performance. Assure him of your support in carrying out the plan. The employee should know what to do to improve his work and feel confident that he can do it.

3. Disciplining and motivating. Written documentation is essential. Managers can learn what rewards employees value and offer those rewards in return for improvement. Listen and coach. Document what you said.

The discipline interview. One of the least pleasant duties of a manager is holding a discipline interview. It is done if the employees break the rules or do not meet the performance standards. The penalties may be the following: reprimand, fines, demotion, and dismissal. Before holding the interview, get the full facts of the matter. Carry out the discipline interview in private. The dignity of an employee must be respected. The purpose of discipline interview is to improve behavior rather than to punish. Disciplinary action should not be delayed. If you need some time to investigate the matter, do it as quickly as possible. At the actual interview tell the employee at once why the interview is being held. Find out why the offence took place. Encourage the employee to speak openly about the situation. Ask him open-ended questions, wait for his reply. Keep the conversation to the point. Be polite but firm. The outcome of the interview should be constructive. Try to agree on an improvement plan. Fix a review date and explain what will happen if there is no improvement.

Motivating employees. Human resource management is the job of hiring, training, motivating, compensating, and establishing fringe benefits for employees. It is not easy to find good, qualified help, even when unemployment is high. It takes time and patience to train new employees. The owner/manager is forced to take time from operating the business to handle personal problems. That is why employee relations is such an important part of small business management. A dedicated, hard-working, honest, reliable work force is an invaluable resource and one that demands great attention. One way to get such a commitment from employees is to let them share in the profits. Often, it is the incentive of ownership that encourages workers in organizations to work 60 or more hours a week. Those who have an ownership interest tend to be more careful, more involved, more committed. The key to success in any corporation is people, and people need to be motivated. The best way to motivate people is to give them as much freedom as possible, and some incentive to work effectively and efficiently, such as partial ownership in the firm.

4. Communication and conflict. ***Conflicts:*** constructive and creative, damaging and destructive. Organizational conflict may be latent, perceived or felt, or manifested. Human nature itself creates conflict. The conflict gets resolved in one of several ways. Resolution is not always fair. Conflict should not get personal and should not promote aims unbeneficial to the organization. Theorists on conflict describe five common means by which managers address conflict in their departments: withdrawal, smoothing, forcing, compromise, and optimizing.

5. Communicating with publics and shareholders. The task of business is to create value, and this value passes to many people in many forms. Businesses enable employees to earn livelihoods, buyers to obtain products or services they need, and communities to grow in size and importance. For these benefits to occur, business needs the support of its many constituencies, or ‘publics’. Businesspeople have to be careful not just about what they do and say but also about how it looks and sounds to the many groups observing their behavior, each group with motives of its own. The fewer people a business displeases, however, the fewer ill effects on the business. Keep in mind the perceptions of groups, or publics, both inside and outside the organization.

Human relations within an organization. To ensure good human relations within an organization three components are particularly important: leadership, communication, and motivation. Leadership is the ability to influence people to work toward accomplishing a goal. A leader’s approach is determined by the demands of the situation, by the needs and personalities of the followers, and by the culture of the organization. The manager who inspires enthusiasm and who works alongside employees is usually more effective than the boss who invokes authority and takes all the credit for the group’s accomplishments. Managers must learn to distinguish between authority - the ability to make someone do something, and leadership - the ability to inspire someone to do something. A leader has to create “a sense of excitement” in the organization, and convince staff that he knows where the business is going. Effective leadership depends on matching the leader to the task and the situation. Effective leadership might be a crucial factor in the success of the organization. Internal publics include management – which contains various subgroups – and employees. Employees need upward and downward communication with management.

Communication skills. A very important component of good organizational human relations is communication. Through speaking and listening, writing and reading, managers and lower-level employees not only share crucial job-related information but also build interpersonal networks and patterns of interaction. Effective business communication should be clear but free of ambiguity. At the same time it must incorporate courtesy and respect, which help to keep lines of communication open and effective. One study found that 90 per cent of the people who report good communication with their bosses are satisfied with their jobs. When giving instructions, managers must make sure that those instructions have been understood and interpreted correctly. Studies show that physical surroundings and physical distance limit or encourage communication. Another important barrier to effective communication is selective perception that is people perceive things in different ways. The world of the sender is not the same as the world of the receiver. To minimize such problems, managers should encourage staff to ask questions and to react to what the managers are saying. Communication should be a two-way process to ensure success of the company. Among an organization’s external publics are customers, the community, the stockholders, activist groups, the government, the industry, competitors, and the mass media. A communication audit is a systematic review of all the company’s communication practices to see whether their communication is actually doing what the firm intends it to do and believes it is doing. A company’s communication should further the company’s objectives.

Module 4. ARGUMENTATION AND DEBATING
Topic 8. Argumentation in business communication

PLAN.
1. Argumentation: its definition, purpose and forms.
2. The structure of argumentation. The Toulmin model.
3. Methods to analyze argumentation.
4. Fallacies in argumentation.
5. Writing argumentative essays.

The major objectives of this topic are as follows:
- Prove the importance of argumentation in business contacts.
- Define the argument and state its purpose.
- Differentiate the main forms of arguments and define the task of each form.
- Name and evaluate types of argumentations.

Problems to be discussed:
- What is argument? What is its purpose and role in business communication?
- What are major components of arguments? How do they differ?
- What are the conditions which help the argument to achieve its purpose?
- What are the conditions which diminish the importance of argument?
- How can you assess the completeness and quality of arguments?
- How do arguments differ from fallacies?

1. Argumentation: its definition, purpose and forms. ***Argumentation is a circular process leading to greater understanding and clarification.*** Effective argumentation does not attempt to declare a “winner” but present a valid and responsible point of view. Effectively argued views allow the public to make up their own minds, form their own opinions. If you know how to analyze an argumentation, you will be able to listen to another person’s argumentation and criticize it in systematic way. Thus **the purpose of argumentation** is to convince the listener/reader by means of arguments that a certain opinion is correct.
There are different methods **to convince** the listener or reader:
- Appealing to his/her needs, emotions or wishes (in advertising, for example).
- Exerting pressure (parents, teachers use pressure, in diplomacy).
- Making use of one’s authority in certain matters (expert’s opinion is valuable).

It is not always easy to recognize argumentation. People can disagree and quarrel over anything. However, ***an argument is a rational presentation of a responsible opinion about an opposing viewpoint, supported by reasons and evidence.***
An argumentation is a combination of statements of which one (the opinion or conclusion) is supported by one or more other statements. For example, *The weather is going to be fine today [OPINION], the swallows are flying high up in the air [ARGUMENT].*

Some things cannot be argued reasonably.
- **Facts** are indisputable and cannot be argued.

- **Impossibilities** are not arguable.
- **Preferences** are very similar to opinions, but are neither formed nor changed by logic, and not a suitable matter for rational debate.
- **Beliefs** which lie beyond rational or empirical truth, can't be argued.

2. The structure of argumentation. The Toulmin model. As it was mentioned above, argumentation consists of TWO PARTS: an opinion (or conclusion) and one or more arguments supporting the opinion. The combination of opinion and argument(s) can be different:

1. SIMPLE argumentation – an opinion is supported be an argument.
2. MULTIPLE argumentation – one opinion is supported by two or more arguments. But don't give more than three arguments.
3. SUBORDINATE argumentation – an argument supporting another argument is called a subordinate argument, or sub argument.

