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Course: Business Communication (457/1416/5409/9412) • Level: BA/BS

Semester: Autumn 2026

Assignment No. 2 (Units 6–9)

Total Marks: 100 • Pass Marks (BA): 40 • Pass Marks (BS): 50

SOLVED ASSIGNMENT GUIDE

(For Study & Reference)

Note: This guide is prepared for study and reference purposes. Students are advised to read the relevant units of the course book, understand the concepts, and write the assignment in their own words.

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Question 1: Types of Business Reports and Their Audiences (20 Marks)

Business reports can be divided into various categories and sub-categories. Keeping in mind the purpose and structure of each type, discuss whether the same audience could be given any type of report, or if each type is better suited to a certain audience. On that basis, explain the purpose of at least three or four report types.

Introduction

A business report is an orderly, factual and objective presentation of information, prepared for a definite audience and a definite purpose, usually to help that audience make a decision. Reports are the memory and the nervous system of an organisation: through them, information travels upward from the shop floor to the board, outward to shareholders and regulators, and downward as instructions and findings. But “report” is a family name, not a single form. Reports

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differ in purpose, length, structure and formality, and those differences are not decorative — they are dictated by who will read the report and what the reader must do with it. This answer classifies business reports, argues that each type is suited to a particular audience rather than interchangeable among all audiences, and explains the purpose of four major types in detail.

How Reports Are Classified

Reports are commonly classified on several bases. By purpose, they may be informational (presenting facts without recommendations), analytical or interpretive (examining facts and drawing conclusions), or recommendatory (proposing a course of action). By frequency, they are routine or periodic (weekly sales reports, monthly production reports) or special (a one-time investigation of an accident or a market). By length and formality, short reports may take the form of a memorandum or a few pages, while long, formal reports follow a full structure of title page, contents, summary, body, conclusions and appendices. By origin, they may be voluntary or prepared on demand; by the direction of travel, upward, downward or lateral. Each combination produces a document shaped to a particular reader and occasion.

Can the Same Audience Be Given Any Type of Report?

In principle, a reader can physically receive any document; in practice, giving the wrong type of report to an audience is a communication failure, for three reasons. First, audiences differ in knowledge. A technical feasibility report written for engineers, full of specifications and calculations, is useless to a board of directors who need costs, risks and a recommendation in plain language; conversely, a two-page summary that satisfies the board would starve the engineers who must build from it. Second, audiences differ in authority and need. A routine

informational report answers the question “what happened?” for a supervisor monitoring daily work; it cannot serve a committee that must decide “what should we do?”, because it contains no analysis or recommendation. Third, audiences differ in time and relationship to the organisation: external readers such as shareholders, banks and government departments require formal, complete and verifiable reports, while internal readers working closely together are well served by short, informal memo-reports. The professional writer therefore begins not with the data but with the audience — its knowledge, authority, time and expectations — and selects the report type, structure and style to fit. The same underlying facts will legitimately produce several different reports for several different audiences, as when a factory accident generates a short incident report for the shift supervisor, an analytical investigation report for the safety committee, and a formal statutory report for the labour department.

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The Purpose of Four Report Types

1. Informational Reports

The informational report simply presents facts accurately and objectively, without analysis or recommendation: a daily production statement, a sales representative’s tour report, a record of stock in hand, the minutes-like report of a conference attended. Its purpose is to keep its audience — usually a superior or a coordinating office — informed so that supervision, planning and control are possible. Its virtues are accuracy, completeness and regularity, and its structure is simple: introduction, facts arranged in a logical or chronological order, and a brief closing. Its audience is typically internal and close to the work, able to interpret the facts for itself.

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2. Analytical (Interpretive) Reports

The analytical report goes beyond facts to their meaning. It examines a situation or problem, weighs causes and evidence, and presents conclusions: a report analysing why sales fell in a region, why staff turnover is rising, or why a machine keeps breaking down. Its purpose is understanding — to give its audience, usually middle or senior management, not merely data but an explained picture on which judgement can rest. Its structure therefore includes the method of enquiry, findings, analysis and conclusions, and its audience must be able and willing to follow reasoning, not just results.

