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About this programme

Purpose of the programme

This programme is intended for learners who should be able to access and use information and use language and communication in their daily lives.

It is based on the following four unit standards:

- US 119456 Write/Sign for a defined context
- US 119454 Maintain oral/signed communication
- US 119460 Use language and communication in occupational learning programmes
- US 119463 Access and use information

These unit standards, which are included in the Portfolio guide, are fundamental unit standards in the following qualification:

	ID	QUALIFICATION TITLE	PRE-2009 NQF LEVEL	NQF LEVEL	STATUS	END DATE	QUALITY ASSURING BODY
Fundamental	58206	National Certificate: Wholesale and Retail Operations	Level 2	NQF Level 02	Reregistered	2015-06-30	W&RSETA







Outcomes

Learners who are successful are capable of:

- Writing/signing for a specific purpose, audience and context
- Using grammatical structures and writing/signing conventions to produce coherent and cohesive texts for specific contexts
- Adapting language to suit context
- Drafting and editing own writing/signing.
- Using a variety of strategies to maintain communication.
- Adapting language to accommodate socio-cultural sensitivities without losing own meaning.
- Using knowledge of language structures and conventions to shape or decode meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary or constructions.
- Organising and present information in a focused and coherent manner.
- Identifying and explain how speakers/signers influence audiences.
- Using a range of reading and/or viewing strategies to make meaning of texts.
- Identify the main ideas in different text types.
- Read/view and respond to texts for a variety of purposes.
- Identify and discuss how language structures and features may influence a reader/audience.
- Find and use suitable learning resources.
- Use learning strategies.

- Manage occupational learning programme materials.
- Plan and gather relevant information for use in a given context.
- Function in a team.
- Reflect on how characteristics of the workplace and occupational context affect learning.

Icons used in this guide

	<p>Question</p>
	<p>Resources (books, media)</p>
	<p>Written exercise, group activity, role play or case study</p>
	<p>Definition</p>
	<p>Note</p>
	<p>Handy tools</p>

Chapter 1: Principles and fundamentals of communication

Specific outcomes and assessment criteria

The following assessment criteria are covered in this chapter:

US	SO	AC	
119456	Unit standard range		Appropriate language patterns and structures, which take account of aspects of purpose, audience, context and format, are used.
	1	2	Write/sign for a specific audience, purpose and context.
	1	5	Register is chosen to suit audience and purpose.
119454	4	1	Style and register suit purpose and audience.
	4	5	Own points of view and ideas are presented coherently in prepared and unprepared talks.

1.1 Vital principles of communication

- **Oral communication is largely non-verbal.** Words represent only 7% of what influences human behaviour; voice quality (tone and pitch) represents 38%; and body language makes up 55% of what people perceive the message to be.
- **Meanings are in people, not in words.** Meanings are in the perception of the listener (reader), who has at least 50% of the responsibility for accurate communication.
- **Communication is circular.** People send and receive information simultaneously making communication a circular rather than a linear act.
- **Context affects communication.** The context (environment) in which a message is conveyed and received affects communication
- **Communication is irreversible.** You never get a second chance to make a first impression. Even when you provide additional information you can only modify the impression that you have already made.
- **Communication has effects.** For every communication act there are consequences. This makes ethical conduct essential for all communication.
- **‘Noise’ affects communication.** Internal and external distractions affect the ability of the listener or receiver to understand your message.
- **Creating common ground is essential.** Communication is most efficient when participants share common ideas, understanding and experience.

1.2 Need for effective communication

Effective communication only takes place when the reaction of the receiving person is positive, according to the expectations of the sender of the message.

Effective communication has a direct effect on an organisation's success in that clear communication eliminates time wastage in trying to resolve confusion, errors and conflicts.

1.3 Functions of communication in an organisation

Effective communication is the lifeblood of every organisation. No organisation can exist without communication and no organisation can function well without effective communication.

Written communication is used in an organisation for:

- **Persuasion** (for example, persuading customers about the value they will get from the organisation; persuading investors about the viability of the business)
- **Motivation** (clarifying to employees what is expected of them).
- **Information** (providing information to customers and other people within the organisation).
- **Control** (formally and informally, communication is a regulator of organisational behaviour).
- **Learning** (employees access information for learning purposes to develop themselves)



1.4 Fundamentals of communication

Communication is a two-way process of sending and receiving information. There are a number of channels of communication.

Certain basic fundamentals of communication apply to all communication whether one is speaking informally to someone, addressing a meeting or conference, writing a newsletter or writing a formal report.

These fundamentals are:

- Know the purpose of the communication.
- Know the audience and its information needs.
- Know the topic.
- Consider the appropriate model of communication.
- Present a rounded picture through the communication.
- Communicate a little at a time.
- Present information in several ways.
- Achieve credibility with the audience.
- Use multiple communication techniques.
- Anticipate objections.
- Develop a practical, useful way to get feedback.

1.4.1 Knowing the purpose and objectives of the communication

The **purpose**, i.e. the intention or reason for the communication will determine many features of the communication – oral or written – including aspects such as format, strategy, and word choice.

The **objectives** of the communication relate to what the communicator wants to achieve.


When planning communication, you should answer the following questions for yourself:

- What is the **message** that you want to convey to the listener or the reader?
- What is the **purpose** of the communication?
- What **action do you want** from the receiver after the communication?
- If there is a call to action, what must the **approach** be to ensure that the document is convincing enough with sufficient information on which the reader can base their decision?
- **Scope of the document** - what should the document contain/cover? What should it not cover? Know the boundaries of the document subject matter. That way, time will not be wasted researching and writing beyond the scope of the document.



1.4.2 Knowing the audience and meeting its information needs


1.4.2.1 Consequences if the needs of the audience are not met

	<p>Activity 1: Consequences if the audience’s information needs are not met</p> <p>Please complete this activity in your Portfolio guide.</p> <p>Think of a business situation where the information needs of the target audience were not met. Explain the consequences that were experienced, for example, what went wrong or what happened because information was missing or not clear?</p>
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1.4.2.2 Identifying the target audience and its needs

To identify the target audience and its needs, answer the following questions for yourself:





- Who wants or needs the communication or the document and why?
- Who will read the document and what are they looking for?
- What will happen (or do you want to happen) as a result of the communication or document?
- What are they going to do with the information they are looking for?
- Empathise - if you can put yourself in the shoes of the document's intended audience you will know the messages they are looking for and the best way to impart that information.

	<p>Activity 2: Identifying the target audience and its information needs</p> <p>Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.</p> <p>Imagine that you want to ask your manager for a loan to further your education and that you have to prepare a proposal to motivate your request. Start planning the proposal by identifying the purpose of presenting proposal to your manager, the objective(s) you want to achieve and the information needs of the manager (i.e. what type of information must the manager get to be able to make a decision or take action).</p>										
<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th data-bbox="491 1675 719 1742">Purpose</th> <th data-bbox="719 1675 948 1742">Objective(s)</th> <th data-bbox="948 1675 1185 1742">Audience</th> <th data-bbox="1185 1675 1396 1742">Information needs</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td data-bbox="491 1742 719 1886"></td> <td data-bbox="719 1742 948 1886"></td> <td data-bbox="948 1742 1185 1886"></td> <td data-bbox="1185 1742 1396 1886"></td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Purpose	Objective(s)	Audience	Information needs							
Purpose	Objective(s)	Audience	Information needs								

1.5 Selecting the best communication method for the situation

The best communication methods for a particular situation is the method that succeeds in putting across the right message in a clear, unambiguous way and that gets noticed by the target audience, whilst also saving on time and cost.

Examples of the best communication method for a particular situation or purpose:

<p>Written communication</p> 	<p>Written communications have the advantage of providing information needed to make an important decision, for example, on buying equipment, selecting an appropriate training course, informing a wide audience on changes in procedures, etc.</p>
<p>Oral communications</p> 	<p>Oral communications make it possible to, for example, answer customer queries – in person or on the telephone. Customers can, for example, also speak directly to the employee who is managing their account or to the salesperson who is an expert on a product range.</p> <p>Oral communication makes it possible to immediately obtain information or resolve most misunderstandings.</p> <p>Oral communication can also save time where only one receiver of the information is involved or where it is possible to speak to all the relevant people simultaneously.</p>
<p>Online communications</p> 	<p>Today consumers can do a variety of business with the directly online, thereby saving a great deal of time. An important advantage of this method is that customers can communicate a need, ask a question or complain at a time that is convenient to them.</p> <p>This is also cheap and quick means of communication.</p>
<p>Advertising on TV and in the press</p> 	<p>Advertising on TV and in the press makes it possible to communicate with millions of customers cost effectively.</p>



Ask the following questions to help you determine the best method of communication:


- What is the purpose of the communication – to inform; change a view; persuade, etc.?
- Who must receive the communication?


- What facts must be presented to achieve the desired effect?
- What action, if any, is required or expected?
- What ideas, opinions and conclusions must be stressed?
- How much time is available?
- Is face-to-face communication necessary to achieve the desired action/input/result?
- How can the information be communicated in the most effective manner, at the lowest cost and using as little time as is needed for effective communication?

1.6 Considering the communication model

The most appropriate communication model to use depends on the purpose of the communication and the objectives you want to achieve, for example:

Purpose/ Objective	Communication model	Characteristics
<p>To inform</p> 	<p>Information model</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The information model focuses on objectivity, i.e. no bias or prejudice. • The purpose of message is to increase knowledge or enhance understanding. • The role of audience is to learn something new. • In an organisational situation, the information model is often used in public relations. <p>Descriptive or expository writing is often used to inform in written communication (refer to Chapter 2).</p>
<p>To persuade</p> 	<p>Persuasion model</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The persuasion model focuses on advocacy (promotion). • The purpose of message is to create, modify or reinforce attitudes and behaviours. • The role of audience is to evaluate the message and then accept or reject it. • In organisational situation, the persuasion model is associated with convincing someone of the value of doing business with the organisation; advertising and public relations. <p>The following forms of writing are often used in written persuasion communication:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discursive writing • Transactional writing • Argumentative writing <p>(Refer to Chapter 2.)</p>

Purpose/ Objective	Communication model	Characteristics
<p>To discuss and get other people’s views or opinions</p> 	<p>Dialogue model</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The dialogue model focuses on relationships. • The purpose of message is to create environment of mutual trust and to both share information and seek it from other people involved in the communication. • The role of audience is to participate – to engage in a simultaneous process of sharing information and seeking insight into the communication partner. • In an organisational situation, the dialogue model is mostly associated with labour relationships. <p>The dialogue model is mostly used in oral communication (refer to Chapter 6.)</p>



Activity 3: Communication models

Work in small groups. Think about your organisations and identify situations where the three communication models could be used. Make a presentation to the large group.

Communication model	Situations where it can be used
Information model	
Persuasion model	
Dialogue model	

1.7 Language, images and writing techniques reflect points of view, values and attitudes in communication

Language and images are used reflect points of view, values and attitudes towards matters such as gender, class, race, age, power relations, human rights, inclusivity and environmental issues.


Language and images can be used in various ways.

1.7.1 Inclusive and exclusive language

All oral and written communication should be **inclusive and unbiased**. Consider the following examples:

Exclusive	Inclusive
Trades men	Tradesperson/ tradespeople
Everybody is responsible for his own parking space	Everybody is responsible for their own parking spaces.

1.7.2 Point of view and bias



Point of view and **bias** mean looking at a situation from a particular viewpoint.


Points of view are often biased.

If people on two sides of a situation are asked to describe the situation, each will describe events from their own points of view. Both will be biased, as shown in the examples relating to a wage dispute:

Point of view of trade union *‘The company has shown a significant increase in profit this financial year. Executives have received large salaries and bonuses. Workers in this industry do not receive what we consider a living wage and medical aid benefits are limited. Wages need to be well above inflation if we have to bridge the wage gap. The use of part-time workers is threatening our jobs.’*


Point of view of employer *‘We are one of the best employers in the industry. If we pay increases that are more than the inflation rate every year our labour costs will grow out of control. Management get bonuses depending on their performance: if it is a good year they get a good bonus but if it is a bad year they may get no bonus. The cost of medical aid is very high and some workers who are on probation will have to use the public hospital system until they are appointed permanently. Part time workers are used because we need to be flexible.’*

1.7.3 Values

	<p>Values are basic beliefs about what is important to the individual. They represent what a person believes is right and wrong.</p>
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The following snippet from a news article reveals that the filmmaker does not approve of the behaviour of the character in the movie: *‘If you sit through the end of the film, you’ll realise what we’re saying about this man and his world, because it’s an intoxicating one.’*

1.7.4 Assumptions

	<p>An assumption is an idea, theory or principle that the author believes to be true. The author then develops his or her ideas based on that assumption.</p>
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In the paragraph quoted below, the assumption of the author is that a **‘Protestant work ethic’** has guided Walmart in America - the president did not specifically indicate that but he related his own story, from which the author made an assumption.

‘By the look of things, Wal-Mart could be bringing a lot more than just lower prices to South Africa. The Protestant work ethic that has guided America’s economic prowess will likely be in the bag too.’

Doug McMillon, the president and chief executive of Wal-Mart International, tried yesterday to paint a softer side of the retail giant, going so far as to point out that working at Wal-Mart entailed more than just having a job. He said Wal-Mart was about giving its ... employees opportunities to build successful careers. He pointed to himself as an example. Indeed, fresh-faced McMillon is perhaps the best embodiment of what’s possible at Wal-Mart, judging by his own story.

At a breakfast meeting with reporters, 44-year-old McMillon related how his 20 years with the retailer have taken him from unloading trailers to where he is now.

He said Wal-Mart had helped hire him four times as he went back and forth between his job and schooling.

McMillon’s story is that all-American story: if you work hard and play by the rules, success will follow. McMillon said Wal-Mart tried to create an environment in which


its employees were “happier” and could serve customers.’ (Source: www.io.co.za; 7 November 2010)

An example of an assumption of exclusivity:

‘One woman, who wishes to remain anonymous, said the cops weren’t doing enough to catch him [suspected rapist in Black residential area]. “They aren’t making use of their resources but when there was a robbery in a nearby white residential area, they were there in large numbers,” she said.’ (Source: www.iol.co.za; 5 November 2010)

This is an assumption the woman made – there is no evidence to substantiate her view.


1.7.5 Attitudes

	<p>Attitudes are positive or negative feelings about objects, people, or events.</p>
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Example of a sceptic attitude: *‘Like the Scorpions, the Hawks are also playing a ping pong game. Block has a history of alleged fraud and corruption cases published in the media – and what happened – he was appointed MEC of Finance. What a joke! This is only another one added to the list.’ (Source: Comments on a news article, www.iol.co.za, 5 November 2010)*

1.7.6 Statements of opinion

Facts are statements that can be verified (checked).

	<p>Opinions are statements that express a writer’s own feelings, attitudes or beliefs. They are neither true nor false.</p>
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The example of the article on Walmart given earlier contains several opinion statements, for example:

- *‘By the look of things, Wal-Mart could be bringing a lot more than just lower prices to South Africa.’*
- *‘The Protestant work ethic that has guided America’s economic prowess will likely be in the bag too.’*

1.8 The need to plan communication



Mo matter which method, style or technique of communication is going to be used, it needs to be planned.

This aspect will be dealt with in more detail in subsequent chapters.

1.9 Conclusion on principles and fundamentals of communication

Certain principles and fundamentals of communication apply to both oral and written communication. These should be applied for effective communication.

The next chapter deals in more detail with written communication.

Chapter 2: Planning and preparing different forms of written communication

Specific outcomes and assessment criteria

US 119456	Specific outcome	Assessment criteria
	<p>Specific outcome 1: Write/sign for a specific audience, purpose and context.</p> <p>Range: Narrative, discursive, reflective, argumentative, descriptive, expository, transactional, business correspondence, electronic texts, multi-media presentations.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. A range of appropriate texts is identified and produced in response to tasks or learning activities. 2. Format and content are appropriate to the conventions of the text type, and to the nature and level of the target audience, as well as to the task. Range: Format, visual presentation (headings, sub-headings, bullets, numbering, font, etc.), appropriate dress.
	<p>Specific outcome 2: Use grammatical structures and writing/signing conventions to produce coherent and cohesive texts for specific contexts.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Clear, well-structured sentences are used. 2. A variety of sentence structures, lengths and types is employed where appropriate. 3. Paragraph/chunks of signing conventions are constructed showing awareness of topic. 4. Punctuation/non-manual features (NMFs) are used appropriately. 5. Register is chosen to suit audience and purpose. 6. Link devices are used correctly to write/sign sustained pieces. 7. Texts are organised and structured to have a clearly defined beginning, middle and end.
	<p>Specific outcome 3: Adapt language to suit context.</p> <p>Range: Socio-cultural, inclusivity, human rights, technical/workplace, environmental contexts.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Inappropriate language is identified and adapted. Range: Excessive use of jargon, insensitive choice of words/signs, (gender; rank; hierarchies in familiar settings or organisations; family; sports; wealth) offensive or incorrect register. 2. Complex wording/signing of ideas is simplified where necessary.
	<p>Specific outcome 4: Draft and edit own writing/signing.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Planning, drafting, editing and redrafting improve the suitability of the intended purpose and audience.

		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2. Cohesive devices to link parts of texts with other parts and to link ideas are checked and adapted to promote overall coherence of the text. 3. Major grammatical errors are identified and changes improve structure and readability/viewability of text. 4. Spelling/handshape, punctuation/non-manual features (NMFs), register, sentence and paragraph structure are checked and corrected where necessary, and the selection of vocabulary is appropriate to content. 5. Points of view, where expressed, are supported with a simple range of reasons and facts. 6. Sources used in writing/signing are acknowledged and accurately recorded in format appropriate to the task or learning activity.
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Learning outcomes:

After completing this chapter, you will be able to:

- Write/sign for a specific audience, purpose and context.
- Use grammatical structures and writing/signing conventions to produce coherent and cohesive texts for specific contexts.
- Adapt language to suit context.
- Draft and edit own writing/signing.

2.1 Requirements for effective writing

When you produce written communication, the format and content of your document must be appropriate to:

- The purpose, for example to inform, persuade, etc.;
- The style of the text type. **Style** refers to the **diction** (choice of words, tone and punctuation) that is used. For example, informal letters have an informal style. Formal reports have a formal style.
- The nature and level of the target audience; and
- The task and situation (context), for example:
 - A business letter;
 - A proposal;
 - An advertisement;
 - Electronic communication;

- Presentation; etc.

The audience and purpose of the communication were introduced in Chapter 1. To achieve a specific purpose, one of the following forms of writing may be applied:

- Narrative
- Discursive
- Argumentative
- Reflective
- Descriptive
- Expository
- Transactional

2.2 Steps for effective texts

The writer should take several steps to improve the suitability of the intended purpose and audience. These steps include:



Planning and drafting are discussed in this chapter. Editing and redrafting are discussed later.