3. Methods to analyze argumentation. One way to determine whether a statement is an argument or an opinion is by carrying out the (1) **for/so test.** Sometimes we can analyze argumentation using different words, word groups or parts of the sentence which are called (2) **signals** of the relation between statements. Such signals may be (2a) **signals of opinions** and (2b) **signals of arguments.**

Assessing argumentation completeness. Once you have found the arguments, the next step is to **assess** them. First of all you can assess the **completeness** of a text. For this you may use a set of standard questions (the standard matters in dispute). So, if a person is making a policy proposal, he/she considers a certain measure desirable. It is possible to give arguments for its desirability by answering six questions in the affirmative:

1. Is there a problem?
2. Are the problems serious?
3. Are the problems caused by the current policy?
4. Is the policy proposal feasible?
5. Is the policy proposal effective?
6. Do the advantages of the policy proposal balance its disadvantages, if any?

All questions are closely connected and refer to **the same problem** (coherence). The **onus of the proof** falls on the person making the proposal.

Assessing argumentation quality. Without explaining **why** you think that argumentation is bad, i.e. without giving arguments, you cannot criticize it. That's why for each type of argumentation there are **evaluative questions** that you may use to determine whether an argumentation is convincing or not. Arguments that are not factual indicate an opinion. It is not possible to determine whether they are true or not, but you may judge their **plausibility.**

4. Fallacies in argumentation. Now we will discuss some types of argumentation that are quite common and that often degenerate into **fallacies**. If the answers to the evaluative questions are predominantly NEGATIVE, you may state with reasonable certainty that the argumentation is a fallacy. Fallacies fall into two major categories: fallacies of relevance and

fallacies of ambiguity. **Fallacies of relevance** occur when the premises of an argument are irrelevant to the conclusion. **Fallacies of ambiguity** occur when the premises of an argument are ambiguous to the conclusion.
ANALOGY – if something happened in a certain situation, the same will happen in a similar situation.
GENERALIZATION – if something holds good for case a (b, c etc.), then it holds good for all cases. In a generalization there is always a **general statement**, whereas in an analogy there is a comparison between **individual cases**.
CAUSALITY ARGUMENTATION – from a certain situation (the cause) a certain result is expected (conclusion). The reverse is possible as well: the argument states the result of the situation mentioned in the conclusion.
AUTHORITY ARGUMENTATION – if authority X says A, A is true. So the conclusion is supported to an authoritative source who confirms it.
ARGUMENTATION FROM QUALITY TO JUDGEMENT – if something/someone shows quality/property X, judgment Y on this thing/person is justified. Such type of argumentation should always be critically considered because people's judgments are often based on mere rumors.
ARGUMENTATION FROM PURPOSE TO MEANS – if you want purpose X to be reached, you must take measure/means Y.
OTHER FALLACIES – these fallacies are argumentations that should be always rejected on the basis of logic or ethics. They are as follows:
Personal attack (ad hominem);
Manipulating the audience (ad populum);
Straw man: twisting someone's opinion;
Evading or shifting the onus of proof;
Circular argument.

5. Writing argumentative essays. An argument is the logical presentation of a topic supported by reasons. The term '**argument**' has two meanings. First, it means an ***essay that takes a position*** on one side of a controversial issue. For example, you might write an argument (an essay) against the death penalty in some countries, against cloning people etc., or for censorship of pornography, for abolishing drugs etc.
But argument has another meaning, too. It means an ***essay that simply argues a point***. You might construct an argument about the meaning of night dreams in some cultures? Or you might write an argument defending tour interpretation of a book. You are not necessarily taking one side of a controversial issue, but you are required to defend your points with persuasive evidence. You are taking a position.
An **argumentative essay** presents one side of an issue using evidence to convince the reader to draw the same conclusions as the author. Personal opinions may be the foundation of an argumentative thesis, but reason, evidence and factual information must support the personal opinions to prove the argument. The process of creating a supported argument leads to further understanding and clarification of ideas presented in the essay. Through engaging in argumentation with others, opinions are refined and the decision-making process is strengthened. This circular process is argumentation.

An argument needs to be narrow enough for you to defend in the length of essay assigned. You need to be able to find enough evidence to support your assertions. You need to make a point worth arguing. A “so what?” question from your reader will not generate a strong essay. The **“so what?”** question is a good test for your argument.

There are **different components** of the argument outline: claim, evidence, reasoning, qualifiers, definition of terms etc. The three major parts of an argument? According to Stephen Toulmin, are the CLAIM, the SUPPORT, and the WARRANTS, along with three additional, optional parts. Let’s consider each of them.

CLAIM *or thesis* is the main point, the controlling idea of an argument. An argument seeks to instill a belief or an idea. This idea is the claim. A claim **must** be debatable. ***A claim*** is an expressed opinion or a conclusion that the arguer wants to be accepted.

SUPPORT: these are the reasons given in support of the claim. They are also known as ***evidence, premise, or grounds***. Evidence consists of *facts or conditions* that are objectively observable, *beliefs or statements* generally accepted as true by the recipients, or *conclusions* previously established. Thus, these are the ideas in the form of facts and statistics, expert opinion, examples, explanations that lend support to the claim and make us believe the claim. These may or may not be debatable. While finding evidence for your argument is important, it is also important to evaluate the credibility of your information.

WARRANTS are generally accepted believes and values (almost always unstated and implied) our society view things. These represent the logic of the argument – the rules of inference that lead us to conclude the claim, being given one ground or a set of grounds. Warrants provide the reasons linking the claim and the support. Reasoning constructs a rational link between the evidence and the claim and authorizes the step we make when we draw a conclusion. Reasoning answers the question “How did you get from the evidence to the claim?” Reasoning assumes that if both premises are accepted as true, then the conclusion must also be accepted as true.

Additional parts are the QUALIFIERS, the REBUTTAL, and the BACKING. ***Qualifiers*** modify the claim by reducing its scope of application.

Rebuttal is *consideration of counter-arguments, or opposing claims:* by this you show your reader why these are weak and why your claim is strong.

Backing *or reasoning* usually cites an authoritative source, or gives reasons to make the warrant more believable.

Testing the strength of your argument

- Make sure your presentation is **logical**.
- Look at your **use of evidence**.
- Do you answer the **“so what” question**?

The process of creating an argumentative essay:

- Decide upon a topic and state the central premise or thesis.
- Relate the theses to prior knowledge.
- Identify key words and names.
- Integrate concepts and state the main topics in your own words.
- Develop questions to organize your search for relevant information.
- Re-explore general resources, if needed.

- Organize information; discard non-pertinent information.
- Write an essay using the source information to support main topics.
- Read your paper.
- Share your essay with others.
- Evaluate the effectiveness through feedback.
- Create a Works Cited Page.

Thus we have analyzed the components of the argument outline, described the process of creating and argumentative essays.

Module 4. ARGUMENTATION AND DEBATING
Topic 12. Debating

PLAN.

1. What is debating? Types of debates.
2. Debate structure. Participants of the debate.
3. How to get started in debate. Rules for debates.
4. Research and organization of the debate.
5. Constructive speeches.
6. Rebuttals.

1. What is debating? Types of debates. A debate is a formal intellectual contest, or, perhaps, like a game, where two or more speakers present their arguments with the intention of persuading one another. A debate is, basically, an argument which determines how change should come about. Debating has strict rules of conduct and quite sophisticated arguing techniques and you will often be in a position where you will have to argue the opposite of what you believe in. Debate is an ultimate mind exercise, a discussion that resolves an issue which will determine whether change is good or bad.

Types of debates:
Parliamentary debates are modeled on the British House of Parliament. The Government team consists of a Prime Minister and a Member of the Government. The opposition has a Leader of the Opposition and a Member of the Opposition.
Lincoln-Douglas Debates are called “values” debates which center on the ideas and spirit governing the political, economic, social, moral principles we hold. In LD debates two contestants debate moral issues concerning such topics, as capital punishment, abortion, euthanasia, etc.
Cross-Examination debates are the ones in which affirmative and negative speakers outline the resolution being debated and present arguments either in favor of the change or against it. Each speech – one representing the affirmative position and one representing the negative position – is cross-examined during which the presented evidences are doubted and rejected; the opposition’s ideas are criticized and attacked.