3. Recommendation (Proposal) Reports

The recommendation report completes the journey from facts to action: after analysing a problem, it recommends a specific course — which site to choose for a new branch, which supplier to appoint, which software to adopt, or whether to launch a product. Its purpose is decision: it exists so that an authorised audience (a board, a committee, a client) can say yes or no. Accordingly it must present alternatives, compare their costs and benefits, justify the preferred option, and outline implementation. Because its audience holds decision-making authority and limited time, executive summaries and clear recommendation sections are essential parts of its structure.

4. Formal Statutory and Annual Reports

A fourth type is the formal report prepared because law or constitution requires it: the annual report of a company to its shareholders, audit and directors' reports, and reports submitted to government or regulatory bodies. Its purpose is accountability — to demonstrate to an external

audience that the organisation has managed resources honestly and performed as stated. Its structure is prescribed and elaborate, its language formal and precise, and its facts verifiable, because its readers include shareholders, banks, tax authorities and the public, who will rely on it for serious financial decisions.

Table 1: Four report types matched to purpose and audience

Report type	Main purpose	Typical audience	Structure
Informational	Present facts; keep control	Supervisors, coordinating offices (internal)	Simple: introduction, facts, close
Analytical	Explain causes and meaning	Middle and senior management	Method, findings, analysis, conclusions
Recommendation	Secure a decision for action	Board, committee, client (decision-makers)	Summary, alternatives, comparison, recommendation
Statutory / annual	Demonstrate accountability	Shareholders, banks, regulators (external)	Prescribed formal structure with appendices

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Conclusion

To conclude, business reports are divided by purpose, frequency, length and formality into types that are emphatically not interchangeable. Audience determines type: the reader's knowledge decides the level of detail and language, the reader's authority decides whether the report may merely inform or must analyse and recommend, and the reader's position inside or outside the organisation decides the formality and structure required. Informational reports keep supervisors in control of daily work; analytical reports give managers understanding; recommendation reports equip decision-makers to act; and statutory and annual reports render the organisation accountable to the outside world. The skilled report writer's first

question is therefore never “what do I know?” but “who will read this, and what must they do with it?”

Question 2: The CV/Resume — Key Parts, What to Include and What to Avoid (20 Marks)

The CV/resume is most often the first impression that the employer forms of a job applicant. Discuss the key parts of the resume and what should be included and not included in each part to make sure it is effective in securing an interview.

Introduction

A curriculum vitae (CV) or resume is a structured summary of a person’s education, skills, experience and achievements, written for one practical purpose: to persuade an employer, usually within a few seconds of screening, that the applicant deserves an interview. It is, as the question states, the first impression the employer forms of the applicant — formed before a word has been spoken, a hand shaken or a qualification tested. A strong resume cannot by itself win a job, but a weak one reliably loses it, because employers shortlist from paper long before they meet people. This answer discusses the key parts of a resume one by one, stating what each part should include and what it should exclude, and closes with the general principles that make the whole document effective.

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The Key Parts of a Resume

1. Heading and Contact Information

Include: the applicant's full name in clear, prominent type; a professional email address; a current mobile number; and the city of residence. A link to a well-maintained professional profile may be added where relevant. Do not include: a photograph unless the employer or local custom expressly requires one; a full home address (a city is enough, and safer); an unprofessional email address built on nicknames or jokes; a national identity card number, religion, marital status or other private data irrelevant to the job; and contact details of a workplace the applicant is about to leave, where a call could cause harm.

2. Professional Summary or Objective

Include: two or three lines that state who the applicant is, his strongest qualifications and experience, and the kind of role sought — tailored to the specific job advertised, using its key words. An experienced applicant writes a summary of achievements; a fresh graduate may write a brief objective. Do not include: vague clichés ("seeking a challenging position in a dynamic organisation") that fit every applicant and therefore describe none; first-person rambling; or ambitions that contradict the post applied for.

3. Education

Include: degrees and qualifications in reverse chronological order (most recent first), with the institution, the year, and the division, grade or CGPA where it strengthens the application; relevant coursework, thesis topics or academic honours for recent graduates. Do not include: every class from primary school onward — once higher qualifications exist, early schooling adds

bulk, not value; poor grades that the format does not oblige the applicant to state; and, above all, any qualification that cannot be proved by a document, since discovery means instant rejection and a damaged reputation.