2.3 Planning of communication



Mo matter which method, style or technique of communication is going to be used, it needs to be planned.

A variety of planning techniques can be used. You should experiment and select a technique that you personally find most useful.

The two most common planning methods are:

- Mindmaps
- Bullet-point outlines

2.3.1 Planning techniques

2.3.1.1 Mindmap

This planning technique is used to get all main ideas and their supporting ideas down on one page, with words and short phrases around the central topic. Once all the ideas have been drawn into the mindmap, the branches representing the ideas can be numbered, to help you plan the sequence.

The steps for using a mindmap to plan written communication are:

- 1 Write the topic in the centre of a page. Draw a shape such as a circle, oval or rectangle around it.
- 2 For each main idea, draw a *branch* from the central topic. Write a key word or very short phrase on the branch.
- 3 For each secondary idea related (or supporting evidence) to a main idea, draw a secondary branch.
- 4 Continue until you have drawn branches for all the ideas.
- 5 Consider the sequence in which the ideas should be used in your text and number them.

Figure 1 gives an example of a mindmap used to plan text on the topic of business plans.

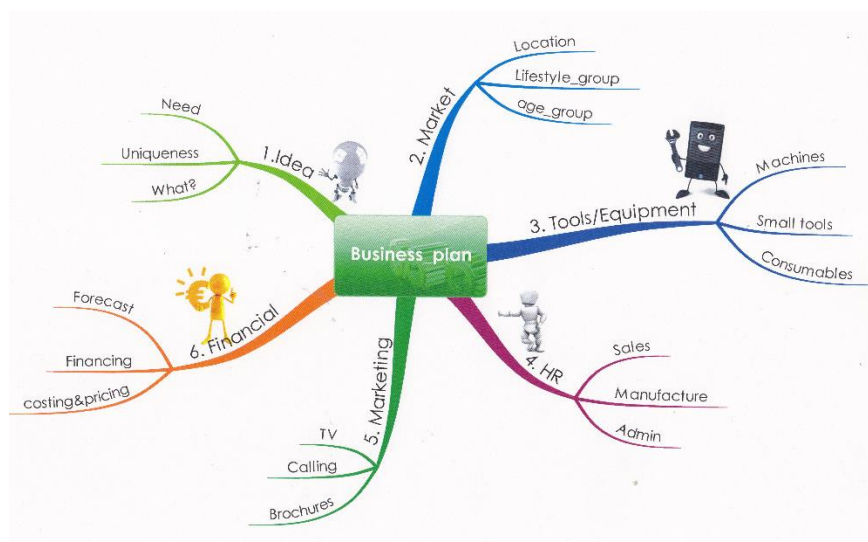


FIGURE 1: MINDMAP USED TO PLAN TEXT

2.3.2.2 Bullet points

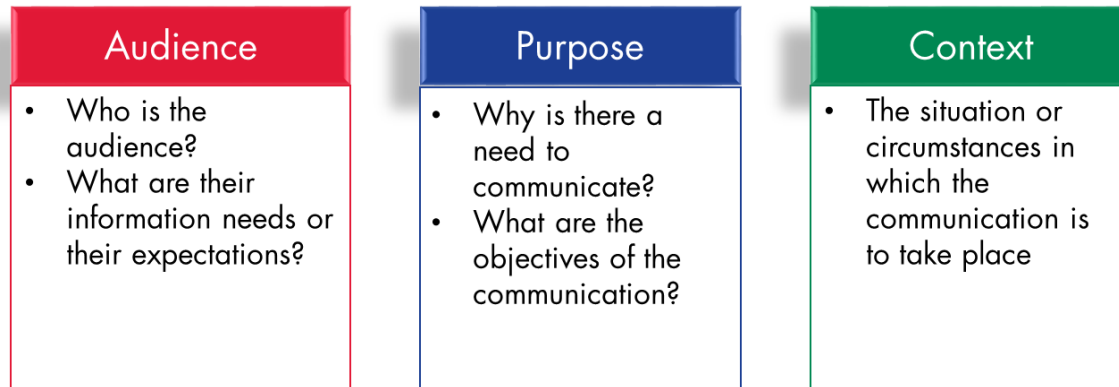
A bullet-point plan lists the main ideas using bullet points.

It gives a brief outline of the text, listing the main idea for every paragraph.

Sub-points may be used to list the evidence or supporting ideas for each main idea.

2.3.2 Planning text to be appropriate to the audience, purpose and context

Three elements of communication — audience, purpose and context — are related. Before producing the written communication, the writer should consider the following:



The **purpose**, i.e. the intention or reason for the communication will determine many features of the communication – oral or written — including aspects such as format, strategy, and word choice.

The **objectives** of the communication relate to what the communicator wants to achieve.

When planning communication, you should answer the following questions for yourself:

- What is the **message** that you want to convey to the listener or the reader?
- What is the **purpose** of the communication?
- What **action do you want** from the receiver after the communication?
- If there is a call to action, what must the **approach** be to ensure that the document is convincing enough with sufficient information on which the reader can base their decision?
- **Scope of the document** - what should the document contain/cover? What should it not cover? Know the boundaries of the document subject matter. That way, time will not be wasted researching and writing beyond the scope of the document.

2.3.3.1 Identifying the target audience and its needs

To identify the target audience and its needs, answer the following questions for yourself:

- Who wants or needs the communication or the document and why?
- Who will read the document and what are they looking for?
- What will happen (or do you want to happen) as a result of the communication or document?
- What are they going to do with the information they are looking for?

2.3.3.2 Identifying the purpose, context and appropriate communication models

The writer should consider the **purpose** and objectives of the communication:

- Why is there a need for communication?
- What should be achieved through the communication?

The three main purposes with communication are:

- To inform
- To persuade
- To discuss

The purpose and objective of the communication determines what model of communication is most appropriate, i.e. the context.

In written communication, the purpose determines the communication model, which is influenced by the situation (i.e. the **context**). This, in turn, influences language use, language variation, and style. These aspects are called the **conventions** for the type of text. Figure 2 illustrates these relationships.

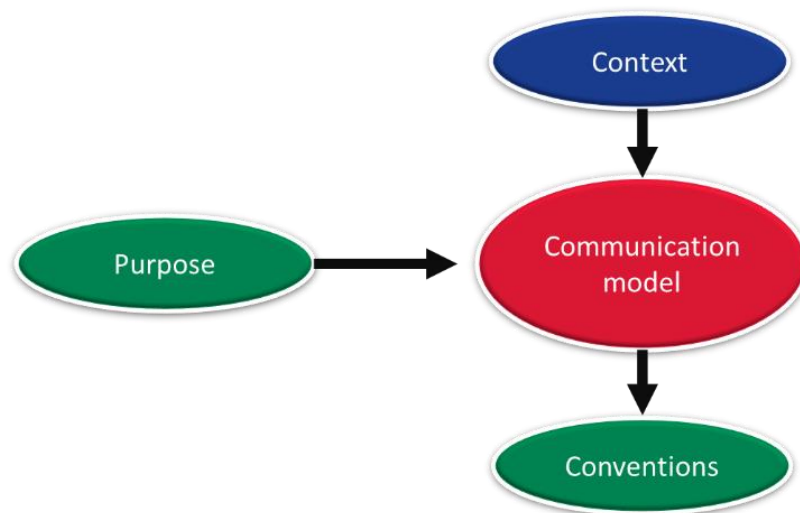







FIGURE 2: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PURPOSE, CONTEXT, COMMUNICATION MODEL AND CONVENTIONS

Table 1 indicates the most appropriate communication model for each of the three main objectives and lists the characteristics of each model.

TABLE 1: OBJECTIVES, COMMUNICATION MODEL AND CHARACTERISTICS

Purpose/ Objective	Communication model	Characteristics (Conventions)
<p>To inform</p> 	<p>Information model</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The information model focuses on objectivity, i.e. no bias or prejudice. • The purpose of message is to increase knowledge or enhance understanding. • The role of audience is to learn something new. • In an organisational situation, the information model is often used in public relations. <p>Descriptive or expository writing is often used to inform in written communication.</p>
<p>To persuade</p> 	<p>Persuasion model</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The persuasion model focuses on advocacy (promotion). • The purpose of message is to create, modify or reinforce attitudes and behaviours. • The role of audience is to evaluate the message and then accept or reject it. • In organisational situation, the persuasion model is associated with convincing someone of the value of doing business with the organisation; advertising and public relations. <p>The following types of writing are often used in written persuasion communication:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discursive writing • Transactional writing • Argumentative writing
<p>To discuss and get other people’s views or opinions</p> 	<p>Dialogue model</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The dialogue model focuses on relationships. • The purpose of message is to create environment of mutual trust and to both share information and seek it from other people involved in the communication. • The role of audience is to participate – to engage in a simultaneous process of sharing information and seeking insight into the communication partner. • In an organisational situation, the dialogue model is mostly associated with labour relationships. <p>The dialogue model is mostly used in oral communication.</p>

<p>To reflect on a situation or an experience</p> 	<p>Reflective model</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Involves exploration and explanation of an event or situation. • Requires evidence in one of two forms, depending on the topic of the reflection: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Evidence of personal experiences. 2) Academic evidence from published academic literature.
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	<p>HANDY TOOL</p> <p>Define the purpose statement for yourself to guide you in developing a coherent document. Write it down, in the format: <i>‘To ... (do what) ... so that ... the result to be achieved)...’</i></p>
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2.3.3 Planning and organising text to have a clearly defined beginning, middle and end

Your text should be structured to have a clear beginning, middle and end.

When planning your text, think about the sequence:




	<p>HANDY TOOLS</p> <p>Think of the process for organising your text as being similar to building a hamburger:</p>  <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Beginning 2. Middle 3. End
---	---

Or think about the story (narrative text) being similar to a train:



(Source: www.serioussunshine.com)

Beginning	<p>The beginning (o introduction) introduces the topic of the text. For example, if you are writing a text on customer service, you should begin with a definition of customer service.</p> <p>The beginning is usually one or two paragraphs.</p>
Middle (main body)	<p>The middle is the main body of the text. This is where all the main and supporting ideas are given.</p> <p>The main body should be structured well into coherent paragraphs, following a logical sequence, as discussed earlier.</p>
End	<p>The end should be used for a conclusion, summary or call for action.</p>




Activity 4: Beginning, middle and end (119456/SO2/AC7)

Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.

Plan an essay on a topic that you feel strongly about. Write down the main ideas for the beginning, middle and end.

Beginning	
Middle	Main idea 1
	Main idea 2
	Main idea 3
End	

2.4 Choosing an appropriate narrative register

	<p>Narrative register (voice) refers to point of view in terms of the person who is ‘speaking’ in the text, i.e. the narrator.</p>
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The writer should choose a register that is appropriate to the audience and the purpose of the text.

There are basically three narrative registers for written documents:


- **First person** means the document is written from the ‘I’ viewpoint. This point of view (narrator) brings the reader up close and personal with the narrator. Suitable for informal letters.
- **Second person** means the document is written from the ‘you’ viewpoint and is most often associated with literary works. It is not suitable for transactional writing.
- **Third person** (or passive narrative register) means the document is written from an impersonal viewpoint. It is most suitable for written reports.

Authorial comment is used to make writing more convincing, especially in imaginative writing. Authorial comment provides a personal view on the topic. Example: ‘*It could never be same if...*’

Authorial comment is also an integral part of forms of text such as cartoons.

Narrative register could also include an objective or subjective perspective on the topic.

An **objective perspective** will only focus on facts while a **subjective perspective** gives the writer’s personal view and/or opinions on the topic. An example of a subjective perspective is ‘*In my opinion ...*’ or ‘*I view this in a serious light ...*’

	<p>Activity 5: Choosing an appropriate register (SO2/AC5)</p>												
	<p>Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.</p>												
	<p>Which of the following narratives would be appropriate if you wanted to write a proposal to your manager for a loan to further your education? Motivate your answer.</p>												
	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>First person</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Third person</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Authorial comment</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Subjective perspective</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Objective perspective</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Humorous narrative</td> <td></td> </tr> </table>	First person		Third person		Authorial comment		Subjective perspective		Objective perspective		Humorous narrative	
First person													
Third person													
Authorial comment													
Subjective perspective													
Objective perspective													
Humorous narrative													

2.5 Drafting

The second step in producing written communication is drafting, i.e. starting to write.

As you write, you should keep referring back to your plan as a guide. You may, however, change the plan if you find it necessary – it is not unusual to change during the drafting stage, or even later.

The purpose of the first draft is to get your ideas on paper, organise the information logically and develop enough detail for the purpose and audience.

Do not become discouraged if you at first find it difficult not get the ideas down on paper. Keep in mind that your brain is processing information as you are writing things down. You will find yourself getting new ideas and making connections as you write.

Also keep in mind that drafts are not perfect. You will revise and edit the first draft – and later drafts – until you feel you have achieved the purpose.

During the drafting stage, you should consider the form of written communication that is appropriate to the purpose and the conventions for that form.

2.6 Forms of written communication

2.6.1 Descriptive texts



Descriptive texts describe a person, object, or event so vividly that the reader feels like he or she could reach out and touch it.


Style and tips for descriptive texts


A descriptive text does not only tell us what something looks like, but describes it to involve as many senses as possible – hearing, touching, smelling, etc. Use all five of your senses to describe the setting, characters, and the plot of your story. Use an informal writing style in descriptive texts.

Example:


‘As I entered the building which housed the [skating] rink, the warm, nostalgic scent of popcorn hit that part of my brain where dusty, cobwebbed memories live, memories of my own adolescence. I made my way past a group of exuberant teenagers at the snack bar until I reached the skating rink. Skinny, hard benches, made for small butts, lined one wall. I took a seat and scanned the rink. My eyes paused to read a sign; white, block letters on a black background warned, "Skate at Your Own Risk."’

(Source: <http://www.roanestate.edu/owl/lions.html>)

	<p>HANDY TOOLS</p> <p>When writing descriptive texts, use the following matrix to help you think:</p>													
	<table border="1"> <tr> <th>What do you smell?</th> <th>What do you taste?</th> <th>What do you see?</th> <th>What do you hear?</th> <th>What might you touch or feel?</th> </tr> <tr> <td> </td> <td> </td> <td> </td> <td> </td> <td> </td> </tr> </table>	What do you smell?	What do you taste?	What do you see?	What do you hear?	What might you touch or feel?								
What do you smell?	What do you taste?	What do you see?	What do you hear?	What might you touch or feel?										

	<p>Activity 6: Descriptive text</p> <p>Please complete this activity in your Portfolio guide.</p> <p>Think about a situation that you really enjoyed. Describe the situation in one paragraph. Be as descriptive as you can —describe what you saw, heard, smelled, tasted, felt, etc.</p>
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2.6.2 Narrative texts

	<p>Narrative texts tells a story in such a way that he audience learns a lesson or gains insight.</p>
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Effective narrative texts allow readers to visualise everything that is happening, in their minds.

Style and tips for writing narrative texts

- Tell a story about a moment or event that means a lot to you — it will make it easier for you to tell the story in an interesting way.
- Get right to the action — avoid long introductions and lengthy descriptions, especially at the beginning of the narrative.
- Make sure your story has a point. Describe what you learned from the experience you are relating.
- Use concrete, rather than abstract, details, for example:

Abstract: It was a nice day.

Concrete: The sun was shining and a slight breeze blew across my face.


Abstract: I liked writing poems, not essays.

Concrete: I liked writing short, rhythmic poems and hated rambling on about my thoughts in those four-page essays.


Abstract: Mr Smith was a great teacher.

Concrete: Mr Smith really knew how to help us turn our thoughts into good stories and essays.

(Examples from <http://www.roanestate.edu/owl/describe.html>)

	<p>Activity 7: Narrative text</p> <p>Please complete this activity in your Portfolio guide.</p> <p>Think about the first time that you experienced something. Write a short narrative text to tell the story.</p>
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2.6.3 Reflective text

	<p>Reflective writing is a practice in which the writer ‘describes a real or imaginary scene, event, interaction, passing thought, memory, form, adding a personal reflection on the meaning of the item or incident, thought, feeling, emotion, or situation in his or her life.’ (en.wikipedia.org)</p>
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In a reflective text, the writer does not merely tell what happened but reflects on the situation or event to note details and emotions, reflect on meaning, examine what went well or revealed a need for additional learning, etc.


Style and tips for reflective writing

When preparing for writing reflective text, use the following guidelines:


- Looking back at the event, or think about the object of the reflective writing.
- Analyse the event, idea or object. Think about it in depth and from different perspectives, and try to explain it.
- Think carefully about what the event or idea means for you and your ongoing progress as a learner or worker.

Example:


‘Specific tasks were shared out amongst members of my team. Initially, however, the tasks were not seen as equally difficult by all team members. Cooperation between group members was at risk because of this perception of unfairness. ... Ultimately, our group achieved a successful outcome, but to improve the process, we perhaps needed a chairperson to help encourage cooperation when tasks were being shared out. In future group work, on the course and at work, I would probably suggest this.’
(<http://www.port.ac.uk/media/contacts-and-departments/student-support-services>)

	<p>HANDY TOOLS</p> <p>When writing reflective texts, think about, and follow the structure:</p>	
	Description	What happened?
	Interpretation	<p>What is most important/interesting/useful/relevant about the event, idea or object?</p> <p>How can it be explained?</p> <p>How is it similar to and different from others?</p>
	Outcome	<p>What have I learned from this?</p> <p>What does this mean for my future?</p>

(Adapted from: <http://www.port.ac.uk/media/contacts-and-departments/student-support-services>)

	<p>Activity 8: Reflective text</p> <p>Please complete this activity in your Portfolio guide.</p>
	<p>Reflect on what you have learned so far in this programme. Write a short reflective text that explains how what you have learned will help you improve your written communication.</p>

2.6.4 Discursive text

	<p>Discursive writing describes the situation at hand.</p>
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Discursive writing presents a balanced and objective examination of a subject. It does not argue for or against a point; it presents both sides of the discussion and is supported by facts and research.

Style and tips for discursive writing

You may use some of the following conventions in discursive writing:

- Balanced and calm tone of voice.
- A structure that alternates between the two opposing positions, exploring each one.
- A balanced consideration of the evidence for each point and an analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of that evidence.
- Technical and formal language where appropriate.
- Reference to other sources of expertise / quotations from famous thinkers.
- Linking paragraphs by pointing out similarities (for example, *'Equally ... , Similarly ... , etc.'*) or differences (for example, *'On the other hand ... ', 'However ... ', etc.*).

- Persuasive techniques: repetition, emotive language, imagery, metaphors, rhetorical questions, etc.