Academic debates are debates of a purely academic nature in colleges and universities. During academic debates participants, who are assigned the “affirmative” or “negative” roles, publicly exchange their ideas on a point of view according to certain rules.

2. Debate structure. Participants of the debate.

The elements of debate. There are six stock issues to be considered in the analysis of proposition of policy. Both the affirmative and negative will need to defend their position on the basis of these issues.

1) *Problem or Need.* Is there a problem in existence which needs to be solved? Before we change to a new way of doing things, we normally have to be convinced that there is something wrong at the present with the old way, or that the old way may cause difficulty in the future. Such an analysis ordinarily uncovers any problems related to the present, and why these problems came about.
2) *Inherency.* Is the problem an inherent part of the status quo? Not only must we be able to visualize a problem before we make a change, but we also must realize that we cannot overcome the problem with our present policy. The issue of inherency deals with the relationship which exists between the present problem and the present policy.
3) *Plan.* After deciding that there is an inherent need for a change in the present policy, you must determine what type of policy related to the proposition can be proposed.
4) *Practicality.* Is it reasonable to assume that the plan implied by the resolution could be implemented if it were found desirable? It is not too difficult to figure out answers to solve problems. It is quite another thing to put these solutions into practice.
5) *Advantages-Disadvantages*. The basis upon which many people decide to accept a new policy in preference to an old one is that they believe the effect of their decision will be advantageous in the long run.
6) *Counter plan*. Affirmative debaters are obliged to show that there is a need for a new policy, and that it would be advantageous if adopted. They also are obliged to demonstrate, if challenged, that no other alternative policy would be as good as the one which they propose. Be able to attack any counter-plans proposed.

Participants of the constructive speeches:

AC1. The first affirmative speaker – presents a case and a plan which falls under the current resolution and is the basis for the debate.

NC1. The first negative speaker – presents negative arguments, shows disadvantages of the suggested by the first affirmative speaker policy proposal.

AC2. The second affirmative speaker – answers the arguments put out by the first negative speaker.

NC2. The second negative speaker – enters new arguments into the round, points out errors in the arguments presented by the affirmative speakers. It is possible also to extend the arguments generated by the first negative speaker and to respond to the second affirmative speaker.

Participants of the rebuttal speeches:

NR1. The first negative rebuttal speech covers what the second negative speaker did not answer that the negative team feels is important.

AR1. The first affirmative rebuttal speech covers all the affirmative arguments and gives answers to all previously stated negative arguments. It is one of the most difficult speeches in the debate round.
NR2. The second negative rebuttal speaker explains to the judge why he/she should vote for the negative rather than the affirmative team. The speaker also emphasizes the arguments from the NC2 speaker and the NR1 speaker.
AR2. The second affirmative rebuttal speaker presents the last opportunity for the affirmative team to make an impression on the judge. At this point the affirmative team should have explained why they have won the round, and why the case outweighs the harms of the disadvantages.

3. How to get started in debate. Rules for debates. There are two things you will have to study if you want to participate in debate:

a) the principles of debate – logic, evidence, case construction, proof, refuting arguments, rebuttal, the brief, etc.;
b) the current debate topic – you must study the subject thoroughly, to learn all that is to be known about it.

Something to argue about is called the ***topic***. All topics begin with the word “That.” Deciding and explaining what the debate is going to be about is called “defining the topic.” When defining the topic the affirmative team should ask themselves:

- Is this definition reasonable?
- Is it something the average person might expect?

In your definition explain the meaning of the whole topic rather than each separate word. The negative team may agree with or chose to challenge the definition presented. If the negative team chooses to challenge the definition, it should be done by the first speaker who should clearly outline why the negative is challenging and then propose a better definition.
The ***team line*** is the basic statement of “why the topic is true” (for the affirmative team) and “why the topic is false” (for the negative team). It should be a short sentence, presented by the first speaker of each team and used by the other speakers to enforce the idea of teamwork. Each member of the team needs to reinforce the team line and be consistent with what has already been said and what will be said by the other members of their team.
Rules for debates.
For proponents:

- Choose a definite formulation of the thesis (topic) you are proposing, and communicate this formulation to your opponents at least several days beforehand.
- State this formulation of the thesis at the beginning and end of your presentation, and several times in the middle.
- Make it clear what the theoretical background of your argument is.
- Attempt to trap your opponent, by anticipating his arguments beforehand and showing what is wrong with them.
- Do not be afraid to use visual aids to make your point.

For proponents and opponents:

- Include a *conclusion* in which you demonstrate how you have established or refuted the thesis.
- Avoid lengthy and repetitive presentations of facts or stories. Concentrate on *arguments* and on thinking through to basic presuppositions.
- Use *notes*. Do not attempt to write out every word of your presentation beforehand.
- Speak loudly and clearly, and address your remarks to the audience.
- Speak confidently; always sound as if you really believe in what you are saying.
- Always prepare *more* notes than you think you will need. If you think you have said enough, move directly to you conclusion. Do not leave the audience with the impression that you have not said enough.
- Leave your personal views and your personal experiences out of account; what is important is exclusively the quality of your arguments.
- Never concede that you *agree* with the other side or suggest compromise positions. Preserve a clear opposition between the views of proponents and opponents throughout.
- Use radical and imaginative gambits to keep the attention and sympathy of your audience. For example, pretend to agree with almost everything the opposing side says, but then reveal how what your opponents say implies that they are in fact quite wrong.

General rules for debate

Rule 1. There are two teams. Each team consists of two or three speakers.

Rule 2a. The speeches and speaking time are divided equally between the two teams.

Rule 2b. Each team has two or three constructive speeches.

Rule 2c. Each team has from one to three rebuttal speeches.

Rule 2d. The affirmative gives the first constructive speech, and the constructive speeches alternate: affirmative, negative, affirmative, negative.

Rule 2e. The negative gives the first rebuttal speech, and the rebuttals alternate: negative, affirmative, negative, affirmative.

Rule 2f. In some debates each team has one or more questioning periods, in addition to the constructive speeches and rebuttals.

Rule 3a. When worded as a proposition of policy, the topic requires the affirmative to support some specified action by some particular individual or group.

Rule 3b. The affirmative has the right to make any reasonable definition of each of the terms of the proposition.

Rule 3c. If the negative challenges the reasonableness of a definition by the affirmative, the judge must accept the definition of the team that shows better grounds for its interpretation of the term.

Rule 3d. Once the negative has accepted the affirmative's definitions, it may not later object to them, even though it later develops that they are unreasonable. Failure of the negative to object to the affirmative's definitions in the first constructive speech following the definitions is equivalent to acceptance of them by the negative.

Rule 3e. The phrase "should adopt" or its equivalent means that the affirmative must show that the plan, if adapted, would be desirable. It does now in any way obligate the affirmative to show that the necessary approvals could be obtained.

Rule 3f. The phrase “should adopt” or its equivalent obligates the affirmative to recommend that action be taken in the reasonable near future.
Rule 4a. The affirmative must advocate everything required by the topic itself. It must also explain the major features and policies under which the proposed plan is to operate. If the negative recommends a counter plan, it has the same duty.
Rule 4b. No revision of position of a team is permitted during the debate.
Rule 5a. He who asserts must prove. To establish an assertion the team must support it with enough evidence and logic to convince the opposing party.
Rule 5b. Facts or quotations in a debate must be accurate.
Rule 6a. No new constructive arguments may be introduced in the rebuttal period.
Rule 6b. Refutation may take place in any part of the debate.
Rule 7a. The team doing the better debating is the winner.
Rule 7b. The decision is given to the affirmative if it succeeds in showing that the proposed plan should be adopted. The decision is given to the negative if the affirmative fails to show that the proposal should be adopted.
Rule 7c. The judge must not accept ideas which are not backed by reasonable proof.
Rule 8. Any gains made outside of the established procedure are disallowed.