4. Work Experience

This is the heart of most resumes. Include: job title, organisation, location and dates, in reverse chronological order; and for each post, a few achievement-focused lines beginning with action verbs — managed, prepared, increased, designed, resolved — quantified wherever possible ("handled a cash counter serving 200 customers daily", "reduced data-entry errors by introducing a checking sheet"). Duties should be selected for relevance to the target job. Do not include: a bare list of job titles with no substance; every short or irrelevant job the applicant has ever held; complaints about former employers, reasons for dismissal, or salary figures; and unexplained gaps — genuine gaps (study, family care) should be covered honestly in a line rather than hidden by falsified dates.

5. Skills

Include: job-related skills grouped clearly — technical and computer skills (typing speed, MS Office, specific software, accounting packages), languages with level of proficiency, and demonstrable professional skills. Every skill claimed should be one the applicant can display in a test or interview. Do not include: exaggerated or false claims ("expert" in software used once), which collapse at the first practical test; and generic soft-skill stuffing ("hardworking, team player, punctual") unsupported by any evidence elsewhere in the document — such claims persuade only when the experience section proves them.

6. Additional Sections: Training, Certifications, Achievements, Activities

Include: professional training and certifications with dates; awards and honours; publications or projects for academic and technical posts; and voluntary or extracurricular activities that demonstrate responsibility, leadership or teamwork — especially valuable for fresh graduates whose experience is thin. Do not include: hobbies with no bearing on the job or character (a long list signals a padded document), political or controversial affiliations that invite bias without adding qualification, and anything the applicant could not discuss comfortably and knowledgeably if asked.

7. References

Include: either the names, designations and contact details of two referees who know the applicant's work and have agreed to be named, or the accepted line "References will be furnished on request." Referees should be teachers, supervisors or professionals — people whose testimony an employer can credit. Do not include: family members or personal friends as referees; referees named without their permission; and long testimonial letters attached unless the advertisement asks for them.

Table 1: Resume parts at a glance — include versus avoid

Part	Include	Avoid
Contact	Name, professional email, mobile, city	Photo (unless required), ID numbers, joke email addresses
Summary	Tailored 2–3 lines: strengths + target role	Clichés, vagueness, wrong ambition
Education	Recent-first degrees, institution, year, good grades	Primary schooling, unprovable claims
Experience	Titles, dates, quantified achievements	Complaints, salaries, falsified dates
Skills	Relevant, testable skills with levels	Exaggeration, unsupported soft skills

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Extras	Training, awards, relevant activities	Irrelevant hobbies, controversial affiliations
References	Two consenting professional referees, or “on request”	Relatives, unconsented names

General Principles of an Effective Resume

Beyond the parts, the whole document obeys a few laws. It should be concise — usually one page for a junior applicant and no more than two for an experienced one — because screeners spend seconds, not minutes, on each application. It should be tailored: the same person legitimately presents different resumes to different employers, reordering and selecting material to match each advertisement. It should be flawless in spelling, grammar and layout, with consistent formatting, clear headings and generous white space, since errors announce carelessness louder than any claim of “attention to detail”. It should be honest throughout — the interview and the reference check exist precisely to test the paper. And it should be readable at a glance: the employer must be able to find name, qualifications, latest job and key skills within the first brief scan.

Conclusion

To conclude, an effective resume is a carefully edited argument, not an autobiography. Each of its parts earns its place: clean contact information; a tailored summary; education in reverse order without padding; experience expressed as quantified achievements rather than duties; skills that can survive a test; supporting sections that add relevant evidence; and credible referees. What is excluded matters as much as what is included: private irrelevancies, clichés,

complaints, exaggerations and errors. A resume built on these principles does the only job it is hired to do — it converts a stranger's thirty seconds of attention into an invitation to interview.

Question 3: Email in Business — Benefits, Drawbacks and Principles of Professional Use (20 Marks)

Emails and other forms of electronic communication have become a common part of professional communication. Discuss the benefits and drawbacks of using email as the primary means of communication in business, and mention some principles to be adopted to ensure that even email communication remains formal and professional.

Introduction

Within a single generation, email has moved from a novelty to the default channel of business life. Orders, reports, applications, complaints, contracts and casual coordination all travel by email, and for many organisations it is now the primary means of written communication, displacing the letter and the memorandum. This transformation has brought large benefits, but it has also introduced real drawbacks — of overload, informality, insecurity and misunderstanding — which grow more serious the more completely email replaces other channels. This answer discusses both sides of the balance and then sets out the principles by which email can be kept formal and professional in tone and practice.