An appropriate structure flows as follows:

- **Introduction:** This states clearly the problem of the investigation and why it is a significant issue.
- **Main Body:** The main body contains the various sides of the position in turn, alternating between them. When writing the main body, assess each one and compare their relative strengths – do not include your own opinion at this point. For each point, use a new paragraph. Begin each paragraph with a key sentence which links back to the question.
- **Conclusion:** The conclusion sums up the key points and state the writer’s position again.



Activity 9: Discursive text

Please complete this activity in your Portfolio guide.

Prepare a document about the benefits and disadvantages of attending this learning programme.

2.6.5 Argumentative text



Argumentative text clearly presents a **strong position** on a particular topic.

An argumentative document uses reasoning and evidence – not emotion – to take a definitive stand on a controversial or debatable issue.

Style and tips for argumentative writing

The following is an appropriate structure for argumentative writing:

- **State your opinion** at the beginning.
- **List and explain the reasons** for your choice.
- **Acknowledge the other side’s arguments**; then, **disprove/refute** those arguments.
- **Select the strongest evidence from your research and present your points**, usually one point per paragraph.
- Reassert your own viewpoint and why it is the best choice.



Activity 10: Argumentative text

Please complete this activity in your Portfolio guide.

Use a mindmap to plan a speech on the topic: Tertiary education or not? You should first decide on the side you will argue.

2.6.6 Expository or factual writings



Expository (or factual) text tries to inform, educate or instruct the reader.

Factual texts should be convincing and well developed with respect to clearly defined purposes. The purpose and objectives should be clear, considering the audience as well.

Factual texts should also be structured with fully developed paragraphs resulting in a unified text.

Factual writings include business reports.

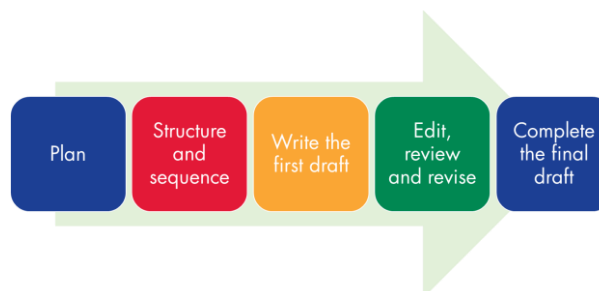
Purposes of reports

- Initiate an action
- Initiate a new strategy
- Improve existing conditions
- Reflect
- Provide feedback on an investigation or progress with or the status of a project

Types of reports

- Investigative report.
- Informative.

Effective report-writing process



1. **Plan** the report:
 - Define the purpose and objective.
 - Identify the profile of the target audience.
 - Collect relevant data.
2. **Structure and sequence** the report. Make use of headings to structure the information. If the document is longer than 600 words, make use of sub-headings as well to categorise information.
3. **Write** the first draft.
4. **Edit, review and revise** the report.
5. **Complete** the final draft.

Collecting relevant data

- Gather all relevant information that will be required for drafting the report before the drafting process starts.
- Research the matter thoroughly, determining whether the facts are correct and test them.
- Determine whether there are policies with regard to the specific matter.
- Consult previous resolutions.
- Check all information for correctness and validity – especially claims made.
- Consult widely.
- Collate information.

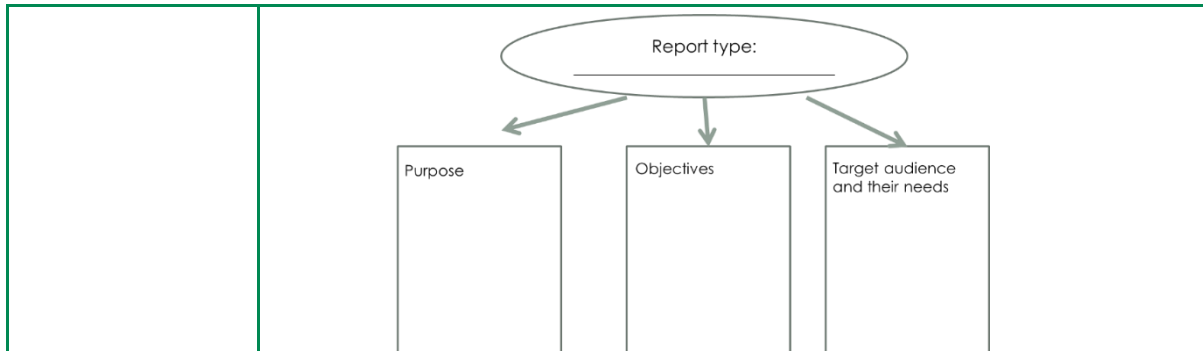
A recommended format for factual reports

- Title
- Executive summary
- Contents page
- Contents
 - Introduction/Background
 - Purpose of report
 - Discussion
 - Conclusion
- Appendix - Supporting data




HANDY TOOLS

In your planning for writing a report, identify the purpose, objectives and the target audience. Use this mind map to help you organise your thoughts.




Let the mind map guide you in formulating your report. Make use of headings and sub-headings when structuring the report.



HANDY TOOLS

Once your report is completed, use the following checklist to review it:

The purpose of the report is clear	
Target audience was identified and the report is structured to meet the needs of the target audience	
Technical information in the report is meaningfully communicated	
Relevant information was gathered and analysed systematically	
The report addresses the relevant issues in a logical and clear manner	
Information in the report is presented clearly	
I have checked the report for clarity and brevity	



Activity 11: Factual (expository) text

Please complete this activity in your Portfolio guide.

Your manager said that after completion of this programme, you should write a report on your experiences during this programme.

Draw up a framework for your report. Remember to plan a clear beginning, middle and end.

2.6.7 Transactional (or persuasive) writing

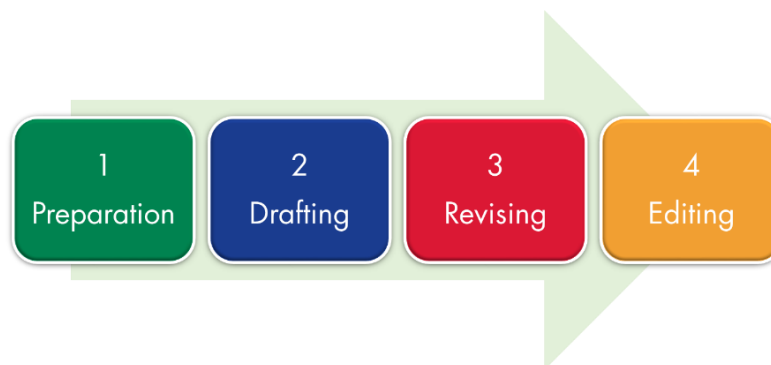


Transactional writing is writing that is prepared to get things done, to inform or **persuade** a particular audience to understand or do something.

In a persuasive text, the writer uses words to convince the reader that the writer's opinion is correct. Persuasive writing may involve convincing the reader to perform an action, or it may simply consist of an argument or several arguments to state the writer’s point of view. Persuasive text may therefore be seen as a text that offers and supports the writer’s opinion.


Persuasive text is often used for advertising copy, which is written in an attempt to get consumers to purchase specific products or to state the writer’s opinion on an issue such as protecting the environment.

You may follow the 4-step process for writing persuasive texts. The four steps are:



Preparation	<p>During the preparation step:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Be clear on the position you will take, i.e. the side of the argument. • Consider the audience — are they undecided or inclined to favour an opposing position? • Do the required research to collect evidence to support your argument. You may, for example: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Consult written sources in a library. Read and take notes. ▪ Speak to experts on the topic, such as environmental pollution. ▪ Collect information on opposing views as well; effective persuasive text does not only prove the argument but also disproves opposing views. • Identify the most convincing evidence. • Outline and structure the document. An effective persuasive text has the following structure: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Introduction <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ The introductory paragraph should grab the readers’ attention.
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	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ The introduction should also give an overview of the document. ○ The position to be argued should be clearly stated. ▪ Body paragraphs <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Body paragraphs should focus on evidence that supports your argument. ○ Each paragraph should have only one piece of evidence. ○ Supporting detail should be given in each paragraph. Supporting detail may be statistics, quotes by experts, etc. ▪ Conclusion <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ The conclusion should reinforce your argument.
Drafting	<p>The following suggestions may help you in drafting the persuasive text:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The introductory paragraph should grab the attention with, for example, an unusual statistic, a question, quotation or emphatic statement such as <i>‘Driving while using a cell phone is the equivalent of driving drunk.’</i> (www.time4writing.com) • Every paragraph should cover one point in the argument and each point should be supported by facts, statistics, real-life examples or quotes. • Use the concluding paragraph to summarise the most important evidence and ask or encourage the reader to take action.
Revising	<p>You should review, modify and reorganise your document to improve it.</p> <p>Consider the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does the introduction grab the attention? • Does the text represent a firm point of view? • Is the point of view supported by facts, examples and statistics? • Does every paragraph contain compelling evidence to support its main idea? • Does the conclusion urge the reader to take action?
Editing	<p>The text should be edited to identify areas for improvement in structure, grammar and spelling,</p>

	<p>Activity 12: Persuasive text</p> <p>Please complete this activity in your Portfolio guide.</p> <p>Draw up a framework for an article in the local newspaper to state your opinion on an issue about which you feel strongly.</p>
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2.6.8 Business letters

A letter is a form of correspondence between the writer and the reader – its purpose is to convey a message.

Business letters can be written for different purposes.

Tips for writing different types of letters

Type of letter	Tips
To request information on products or materials	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Get to the point. Tell the reader exactly what type of information you need and politely ask him/her to send it to you. • Provide a brief explanation as to why you need this information. For example: You are compiling a database of suppliers and you would like to have information on product range and product specifications. • Keep the request brief. • Comments showing confidence in the reader or satisfaction with products may be helpful. • Thank the reader. Be sure to provide your contact information (complete address, telephone number, and e-mail address).
To request a testimonial or endorsement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use persuasive language to encourage the customer to give you the endorsement or testimonial. • Let the reader know that you have selected him or her for a specific reason and make it easy for him or her to respond positively. • Thank the customer afterwards with a short thank-you letter.
To request authorisation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This letter is usually a follow-up on a conversation in which you were given authority to do something, but you lack written proof of that authority. • The person who gave you authority clearly has confidence in you, so your task is either to 1) request written confirmation or 2) inform the reader that your letter serves as confirmation. • If you need to show the authorisation to a third party, use option 1 above, i.e. request written confirmation.
To request a credit account	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use a confident and formal tone. • Be specific about why you want a credit account and why you are a good credit risk.
To request a discount	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • You will increase the probability of having your request honoured if you state your reason directly and clearly. • Be assertive; not aggressive or overbearing.

<p>To request a correction on an account</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Write this letter as soon as you detect an error. • Using a courteous tone, give as much detail as possible, including dates and amounts of transactions. • To avoid delays include photocopies (do not send originals) of all relevant receipts, invoices, and cancelled cheques.
<p>To inform a customer about incorrect payment and request the balance</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This brief but important letter tells your customer about the error and suggests a way that he or she can correct it. • Remember, the customer has most likely made an honest mistake, and so you must write the letter as if that were the case.
<p>To request a quote or an estimate</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If the anticipated contract is relatively small, state the requirements in the body of a letter. If you expect the contract to be extensive, write a cover letter to accompany your complete list of needs or requirements. • Regardless of the size of your anticipated contract, describe in precise detail everything that will be involved in your total cost: all materials, specifications, quantities, types, colours, and model numbers. To ensure that you do not overlook anything, use the eventual contract as your guide in writing the letter.
<p>To answer a request for information on a product</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regardless of whether you expect business from the enquirer or not, you should respond to the request. • Either answer the question in your own words, or refer to information you are enclosing in your letter.
<p>To complain about poor service or faulty products and materials</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Omit irrelevant details and use firm but respectful language. • Communicate facts more than emotions. • If this letter does not bring action, assume a stronger but still credible tone in the next one. • Send only photocopies of receipts and other documents, and retain all original records. • State the name of the product, the model number, when and where you purchased it. • Report the history of all the problems you've had with the product that you purchased. • Explain what you need and exactly how you expect your complaint to be resolved. • Express confidence that your complaint letter will be addressed promptly and the problem settled satisfactorily. • Include your mailing address, cell phone number, and email address in your complaint letter.
<p>To decline a request for credit</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A letter declining a request for credit, either from a business or a private customer, should retain the goodwill of the reader.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In most cases, your refusal should leave the door open to future applications from the same party.
<p>To respond to a complaint but you need more information</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> When you don't have sufficient information to respond to the complaint immediately, ask the customer for more information or – depending on the situation – inform the customer that you are collecting more information from another source before responding – it shows to the customer that you take the complaint seriously.

The five C’s of letter-writing



- **Courtesy:** Write courteously.

People expect to be treated with courtesy. Be courteous irrespective of whether you are replying to an enquiry, replying to a complaint or making a complaint, etc. There is no excuse for writing discourteous letters.

- **Conciseness:** Write concisely.

The letter must be complete but still as concise as possible. Someone once suggested that a letter-writer imagines that he/she is paying for every word like for old-time telegrams.

- **Completeness:** The letter must be complete.

The letter must contain all the information necessary for its intended purpose. Make sure that all the relevant facts have been gathered and included.

- **Correctness.** The letter must be correct.

Make sure that the letter is based on correct and accurate facts and figures. Do not use words and phrases such as:

- ‘I **believe** it is right.’
- ‘I **think** that is what we agreed.’
- ‘I am **almost sure** that I did reply.’
- ‘I **have a feeling** that we did receive the cheque.’
- ‘We called **three or four times...**’
- ‘The report was sent **about** six weeks ago.’

- **Clarity.** The letter must be clear.

Consider the following:

- ‘When he discussed the matter with the managing director he told him that more facts were needed.’ – Who told whom?
- ‘The cost is comparatively low.’ – Compared to what?



Activity 13: Business letter

Please complete this activity in your Portfolio guide.

Choose one of the following topics and write an appropriate business letter:

1. A customer wrote a letter to complain that a kettle he bought from your store is not of the expected quality. He did not mention the brand he bought and he also did not indicate why he is not satisfied.
2. You are planning a brochure to market your store. Write a letter to a very happy customer to ask for a testimonial about customer service at the store.

2.6.9 Electronic texts

E-mail is the most common form of electronic texts.

E-mail is intended to be a quick means of communication. It is important to maintain e-mail etiquette.

Follow the guidelines for e-mail etiquette:

- **Be concise and to the point.**

Do not make an e-mail longer than it needs to be. Remember that reading an e-mail is harder than reading printed communications.



- **Use proper spelling, grammar and punctuation.**

This is not only important because improper spelling, grammar and punctuation give a bad impression of your organisation; it is also important for conveying the message properly.

- **Answer promptly.** With the possibility of getting an immediate answer, many people expect to get a response within minutes. That is often the most important reason why people use electronic communication — they want a fast response.

People send an e-mail because they wish to receive a quick response. Therefore, each e-mail should be replied to preferably within the same working day or at most within 24 hours. If the email - or the matter that the email is about - is complicated, send an email saying that you have received it and that you will get back to the writer.

- **Do not attach unnecessary files.**

Large attachments you can annoy people. Wherever possible compress attachments and only send attachments when they are productive. Also make sure that you have a good virus scanner in place since other people will not be very happy if you send them documents with viruses.

- **Use proper structure and layout.**

Structure and layout are very important for e-mail messages because reading from a screen is more difficult than reading from paper. Use short paragraphs and blank lines between each paragraph.

- **Do not overuse the high priority option.**

If you overuse the high priority option, it will lose its function when you really need it.

- **Do not write in CAPITALS.**

IF YOU WRITE IN CAPITALS IT SEEMS AS IF YOU ARE SHOUTING. This can be highly annoying and might trigger an unwanted response in the form of a flame mail.

- **Do not leave out the message thread.**

When you reply to an email, include the original mail in your reply to make easier for the recipient to reply by having all the information available.

- **Read the email before you send it.**

Reading your email through the eyes of the recipient will help you send a more effective message.

- **Do not request delivery and read receipts.**

This often annoys the recipient before he or she has even read the message. It is better to ask the recipient to let you know if the email was received.

- **Use a meaningful subject.**

Use a subject that is meaningful to the recipient as well as yourself to make it easier to find it later.

- **Avoid long sentences.**

Keep sentences to a maximum of 15 to 20 words. Email is meant to be a quick medium and therefore requires a different kind of writing than letters. Take care not to send emails that are too long.



2.6.10 Multimedia presentations

Multimedia presentations can take the form of a slide show (PowerPoint) or a video.

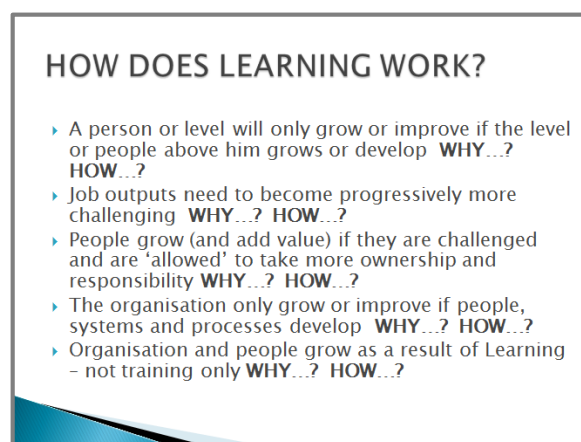
Slide shows are the most common form of multimedia presentations in business.

Criteria for effective slides

Effective slides meet the following criteria:

- The heading summarises the key concept for the audience.
- Visuals are selected to enhance the message or to make the message more impactful.
- Visuals are used in context of the audience.
- Animations are used sparingly.
- Text is limited.
- Colour is carefully used for effect.
- Use diagrams instead of bullet points where possible.

Slide with too much text and little visual interest:



Steps for planning and organising the content

- Decide on the purpose of the presentation – information, persuasion, training, orientation, entertainment/edutainment and/or advice.
- Formulate specific objectives – the outcomes that your presentation will attempt to achieve.
- Brainstorm/generate main and sub-ideas.
- Conduct research and tap into expertise/intellectual capital.
- Spell out the benefits of the presentation to the audience (How will it help them?).
- Structure the content and develop materials/aids.
- Develop a powerful and captivating introduction.
- Develop a conclusion or call to action.

Guidelines for effective slide shows

To get the audience interested and involved, include effective visual aids. An oral presentation that incorporates visual aids is far more likely to be understood and retained than one lacking enhancement. Remember that presentation slides summarise; they do not tell the whole story— that is the job of the presenter. Slides are not a script that the presenter reads to the audience; your slides should provide an aid to the audience as they hear you present your ideas.



- Use the same font size and style for similar headings.
- Use the layout provided in the PowerPoint template for your title page and for all slides.
- Apply the *Rule of Seven* for readability: Use no more than
 - seven words on a line;
 - seven total lines; and
 - 49 total words.
- Keep bullet points to no more than five levels.
- Use a font that is easy to read, for example, Arial and Arial Black.
- Limit the use dynamic effects such as fades, zoom, etc.