4. Research and organization of the debate. Research is crucial if we want to lend credibility to our arguments during debates. Our capacity to do research has a great deal to do with our capacity to participate and succeed in debates. The first guideline for debate research is to know what you are looking for. Second, you ought to be able to visualize the kind of argument you are trying to develop and imagine what the evidence in that argument would have to look like. Third, you need to make sure that you have a plan of action. Begin by making a list of the research resources (libraries; web pages; people you can speak with). Also think about time allocation for your research. A plan should be followed by recording as well as tracking down evidences. Eventually all notes should be typed, put into a common pool, sorted, and placed in small filing cans, one can for the affirmative case and one for the negative.

As you begin the process of recording evidence remember to do the following:

- Try to record only thoughts that make arguments.
- Never record one sentence – it rarely makes a real argument. Instead, try to record as least a paragraph, so there is a context for the author’s ideas.
- Recordings on the cards should contain complete thoughts.

Evidences with attack and defense arguments should always have full and complete citation. The rules for citation don’t change when citing the World Wide Web. There still must be an author of the article, qualification of the document, publication date, and a full web site address. If you can’t find the full information about the source, don’t use it as evidence. Needless to say, research should continue throughout the entire debate year, with new notes being added regularly and old ones periodically removed.
One of the most important goals a debater has is to be able to present material in a way that makes logical sense, relates ideas to each other in meaningful ways, and allows the judge to connect your responses to the arguments they are answering.

Remember the basic outlining techniques:

- Major points.
- Subordination.
- Notation.

5. Constructive speeches in the debates are **affirmative** and **negative**. The first affirmative constructive speech is concerned not with attack or defense but with building the affirmative case. The points developed in this speech influence greatly the course of the entire debate. These points include a definition of key terms, an explanation of the affirmative plan, description of the evils of the present situation, the causes of these evils, and a demonstration of how the suggested plan or policy proposal would meet the needs of the people. The first affirmative speaker need not consider disadvantages of the plan, but additional advantages may be included in the first speech. Every word and every piece of evidence must be carefully chosen to increase the effectiveness of this speech. A debate is often won or lost in this first speech. Therefore it should be compact, meaty and organized properly.

After the first affirmative constructive speech there must be a negative one to counter previous arguments of the opposition. For the most part it must be constructed extemporaneously. It means that the speaker must master the art of composing on the spot a speech tailored to answer the proceeding one. Although the main purpose of the negative is to attack the affirmative case, the negative should not argue solely on affirmative points; it should also initiate the issues of impractibility and disadvantages of the affirmative plan. The negative speaker casts doubts as to whether the proposed by the affirmative speaker plan would meet the minimal need. If the first affirmative speaker did not introduce any plan, the negative should introduce certain general disadvantages of the underlying principle of the affirmative policy, delaying its attack on the plan after it has been explained. Thus, the recommended procedure is to introduce all the negative objections (such as impractibility and disadvantages) in this first speech after a brief statement of negative issues and an attack on affirmative case.

The main purpose of the second affirmative speech is to reconstruct the affirmative case and to bring the judge back to the affirmative point of view. The speaker must adapt his material to the previous speech and emphasize issues in accordance with the emphasis they received in the proceeding speech. The second affirmative speaker should point out the failures of the negative speaker and deny his conclusions. Answers to negative objections must be given and additional advantages of the affirmative plan should be emphasized. Summarizing the entire case, there should be made a reference to the negative speech.

The second negative constructive speech should be mainly an attack upon the reconstructed affirmative case and upon any additional advantages that may have been introduced by the proceeding affirmative speaker. If the second constructive speech is combined with the first negative rebuttal speech, the next negative speaker devotes himself almost exclusively to reinforcing and rebuilding negative objections. Some negative teams abandon the affirmative issues completely and open their speech with an attack on the practicability of the affirmative plan – particularly if the latter was introduced in the proceeding speech – and then solidly build negative objections for the remainder of the speech.

6. Rebuttals. In debating each team will present points in favor of their case. They will also spend some time criticizing the arguments presented be the other team. This is called **rebuttal.** A rebuttal is a speech in which debaters respond to arguments and summarize why the judge(s) should vote affirmative or negative. Unlike constructives, debaters should refrain from making new arguments in this part of the debate.

There are a few things to remember about rebuttal:

1) *Logic* – to say that the other side is wrong is not enough. You have to show why the other side is wrong. This is best done by taking a main point of the other side's argument and showing that it does not make sense.
2) *Pick the important points* – try to rebut the most important points of the other side's case. One obvious spot to find them is when the first speaker of the other team outlines briefly what the rest of the team will say. But do not rebut those points until after they have actually been presented by the other team.
3) *"Play the ball"* – do not criticize the individual speakers, criticize what they say. To call someone fat or ugly does not make what they say wrong and it will also lose you marks.

The first negative rebuttal speech. The first negative rebuttal speaker presents a brief summary of what has gone before and devotes the remainder of his speech to further substantiating the negative's objections. The aim is that the judge should have the impression that the disadvantages of the affirmative program far outweigh any accruing advantages. Thus the emphasis is made on the impracticability and disadvantages of the affirmative case.

The first affirmative rebuttal speech. The affirmative speaker must not go on the defensive. The mind of the judge must be brought back to the affirmative position. The first affirmative rebuttalist should also deal with the negative objections without appearing to be on the defensive.

The second negative rebuttal speech. The final speech should bring into focus the main lines of argument which have been pursued throughout the debate, with emphasis upon one's own case. The second negative speaker should analyze and attack the important affirmative contentions, refute the opposition and successfully defend his own case.

The second affirmative rebuttal speech. The affirmative speaker gets the last speech in the debate. His task is to reestablish affirmative case advantages and minimize the impacts of the negative arguments.

<u>ADDITIONAL MATERIALS FOR INDIVIDUAL WORK</u>

Report Writing

PLANNING THE REPORT

PLAN.

1. Who reads and writes reports?
2. Characteristics of business reports.
3. Common types of reports.
4. Purposes of reports.
5. Audience analysis.
6. Searching for data and managing reports.

1. Who reads and writes reports? A wide variety of reports has become a basic part of the typical management information system and is used to help managers solve business problems. Using prepared by other people reports managers must rely on others to provide the information they need for making decisions. Because reports travel within the organization, reading and writing reports is a typical part of nearly every manager's duties.

Report can range from a fill-in form to a one-page letter or memo to a multi-volume manuscript. A business report id defined as an orderly objective presentation of information that helps in decision making and problem solving. Business reports must provide the specific and objective information to enable the management to make a decision or solve a problem. This goal should be uppermost in the writer's mind during all phases of the reporting process.

2. Characteristics of business reports. Consider the four characteristics of business reports:

Reports vary widely – in length, complexity, formality, and format. There isn't such a document as a standard report – in length, complexity, formality, or format. The typical business report is one to three pages long and written in narrative format. Many reports are first written and then presented orally.

The quality of the report process affects the quality of the final product. If at any step you make a mistake, your report will be useless, defective, incomplete, or erroneous.