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Benefits of Email as the Primary Means of Business Communication

- Speed: A message crosses the world in seconds, regardless of distance or time zones, and can be read when the receiver's working day begins. Decisions that once waited days for the post are now taken the same morning.
- Economy: Email costs a small fraction of postal mail, courier services, travel or long meetings, and one message can reach hundreds of recipients at no additional cost.
- A written record: Email is self-documenting. Sent and received messages, with dates, times and attachments, form a searchable record of what was proposed, agreed and delivered — invaluable for follow-up, audit and the settlement of disputes.
- Attachments and richness: Reports, spreadsheets, drawings, photographs and signed scans travel with the message, so the communication carries its own evidence and working documents.
- Asynchronous convenience: Unlike a telephone call or meeting, email does not require both parties to be present simultaneously. The receiver reads and replies at a suitable moment, across shifts, cities and continents, which suits modern distributed work.
- Reach and coordination: Distribution lists, copying (CC) and forwarding keep whole teams, branches and clients informed from a single act of writing, reducing the distortion of messages passed mouth to mouth.
- Accessibility and organisation: Messages can be filed, labelled, searched and retrieved in seconds, and read on phones anywhere — in the field, at a client's office or while travelling.

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Drawbacks of Email as the Primary Means

- Overload and lost messages: The average professional receives far more email than can be read carefully. Important messages are buried under circulars and copies, urgent matters wait unnoticed, and 'inbox zero' becomes a fantasy; a channel used for everything is attended to for nothing.
- Absence of non-verbal signals: Email carries words without voice, face or gesture. Irony is read as insult, brevity as rudeness, and a neutral note as a cold one; tone is the first casualty of the medium, and many workplace quarrels begin as misread emails.
- No immediate feedback: Unlike conversation, email cannot confirm at once that the message was understood. Misunderstandings are discovered late, after wrong action has been taken on them.
- Informality and carelessness: Because email feels quick and casual, writers dash off messages they would never sign as letters — with errors, abbreviations, missing subjects and thoughtless remarks. Yet email is permanent, forwardable and producible in court: the casual message has the life span of a formal document.
- Security and confidentiality risks: Messages can be sent to the wrong address, forwarded beyond their intended audience, intercepted, or faked (phishing and spoofing); attachments carry viruses. Confidential information travels dangerously easily.
- Legal and record ambiguity: Threads multiply, versions conflict, and it can be unclear which message represents the organisation's final position. Personal and official mail mixed in one inbox creates further confusion.

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- Impersonality and weak relationships: Email is a poor medium for apology, condolence, negotiation of sensitive matters and team bonding. An organisation that communicates only by email may become efficient and estranged at the same time.
- Technical dependence: Server failures, spam filters, full inboxes and connectivity problems can silently swallow messages on which business depends.

Principles for Keeping Email Formal and Professional

- Use a clear, specific subject line: the subject is the letter's headline — 'Quotation for 500 Office Chairs — Reply by 5 Nov', not 'Hello' or a blank. One subject per message; start a new thread when the topic changes.
- Open and close formally: use a proper salutation ('Dear Mr Khan') and a professional close ('Regards' / 'Yours sincerely') with a full signature block giving name, designation, organisation, phone and address. Avoid texting abbreviations (u, plz, thx) in business mail.
- Write like a letter, not a chat: complete sentences, correct spelling, grammar and punctuation; short paragraphs with one point each; capital letters used normally — writing in ALL CAPS is read as shouting.
- Be concise but complete: state the purpose in the first lines, give the reader every fact needed, and close by stating exactly what action is expected and by when.
- Mind the tone: read the message as the receiver will. Keep it courteous, avoid sarcasm, anger and humour that may misfire, and never send an email written in temper — draft it, wait, and re-read.

- Choose recipients deliberately: send only to those who need the message; use CC sparingly and BCC honestly; check every address before sending, especially where auto-complete suggests a similar name; and never use 'Reply All' without a reason.
- Handle attachments professionally: mention them in the body, use clear file names, keep sizes reasonable, and confirm the receiver can open the format. Send confidential material only with appropriate protection and to verified addresses.
- Proofread and verify before sending: check names, dates, figures and attachments as carefully as in a signed letter — because in the eyes of the reader, and possibly of a court, that is what it is.
- Respond promptly and organise the record: acknowledge important mail within the working day even if a full reply must follow; file messages systematically; and use official accounts only for official business, keeping personal mail separate.
- Know when not to email: dismissals, grievances, condolences, delicate negotiations and anything requiring genuine dialogue belong in conversation or meeting, with email used afterwards to confirm what was agreed.