(Source: Adapted from <https://cug.org>)



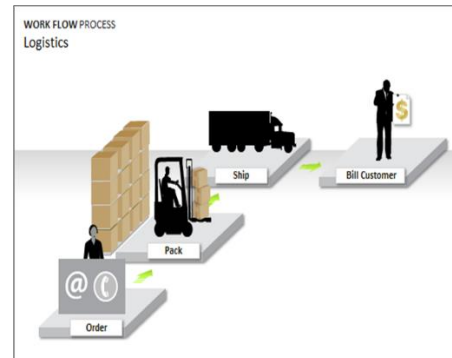
Activity 14: Slides

14.1 Is there anything else, except too much text, in the slide below that is either not effective or that can be improved?

HOW DOES LEARNING WORK?

- ▶ A person or level will only grow or improve if the level or people above him grows or develop **WHY...? HOW...?**
- ▶ Job outputs need to become progressively more challenging **WHY...? HOW...?**
- ▶ People grow (and add value) if they are challenged and are ‘allowed’ to take more ownership and responsibility **WHY...? HOW...?**
- ▶ The organisation only grow or improve if people, systems and processes develop **WHY...? HOW...?**
- ▶ Organisation and people grow as a result of Learning – not training only **WHY...? HOW...?**

1.4.2 Compare the two slides below which convey the same message. Comment on the layout and effectiveness of both. Refer to aspects such as foreground, background, composition, headlines, font size and graphics.



2.7 Style, format and visual presentation

The content, format and structure of written communication must be appropriate to the conventions of the text type, and to the nature and level of the target audience.

2.7.1 Style

Style refers to the writing style, i.e. formal or informal.

For business communication such as business letters, a formal though friendly style is appropriate. For personal letters to friends, an informal, more personal style is more appropriate.

Characteristics of formal and informal writing styles:

Formal	Informal
Avoids informal, conversational phrases and expressions.	May use informal, conversational phrases and expressions.
Avoids contractions such as <i>don't</i> , <i>isn't</i> , etc. and writes out full words.	May use contractions.
Is usually written in third person, for example, <i>Ben</i> , <i>them</i> , <i>one</i> , <i>a person</i> , etc.	May use: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • first person, for example <i>I</i>, <i>me</i>, <i>we</i>; • second person, for example, <i>he</i>, <i>she</i>, etc.; and/or • third person, for example, <i>Mary</i>, <i>Ben</i>, <i>them</i>, <i>they</i>, etc.
Avoids clichés such as <i>loads of</i> , and rather uses specific information such as <i>22 percent</i> .	May use clichés or general terms such as <i>loads of</i> , <i>the majority</i> , etc.
Avoids using abbreviations but rather uses full words such as <i>television</i> , <i>photographs</i> , etc.	May use abbreviations such as <i>TV</i> , <i>photo</i> , etc.
Avoids imperative voice, for example, <i>Remember to</i> but rather uses phrases such as <i>Please refer to</i> .	May use imperative voice.
Serious, business-like tone.	Informal, conversational tone.

(Adapted from <http://www.vcestudyguides.com/formal-and-informal-language>)

2.7.2 Font

Formatted text, or **styled text**, has styling information such as font styles (boldface and italics), font size, colours and graphic elements to enhance the text and convey meaning.

Font is the type of letter style (typeface), the size (e.g. 10 point, 12 point, etc.) and weight (e.g. normal, **boldface** or *italics*).

Examples of font typefaces, sizes and weight:

Typeface	Font size	Weight	Result
Arial	10 point	Normal	The cat jumps over the fence.
Arial	10 point	Boldface	The cat jumps over the fence.
Arial	10 point	Italics	<i>The cat jumps over the fence.</i>
Arial	10 point	Bold Italics	<i>The cat jumps over the fence.</i>
Arial	14 point	Normal	The cat jumps over the fence.
Futura medium	12 point	Normal	The cat jumps over the fence.
Calibri	10 point	Normal	The cat jumps over the fence.

Arial narrow	12 point	Normal	The cat jumps over the fence.
Arial narrow	12 point	Bold	The cat jumps over the fence.
Blackadder	16 point	Normal	<i>The cat jumps over the fence.</i>
Baroque Antique	14 point	Normal	<i>The cat jumps over the fence.</i>
Times New Roman	11 point	Normal	The cat jumps over the fence.
Times New Roman	8 point	Normal	The cat jumps over the fence.
Times New Roman	14 point	Bold	The cat jumps over the fence.
Times New Roman	16 point	Bold	The cat jumps over the fence.

You note from the examples that some fonts look prettier but are not that easy to read. When you produce written communication, you should select a font that is easy to read and use weight to emphasise text or to create headings that stand out from the rest of the text. Headings are usually in a larger font than the contents part of the document and may also be in boldface.

A size of between 10 and 12 is typically acceptable for the main body of text. Headings are typically 1 or 2 points larger than the text. If you use, for example, 10 point text for the main body, your main headings (numbered, for example, 1, 2 and 3) could be 12 point boldface and your second level of headings (numbered 1.1, 1.2, etc.) could be 11 point boldface and third-level headings (numbered, for example, 1.1.1, etc.) could be 10 point boldface.

In addition to the font features illustrated above, you may also select alignment that suits the text type and purpose.

Alignment may be left alignment, centre alignment, right alignment or justified. Alignment refers to the positioning of the text in relation to the left margin. Right-aligned is seldom used, except for special effects. Left- and right-alignment are most appropriate for general and business texts. Centre-alignment is not typically used for business or formal documents, because it is not ‘easy on the eye’.

Examples of alignment:

Left alignment (aligned to the left margin)	When you produce written communication, you should select a font that is easy to read and use weight to emphasise text or to create headings that stand out from the rest of the text. Headings are usually in a larger font than the contents part of the document and may also be in boldface.
Centre alignment (in the centre of the left and right margins)	When you produce written communication, you should select a font that is easy to read and use weight to emphasise text or to create headings that stand out from the rest of the text. Headings are usually in a larger font than the contents part of the document and may also be in boldface.

Right alignment (aligned to the right margin)	When you produce written communication, you should select a font that is easy to read and use weight to emphasise text or to create headings that stand out from the rest of the text. Headings are usually in a larger font than the contents part of the document and may also be in boldface.
Justified (aligned to the left and right margins)	When you produce written communication, you should select a font that is easy to read and use weight to emphasise text or to create headings that stand out from the rest of the text. Headings are usually in a larger font than the contents part of the document and may also be in boldface.

2.7.3 Headings and sub-headings

Headings and sub-headings are used to indicate the structure of your document.

Headings and sub-headings:

- Structure longer documents in a more meaningful way by sub-dividing subject matter in such a way that it can be better understood by the reader.
- Identify key ideas and the progression of a document.
- Help in establishing the hierarchy of sections in a long document.
- Make it easier to relocate material later when the reader wants to refer back to specific information.

Headings and subheadings visually represent how information is organised in a document. They also tell the reader what is in each section.

2.7.3.1 Headings

- **Keep headings short.** They give a brief idea of what the section of the document is about.
- **Make them parallel.** Headings should use a consistent style, for example, if you are not using ‘The’ in front of all headlines, don’t use it in front of any.
- **Only use headings if you have more than 1 heading per level.**

2.7.3.2 Sub-headings

- **Use explanatory sub-headings.** Sub-headings can be slightly longer than headings since they are expanding on the heading.
- **Use them like a roadmap.** Readers should be able to skim sub-headings to get an idea of the layout of the content.
- **Make them smaller than headings.** Headings and sub-headings are used to visually convey importance. Subheadings should be visually smaller than headings and preceding levels of sub-headings.

2.7.3.3 General tips and suggestions

- **Do not overdo it.** Not every paragraph needs a sub-heading.
- **Do not replace topic sentences.** Headings and sub-headings are used to enhance the content of the document, not replace it.

Example:

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Review of work
 - 2.1 Early studies
 - 2.2 Recent studies
- 3 Research methods
 - 3.1 Survey
 - 3.1.1 People groups
 - 3.1.2 Geographical groups
 - 3.2 Government statistics
- 3** Results

2.7.4 Bullets

When you have lists, use bullets to make the list easier to read.

Follow the guidelines for effective use of bullets:

- Introduce the list with a colon (:).
- Be consistent with the formatting by, for example, starting every bullet with a capital letter (or lower capital). You should also decide whether you will end every bullet with a full stop or not. The choice is yours but you should be consistent.
- Use parallel lists, i.e. start each bullet with the same type of word, for example a verb (Eating; Drinking; Travelling).

2.7.5 Numbering

In some cases, numbering of paragraphs or lists are useful to clearly distinguish points or arguments.



Activity 15: Style, format and visual presentation (119456/SO1/AC2)

15.1 What style would be most appropriate for your report to your manager?

15.2 What font characteristics would be appropriate for the report?

15.3 How will headings and sub-headings contribute to the visual presentation of your proposal?

**Activity 16 (119456/SO1/Range statement)**

What is the main characteristic of each of the following forms of text:

- Narrative
- Discursive
- Reflective
- Argumentative
- Descriptive
- Expository
- Transactional
- Business correspondence
- Electronic texts
- Presentation slides

Looking back

This chapter introduced you to writing for a specific audience, purpose and context.

You learned about different purposes and appropriate communication models.

You also learned about conventions for the various text purposes and appropriate formats.

Chapter 3 deals with grammatical structures and conventions.

Chapter 3: Grammatical structures and conventions

Specific outcome and assessment criteria

US	SO	AC
119456	2. Use grammatical structures and writing/signing conventions to produce coherent and cohesive texts for specific contexts.	1. Clear, well-structured sentences are used.
		2. Clear, well-structured sentences are used.
		3. A variety of sentence structures, lengths and types is employed where appropriate.
		4. Paragraph/chunks of signing conventions are constructed showing awareness of topic.
		5. Punctuation/non-manual features (NMFs) are used appropriately.
		6. Register is chosen to suit audience and purpose.
		7. Link devices are used correctly to write/sign sustained pieces.
		8. Texts are organised and structured to have a clearly defined beginning, middle and end.

Learning outcomes

After completing this chapter, you will be able to:

- Use clear, well-structured sentences.
- Employ a variety of sentence structures, lengths and types.
- Construct paragraphs showing awareness of the topic.
- Use punctuation and non-manual features appropriately.
- Choose a register to suit the audience and purpose of the written communication.
- Use link devices correctly.
- Organise text and structure to have a clearly defined beginning, middle and end.

Overview

Grammatical structures play an important part in producing coherent and cohesive texts for specific contents.

In his chapter you will learn to effectively use sentence types and structure, paragraphs and punctuation. You will also learn about appropriate registers and using link devices. Lastly, you will learn to organise and structure texts to have a clearly defined beginning, middle and end.

3.1 Using appropriate sentence structure, length and type

Well-constructed sentences follow grammatical structures.

Good writing makes use of a variation in sentence type and length to create rhythm and interest to your writing.

3.1.1 Sentence structure

When structuring sentences, you should consider:

- Parts of speech
- Subjects, verbs and objects

3.1.1.1 Parts of speech


The traditional parts of speech (also called word classes) are:


- **Nouns:** Words used to name a person, animal, place or thing. Everything we can see or talk about, is represented by a word which names it. Verbs in sentences can be the subject or object of the sentence. Example: The **tree** is tall.
- **Pronouns:** Can replace a noun, for example, **he, which** and **you**. Pronouns are used to make sentences and paragraphs less cumbersome and less repetitive. A person’s name is, for example, replaced with a pronoun instead of using the name a second time in a sentence or paragraph.
- **Verbs:** Describe an action or occurrence or indicates a state of being. For example:
 - The parrot **ate** an apple.
 - There **were** no scores during the soccer match.
- **Adverbs:** Describe the verb, i.e. it tells the reader more about the verb. Example: ‘John *speaks loudly.*’
- **Adjectives:** Describe, identify or further define a noun or a pronoun. They can be used to describe:
 - Taste, for example: **bitter, tasty, fruity.**
 - Touch, for example: **sharp, breezy, slippery**
 - Sound, for example: **noisy, high-pitched, softly, purring, thundering**

- Size, for example: **chubby, little, tall**
- Shape, for example: **flat, round, square**
- Time, for example: **regular, rapid, brief, daily, speedy**
- Amount, for example: **one, several, many, numerous**
- Emotion, for example: **grumpy, loving, aggressive, angry, ashamed**
- Person or personality, for example: **brainy, ambitious, swanky, curious, uninterested**
- Appearance, for example: **dull, wooden, dirty**
- Prepositions: Link nouns, pronouns and phrases, for example: The book is **on** the table.
- Interjections: Show the emotion if the writer, for example: **Aah! Oops!**

3.1.1.2 Subjects and objects

Subject	<p>The <i>subject of a sentence</i> is the person, place, thing, or idea that is doing or being something. It is usually at the beginning of the sentence (before the verb).</p> <p>Examples:</p> <p>Felix laughed.</p> <p>The dog ate its food.</p> <p>The tree is very tall.</p> <p>The hawk soars.</p> <p>The children play with their toys.</p>
Object	<p>Objects <i>receive</i> the action and usually follow the verb.</p> <p>Examples:</p> <p>The dog ate its food.</p> <p>The children play with their toys.</p> <p>The man is using a laptop.</p> <p>The technician used a screwdriver to remove the old, rusty screws.</p>


	<p>To write well-structured, clear sentences you must know who or what you are writing about (subject) and what you want to say about the subject.</p> <p>The subject is often — but not always — the first part of the sentence, and is followed by the verb. The object follows the verb.</p>
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	<p>Activity 17 (119456/SO2/AC1)</p> <p>Correct the sentence structures.</p>
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3.1.2 Sentence type


There are four types of sentences:

<p>Declarative</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Makes a statement. • Is punctuated with a period (full stop). <p>Example: <i>The dog is barking continuously.</i></p>
<p>Imperative</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is a command or a polite request. • Is punctuated by a period or an exclamation mark (!). <p>Examples: <i>Close the door when you leave.</i> (Command) <i>Please be quiet.</i> (Polite request). <i>Stop it now!</i> (Command)</p>
<p>Explanatory</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expresses great emotion or excitement. • Is punctuated with an exclamation mark. <p>Examples: <i>That was a fantastic score!</i> <i>The house is on fire!</i></p>
<p>Interrogative</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Asks a question. • Is punctuated by a question mark (?). <p>Examples: <i>When did it happen?</i> <i>Where is the grocery store?</i></p>

	<p>Activity 18 (119456/SO2/AC2)</p> <p>Identify the sentence type:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Have you made a decision yet? 2. The girl in the red jacket is lost. 3. The Blue Bulls won the match. 4. Give me a piece of pizza.
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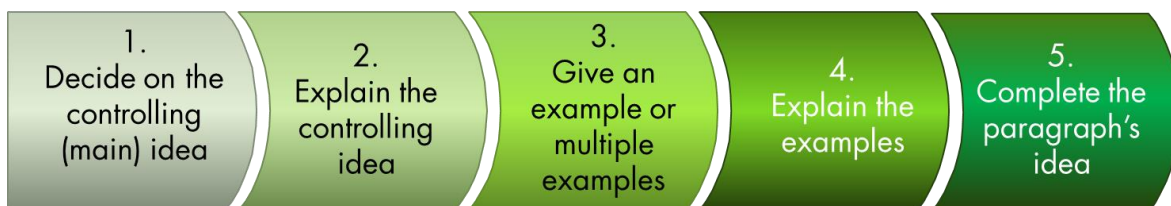
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. Please close the door. 6. Where is my soccer ball? 7. I passed the test with a distinction! 8. Feed the dog immediately.
--	--

3.2 Building unified paragraphs

	<p>A paragraph is a self-contained unit in writing dealing with a particular point or idea. It consists of a group of sentences or a single sentence that forms a unit.</p>
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The decision about what to put into paragraphs begins with the planning, which can effectively be done through brainstorming or mind-mapping. The ideas that are linked in the brainstorming activity or mind-map will often be the ideas contained in a paragraph.

Effective paragraphs are built using five steps:



1. **Decide on the controlling (main) idea.** The controlling idea will form the topic sentence of the paragraph. Sometimes more than one sentence is needed to express the controlling idea of the paragraph. The controlling idea for a paragraph on the topic of ‘*Who are the customers*’ could be ‘*focus on the luxury vehicle market*’.
2. **Explain the controlling idea.** Express the rationale or explain how the reader should interpret the information presented in the topic sentence. Example: ‘*Different people want different things from a motor car.*’
3. **Give an example or multiple examples.** Provide support or evidence for the idea or explanation. The example serves as a representation of the relationship between the idea and the explanation. Example: ‘*These could include reliability, durability, price, safety and availability of spares.*’
4. **Explain the example(s).** Provide an explanation of each example and how it is relevant to the topic sentence stated at the beginning of the paragraph. This explanation shows readers why you chose to use the particular example(s) as evidence to support the focus in the paragraph. Example: ‘*The person who buys an expensive car will expect a greater level of durability than the buyer of an affordable, run-around type of vehicle.*’

5. **Complete the paragraph's idea or transition into the next paragraph.** Tie up the loose ends of the paragraph to the main or controlling idea of the document. Example: *'These factors influence market segmentation of luxury cars.'*

To illustrate how these steps flow into one unified paragraph, the sentences in the examples above are put together:

1. *'The focus will be on the luxury motor vehicle market. Different people want different things from a motor car. These could include reliability, durability, price, safety, availability of spares and ease of repair. Buyers of expensive cars will expect a greater level of durability than buyers of an affordable, run-around type of vehicle. These factors influence market segmentation of luxury cars.'*

In the example given above, the next paragraph will deal with more detail about the distinct market segment for luxury cars.

Every paragraph should be:

1. **Unified.** All the sentences in a single paragraph should be related to a single controlling idea (often expressed in the topic sentence of the paragraph).
2. **Clearly related to the topic of the document.**
3. **Coherent.** The sentences should be arranged in a logical manner and should follow a definite plan for development.
4. **Well-developed.** Every idea discussed in the paragraph should be adequately explained and supported through evidence and details that work together to explain the paragraph's controlling idea.



When to start a new paragraph:


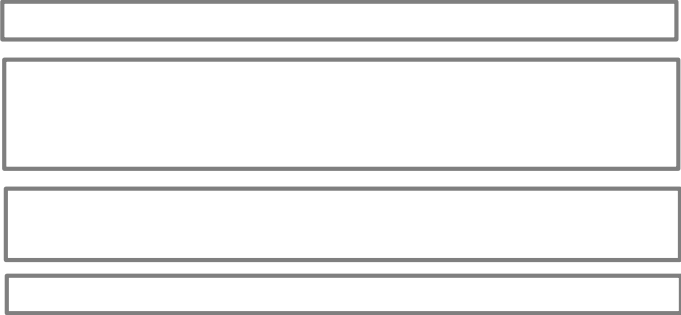
- **Time.** Start a new paragraph for a different time period.
- **Place.** Start a new paragraph for each new place.
- **Topic.** Start a new paragraph for each new topic, idea or subject.
- **Person.** Start a new paragraph for each new speaker) when you are writing a dialogue).