Accuracy is the most important trait of a report. Your most important job is to ensure that the information you present is correct. Communicating inaccurate information leads to bad decisions. To achieve accuracy, follow these guidelines:

- *Report all relevant facts.*
- *Use emphasis and subordination appropriately.*
- *Give enough evidence to support your conclusions.*
- *Avoid personal biases and unfounded opinions.*

Reports are often a ***collaborative effort***. Such joint efforts require well-defined organizational skills, time management, close coordination, and a spirit of cooperation.

3. Common types of reports. The most common types of business reports are periodic reports, proposals, policies and procedures, and situational reports.

Periodic reports are recurring routine reports submitted at regular intervals. Three common types of periodic reports are as follows:

- Routine management reports;
- Compliance reports;
- Progress reports.

Proposals (solicited and unsolicited) seek to persuade the reader (from an external audience) to accept a suggested plan of action. Two common types of proposals:

- Project proposals;
- Research proposals.

Policies are broad operating guidelines that govern the general direction and activities of an organization ***and procedures*** are the recommended methods or steps to follow when performing a specific activity. Avoid making policies so general that they are of little practical help. Write procedures in a businesslike, step-by-step format.

Situational reports are used when there appear unique problems and opportunities. Many of these situations call for information to be gathered and analyzed and for recommendations to be made.

4. Purposes of reports. Business reports generally aim to inform, analyze, or recommend. ***Informational*** reports present information without analyzing it. ***Analytical*** reports interpret the information. ***Recommendation*** reports propose a course of action. If the report's purpose is to present a specific decision or piece of information to specific people, the writer may choose to write an informal report. However, if the purpose of the report is to convey a decision or information to a diverse audience for making a decision with significant financial impact, the writer will likely choose to write the report in a more formal style.

5. Audience analysis. Many times the audience consists of people with similar levels of expertise, background knowledge, and the like. Thus, you should develop your report to take into account the needs of your reader. In doing so, consider the following elements:

Internal versus external audiences. Internal reports are generally less formal and contain less background information than external reports.

Authorized versus voluntary reports. Voluntary reports require more background information and more persuasion than authorized reports.

Level of knowledge and interest. Adjust the amount of information presented and the order in which it is presented to the needs of the reader.

6. Searching for data and managing reports. Before collecting any data, you must define the report purpose and analyze the intended audience. Then you must determine what data is needed to solve the problem. You should use data-collection method that will provide the needed data with the least expenditure of time and money but at the level of completeness, accuracy, and precision needed to solve your problem.

The two major types of data you will collect are secondary and primary data. ***Secondary data*** is data collected by someone else for some other purpose; it may be published or unpublished. ***Primary data*** is collected by the researcher to solve the specific problem at hand. The three main methods of primary data collection are surveys (questionnaires, interviews, and telephone inquiries), observation, and experimentation. Secondary data is neither better nor worse than primary data; it's simply different. The major advantages of using secondary data are economic: using secondary data is less costly and less time-consuming than collecting primary data. The disadvantage relate not only to the availability of sufficient secondary data but also to the quality of the data that is available. Never use any data before you have evaluated its appropriateness for the intended purpose.

When evaluating secondary data take into account the following:

- What was the purpose of the study?
- How was the data collected?
- How was the data analyzed?
- How consistent is the data with that from other sources?
- How old is the data?

With the increasing availability of data managers sometimes tend to generate every type of report possible and then submit them all to higher-level management. Some managers seem to devote more energy to generating reports than to analyzing and making use of their contents. Thus, someone in the organization should be assigned the task of controlling reports. This will guarantee that business reports continue to serve management rather than the reverse.

Report Writing

COLLECTING AND ANALYZING DATA

PLAN.

1. Collecting data through questionnaires.
2. Collecting data through interviews.
3. Constructing tables and preparing charts.
4. Interpreting data.

1. Collecting data through questionnaires. If available high-quality secondary data for your report is not enough, to solve your problem you will probably need to collect primary data. A **survey** is a data-collection method that gathers information through questionnaires, telephone inquiries, or interviews. The **questionnaire** (a written instrument containing questions designed to obtain information from the individual being surveyed) is the most frequently used method in business research.

- A representative sampling over a large geographical area.
- The validity of some responses.
- The main disadvantage – a low response rate.

Constructing the questionnaire. Your language must be clear, precise, and understandable. Each question must be neutral (unbiased). Be certain that each question contains a single idea. Recognize that respondents may be hesitant to answer sensitive questions (age, salary, and the like). Draft questionnaire and revise it as necessary. Unless you intend to distribute the questionnaires personally write a cover letter to convince the reader that it's worth taking the time to complete the questionnaire.

2. Collecting data through interviews. Personal interviews are generally considered to be the most valid method of survey research, especially when in-depth information is desired.

Problems with interviews:

- Interview research is expensive.
- It is time consuming.
- Trained and experienced interviewers are required.

Types of questions.

Open-ended versus closed questions.

Direct versus indirect questions.

Conducting the interview.

As an interviewer you must perform two roles – that of an observer and that of a participant. You participate by asking questions, but you must also analyze the responses and determine whether follow-up questions are needed.

One of the barriers to effective listening during an interview is the need for note taking. Keep note taking to a minimum by using a small portable cassette recorder when possible.

Always use an interview guide – a list of questions to ask, with suggested wording and possible follow-up questions. Provide smooth transitions when moving from topic to topic by using periodic summaries of what has been covered. Indicate when the interview is over and express appreciation for the time granted.

3. Constructing tables and preparing charts. In addition to interpreting data in narrative form you will also prepare some visual aids – tables, charts, photographs, or other graphic materials. The more insight you can provide the reader about the meaning of the data you've collected and presented, the more helpful your report will be. Tables are often the most economical way of presenting numerical data. A table also permits easy comparison of figures. Your reader must be able to understand each table on its own, without having to read the surrounding text or refer to it. If the table is based on secondary data, type a source note below the body, giving the appropriate citation. Common abbreviations and symbols are acceptable in tables.

The appropriate use of well-designed charts and graphs can aid in reader comprehension, emphasize certain data, create interest, and save time and space. Because of their visual impact, charts receive more emphasis than tables or narrative text. Therefore, you should save them for presenting information that is important and that can best be grasped visually.

The cardinal rule for designing charts is to keep them simple. The reader shouldn't have to study the chart at length or refer to the surrounding text.

The main types of charts used in business reports and presentations are line charts, bar charts, and pie charts. Do not overuse visual aids – they will detract from your message.

4. Interpreting data. When analyzing the data, you must first determine whether the data does, in fact, solve your problem. It would make no sense to prepare elaborate tables and other visual aids if your data is irrelevant, incomplete, or inaccurate. Don't just present tables and figures. Interpret their important points making sense of the collected data.

First, look at each piece of data in isolation. Next, look at each piece of data in combination with the other bits. Finally, synthesize all the information you've collected. Thus, you must determine whether all the data taken together provide an accurate and complete answer to you problem statement. Everyone involved in the reporting situation has a responsibility to act in an ethical manner. For example, the researcher has the right to expect that respondents will be truthful in their responses and has an obligation not to deceive the respondent. Similarly, the organization that is paying for the research has the right to expect that the researcher will provide valid and reliable information and has an obligation not to misuse that data. All parties involved must use common sense, good judgment, goodwill, and an ethical mindset to make the project successful.

Report Writing
WRITING THE REPORT

PLAN.