Conclusion

To conclude, email deserves its primacy: it is fast, cheap, record-creating, attachment-carrying and independent of time and place. But as the primary channel it also brings overload, tonal accidents, careless permanence, security risks and impersonality. The answer is not to abandon email but to discipline it — clear subjects, formal openings and closings, letter-standard correctness, deliberate recipients, verified attachments, prompt replies and a clear sense of the occasions email should not handle. An organisation that applies these principles gets the speed

of electronics with the dignity of the letter; one that does not will find its most casual messages becoming its most permanent embarrassments.

Question 4: Letters, Memoranda and Emails Compared — Should Paper Be Replaced? (20 Marks)

Compare the structure, function, and purpose of letters, memoranda, and emails in a modern business setting. On that basis, discuss the benefits and drawbacks of replacing letters and memoranda completely with email, and determine whether businesses should still rely on paper.

Introduction

Modern business writing works mainly through three instruments: the letter, the memorandum (memo) and the email. They look like relatives — all are written messages — but each was designed for a different relationship, a different audience and a different degree of formality, and each carries a different legal and organisational weight. Because email can imitate both of the others at almost no cost, many organisations ask whether letters and memos can simply be abolished. This answer first compares the three forms in structure, function and purpose; then weighs the benefits and drawbacks of complete replacement by email; and finally reaches a determination on whether businesses should still rely on paper.

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Comparison: Structure, Function and Purpose

The Business Letter

Structure: The letter is the most formal and most fully structured of the three: letterhead, reference number, date, inside address of the recipient, subject line, formal salutation ('Dear Sir/Madam'), a body in paragraphs, a complimentary close ('Yours faithfully'), a handwritten or digital signature, the sender's designation, and notations for enclosures and copies. Function and purpose: The letter is the organisation's official external voice. It introduces, offers, orders, appoints, claims, complains and commits. Because it is signed on letterhead, it carries legal and ceremonial weight: an appointment letter creates employment; a letter of acceptance can create a contract. It is addressed to outsiders — customers, suppliers, banks, government — or to individuals in their formal capacity.

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The Memorandum

Structure: The memo is a simplified internal form. It drops letterhead ceremony, salutation and complimentary close, and begins with four headings — To, From, Date, Subject — followed by a concise, often list-like body. Function and purpose: The memo exists for communication within the organisation: instructions to staff, announcements of policy, requests between departments, brief internal reports and records of decisions. Its tone is official but brisk; it says, in effect, 'we work together, so let us not waste words on ceremony'. Traditionally printed and circulated internally, it has increasingly migrated into electronic form, but its genre — short, headed, internal and on the record — survives wherever it travels.

The Email

Structure: Email borrows from both parents: it has To, CC, and Subject fields (like a memo) and normally a salutation, body and sign-off (like a letter), plus a signature block. Its structure is flexible — from a two-line query to a formal message indistinguishable from a letter. Function and purpose: Email is the general-purpose channel of modern business, used internally and externally, formally and informally, for messages of every size. Its defining features are speed, near-zero cost, attachments and easy forwarding and copying. It is a medium more than a genre: a letter can travel as an email attachment, and a memo can be written in an email body, so email competes with the other two partly by absorbing them.

Table 1: Letters, memoranda and emails compared

Feature	Letter	Memorandum	Email
Main audience	External (and formal individual recipients)	Internal staff and departments	Internal and external
Structure	Full formal layout with salutation, close and signature	To / From / Date / Subject headings; no salutation or close	Subject field, salutation, body, sign-off, signature block
Tone	Formal and courteous	Official, brief, matter-of-fact	Flexible: formal to informal
Speed and cost	Slowest; printing and postage costs	Fast within the office; low cost	Fastest; almost no cost
Legal weight	Highest: signed official document	Moderate: internal record	Variable: depends on content and authentication
Record	Filed paper record	Filed internal record	Searchable electronic record

Replacing Letters and Memos Completely with Email: Benefits

The benefits of complete replacement are substantial. Speed and cost head the list: no printing, enveloping, franking or courier delays, and international communication becomes as fast and

cheap as local. A single channel also simplifies life: staff learn one system, messages are centrally stored, searchable and backed up, attachments carry supporting documents, and copying whole teams costs nothing. Email supports modern working patterns — remote staff, field officers and clients in other time zones can all be reached asynchronously — and it is environmentally lighter than paper flows. Finally, email creates automatic trails (timestamps, threads) that paper systems achieve only with deliberate filing.