(Source: http://theconnectedhub.org.uk/files/7013/8202/3006/English_lesson_4.pdf)

3.3 Employing a variety of sentence and paragraph lengths

Variation in sentence and paragraph length creates a rhythm that makes reading interesting and therefore gives your reader a sense that the document 'sounds' compelling. Short sentences create a sense of urgency whilst longer sentences create a sense of calmness. You can, for example, create an energetic picture of a sporty motor car, by using 'energetic' words and short sentences. Facts follow each other.

On the other hand, if you want to sketch a picture of a quiet and peaceful holiday resort where guests can spend long, easy days watching the sun set over a calm lake, you may use long sentences that cause people to feel the restfulness.

	<p>HANDY TOOLS</p> <p>When you have prepared your first draft of a document, ‘draw’ your document to evaluate rhythm created through sentence and paragraph length: Count the number of lines in each paragraph and draw a block representing the number of lines of each paragraph on a blank page. This will show you the pattern of your document.</p> <p>For example:</p> <div style="text-align: center;">  </div>
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	<p>Activity 19: Sentence and paragraph length (SO2/AC3; SO2/AC3)</p> <p>Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.</p> <p>19.1 Draft your report to your manager (planned in activity 11).</p> <p>19.2 Review your report. Evaluate the tonal effects (rhythm) created in terms of sentence length by drawing blocks representing paragraph length.</p> <p>19.3 Improve on the draft by changing sentence and paragraph lengths.</p> <p>19.4 Draw the blocks that represent the rhythm created by paragraph length in your revised document. Does it now have sufficient variation to create rhythm?</p>
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3.4 Using punctuation and rhetorical devices appropriately

Good grammar requires that you use punctuation correctly.

Follow the guidelines for correct use of punctuation:

<p>Ending your sentences</p>	<p>End your sentences with a period (full stop), question mark, or exclamation point (exclamation mark or shout mark), depending in the type of sentence, as discussed earlier.</p>
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<p>Semi—colon (;)</p>	<p>The semi-colon (;) can be used to join two independent clauses. For example: <i>‘John drives a Mercedes; Paul drives a Ford.’</i></p> <p>It can also be used as transition, for example: <i>‘He has his own business; in addition, he is studying in the evenings.’</i> <i>‘John is a busy businessman; however, he likes relaxing on a game farm.’</i> <i>‘You should get the brakes fixed; otherwise you might have an accident.’</i> <i>‘You should have the brakes fixed urgently; therefore you need to make an appointment with the workshop.’</i></p>
<p>Colon (:)</p>	<p>The colon (:) is used to introduce a list of items. For example: <i>‘You will experience luxury: leather steering wheel; leather seats; fully-adjustable seats, and a climate control air-conditioner.’</i></p> <p>The colon can also be used to introduce an explanation. For example: <i>‘This is why you will experience luxury: ...’</i></p>
<p>Ellipsis marks (...)</p>	<p>Ellipsis marks (the 3-dot method) can be used to create pauses. For example: <i>‘The lake is flat and calm ... Only a few ducks float over the still waters ... Can you imagine the quietness?’</i> (Note that the correct format of ellipsis marks is a space, followed by three dots and then another space.)</p> <p>Ellipsis marks are also used in transactional writing when quoting from a source and leaving out words in the middle of a sentence.</p>
<p>Rhetorical devices</p>	<p>Rhetorical devices in writing include repetition and questioning.</p> <p>The function of repetition is that if a fact is read several times, the reader might start believing that it is true.</p> <p>Rhetorical questions do not require answers but they make the reader think. In advertising they are often used and then followed by the answer that the advertiser wants the reader to believe.</p> <p>Examples:</p> <p><i>‘You won’t do that, would you?’</i> <i>‘Who knows?’</i> <i>‘Did you hear me?’</i> <i>‘Why not?’</i></p>

	<p>Activity 20: Correcting spelling and punctuation (SO1/AC4)</p> <p>Review and improve the letter. Use a pen or pencil to edit for correct grammar, conciseness, clarity and logical flow.</p>
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The maintenance Manager
 4 th October, 20XX
 Dear Sir,
 I experienced the malfunctioning of the sun roof on my vehicle. The manufacturer refused to pay for repairs blaming interference with the warranty, which i denied. these cars have problems of roof malfunction in europe, the manufacturer refused to clarify this part. the vehicle was repaired by their N1City dealer (i paid for the repairs myself despite having maintenance plan) i have subsequently experienced the same problems and no one is willing to listen to me. i feel that General Motors used myself and other customers to experiment their cars. they have always known about the problems with these cars but failed to recall them for repairs. i have not recieved any joy from them, they do not care about their customers, all they wanted was my hard earned money. i regeret having bought a vehicle from them and would encourage others never to buy from them.
 Thank you

3.5 Using link devices correctly



Link devices are words or phrases that help the writer carry over a thought from one idea, sentence or paragraph to another in a manner that avoids sudden jumps or breaks between ideas.

Link devices can be used for several purposes:

Purpose	Examples of devices
To list/add	And <i>Above all</i> <i>Also</i> <i>To begin with</i> <i>First of all</i> <i>Third</i> <i>Secondly</i> <i>In the first place</i> <i>Furthermore</i> <i>Subsequently</i> <i>Finally</i> <i>Lastly</i> <i>Next</i> <i>Besides</i> <i>In addition</i> <i>As well as</i> <i>Further</i>
To express result	<i>As a result</i> <i>Accordingly</i> <i>Therefore</i>

Purpose	Examples of devices
To express cause or reason	<i>This</i> <i>Because</i> <i>Because of</i> <i>Owing to</i> <i>As a result</i> <i>Seeing that</i> <i>For these reasons</i> <i>On account of</i> <i>Now that</i>
To emphasise	<i>In fact</i> <i>Definitely</i> <i>Extremely</i> <i>Surprisingly</i> <i>Certainly</i> <i>Surely</i> <i>Undoubtedly</i> <i>Absolutely</i> <i>Indeed</i>
To explain or clarify	<i>That is (i.e.)</i> <i>In other words</i> <i>Namely</i> <i>That is to say</i>
To summarise or conclude	<i>Briefly</i> <i>In conclusion</i> <i>All in all</i> <i>To summarise</i> <i>Finally</i> <i>To sum up</i>
To give an example	<i>For example</i> <i>For instance</i> <i>Such as</i> <i>To demonstrate</i> <i>To illustrate</i>



Activity 21: Using linking devices (SO2/AC6)

Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.

Complete the sentences with the correct option of link device.



Activity 22: Using linking devices (SO2/AC6)

Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.

22.1 Circle the linking devices that you used in your report.

	22.2 Did you use the linking devices appropriately, i.e. correct for the purposes?
--	--

Looking back

This chapter dealt with grammatical structures and writing to produce coherent and cohesive texts for a specific context.

You learned how to structure sentences and use a variety of sentence structures, lengths and types in your writing.

You also learned how to build coherent paragraphs.

You further learned how to use punctuation correctly.

Then you learned about the correct use of link devices.

Lastly, you learned how to organise text to have a clearly defined beginning, middle and end.

In Chapter 4 you will learn about adapting language to suit the context, adapting inappropriate language and simplifying complex wording or phrases.

Chapter 4: Adapting language to suit the context

Specific outcome and assessment criteria

Unit standard	Specific outcome	Assessment criteria
119456	3. Adapt language to suit context. Range: Socio-cultural, inclusivity, human rights, technical/workplace, environmental contexts.	1. Inappropriate language is identified and adapted. Range: Excessive use of jargon, insensitive choice of words/signs, (gender; rank; hierarchies in familiar settings or organisations; family; sports; wealth) offensive or incorrect register. 2. Complex wording/signing of ideas is simplified where necessary.

Learning outcomes

After completing this chapter, you will be able to:

- Identify and adapt inappropriate language
- Simply complex wording.

Overview

Language in written communication should be appropriate to the context, i.e. it should be considerate about social-cultural sensitivities, inclusivity, human rights and technical or workplace environment.

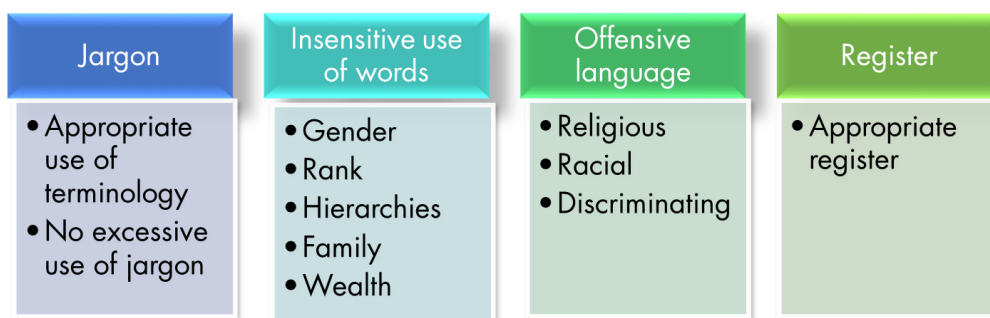
To ensure that the language in text suits the context, you should:

- Identify and adapt inappropriate language such as excessive use of jargon, insensitive choice of words, and offensive or incorrect register.
- Simplify wording where necessary.

4.1 Identifying and adapting inappropriate language


Apart from your decision to use formal or informal language, depending on the context of the written communication, you should also check your document and eliminate inappropriate language.

Check the following:



Jargon	<p>Jargon is a specific form of language used by people to communicate and help others understand what they are saying.</p> <p>However, excessive use of jargon is inappropriate, unless you are preparing a technical document where it is necessary to use the correct terminology to ensure clarity and prevent misunderstanding.</p> <p>You should not use technical jargon to posture, i.e. to try and impress the reader.</p> <p>Example:</p> <p><i>Our new website maximises interaction and efficiencies for our end users.</i></p> <p>Rather write: <i>Our new website is easier for customers to use.</i></p>
Insensitive use of words	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Check your writing and eliminate insensitive use of words such as: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sexist words (gender-related) such as <i>man</i> (rather use <i>a person</i>), <i>businessman</i> (rather use <i>businessperson</i>), <i>chairman</i> (rather use <i>businessperson</i>) Disability-insensitive words. Your language should put people first, not their disability for example: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Person with disabilities</i> rather than <i>disabled person</i> <i>Person with mental illness</i>, rather than <i>mentally ill person</i> <i>Person with physical handicaps</i>, rather than <i>handicapped person</i> Check that you address people (for example, at the beginning of a speech) in the order of rank or hierarchy – most important first. Do not make reference in your business communications to your family. Do not make reference to wealth (unless the topic of the document is about wealth).
Offensive language	<p>Offensive language includes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Swear words Words or phrases that refer to religion in a derogatory or insulting manner

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Racial terms or statements • Discriminating words or terms, for example, exclusive words and language as discussed earlier
Register	Register was discussed earlier. You should check that you have used an appropriate register for the type of written communication.



Activity 23: Inappropriate language (119456/SO3/AC1)

Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.

Circle or highlight inappropriate language. Then rewrite the sentences.

1. My grandparents' days consist of waiting by the window for someone to come up the walk – whether friend, mailman, or salesman.
2. No matter how busy he is, a pilot should take time to thank the stewardesses at the end of every flight.
3. The study included 32 asthmatics and 30 diabetics.
4. The emergency department must be manned at all times.
5. I earned one million Rand this year.

4.2 Simplifying complex words

‘Readers are not impressed by the use of complex words; they’re frustrated by them.’
 (<http://www.prdaily.com>)

It is very seldom that a complex word is necessary for a precise description. In most cases, complex words can be replaced with simple words.

Below is a list of complex words and simpler alternatives that can be used.

Complex word or phrase	Simpler alternative(s)
Advantageous	Helpful
Commence	Begin, start
Disseminate	Send
Facilitate	Help
Implement	Carry out
Regarding	About
Subsequently	Later, after

Complex word or phrase	Simpler alternative(s)
Accompany	Go with
Anticipate	Expect
Attain targets	Meet targets
Close proximity	Near
Depart	Leave
Discontinue	Stop
Endeavour	Try
Frequently	Often
Identical	The same
Indicate	Show, explain
Modify	Change
Observe	See, watch
Possess	Have, own
Provide	Give
Sufficient	Enough
With reference to	About
Witnessed	Saw



Activity 24: Simplify complex words (119456/SO3/AC2)

Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.

Simplify the sentences by replacing complex words with simpler alternatives.

1. We will provide you with all the materials you will need.
2. I witnessed how a man grabbed the old lady’s handbag.
3. Will you please indicate how the store will solve this problem?
4. I will endeavour to have the parcel ready by 12 o’ clock.
5. My grandmother visited us frequently.
6. The features of these two kettles are identical.
7. Do you possess a television?
8. The next bus departs at seven o’clock.



Activity 25: Adapt inappropriate language and simplify complex words (119456/SO3/AC1; SO3/AC2)

Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.

Read through your report. Adapt inappropriate language and simplify complex words or phrases.

Looking back

This chapter dealt with adapting language to suit the context.

You learned to identify and adapt inappropriate language.

You also learned to identify and simplify complex words and phrases.

Chapter 5 deals with editing and re-drafting writing.

Chapter 5: Editing and re-drafting writing

Specific outcome and assessment criteria

119456	4. Draft and edit own writing.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Planning, drafting, editing and redrafting improve the suitability of the intended purpose and audience. 2. Cohesive devices to link parts of texts with other parts and to link ideas are checked and adapted to promote overall coherence of the text. 3. Major grammatical errors are identified and changes improve structure and readability/viewability of text. 4. Spelling/handshape, punctuation/non-manual features (NMFs), register, sentence and paragraph structure are checked and corrected where necessary, and the selection of vocabulary is appropriate to content. 5. Points of view, where expressed, are supported with a simple range of reasons and facts. 6. Sources used in writing/signing are acknowledged and accurately recorded in format appropriate to the task or learning activity.
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Learning outcomes

After completing this chapter, you will be able to:

- Plan, draft, edit and redraft to improve the suitability of the intended purpose and audience.
- Check and adapt cohesive devices to link parts of texts with other parts and to link ideas to promote overall coherence of the text.
- Identify major grammatical and correct errors to improve structure and readability/viewability of text.
- Check and correct spelling/handshape, punctuation/non-manual features (NMFs), register, sentence and paragraph structure where necessary, and the selection of vocabulary is appropriate to content.

- Points of view, where expressed, are supported with a simple range of reasons and facts.
- Sources used in writing/signing are acknowledged and accurately recorded in format appropriate to the task or learning activity.

5.1 Improving the suitability of text

To improve the suitability of your text, you should edit your first and later drafts to ensure the text is suitable for the intended purpose and audience.

The aspects you should check and edit include:

- The use of cohesive (link) devices to link parts of texts with other parts
- Grammatical errors
- Spelling, register, sentence and paragraph structure
- Points of view supported by reasons and facts
- Acknowledgement of resources used

The first four aspects listed above were discussed in previous chapters.

Resources that you used during research should be accurately recorded and acknowledged.

5.2 Re-drafting

Often, when you review and edit the draft, you will find that you need to restructure the text, for example, to improve the introduction to grab attention, or to change the sequence of the main points, or to change the register, etc. You will re-draft the document and repeat the checking and improving until you are satisfied that the text is suitable for the intended purpose and audience and that it is well structured to achieve the objectives of the communication.

5.3 Acknowledging resources

You should acknowledge resources such as books, articles and Internet information used while preparing your written communication.



The two most common ways of acknowledging resources within text are:

- Indicating the source in brackets after the text, for example: (Bloom, 2013, p. 102)
- Using footnotes.

Both methods briefly indicate the source, which is then fully referenced in the Bibliography at the end of the text.



Refer to the Bibliography at the end of this Learner’s Guide for an effective manner for referencing resources in a Bibliography. This is but one way of doing it. Some authors prefer giving a list of references at the end of each chapter.



Make sure that you are not guilty of plagiarism.

Plagiarism is the wrongful appropriation of another author’s language, thoughts, ideas, or expressions, and presenting of them as your own work.

Plagiarism is seen as dishonesty. If you plagiarise in academic work, i.e. when attending a learning programme, and you are found guilty of plagiarism, you will be expelled from the learning organisation.

Looking back

Chapter 5 listed the aspects that you should edit to ensure the suitability of the text for the intended purpose and audience. You also learned to acknowledge resources.

Chapter 6 deals with oral communication.

Chapter 6: Oral communication

Specific outcomes and assessment criteria

Unit standard	Specific outcome	Assessment criteria
US 119454	1. Use a variety of speaking and listening/signing strategies to maintain communication.	1. Questions to obtain information and clarify meaning are appropriate to the context, and are used to maintain interaction. Range: Questions must include: who, what, when, where, why and how questions. 2. Interaction is sustained through exchanges with others to clarify understanding, information, ideas and opinions. 3. Intonation (tone)/NMFs, volume/sign size, pace and rhythm, pitch/NMFs, stress, repetition and pacing are used in a manner that supports and conveys meaning. 4. Sustained interactions reflect an ability to discuss a series of events. 5. The main ideas are clearly distinguished during the interactions and are supported by information appropriate to the context and topic of discussion. 6. Interactions are coherent, and conclusions and opinions that are justified by evidence and arguments during the interaction are recognised, then supported or countered. 7. Own speech/signing is corrected or adapted to promote clarity and understanding during the interaction.
	2. Adapt speech/signing to accommodate socio-cultural sensitivities without losing own intention.	1. The effects of combining the spoken/signed word with visual features and body language are explained and used appropriately with reference to purpose, audience and context. 2. Intonation/NMFs is/are used appropriately to support intentions in spoken/signed texts and its impact is explained. 3. The impact on interaction of using appropriate or inappropriate forms of politeness in a -specific context is explained.