1. Planning.
2. Drafting.
3. Revising.
4. Formatting.
5. Proofreading.

1. Planning. The writing process consists of planning, drafting, revising, formatting, and proofreading. You should follow the same process when writing a report. The stage of planning requires that you make decisions about the structure of the report, the organization of the content, and the framework of the headings before and as you write.
Determining the report structure. The physical structure of the report and such general traits as complexity, degree of formality, and length depend on the audience for the report and the nature of the problem that the report addresses. The three most common formats for a report are manuscript, memorandum, and letter format. Manuscript reports are formatted in narrative style, with headings and subheadings separating the different sections, and supplementary parts are included. Memorandum and letter reports contain the standard correspondence parts.
Organizing the report. Planning your report to show unity, order, logic, and even beauty involves selecting an organizational basis for the data you've collected and analyzed and developing an outline. The four most common bases for organizing your findings are *time, location, importance*, and *criteria.* The purpose of the report, the nature of the problem,

and your knowledge of the reader will help you select the organizational framework that will be most useful.

Once you've decided how to organize the findings of your study, you must decide where to present the conclusions and any recommendations that have resulted from these findings. Academic reports and many business reports have traditionally presented the conclusions and recommendations of a study at the end of the report, because conclusions cannot logically be drawn until the data has been presented and analyzed; similarly, recommendations cannot be made until conclusions have been drawn. In general, prefer the direct plan (conclusions and recommendations first) for business reports.

Outlining the report. The outline provides a concise visual picture of the structure of your report. A formal outline provides an orderly visual representation of the report, showing clearly which points are to be covered, in what order they are to be covered, and what the relationship of each is to the rest of the report.

Headings play an important role in helping to focus the reader's attention and in helping your report achieve unity and coherence, so plan them carefully, and revise them as needed as you work toward a final version of your report.

Talking headings identify not only the topic of the section but also the major conclusion. They are especially useful when directness is desired – the reader can simply skim the headings in the report and get an overview of the topics covered and each topic's conclusions. ***Generic headings,*** on the other hand, identify only the topic of the section, without giving the conclusion. Most formal reports and any report written in an indirect pattern would use generic headings.

Parallelism. Regardless of the form of heading you select, be consistent within each level of heading. The heading within the same level must be parallel.

Length and number of headings. Headings that are too long lose some of their effectiveness; yet headings that are too short are ineffective because they do not convey enough meaning. Similarly, choose an appropriate number of headings. In general, consider having at least one heading or visual aid to break up each single-spaced page.

Balance. Maintain a sense of balance within and among sections. It would be unusual to have one section ten pages long and another section only half a page long. If you divide a section into subsections, it must have at least two subsections.

2. Drafting. The final product – the written report – is the only evidence the reader has of your efforts. The success or failure of all your work depends on this physical evidence. Everything that you learned about the writing process applies directly to report writing – choosing a productive work environment; scheduling a reasonable block of time to devote to the drafting phase; letting ideas flow quickly during the drafting stage, without worrying about style, correctness, or format; and revising for content, style, correctness, and readability. However, report writing requires several additional considerations as well.

Drafting the body. The report body consists of the introduction; the findings; and the summary, conclusions, and recommendations. Each part may be a separate chapter in long reports or a major section in shorter reports.

The ***introduction*** presents the information the reader needs to make sense of the findings. The actual topics and amount of detail presented in the introductory section will depend on the complexity of the report and the needs of the reader.
The ***findings*** of the study represent the major contribution of the report and make up the largest section of the report. Don't just present your findings; analyze and interpret them for the reader. Use emphasis, subordination, preview, summary, and transition to make the report read clearly and smoothly. Keep the reader's needs and desires uppermost in mind as you organize, present, and discuss the information.
Summary, conclusions, and recommendations. A one- or two-page report may need only a one-sentence or one-paragraph summary. Longer or more complex reports should include a more extensive summary. To avoid monotony when summarizing, use wording that is different from the original presentation. If your report includes both conclusions and recommendations, ensure that the conclusions stem directly from your findings and that the recommendations stem directly from the conclusions.
Drafting the supplementary sections
Title page.
Transmittal document conveys the report to the reader. Write the transmittal memo or letter in a direct pattern. If the transmittal document is a part of the report, it is placed immediately after the title page but before the executive summary or table of contents.
Executive summary (also called an *abstract* or *synopsis*) is a condensed version of the body of the report. Position the summary immediately before the table of contents.
Table of contents are used in long reports with many headings and subheadings. The table of contents cannot be written until after the report itself has been typed.
An appendix might include supplementary reference material not important enough to go in the body of the report.
References contain the complete record of any secondary sources cited in the report. The reference list is the very last section of the report.
Developing an effective writing style
- Tone.
- Pronouns.
- Verb tense.
- Emphasis and subordination.
- Coherence.

Paraphrasing versus direct quotation. A ***paraphrase*** is a summary or restatement of a passage in your own words. A ***direct quotation*** contains the exact words of another. Most of your references to secondary data should be in the form of paraphrases.
Documenting your sources. **Documentation** is the identification of sources by giving credit to another person, either in the text or in the reference list, for using his or her words or ideas. **Plagiarism** is the use of another person's words or ideas without giving proper credit. The use of two types of material by others does not need to be documented: (1) facts that are common knowledge to the readers of your report and (2) facts that can be verified easily. Standard citation formats are footnotes, endnotes, and author-year

citations. Ensure that the citations are accurate, complete, and consistently formatted. Do not use quotations out of context.

3. Revising. Once you have produced a first draft of your report, put it away for a few days. Don't try to correct all problems in one review. Instead, look at this process as having three steps – revising first for content, then for style, and finally for correctness.

Revising for content – amount of information; accuracy of the information; logical sequence of the information presented in the report.

Revising for style – clear writing; short, simple, vigorous, and concise words; variety of sentence types; unity and coherence of the paragraphs; reasonable length; overall tone; nondiscriminatory language; appropriate emphasis and subordination.

Correctness – consider any problems with grammar, spelling, punctuation, and word usage. If possible, have a colleague review your draft to edit and catch any errors you may have overlooked.

4. Formatting. The physical format of your report (margins, spacing, and the like) depends on the length and complexity of the report and the format preferred by either the organization or the reader. Consistency and readability are the hallmarks of an effective format.

5. Proofreading. Do not risk destroying your credibility by failing to proofread carefully. Even before reading the first line of your report, the reader will have formed an initial impression of the report – and of *you*. Make this impression a positive one. Check for appearance. Have you arranged the pages in correct order? Use every aid at your disposal to ensure that your report reflects the highest standards of scholarship, critical thinking, and care.

PLANNING THE BUSINESS PRESENTATION

PLAN.

1. The role of business presentations.
2. Planning the formal business presentation.
3. Organizing the presentation.
4. Work-team presentations.
5. Other business presentations.

1. The role of business presentations. Almost everyone in business is required to give a presentation occasionally to customers, superiors, subordinates, or colleagues. The costs of ineffective presentations are immense: sales are lost, vital information is not communicated, policies are not implemented, and profits fall.

Written versus oral presentations. An oral presentation may be made either in conjunction with or in place of a written report. You'll need to weigh a number of factors when you decide to communicate orally or in writing: the complexity of the material, the size of the audience, the costs.

Advantages of oral presentations – provide immediate feedback; allow speaker control; require less work for the audience. ***Disadvantages of oral presentations –*** they do not provide a permanent record of the information and often are very expensive.

The process of making a business presentation

1) Planning – purpose, audience, timing, method of delivery;
2) Organizing – collecting and outlining the data;
3) Developing visual aids;
4) Practicing – rehearsing by simulating;
5) Delivering – dressing, eye contact, answering questions.

2. Planning the formal business presentation. Planning tasks include activities which involve determining the purpose of the presentation, analyzing the audience, planning the timing of the presentation, and selecting a delivery method. The more formal the presentation, the more time you'll devote to the project.

Purpose – one of these: reporting (updating the audience on some project); explaining (how to operate a new piece of equipment); persuading (convincing to purchase something); motivating (inspiring to take some action).