Drawbacks of Complete Replacement

Against this stand serious drawbacks. First, weight and authenticity: a signed letter on letterhead still carries an authority that an email — easily typed, easily forwarded, occasionally faked — does not. Courts, banks, embassies and government departments continue to require original signed paper for many instruments, and some contracts, notices and certificates are valid only in that form. Second, access and reliability: not every recipient has dependable connectivity, a current email address, or the habit of reading mail promptly; paper reaches everyone a postal address can reach, and it never lands in a spam folder. Third, permanence cuts both ways: paper archives are stable for decades without software, while electronic records depend on systems, formats and backups. Fourth, the psychology of formality: a condolence letter, an appointment letter or a formal warning carries its human and legal seriousness partly through its medium; delivering such messages by ordinary email cheapens them and may offend. Fifth, security: confidential paper can be sealed and handed over; email can be misdirected, forwarded and phished. And sixth, the memo's discipline — short, headed, single-subject — is a virtue email possesses only when writers choose it; abolishing the genres entirely tends to mean their standards dissolve into undifferentiated inbox flow.

Determination: Should Businesses Still Rely on Paper?

The balanced conclusion is a selective, not a total, replacement. For the great mass of routine communication — enquiries, coordination, internal instructions, drafts, reports, reminders — email should indeed be the primary channel, and the separate printed memo has rightly faded because email performs its function better. Businesses that cling to paper for such traffic waste money and time. But complete abolition of paper would be a mistake. Organisations should still rely on paper (or its equally formal digital-signature equivalent) where the message is legally constitutive (contracts, appointment and termination letters, statutory notices), where the recipient or authority requires originals, where confidentiality demands a sealed channel, where ceremony and human weight are part of the message (condolences, honours, formal apologies), and where archival permanence must not depend on a vendor's software. In short: let email carry the traffic, but let paper keep the crown jewels. The wise organisation decides channel by consequence, asking of each message: how much does this need to weigh?

Conclusion

To conclude, letters, memoranda and emails differ by design: the letter is the formal, signed, external instrument of commitment; the memo is the brisk internal instrument of record; and email is the fast, flexible, general-purpose medium that can carry either. Replacing both older forms entirely with email would gain speed, economy and convenience but lose legal weight, guaranteed reach, stable permanence and ceremonial seriousness. Businesses should therefore make email their default for routine communication while deliberately retaining paper for legal, formal and high-consequence messages — a mixed system in which the medium is matched, case by case, to the weight the message must carry.

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Question 5: Ethical Principles in Business Communication and the Risks of Ignoring Them (20 Marks)

Discuss major ethical principles that should guide business communication. Determine the risks that an organisation faces when it does not follow these guidelines, both in terms of credibility and trust and in terms of legal action, both in local situations and in cross-cultural contexts.

Introduction

Every business message is also a moral act: it can inform or deceive, respect or exploit, clarify or manipulate. Because communication is the instrument through which an organisation deals with customers, employees, investors and the public, the ethics of communication largely determine the ethics of the business as the world experiences it. This answer discusses the major ethical principles that should guide business communication — honesty, accuracy, completeness, respect, fairness, confidentiality, responsibility and cultural sensitivity — and then determines the risks an organisation runs, in credibility and trust and in exposure to legal action, when it ignores them, both locally and across cultures.

Major Ethical Principles of Business Communication

1. Honesty and Truthfulness

The foundation principle is that business communication must not deliberately deceive. Advertisements must not claim what the product cannot do; financial statements must not dress losses as profits; a salesperson must not promise a delivery date he knows cannot be met. Honesty includes the indirect forms of lying: statements that are technically true but designed

to mislead ('up to 50% off' on a single unwanted item), and strategic silence where the other party plainly relies on being told.

2. Accuracy and Completeness of Information

Closely allied is the duty of care: figures checked, facts verified, uncertainties admitted. Ethical communication presents material information completely — the side effects with the medicine, the conditions with the offer, the risks with the investment. Selective presentation that buries unfavourable facts in fine print or floods the reader with irrelevant detail to hide the essential point violates this principle as surely as a false statement does.