		<p>4. Own ideas and opinions are expressed in ways that reflect respect for others and sensitivity to socio-cultural differences and ways of constructing meaning.</p>
	<p>3. Use knowledge of language structures and conventions to shape or decode meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary or constructions.</p>	<p>1. New or borrowed words/signs are identified when listening/viewing, idioms, slang, acronyms and technical terms are identified and used appropriately in speaking/signing.</p> <p>2. New words/signs are explored and meaning constructed from a range of contextual clues in order to extend vocabulary. Range: Contextual clues include: parts of speech/signing; derivatives; compound words; roots, prefixes, suffixes; compound derivatives; etymology; synonym, antonym, homonym; homophone.</p> <p>3. Meaning in speaking/signing is supported by the appropriate use of pause, intonation/NMFs, pace, stress and a variety of sentence structures.</p>
	<p>4. Organise and present information in a focused and coherent manner.</p> <p>Range: Articulation, pronunciation, production of signs, volume, tempo, intonation/NMFs, non-verbal cues, body language, tone, register, volume, sign size and pace, gestures and eye contact in presentation.</p>	<p>1. Speech/signing is organised in a way that makes its meaning and purpose accessible to listeners/audience.</p> <p>2. Style and register suit purpose and audience.</p> <p>3. Information appropriate to purpose, audience and context is identified, located, selected, logically structured and presented. Range: Sources of information include (where available) libraries, manuals, directories, internet, video material, atlases, files, journals, archives, museums, schedules and official documents.</p> <p>4. Illustrative aids used to promote understanding in the communication process are appropriate to the topic, audience and context.</p>

Learning objectives

After completion of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Use a variety of speaking and listening strategies to maintain communication.
- Adapt speech to accommodate socio-cultural sensitivities without losing your own intention.
- Use your knowledge of language structures and conventions to shape or decode the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary or constructions.
- Organise and present information in a focussed and coherent manner.
- Identify and explain how speakers influence audiences.

6.1 Strategies for speaking and listening

A variety of listening and speaking strategies can be used to maintain communication.

6.1.1 Listening

6.1.1.1 The importance of effective listening

In business environment, effective listening is important and you should apply strategies for effective listening, including:

- Asking questions to obtain information and clarify meaning.
- Sustaining interaction with other people through exchanges to clarify understanding, information, ideas and opinions.
- Using intonation (tone), volume, pace and rhythm, stress, repetition and pacing in a manner that supports and conveys meaning.
- Sustaining interactions in a manner that reflects your ability to discuss a series of events.
- Distinguishing main ideas.
- Interacting in a manner that is coherent and justify your opinions and conclusions.
- Adapting your own speech to promote clarity and understanding.

6.1.1.2 Techniques for effective listening

Techniques to assist in effective listening include:

- Face the speaker and make eye contact. Proper body language is important to ensure that you are truly tuned in to the person speaking.
- Keep an open mind, especially if the speaker is stating an opinion that differs from your own.

- Do not interrupt. Not only is it rude; it can disrupt the speaker’s line of thought. It is probable that your question will be answered any way if you listen until the speaker stops talking.
- Pay attention to what is being said; to feelings; facial expressions; gestures; posture and other non-verbal clues such as tone of voice and emphasis.
- Focus on the **meaning** of what is being said.
- Listen with full attention so that you get an accurate picture.

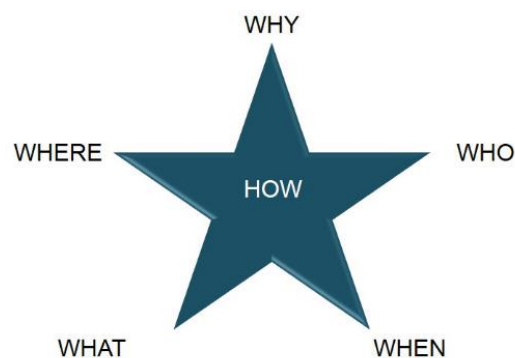


6.1.1.3 Asking questions to obtain information

Suitable questions help you obtain information and clarify the meaning of what the other person has said.

Open questions

Open questions are designed to help you obtain more information. Open questions often start with the words represented on the *question star*:



Open questions:

- Encourage an individual to talk and provide maximum information to identify causes and to work toward solutions.
- Require more than ‘Yes’ or ‘No’ or other one-word responses.

Examples:

‘Could you describe the kind of information you need?’

‘What else can I help you with?’

‘Where will you use ...?’

'Who else will use ...?'

'When do you want this to be delivered?'

'How do you normally ...?'



Closed questions

Closed questions also help you obtain more information and clarify meaning, but they can be answered with 'Yes', 'No' and other one-word or short responses such as 'Yellow', 'Five', 'At home', etc.

Closed questions often begin with words such as:

- 'Are ...'
- 'Will ...'
- 'Where ...'
- 'Do ...'
- 'Can ...'

Examples:

- *'Do you want this before Friday?'*
- *'Can I gift wrap this for you?'*
- *'Have you used a Blackberry before?'*
- *'Are you sure ...?'*
- *'Where in your home will this be used?'*
- *'Will you please call me if ...?'*

6.1.1.4 Clarifying understanding

An effective listener uses a variety of techniques to clarify understanding, information, ideas and opinions. The most common techniques are:

- Expressing lack of understanding and asking for clarification
- Using reflective statements




Expressing lack of understanding and asking for clarification

You may express your lack of understanding and ask for clarification by using phrases such as:

- *'I'm not quite sure I follow you. What do you mean by ...?'*
- *'I don't quite see what you mean. Could you clarify that, please?'*
- *'I'm not sure I got your point. Would you please elaborate?'*
- *'Sorry, I didn't quite hear what you said. Will you please repeat?'*

Using reflective statements

- *‘Let me rephrase your statement/question.’*
- *‘If I understand you correctly, ...’*
- *‘It is an interesting statement/question; however, I am not sure if I understand ...’*

	<p>Activity 26: Clarifying understanding</p> <p>Work with a partner. Take turns to tell each other about your hobby or leisure activities, or an issue that is close to your heart.</p> <p>While listening, use questions and reflective statements to clarify your understanding of what your partner is saying.</p>
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6.1.2 Speaking strategies

6.1.2.1 Conveying meaning through vocal techniques

You can use a variety of techniques to support your communication and convey meaning. Techniques include:

Technique	What it is	How to use it
Intonation	Variation in pitch when speaking.	<p>You should shift the pitch of your voice to convey meaning, for example, using a higher pitch when asking a question.</p> <p>A lower pitch gives your voice a tone of authority.</p>
Volume	How loud or soft speaking is.	<p>You should control the volume of your voice. The volume of your voice affects the listener’s ability to hear and understand you.</p> <p>You should speak loud enough for the listener or audience to clearly hear you. If you speak too loud, your voice may annoy the listeners.</p> <p>Varying volume adds character and interest to your speaking.</p>
Pace and rhythm	Variation in speed.	<p>Pace and rhythm are about the speed at which you are talking.</p> <p>If you speak at the same pace all the time, you sound dull and boring.</p> <p>Changing the pace adds interest.</p> <p>Occasional pauses enhance the pace of your speaking and gives listeners time to reflect on what you have said.</p>
Stress	Emphasising what is being said.	You can emphasise what you say by changing the pitch or volume of your voice.


Technique	What it is	How to use it
Repetition	Repeating what has been said to emphasise it.	

6.1.2.2 Ability to discuss a series of events to sustain interactions

Oral communication is not easy to maintain.

Two ways in which you can maintain flow of oral communication are:

- Using **encouraging words and non-verbal gestures** such as head nods, warm facial expression and maintained eye contact.
- **Discussing a series of topics or events.** To be able to do this, you should have a wide general knowledge and adapt conversations to topics that the other person is interested in. You should also be up-to-date on current news events so that you can comfortably have a conversation on current events.



Activity 27: Ability to sustain interactions

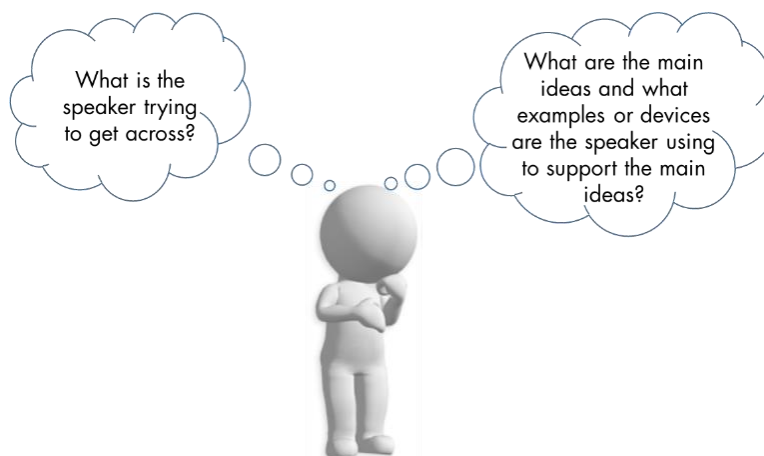
Quick evaluation:

	Tick (✓) if 'Yes'
I read/listen to the news every day	<input type="checkbox"/>
I follow sports events to be updated	<input type="checkbox"/>
I regularly read about topics of general knowledge	<input type="checkbox"/>

6.1.2.3 Distinguishing the main ideas

Effective communication remains focussed. This requires you to distinguish between the main ideas and supporting details during interactions. This will help you to draw conclusions, evaluate, and critically interpret what is being said. It will also help you focussing on the conversation and communicating information that is appropriate to the context and topic of discussion.

Think about the following when listening for main ideas:



6.1.2.4 Recognising, supporting and countering conclusions and opinions

As listener, you should be able to identify conclusions and opinions and then support or counter them.

A **conclusion** is a judgement or decision reached by **reasoning, supported by facts**.

An **opinion** is a **personal view** on a topic.



Activity 28: Distinguishing between conclusions/facts and opinions.

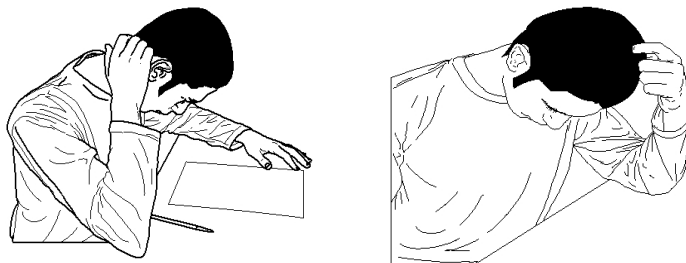
Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.

Work in pairs and decide whether the following statements are conclusions or opinions.

6.1.2.5 Adapting or correcting your own speech for clarity

From time to time it is necessary to correct or adapt your own speech to promote clarity and understanding during an interaction.

You should look out for non-verbal signs of confusion such as scratching the back of the head or neck; a cocked head; tension in the eyebrow.



When noticing gestures that suggest confusion or lack of understanding, you should restate what you have said in other words. You may accompany the restatement with a phrase such as *'What I am trying to say ...'* or *'Let me rephrase ...'*

6.2 Adapting speech to accommodate socio-cultural sensitivities

A speaker should be able to adapt his or her speech to accommodate socio-cultural sensitivities without losing the intention of the speaking.

The aspects you should consider in terms of socio-cultural sensitivities include:

- Appropriate use of body language
- Appropriate use of intonation
- Applying appropriate politeness
- Expressing your own ideas in ways that reflect respect for others

6.2.1 The effects of combining spoken word with visual features and body language

Body language is the non-verbal part of your communication. You should use appropriate and effective body language to create confidence in you and to emphasise your message.

Facial expressions, posture and gestures communicate much more than we can communicate with words. Body language shows how we feel and affects the passion of your message.

Use body language effectively while delivering your presentation by:

- **Paying attention to your standing position.**
 - When you begin, stand at the centre of the room.
 - If you are using a screen, stand to the audience’s left. Because we read from left to right, this position makes it easier for the audience to follow.
 - Face the audience and do not break eye contact — it involves the audience.
- **Projecting a pleasant, friendly look.** Practice beforehand in a mirror.
 - **Using a positive posture.** Do not slouch, lean on the lectern or clutch to it. When not using your hands for gestures, relax them at your sides.
- **Using your hands for gestures** to emphasise the structure of your presentation.
- **Using body language appropriately** with reference to the purpose, audience and context. A formal presentation to academics will, for example, require much more restrained body language and gestures than when you are speaking to a young audience about entertainment.

6.2.2 Appropriate use of intonation

Proper intonation is important for your audience to understand you.

Do not speak too fast; slow down and speak clearly. Do not blend words together too much and make sure that you separate words with a small pause for words that are difficult to pronounce.

When you want to emphasise a point, speak slower and at a lower pitch – it makes more of an impact on the audience as it gives them time to think about what you are saying.

6.2.3 Expressing your own ideas respectfully

The way in which you express your own opinions and ideas should reflect respect for the views of others. Express your own ideas and opinions clearly without criticising different points of view.

You should also be aware about socio-cultural differences so that you do not offend the audience. Some examples are:

- In Western cultures it is not polite to discuss a woman’s age or how much money you are making.
- Some eastern cultures value friendship while Western cultures may place a higher value on freedom and individualism.
- Some cultures place a higher value on religion while other value success and wealth more.

6.2.4 Appropriate and inappropriate forms of politeness

Politeness is about practising good manners, acknowledging and respecting the audience’s culture, self-image and emotions.

Politeness in speech relates to how we choose to speak and how the audience responds to our speech.

Appropriate politeness is about being polite in terms of the audience’s expectations and they would experience your behaviour. For example, some cultures are very spontaneous. If you are not spontaneous, they may consider you as cold and aloof. If the expectations of the audience is that you should be very friendly and spontaneous and you are formal in your approach to them, your behaviour will have a negative impact on their response to you. On the other hand, if the audience expects you to be formal and you are very informal, they may consider you to be rude. This **inappropriate politeness** will also have a negative impact on the interaction.

6.3 Using language structures to decode meaning

You should use your knowledge of language structures and conventions to decode the meaning of unfamiliar words or phrases. You can do this by:

- Identifying new or borrowed words when you are listening to idioms, slang, acronyms and technical terms and using the words appropriately.
- Exploring new words and constructing meaning from contextual clues.

6.3.1 Identifying borrowed words

Borrowed words are usually identified by recognising sounds that are not normally expected in your native language.

Examples of borrowed words in English:

- Braai
- Biltong
- Boerewors
- Kraal
- Rondavel
- Spoor

6.3.2 Exploring new words from contextual clues

From time to time you will hear **new** words – words that you have not heard and used before. Exploring these words will help you grow your vocabulary.

To explore new words and construct meaning from them, you may:

- Determine when and where words are used.
- Look the words up in a dictionary or thesaurus.
- Consider what feelings are initiated by the word.
- Consider how the word can help you understand or express something.
- Use your knowledge of language structures to explore the word, for example:
 - Is it a root word, i.e. it does not have a prefix (addition such as, for example, *pre-* in front) or suffix (i.e. an addition at the end of the word)?
 - Is it a compound word, i.e., a word that is made up of more than one word or a base word and a prefix such as *ex-*; *pre-*; *post-*; etc. or a suffix such as *-ly*? For example, *ex-wife*; *pre-reading*; *orderly*; etc.
 - Is it a derivative, i.e. is it derived from another word? For example, *derivative* is *derived* from *derive*.
 - What is the part of speech (e.g. verb, noun, adjective, pronoun, adverb, preposition)?
 - What is the word’s root?
- What are synonyms (other words with the same or similar meanings)?
- What are antonyms (words with an opposite meaning)?
- Is it a homonym or homophone, i.e. part of a group of words that share the same spelling *and* the same pronunciation but have different meanings, for example *rose* (flower) and *rose* (got up); *carrot* (vegetable) and *carat* (weight of diamond)?



Activity 29: Borrowed words and new words

Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.

29.1 Work in small groups. Find two words that are borrowed into the English language. Explore the words in terms of what they mean and how they are used.

	29.2 Find a word in this Learner’s guide that is new to you personally. Look it up in a dictionary. Discuss with the other members of your group to identify how the word is used.
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6.4 Organising and presenting information in a focussed and coherent manner

Organising and presenting information in a focussed and coherent manner requires appropriate use of articulation (clear expression), pronunciation (accent), volume, tempo (pace), intonation, non-verbal body language, tone, register, volume, gestures and eye contact in your presentation.

Looking back

In this chapter you learned to effectively maintain oral communication through a variety of listening and speaking techniques.

Chapter 7 deals with accessing and using information from texts.

Chapter 7: Access and use information from texts

Specific outcomes and assessment criteria

Unit standard	Specific outcome	Assessment criteria
119463	1. Use a range of reading and/or viewing strategies to make meaning of texts.	<p>1. Reading and/or viewing strategies employed in searching for meaning in texts are flexible and appropriate to the particular text and nature of the search. Range: Skimming, scanning, pre-reading, re-reading, predicting and sifting.</p> <p>2. Questions used are appropriate to the context, the type of information required and/or attempts to clarify meaning. Range: Who, what, when, where, why and how questions.</p> <p>3. Information from texts researched is recorded logically and coherently according to the purpose of the task or learning activity. Range: Cause and effect patterns, summaries, notes, annotations, time-lines, tree diagrams, highlighting, paraphrasing, flow charts, pie charts, bar graphs, Venn diagrams.</p> <p>4. Instructions and directions are read/viewed and interpreted and subsequent explanations are consistent with the intention of the text. Range: Classroom/workplace/laboratory procedures, games, repairing objects, recipes, schedules, forms, maps.</p> <p>5. The structural features of texts are identified and their use in accessing meaning are explored. Range: Title, sub-title, font, size of font, index page, layout, resumé, summary, use of visuals/ bold/ italics/underlining, captions.</p> <p>6. Reference materials are used to clarify meanings of words/signs, concepts, language structures and conventions. Range: Dictionaries, instruction manuals, textbooks, thesauruses, encyclopaedias, the internet.</p> <p>7. The research process is focused, logical and effective.</p>
	2. Identify the main ideas in different text types.	<p>1. The main ideas are identified and distinguished from supporting information.</p>

	<p>Range: Textbooks, magazines, newspapers, brochures, policies, questionnaires, notices, videos.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2. The author's purpose is identified and the identification is justified by reference to the text. 3. Information and/or ideas from the text are presented in a form appropriate to a learning task or activity. Range: Summary (e.g. mind-map, point-form, sub-headings, paragraph form), paraphrase, illustrations, role-play and simulation. 4. Socio-cultural issues in texts are identified and explained with reference to relevant passages or extracts from the text. Range: Idioms, slang, jargon (language specific to a trade, business or industry), proverbs.
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. Read/view and respond to texts for a variety of purposes. Range: Textbooks, magazines, newspapers, brochures, policies, questionnaires, notices, memoranda, signed texts, agendas, application forms, documentaries, novels, photographs, diagrams, blueprints, films, official documents and any other appropriate types. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Different text types are categorised in terms of their intended target audience. 2. The purpose of the text is identified and the identification is justified by reference to the text. 3. Different points of view in texts are identified and observations are justified by reference to the text. 4. Own ideas and/or arguments are supported with a range of reasons and facts relevant to the topic of discussion. 5. The relevance of texts is evaluated and justified in terms of meaning to self and others in peer, community or work group. 6. Implicit and explicit messages in texts are identified and explained with reference to the purpose of the text.
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. Identify and discuss how language structures and features may influence a reader/audience. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The choice of words/signs, language usage, symbols, pictures and tone/sign size and pace is described in terms of how a point of view is shaped or supported. 2. Range: Bias (cultural, religious or peer preferences, misrepresentation, discrimination, racist, sexist, ageist); humour; irony; sarcasm, use of omission and silence, figurative expressions, repetition; hyperbole; generalisations; stereotyping; pictures and captions; typography and grammar. 3. Sentence structures are identified, analysed and related to purpose, audience, and text.