Audience analysis – size; age; organizational status; level of knowledge about the topic; psychological needs (values, attitudes, beliefs). These factors provide clues to overall content, tone, and types of examples you should use, the types of questions you expect, and even the way you dress. Put yourself in your audience's place so that you can anticipate their questions and reactions. Apply the "you" attitude. Meet with key people before your presentation to predispose the audience in your favor.

Timing – (1) allow yourself enough time to prepare; (2) consider the needs of your audience. Early or midmorning presentations are preferable to late afternoon sessions. Try to avoid giving a presentation immediately before lunch, or, worse, immediately after lunch.

Delivery method – will you memorize your speech, read it, or speak from notes? Memorizing an entire speech is risky, not to mention time-consuming. Memorized presentations often sound mechanical, though memorizing a humorous story or quotation may be extremely effective for presenting a key part of your talk. Reading speeches is helpful if you're dealing with a highly complex or technical topic, if the subject is controversial, or if you have a lot of information to present in a short time. Speaking from notes is the most common and generally the most effective method for business presentations. The notes contain key phrases rather than complete sentences, and you compose the exact wording as you speak. The notes help ensure that you will cover all the material and in a logical order; also you can adapt your remarks in reaction to verbal and nonverbal cues from the audience.

3. Organizing the presentation. Write down every point you can think of that might be included in your presentation and then separate your notes into three categories: opening, body, and ending.

The opening should introduce the topic, identify the purpose, and preview the presentation. Capture the interest of your audience, because the first 90 seconds of your presentation are crucial. Begin immediately to establish rapport and build a relationship with your audience. Many professionals write out the entire opening and practice it word for word until they almost know it by heart. The kind of opening depends on your topic, how well you know the audience, and how well they know you. For an effective opening you can quote a well-known person, ask a question, present a hypothetical situation, relate an appropriate joke or personal experience, give a startling fact, and use a visual aid. Use humor if it is appropriate and you are adept at telling humorous stories. Do not use humor too frequently.

The body conveys the real content. Organize the body **logically**, according to you topic and audience needs. Choose an organizational plan that suits your purpose and your audience's needs. Use frequent and clear transitions and pace your presentation of data. Establish your **credibility** by convincing the listeners that you've done a thorough job of collecting and analyzing the data and that your points are reasonable. Use objective language and credible evidence – statistics, actual experiences, and examples. Do not ignore **negative information.** Presenting all pros and cons you should show that your recommendations are still valid, in spite of the disadvantages and drawbacks.
The ending is your last opportunity to achieve your objective. Because your audience will remember best what they hear last, think of your ending as one of the most important parts of your presentation. Your closing should summarize the main points of your presentation. Draw conclusions, make recommendations, or outline the next steps to take. Leave the audience with a clear and simple message.

4. Work-team presentations. require extensive planning, close coordination, and a measure of maturity and goodwill. Your major criterion for making assignments is the division of duties that will result in the most effective presentation. Individual assignments for a team presentation should be based on individual strengths and preferences. The team leader should be organized, knowledgeable about the topic, well liked and respected by the rest of the team. The leader must assume overall responsibility for the project. The overall presentation should have coherence and unity as though it were prepared by a single person. Thus, the group members should decide beforehand the most appropriate tone, format, and organization, style for visual aids, and manner of dress, method of handling questions, and similar factors that will help the presentation flow smoothly from topic to topic and from speaker to speaker. **Video presentations** are such which must be given many times (for example, an orientation program for new employees, a new product announcement to be sent to important customers, etc.).

5. Other business presentations. Occasionally you can participate in the types of presentations in which you act as a supporting player. Such situations include giving impromptu remarks, making introductions, and making or receiving special recognitions.
Impromptu remarks – when you may unexpectedly be asked to come to the podium to "say a few words about" or "bring us to date on" some topic. During the course of a meeting or in conjunction with another person's presentation you can often predict that you may be called on and you should prepare accordingly. You have no need to

apologize. Keep to the topic, limiting your remarks to those areas in which you have some real expertise or insight, and speak for no more than a few minutes.

Introductions – when introducing someone, remember that the speaker of the presentation is the main event – not you, the host of the presentation. All of you remarks should be directed at welcoming the speaker and establishing his or her qualifications to speak on the topic being addressed. Avoid inserting your own opinions about the topic or speaking for too long, thereby cutting into the speaker's time. After the presentation, return to the podium and extend your appreciation to the person once again with another handshake and some brief remarks about the importance and relevance of the speaker's comments. Lead the question-and-answer session if one is planned.

Special recognitions – when presenting an award or recognizing someone for special achievement. First provide some background about the award – its history and criteria for selection. Then discuss the awardee's accomplishments, emphasizing those most relevant to the award. When accepting an honor, show genuine appreciation and graciously thank those responsible for the award. You may briefly thank people who helped you in your accomplishments.

Presentation feedback

Aspects	***Points to Consider***	***Grade***
Planning	Evidence of careful preparation	
Objectives	Clarity; appropriacy to audience / subject	
Content	Extent; relevance; appropriacy; subject knowledge; research	
Approach	Message support and reinforcement; variety; humor	
Organization	Coherence; clarity; appropriacy	
Visual aids	Appropriacy; clarity; handling	
Delivery	Pace; enthusiasm; rapport/eye contact; audibility; intonation; confidence; body language	
Language	Clarity; accuracy; fluency; appropriacy; pronunciation; signaling	
Overall	Clarity of message; achievement of objectives; interesting? informative? motivating?	
Other		

ILLUSTRATING AND DELIVERING THE BUSINESS PRESENTATION

PLAN.

1. Developing appropriate visual aids.
2. Developing appropriate audience handouts.
3. Practicing the presentation.
4. Delivering the presentation.
5. Post-presentation activities.

1. Developing appropriate visual aids. Presentation visuals add interest, value, and impact to oral presentations. Visual aids enhance audience interest and comprehension and help to tell your story, especially if it includes complex or statistical material. For example, one study found that the use of graphics increased a presenter's persuasiveness by 43%. Presenters who use visual aids are perceived as being more professional, better prepared, and more interesting than those who don't use such aids. Visual aids should be used only when needed and should be simple, readable, and of high quality. The quality of your visual aids sends a nonverbal message about your competence and your respect for your audience.

Visual aids for business presentations may be the following:
Transparencies and slides – inexpensive, easy to produce, simple to update. As a general rule, each slide or transparency should contain no more than 40 characters per line, no more than six or seven lines per visual, and no more than a large, simple typeface and plenty of white (empty) space. Use bulleted lists for items that have no specific order and numbered lists to show related items in a specific order.
Visuals need:

- attractive appearance
- perfect spelling
- adequate size and readability
- logical order
- strong impact

Handle your visuals as follows:

- keep them simple;
- have them in correct order and ready to use;
- use visuals smoothly;
- give the audience enough time to read each visual;
- remove a visual when you are finished using it;
- don't simply read a visual. Discuss it;
- avoid letting your body block the audience's view of any audiovisual.

Practice using your visual aids smoothly and effectively. Confirm that your ***equipment*** is in top working order and that you know how to operate it. Try to avoid problems. Be prepared to give your presentation without visual aids if that should become necessary.

2. Developing appropriate audience handouts. supplement your oral information, provide space for note taking, and represent a permanent record of your presentation. Handouts are especially helpful when you are dealing with complex information such as detailed statistical tables, which would be ineffective if projected as a slide or transparency.
What to include. Include additional information that would not fit on the projected slide – details, background data, summaries, more complete charts, or sources of extra information. Keep the content simple, concise, and to the point. Organize your handout topics in the sequence in which you present them. Also, provide plenty of white space –

both as a design element for readability and as space for note taking. Provide good photocopies. Use a legible font – at least 12 points in size – to facilitate reading in a darkened room.