3. Clarity Without Manipulation

Persuasion is legitimate; manipulation is not. Ethical communication seeks agreement by evidence and honest argument, and respects the audience's freedom to decide. It therefore avoids fear-mongering, false urgency ('last day!' repeated for a month), loaded language, rigged comparisons and the exploitation of the audience's ignorance, age or distress.

4. Respect, Fairness and Non-Discrimination

Communication must treat every audience with dignity: no defamation of competitors or individuals, no language that demeans on grounds of gender, race, religion, disability or class, no plagiarism of others' words and designs, and fair dealing in negotiation — honouring the spirit of agreements, not merely hunting loopholes in their wording. Internally, the same principle forbids communication used as an instrument of bullying, favouritism or humiliation.

5. Confidentiality and Privacy

Organisations hold other people's information — employees' records, customers' data, patients' and clients' affairs, suppliers' prices. Ethical communication neither discloses such information without authority nor uses it for purposes beyond those for which it was given. It also respects the privacy of communication itself: no reading of private mail, no recording without knowledge, no forwarding of messages beyond their intended circle.

6. Accountability and Responsibility

Ethical communicators stand behind their messages: they sign what they send, correct errors openly and promptly, apologise where the organisation is at fault, and never use anonymity, subordinates or 'the system' as a shield for blame. Responsibility extends to consequences the communicator should foresee — instructions that endanger safety, or public statements that can foreseeably panic or mislead, must be judged before they are sent, not excused afterwards.

7. Cultural and Social Sensitivity

In international and multicultural settings, ethics includes respect for the audience's norms: language, imagery, humour, religious observance, attitudes to hierarchy, gender and time. What is merely brisk in one culture is abusive in another; what is a harmless symbol in one market is offensive in another. The ethical communicator researches his audience and errs on the side of respect — without, however, abandoning the core principles above, which no local custom can licence him to violate.

Risks of Unethical Communication: Credibility and Trust

The first casualty of unethical communication is trust, and trust is a business asset with unusual properties: it accumulates slowly, it is spent quickly, and once gone it is re-earned, if at all, only at many times its original cost. Customers deceived by an advertisement do not merely return one product; they defect, and they narrate their experience to family, colleagues and — now, through reviews and social media — to thousands of strangers. Employees who discover that official communication lies to them stop believing true messages as well, and an internal rumour economy replaces the official channel. Investors, banks and suppliers price dishonesty into every dealing, demanding guarantees, audits and prepayments from firms they would once have trusted on a signature. In cross-cultural settings the trust damage multiplies: a message that violates local religious or social norms, or a negotiation conducted with concealed intentions, can close an entire market to a firm and attach to its name a reputation that outlives the incident by years. Reputation is, in short, the compound interest of ethical communication — and of unethical communication, the compound penalty.

Risks of Unethical Communication: Legal Action

The second class of risk is legal. Locally, misleading advertising and false trade descriptions attract action under consumer-protection and competition law, with fines, corrective-advertising orders and compensation to customers. False statements in prospectuses, annual reports and loan applications expose the company and its officers to securities and fraud liability, including criminal prosecution. Defamatory statements about competitors or individuals invite civil suits for damages. Breach of confidentiality and misuse of personal data breach privacy and data-protection law and employment obligations; plagiarised material

infringes copyright; and discriminatory communication can found claims under equality and labour law. Internally, unethical instructions and falsified records turn ordinary business failures into personal liability for the managers who signed them. Across borders, the exposure widens: the organisation must satisfy the advertising, privacy, labelling and consumer laws of every market its messages reach, and standards differ — data practices lawful in one jurisdiction are penalised in another; comparative advertising celebrated in one country is actionable in the next; a product claim legal at home may violate another country's health or religious regulations. Add the risk of disputes being aired in foreign courts and media, and unethical or careless communication becomes one of the most expensive exports a firm can ship.

Conclusion

To conclude, business communication should be governed by honesty, accuracy and completeness, non-manipulative clarity, respect and fairness, confidentiality, accountability and cultural sensitivity. These are not ornaments on business; they are its operating system. The organisation that ignores them risks the two penalties that matter most: the loss of credibility and trust — among customers, employees, investors and whole foreign markets — and exposure to legal action ranging from consumer-protection fines and defamation suits to fraud and data-protection liability, multiplied across every jurisdiction its messages enter. Ethical communication is therefore not merely the right policy; in the long run, it is the only profitable one.

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