Unit standard	Specific outcome	Assessment criteria
119460	1. Find and use available learning resources. Range: Resource centres, dictionaries, general texts, internet, other learners, videos.	1. Relevant learning resources are identified. 2. Learning resources are used effectively through appropriate selection of information and acknowledgement of sources.
	2. Use learning strategies.	1. Information is summarised and used for learning purposes. 2. Specific techniques are selected and applied appropriately. Range: Mind maps, note taking, memorising, key words, underlining, skimming and scanning. 3. Relevant questions are asked. Range: Checking understanding, clarifying meaning, getting information, asking for help. 4. Texts are read/viewed for detail. 5. Signed/spoken input is listened to/viewed for detail. 6. Learning takes place through communicating with others in groups or as individuals. Range: Facilitators, other learners, colleagues.
	3. Manage occupational learning materials.	2. Layout and presentation of learning materials is understood and used effectively. Range: Index, contents page or glossaries are used effectively. 3. Technical language/ terminology is engaged with, and clarification sought if needed.
	4. Plan and gather relevant information for a given context and purpose	1. Information gathering steps are planned and sequenced appropriately. 2. Information gathering techniques are applied. Range: Gathering information, reading/viewing, interviewing, observing, using appropriate electronic sources. 3. Information is sifted for relevance. 4. Information is classified, categorized and sorted. 5. Scope of information gathered is appropriate for given context and purpose. 6. Conclusions are presented in the appropriate format.

Learning outcomes

After completing this chapter, you will be able to:

- Plan and gather relevant information.
- Use a range of reading and viewing strategies to make meaning out of texts.
- Understand and use layout of learning materials.
- Identify the main idea in different text types.
- Sift information for relevancy.
- Classify, categorise and sort information.
- Read, view and respond to text for a variety of purposes.
- Identify and discuss how language structures and features may influence a reader.

7.1 Making meaning of texts

7.1.1 Reading and viewing strategies

There are different styles of reading for different situations and purposes for reading. The technique that you choose will depend on the purpose for reading. For example, you may be reading for enjoyment, or to gather information, or to complete an assignment. If you are exploring a document to review it, you will probably skim it to get an overview. If you are searching for information, you will probably scan the document for a particular word or phrase. When you need detailed information such as when you are reading a textbook, you will probably make use of a reading technique such as SQ4R (Survey, Question, Read, Record, Recite and Reflect).

Effective and efficient readers learn to use many styles of reading for different purposes.

Technique	Purpose and application
Skimming	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Skimming for global view means that the reader does not read every word from a passage or document or book but rather ‘skims’ the document to quickly identify main areas of text – often to see if a book or an article is of interest. • Done at a speed of about three to four times faster than normal reading. • Often used when there is a large quantity of material to read in a limited time. • Works well for finding dates, names, places and phrases. • Different strategies can be used for skimming: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Reading the first and last paragraphs and using headings, summaries and conclusions. ▪ Reading title, subtitles, headings and illustrations. ▪ Reading the first sentence of every paragraph – effective when you are looking for specific information.
Scanning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Scanning is about getting a general idea of what a passage is about when looking for specific information. • Time is not wasted trying to understand the whole passage – the reader only looks for the information that is needed.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Scanning involves moving the eye quickly down the page searching specific words and phrases. • Often used when looking up a word in a dictionary, a name in a telephone directory or checking to see what is on TV. • The searching purpose with scanning is to find key words or ideas. In most cases the readers know what they are looking for so they concentrate on finding a particular answer. • Strategies for scanning: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Look for organisers used by the author such as numbers, letters, steps, or words such as ‘first’, ‘second’, next, etc. ▪ Look for words that are bold faced, <i>italics</i> or in a different font style, size, or colour. ▪ Look for key ideas in the margin – a technique that authors of textbooks often use.
Pre-reading	<p>Pre-reading is the process of <i>skimming</i> a text to locate key ideas before reading a text from start to finish.</p> <p>Pre-reading typically involves looking at (and thinking about) the title, chapter introductions, chapter summaries, headings and sub-headings, conclusions and study questions.</p> <p>Pre-reading helps you build a big picture before you read the text in detail.</p> <p>Pre-reading involves four steps:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Preview: Taking a quick look at a reading before trying to understand the whole text. • Predict: Looking at clues from what you read, see, or already know to figure out what information you are likely to get from reading the text. • Prior knowledge: Thinking about the knowledge you already have about the topic of the text. • Purpose: Figuring out what the purpose of the text is.
Re-reading	<p>Re-reading helps you re-look the information you have obtained. During re-reading you can re-evaluate the text and your interpretation.</p>
Predicting	<p>Predicting can be used to encourage thinking about what you are going to read.</p> <p>It involves exploring the title, front and back covers, and title page of a book and then using that information to make a prediction about you will likely find when reading the text.</p>
Sifting	<p>It is necessary to sort and sift information so that you keep only information that is relevant.</p> <p>Use the following criteria when sifting information:</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Currency – has the txt been written recently? • Reliability – was the text prepared by a reliable source, i.e. a person or organisation who is an expert on the topic? • Objectivity – was the text written in an unbiased manner? • Accuracy – is the information correct?
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7.1.2 Questioning to clarify meaning

When reading, ask and answer questions to clarify the meaning of the text. Use the words who, what, when, where, why and how.

Formulate questions such as the following and find the answers while reading:

- **What** is the theme of the text, based on the title?
- **What** is the main message?
- **What** is the purpose of the text?
- **How** is the text structured?
- **What** are the main ideas in the text?
- **Where** is the evidence supporting the main ideas?
- **Who** is involved in the text?



Activity 30: Reading strategies and questioning to make meaning out of text

Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.

30.1 Find an article in a magazine or journal.

30.2 Skim the article and find the main areas of the text.

30.3 Predict what you will find in the text. Write down your prediction.

30.4 Prepare questions to help you find the meaning of the text.

30.5 Scan the article to find the key ideas and words.

30.6 Read the article in detail and find evidence to prove or disprove your prediction. Record the evidence you find and explain whether your prediction has been proved or not.

7.1.3 Recording researched information

When accessing text for a purpose, such as research for written communication or for learning purposes, you should record the information you obtained in a logical and coherent manner.

The following techniques can be used to record researched information:

- Cause and effect patterns
- Summaries
- Notes
- Annotation
- Time-lines
- Tree diagrams
- Highlighting
- Paraphrasing
- Flow charts
- Pie charts
- Bar graphs
- Venn diagrams

7.1.3.1 Cause and effect patterns

A cause and effect pattern is used to show the causes and effects of conditions.

Because it demonstrates important relationships between factors, a cause-and-effect pattern is particularly effective when writing a persuasive document in which the writer tries to initiate some action to solve a problem.

There are two variations to this pattern:

- Dividing the outline into two major sections comprised of causes and effects respectively; or
- Dividing the outline according to the different causes, with the effects of each cause contained within the larger ‘causes’ section.

If, for example, a writer's stated purpose is to explain the causes of conflict escalation and their effects, he/she could organise the information in one of the following two ways:

Example 1

I. Causes of conflict escalation

1. Expanding the issues
2. Personal attacks

II. Effects of these causes

1. Lose focus on original issue
2. Cycle of defensive responses
3. Win-Lose orientation
4. Negative emotions

Example 2

I. Cause: Expanding the issues

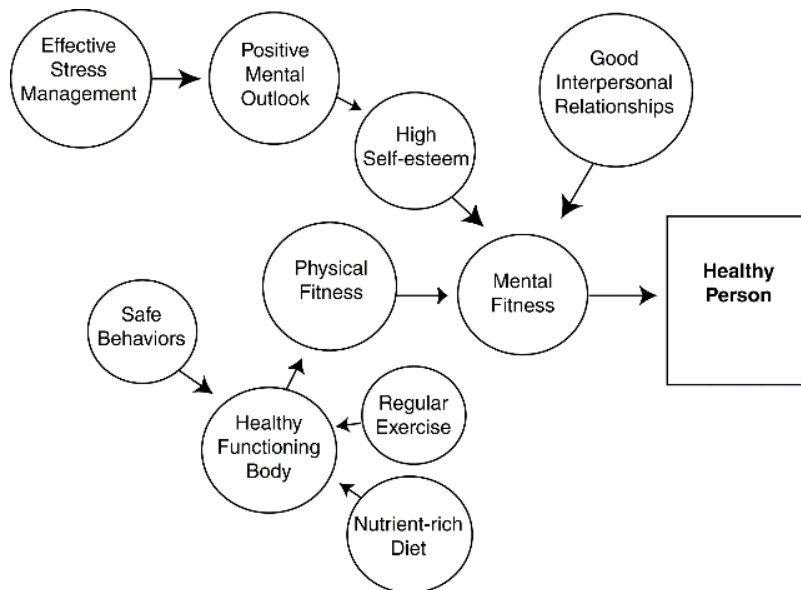
1. Effect: Lose focus on original issues
2. Effect: Cycle of defensive responses

II. Cause: Personal attacks

1. Effect: Negative emotions
2. Effect: Win-Lose orientation

(Source: <http://faculty.washington.edu>)

Example of a cause and effect pattern in diagram format



(Source: www.north.stokes.k12.nc.us)

7.1.3.2 Summaries

A summary is a '**short** and **concise** representation of the main points, ideas, concepts, facts or statements of a text written in your own words. Unlike a paraphrase, which is generally of a similar length to the original text, a summary is much shorter.' (<http://www.dlsweb.rmit.edu.au>)

When you summarise or paraphrase what someone else has said, you should not alter the author's original idea(s).

7.1.3.3 Notes

In spite of a temptation to jump straight into the task of making notes, it is useful to follow a series of careful steps in order to extract the key points from a document or from a chapter of a book, for example.


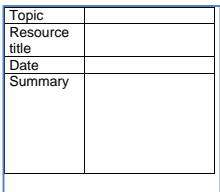
These steps are:


1. **Study the title of the text or the heading of the chapter.** This will provide you with an indication of the main theme of the text.
2. **Read the whole text carefully,** trying to link the information to the title or heading.
3. **Read the document again** for the **meaning** of the individual words and phrases. If necessary, consult a dictionary or thesaurus.
4. **Scan the document again** to pick out the main points of sections and paragraphs and make notes on these in your own words.

It is useful to develop a note-making system that works for you as an individual.

An important aspect of this is to keep a record of sources so that that information can be used for acknowledgement of resources.

There are several possibilities for note-making, including:

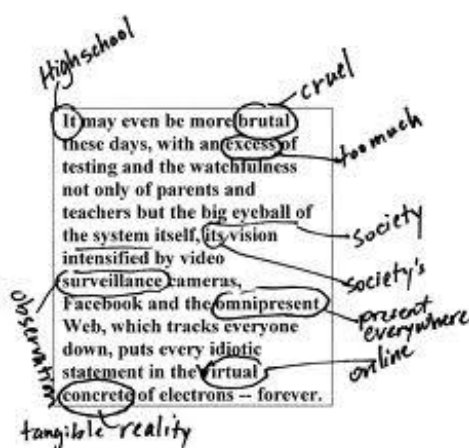
<p>Notes on index cards</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prepare an index card for each source, identifying the title, author, publisher, date, city of publication and other pertinent information such as ‘Second Edition’. • When making up note cards from that resource, use the author’s name in a prominent position such as the top left or top right corner. It is useful to also indicate the year of publication as sometimes one uses more than one source from one author. • Record each point of information on a separate index card. Be sure to include page numbers and to put quotation marks around any direct quotes that you note. • Assign a brief heading to each card to facilitate sorting. • Group cards according to topic.
<p>Hand-written notes on note-making sheets</p> 	<p>Making notes on (printed) note-making sheets can be very helpful, especially in making sure that all the necessary information about references are documented but also because some people find working with sheets in a file is easier than working with index cards.</p> <p>Tips:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Design working sheets that will meet your personal working style and preferences. Some examples are given as Appendices to this Learner’s guide. • Be sure to fill in all the information necessary for citing references. • Summarise information in your own words, in point form, whenever possible. • When quoting directly from the resource, put quotation marks around the direct quote – this will help in making sure later that you avoid plagiarism.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Include page numbers – you might want to refer back to the resource at a later stage.
<p>Word-processed notes on computer</p> 	<p>For a paper-less situation, make notes in the same way as you would for index cards or for a computer-based note-making form.</p>


7.1.3.4 Annotations

An annotation is a note of explanation or a comment added to a text.

Example:



(Source: www.vocabulary.com)

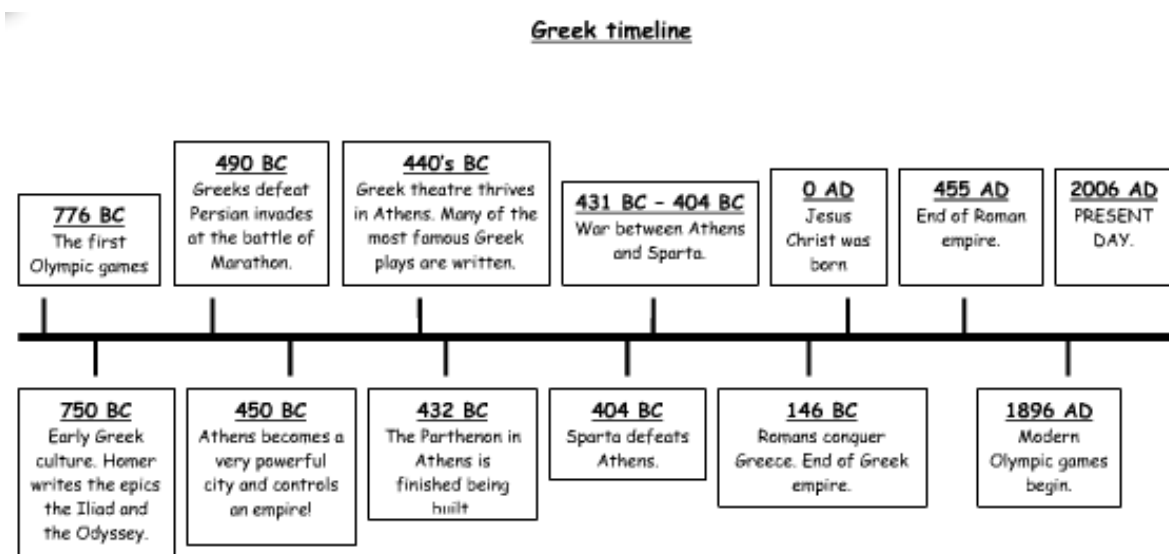
	<p>Activity 31: Cause and effect pattern</p> <p>Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.</p> <p>31.1 Read the article and prepare a cause and effect pattern.</p> <p>31.2 Summarise the article in bullet-point format.</p> <p>31.3 Annotate the article.</p> <p><i>'The poorest people will also have less access to health, education and other services. Problems of hunger, malnutrition and disease afflict the poorest in society. The poorest are also typically marginalized from society and have little representation or voice in public and political debates, making it even harder to escape poverty.'</i></p>
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By contrast, the wealthier you are, the more likely you are to benefit from economic or political policies. The amount the world spends on military, financial bailouts and other areas that benefit the wealthy, compared to the amount spent to address the daily crisis of poverty and related problems are often staggering.’ (www.globalissues.org/issue)


7.1.3.5 Time-lines

A time line is a graphical representation of a chronological sequence of events.

Example of a time-line representing major events in the Greek history:



(Source: <http://www.docstoc.com/docs/10693839/Greek-timeline>)



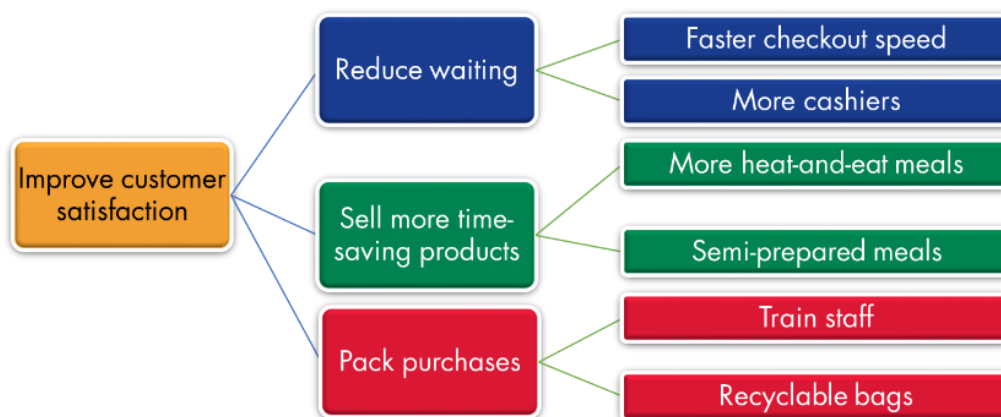
Activity 32: Time-line

Draw a time-line that illustrates the development of HIV into AIDS.

7.1.3.6 Tree diagrams

In a tree diagram, each branch of the tree is supported by limbs, which explode and explain the branch in greater detail. The branches represent main ideas and the limbs supporting ideas or evidence.

Example:



7.1.3.7 Highlighting

The word **highlighting** means to draw attention to a point of interest or something important. Highlighter pens have been developed to help us mark important points in text.

It is useful to use more than one colour pen, to distinguish between main and supporting ideas. One colour is then used for main ideas and a second colour for supporting ideas or evidence.

Example:

- 1. Harry's Bar; Venice, Italy
 Since opening in 1931, Harry's Bar has been frequented by famous people such as Ernest Hemingway, Truman Capote, Noel Coward, Orson Wells, Charlie Chaplin, and Peggy Guggenheim. The bar also claims credit for inventing the Bellini and Carpaccio.
- 2. The Blind Beggar; London, England
 The Blind Beggar in Whitechapel, built in 1894, is known as the site on which The Salvation Army started but became even more notorious when, in 1966, London gangster Ronnie Kray shot rival George Cornell as he sat at the bar.
- 3. White Horse Tavern; New York City, New York
 A favorite of New York's literati set, The White Horse has seen everyone from Jack Kerouac to Norman Mailer pass through its doors but is perhaps best known as being the bar that served the 18 whiskeys said to have killed Dylan Thomas.

(Source: http://thinklab.typepad.com/think_lab/presentation_saavy/)

7.1.3.8 Paraphrasing

A paraphrase is 'when you write published materials in your own words without changing its original meaning. It is usually about the same length as the original, as opposed to a summary which is usually

much shorter.’ (<http://www.dlsweb.rmit.edu.au>) The structure and vocabulary of the paraphrase should not be too similar to the original text.

Paraphrase text by:

- ◆ changing the structure of the paragraph; **and**
- ◆ changing the words.