When to distribute. The content and purpose of your handout determine when it should be distributed: before – if handouts contain complex data or extensive information; immediately before the presentation – if you intend to refer to material in it as you speak; immediately after the presentation – if your handout merely summarizes your message. Handouts provide a tangible, permanent record of the temporal presentation. In addition, they give a nonverbal message about you and your organization.

3. Practicing the presentation. The language of the presentation must be simple. Avoid long sentences with complex vocabulary. Use a conventional style. Use frequent preview, summary, transition, and repetition to help your audience follow your presentation: tell them what you're going to tell them, tell them, and then tell them what you told them. Remember that 55% of your credibility with an audience comes from your body language, 38% comes from your voice qualities, and only 7% comes from the actual words you use, as it was proved by the psychologist Albert Mehrabian (1968).

Videotaping your rehearsal or recording it on the tape recorder.

Speak at a slightly slower rate than normally used in conversation. Vary both your volume and your rate of speaking. Use periodic pauses and correct diction. Occasional hand and arm gestures are important for adding interest and emphasis. Position your body on the left side of the room (from the audience's point of view). For most of your presentation, you should stand at a 45-degree angle to the audience. Practice smiling occasionally with the body balanced on both feet. Rest your hands in any natural, quiet position. Your voice and demeanor should reflect professionalism, enthusiasm, and self-confidence.

4. Delivering the presentation. Your clothing is a part of the message you communicate to your audience, so dress appropriately – in comfortable and businesslike attire. Take several deep breaths to clear your mind, walk confidently to the front of the room, take enough time to arrange yourself and your notes, look slowly around you, establish eye contact with several members of the audience, and then, in a loud, clear voice, begin your presentation. You should know your presentation well enough. If your mind actually does go blank, try to keep talking – even if you repeat what you've just said. If you can't jog your memory, simply skip ahead to another part of your presentation that you do remember; then come back later to the part you omitted.

Stage fright. For some people making a presentation is accompanied by such symptoms as gasping for air, feeling faint, having shaking hands or legs, feeling the heart beat rapidly, speaking too rapidly and in a high-pitched voice. The best way to minimize such anxieties is to overprepare. The more familiar you are with the content of your speech and the more trial runs you've made, the better you'll be able to concentrate on your delivery. As you begin to speak, look for friendly faces in the crowd, and concentrate on them initially.

Answering questions. The question-and-answer session is a vital part of your presentation. Normally, you should announce at the beginning of your presentation that you will be happy to answer any questions when you're through. Also, there is always the possibility that the listener's question will be answered in the course of your presentation.

As you prepare your presentation, **anticipate** what questions you might expect from the audience. Always listen carefully to the question; repeat it, if necessary, for the benefit of the entire audience; and look at the entire audience as you answer. If you don't know the answer to a question, freely say so and promise to have the answer within a specific period. Do not risk embarrassing another member of the audience by referring the question to him or her.

5. Post-presentation activities. After the presentation is over, evaluate your performance so that you can benefit from the experience. Analyze each aspect of your performance – from initial research through delivery. Evaluating your performance can improve your presentation skills with each opportunity to speak.

QUESTIONS FOR CONTROL

1. What are some typical characteristics of business communication?
2. What are the parts of a communication model? Explain and analyze each part.
3. Analyze cultural differences and other barriers to communication.
4. What are strategic steps to communicate information most effectively?
5. What is the structure of direct messages? What steps should you follow in the writing process?
6. What are advantages and disadvantages of electronic correspondence? Rules of etiquette in electronic correspondence.
7. Are there any problems with using phone communication in business? Etiquette points to be used in communicating by phone.
8. How do you understand a "you attitude" in business communication?
9. What must you consider when choosing a writing style? How can business writers become mature stylists?
10. Enumerate the main characteristics of efficient, businesslike messages.
11. The ability to write effective short reports will be a key to success in your business career. How can you prove this statement?
12. What should you take into consideration when planning your report? What's the difference between a memo report and a letter report?
13. Describe the difference between a justification report and a feasibility report. What other types of reports do you know?
14. What is the definition of a business report? Explain the distinction between primary and secondary business research.
15. Carefully define 'paraphrase' and 'plagiarize'. Under what circumstances are you permitted to use information without citing the source from which you obtained it?
16. What distinguishes observational research from survey research?
17. Describe the difference between open-ended and closed-ended questions in the questionnaires. By what means can survey researchers increase the willingness of respondents to respond?
18. Name the four pieces of information that appear on a properly prepared title page. Explain when you would use a preface in your report.

19. Explain when you will use a letter of transmittal and when you will use a memo of transmittal. What is the primary difference between them?
20. Which three parts of your report will tell the reader the purpose of your report? Why is this information repeated?
21. Explain the difference between conclusions and recommendations in the report.
22. Describe a typical business audience's attitude toward, and expectations of, a business speaker. What audience analysis must business speakers perform?
23. What are some ways business presentations differ from other kinds of speeches, such as after-dinner speeches, political speeches, and class assignment speech?
24. Give several reasons why typical business presentations are seldom memorized or read from a manuscript.
25. In your experience, what nonverbals are hardest for beginning speakers to control? Why? What suggestions can you make to help control them?
26. Distinguish between speaking to inform and speaking to persuade. Is there always a firm dividing line between the two kinds of talks?
27. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of presentation visuals.
28. In what cases do we need to convey negative information? Why should we give priority to the human considerations when conveying negative information?
29. What are the steps in writing indirect messages? How do they differ from those for direct business messages?
30. How can you say 'no' without really saying the word? Give examples to back up your points.
31. What are some common negative or sensitive situations that occur in business? What are the ways of handling them?
32. What are the ways of conveying negative information? What should you bear in mind when creating effective negative messages?
33. What information will you need to collect in order to find a job that suits your qualifications?
34. How can you describe your ideal job? Give enough detail to show what the job entails and why you are well suited for it.
35. What kinds of résumé are there in business practice? How do they differ? What are the basic requirements to write a good résumé?
36. List three sources you will use to identify prospective employers. How will you find more information on the companies?
37. What kinds of job interview questions do you know? What kinds of interviewers do you know? What kinds of interviews do you know?
38. What is it necessary to know if you want successfully negotiate salary? What standard benefits do some companies offer?
39. Who is the best/the worst listener you know? List his or her behaviors as a listener. What are your own typical listening behaviors?
40. Explain the differences between formal and informal communication networks in organizations.
41. What is information overload in some organizations? Under what conditions do you become overloaded? In what different ways do you respond to overload?

42. What are the causes of conflicts? What are different types of conflicts? Who usually has to handle a conflict? How does the conflict get resolved? Who benefits of a conflict? What are the consequences of the conflict?

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CONTENTS

Topic 1. BASICS OF BUSINESS COMMUNICATION 3
Topic 2. WRITING WITH STYLE 6
Topic 3. WRITING ROUTINE MESSAGES.. 14
Topic 4. WRITING BAD-NEWS MESSAGES 20
Topic 5. INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION 23
Topic 6. COMMUNICATING IN ORGANIZATIONS 27
Topic 7. COMMUNICATING IN MANAGING AND SUPERVISING 30
Topic 8. ARGUMENTATION IN BUSINESS COMMUNICATION 35
Topic 9. DEBATING 39
10. PLANNING THE REPORT 47
11. COLLECTING AND ANALYZING DATA 49
12. WRITING THE REPORT.. 51
13. PLANNING THE BUSINESS PRESENTATION 54
14. ILLUSTRATING AND DELIVERING THE BUSINESS PRESENTATION 57
....
....
....
Questions for control.. 60
The list of used and recommended literature... 61
Contents.. 65