First write down the main ideas and concepts after reading a paragraph but do not use full sentences. Then put the text to one side and write the paraphrase from your own memory, using the main phrases that you noted down.

RMIT University suggests the following steps for **changing words**: (<http://www.dlsweb.rmit.edu.au>)

1. Read the sentence to be paraphrased a number of times so that you can understand the meaning of the text. Do not attempt to paraphrase if you do not understand the text.
2. Circle the key words that the text is about, in other words those words that cannot be left out without changing the meaning of the original text.
3. Underline the important words that **can** be changed without changing the meaning of the original text.
4. Find alternative words for the underlined words. You may use a thesaurus to help in finding alternative words but make sure to choose words with the same meaning.


Example: The steps of circling key words and underlining words that can be replaced with alternative words are applied to a paragraph from **Business Management for Entrepreneurs**: (see Bibliography)

The larger a company's target market, usually the more advantageous it is for the manufacturer and the intermediaries. In the total consumer market there are many different groups. The members of each of these groups (also called market segments), have more or less similar characteristics, needs and product preferences. After careful consideration, the entrepreneur selects from many different market segments (or markets). The market offering is often changed in some way or another to meet the preferences of different target markets. It seldom happens that an organisation has only one single target market.

advantageous = beneficial
 intermediaries = agents, go-betweeners
 different = diverse
 similar = alike, comparable, related
 characteristics = features
 selects = chooses, picks, opts for
 preferences = first choices
 seldom = infrequently
 organisation = establishment

This paragraph can now be paraphrased as follows:




‘It is commonly more beneficial when a manufacturer has a larger target market. A business seldom has only one single group (called a market segment) to sell its products to; the consumer market consists of diverse groups with related or comparable features, needs and preferences. The entrepreneur carefully considers the market segments and selects from them those that will be focused on, often changing the offering to reach different market segments.’

	<p>Activity 33: Highlighting, paraphrasing and tree diagram</p> <p>Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.</p> <p>Read the text. Then:</p> <p>33.1 Highlight the key points.</p> <p>33.2 Paraphrase the first paragraph.</p> <p>33.3 Draw a tree diagram to illustrate the key ideas and supporting ideas.</p>
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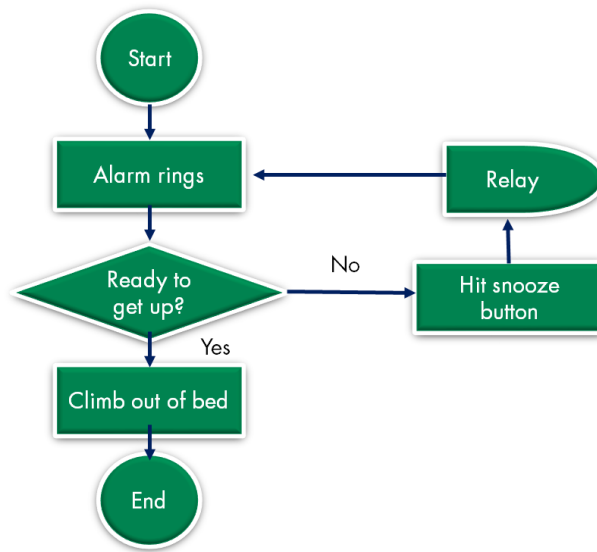
7.1.3.9 Flow charts

A **flowchart** is a diagram that represents a process, showing the steps as boxes of various shapes, and their order, by connecting them with arrows.

The convention for the use of shapes is:

	<p>Start and end of the process</p>
	<p>Step or action</p>
	<p>Decision (yes or no, etc.)</p>

Example:



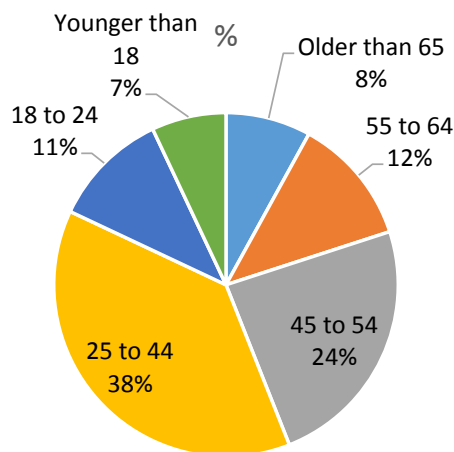
(Source: Adapted from: www.edrawsoft.com)

7.1.3.10 Pie charts

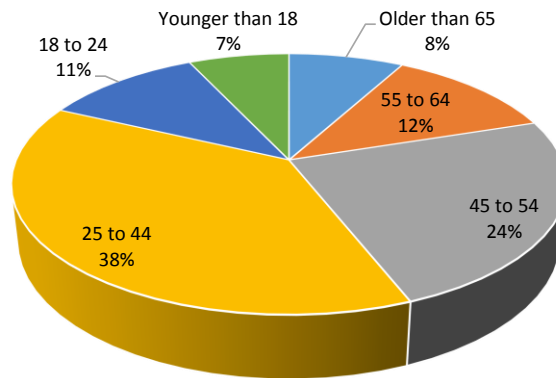
A **pie chart** is a circular chart divided into sectors. The sectors illustrate illustrating numerical proportion of the variables. The central angle of each sector is proportional to the quantity it represents.

Pie charts can be presented in various styles, especially if you use software such as Microsoft Excel.

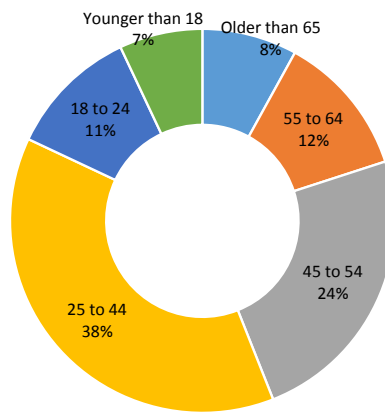
Examples:



Age groups in percentages of the population



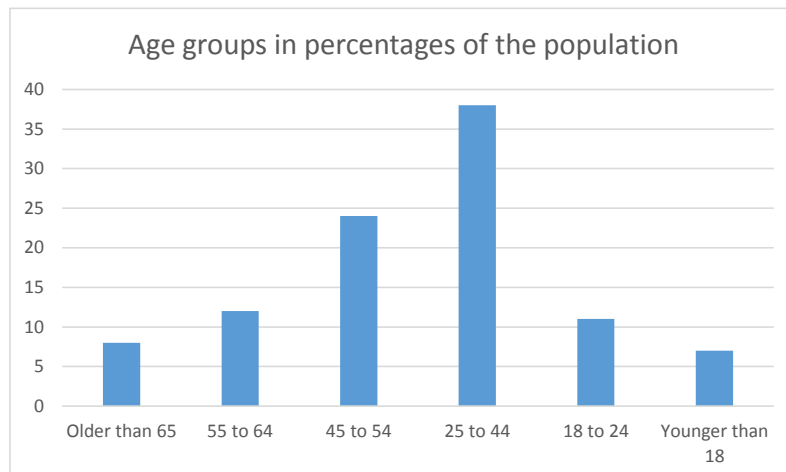
Age groups in percentages of the population



7.1.3.11 Bar charts

A **bar graph** or **bar chart** is a chart that uses either horizontal or vertical bars to show comparisons among categories.

Example:

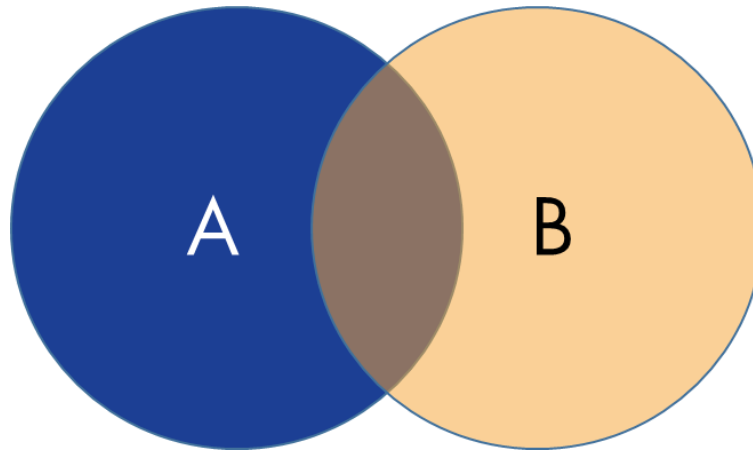


7.1.3.12 Venn diagrams

A Venn diagram shows all possible logical relations between sets of data.

This example involves two sets of data, A and B, represented here as coloured circles.

The orange circle, set A, represents all two-legged living creatures. The blue circle, set B, represents the living creatures that can fly. Living creatures that both can fly *and* have two legs—for example, parrots—are in both sets, so they correspond to points in the area where the blue and orange circles overlap. That area contains all such and only such living creatures. (en.wikipedia.org)



7.1.3.13 Mindmap

A mindmap is a diagram used to visually outline information. Every main branch represents a main idea and smaller branches represent secondary ideas.

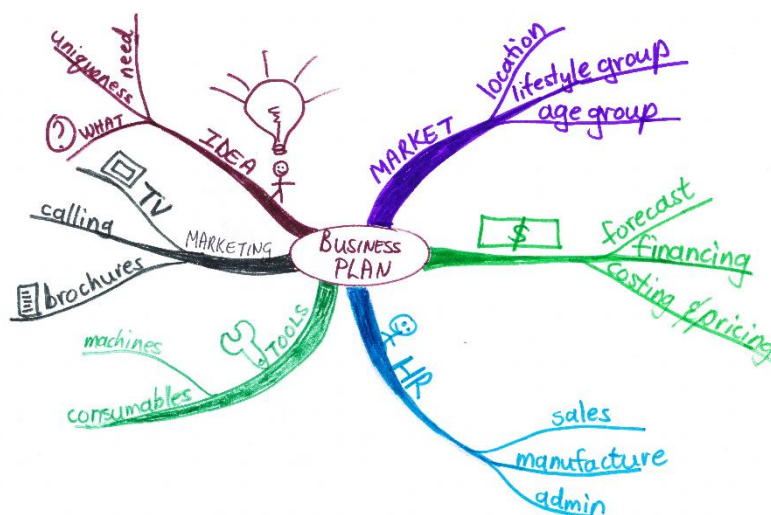
Steps for drawing mind maps:

1. Write the title or topic in the centre of the page and draw a circle around it.
2. For major subheadings on the subject, draw lines or ‘branches’ out from the circle.
3. For further subheadings, draw sub branches that sprout of the branches.

Tips for drawing mind maps:

- Use single words or very short phrases.
- Print words for readability.
- Use colour to separate ideas. This will help with showing structure but it also assists with memory when you have to recall the information.
- Use images and symbols – pictures can help you to remember information more effectively than words.
- Draw lines where information in one part of a mind map relates to information in another part.

Example:



7.1.4 Reading, viewing, interpreting and explaining instructions and directions

Texts should be read, viewed, interpreted and explained consistent with the intention of the text such as procedures, games, repair manuals, recipes, schedules, forms and maps.

7.1.4.1 Procedures

Workplace procedures are important for any organisation to run effectively.

The intention of procedures is to help employees to understand their roles and responsibilities within predefined limits and to give step-by-step written instructions for carrying out actions and tasks.

Your organisation will have several procedures, for example, health and safety, emergency evacuation, housekeeping, balancing of shifts and handling customer complaints.



Activity 34: Interpreting instructions and drawing a flow chart

Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.

34.1 Read the procedure.

34.2 What is the intention (purpose) of the procedure?

34.3 Draw a flow diagram to indicate the steps for handling customer complaints.

7.1.4.2 Games

The intention of instruction for games is to set the rules for playing the game in a consistent and fair manner.

Example:

Block Dominoes Rules

How To Play Block Dominoes

Number Of Players: 2 to 4

Domino Set Required: A double-six set.

Block Dominoes, also known as **The Block Game**, is the simplest of all domino games, and among the most familiar.

Setup

After shuffling the dominoes, each player draws tiles to make up their hand. The number of tiles drawn depends on the number of players:

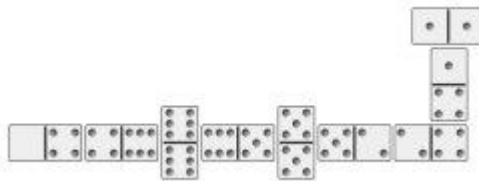
2 players draw 7 tiles each

3 players draw 5 tiles each

4 players draw 5 tiles each

The remainder of the tiles in the boneyard are not used. If there are four players, then they may play as partners, with the partners normally sitting across from each other.

Gameplay



The player with the highest double places the first domino. Play proceeds to the left (clockwise). Each player adds a domino to an open end of the layout, if he can. In the illustration to the right, for instance, the game is well in progress, and the "blank" and "1" are the open ends. Note that the layout may flow in any direction, turning as necessary. Note also that the 5-5 and 1-1 are placed in the customary crossways orientation, though may just as properly be placed in an inline orientation.

A player that cannot make a move must pass. In the block game, players may not draw tiles from the boneyard. The game ends when one player uses the last domino in his hand, or when no more plays can be made. If all players still have tiles in their hand, but can more no moves can be made, then the game is said to be "blocked".

Scoring

The player with the lightest hand (i.e. the number of dots on their dominoes) wins the number of sum total of points in all of his opponents’ hands, minus the points in his own hand. If there is a tie, the win goes to the player with the lightest individual tile. For example, if one player has a 1-2, 2-4, and 3-5, and the other player has a 5-5 and a 3-4, they both have a total of 17, but the first player wins because his lightest tile (1-2) is smaller than the second player's lightest tile (3-4).

Games are often played in a number of rounds, where the score in each individual round (or hand) is added to the score in the previous rounds. When one player's total score exceeds a pre-established "winning score" (100, for example), the game is over and the winner declared.

(Source: <http://www.dominogames.com/domino-rules/block-dominoes-rules.html>)



Activity 35: Interpreting instructions - game

Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.

In small groups, interpret the instructions for playing dominoes and play the game *Block dominoes*.

Other types of texts with instructions include:

Type of text	Intention (Purpose)
Recipe	<p>A recipe is a set of instructions used for preparing and producing a certain food, dish, or drink.</p> <p>The purpose of a recipe is to have a precise record of the ingredients used, the amounts needed, and step-by-step instructions of the way in which the ingredients are combined.</p> <p>The recipe name tells you what dish you will be making.</p> <p>There are three components to a recipe:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • List of ingredients • Quantity of the ingredients. • Preparation instructions.
Schedule	<p>The intention of a schedule is to record the order and allotted time for something to happen.</p> <p>Examples of schedules:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shift schedule or roster • Schedule of train departures and arrivals • Bus schedule • Schedule of tasks to be completed in a day

Type of text	Intention (Purpose)
Maps	<p>A map is a graphic representation of a portion of the earth's surface drawn to scale, as seen from above. It uses colours, symbols, and labels to represent features found on the ground.</p> <p>(Source: http://lensaticcompasspro.blogspot.com/2012/02/definition-and-purpose-of-map.html)</p> <p>The purpose of a map is to provide information on the location of, and the distance between ground features, such as routes of travel and communication. It also indicates geographical features such as height of a location above sea level, height of mountains and locations of rivers.</p>
Forms	The intention of a form is to guide the user as to what information is required, for example, for opening a savings account with a bank.

7.1.5 Structural features of text

Texts are structured to organise them in such a manner that the reader can make sense of it.


Structural features of the text include:

Structural feature	Purpose/Use
Title	Provides an indication of the purpose of the document.
Sub-title	The sub-title of a book or article expands on the title, for example: <i>Addressing barriers to learning. A South African perspective.</i>
Title page	Gives exact information about the title of the book and the author(s). Sometimes the publisher is also indicated on this page.
Copyright page	Indicates when the book was published, by which publisher, in which city it was published, name of designer, ISBN number. Font used, etc.
Headings and sub-headings	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Structure longer documents such as books in a more meaningful way by sub-dividing subject matter in such a way that it can be better understood by the reader. • Identify key ideas and the progression of a document. • Help in establishing the hierarchy of sections in a long document. • Make it easier to relocate material later when the reader wants to refer back to specific information.
Introduction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establishes interest in what is to follow. • Gives an indication of the range or extent of the document – what will be covered and what not. • States or establishes the objectives of the document. • May give an indication of the flow of the document.
Paragraphs	Each deals with a key idea of the document.
Chapters	Used in books to logically group information dealing with a key point.
Conclusion	<p>Either:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • summarises the document’s main idea; or • contains recommendation(s); or • indicates the decision(s) taken; or • indicates the way forward.

Structural feature	Purpose/Use
Outcome statements	State what outcomes were achieved with the implementation of an action or project.
Summaries	Provide a short overview of a long document.
Table of Contents	A list of the parts of a book or document organised in the order in which the parts appear. The table of contents usually includes the titles or descriptions of the first-level headers, such as chapter titles in longer works. Occasionally even third-level titles are also included.
Diagrams	Illustrate complex concepts.
Appendices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contain supplementary material. • Provide data supporting reports. Blank copies of questionnaires are often appended to a report to show the detail of the format and content of the questionnaire.
Foreword	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A short piece of writing often found at the beginning of a book before the introduction. Explains why the book is written. • Often it provides information about the relationship between the book and the writer or the reader. • Often describes special features that are provided in the book to help learners learn information in the book.
Index	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • System used to make finding information easier. • Placed at the back of a book and provides a list of key words and page numbers where the words appear in the book. • Some books have a subject index and a name (author) index or even an index of places mentioned in the book.
Glossary	An alphabetical list of terms in a particular domain of knowledge or used in a book with the definitions for those terms. Placed at the back of a book, before the index (if there is an index).
Hyperlink	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hyperlinks are connections between web pages or parts of a web site. Use of hyperlinks on Internet pages is to serve as a reference to a document that the reader can directly follow by clicking on the hyperlink – clicking a link takes you from the page you are currently viewing to another page or to an image. • Always underlined and usually in blue font.
Layout	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Page layout is the part of graphic design that deals in the arrangement and style treatment of elements (content) on a page. • It is used for visual appeal. • Sponsored advertisements and covers of consumer magazines rely heavily on professional page layout skills to compete for visual attention.
Tables	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Used to present information in a manner that makes it easy to distinguish characteristics of different aspects.
Graphic devices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Graphic devices help the sender to communicate more effectively. They can: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Show groups of numbers that would be very difficult to show in sentences. ▪ Show relationships that would take many sentences to explain. ▪ Make a written explanation easier to understand. ▪ Give a quick visual impression that enables the reader to understand and compare numbers or amounts quickly.
Font size and type	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Used to complement, enhance or emphasise text. • Font size must be readable. Different font sizes are used for different levels of headings in text.

Structural feature	Purpose/Use
Captions to pictures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Type of font is used to suit the type of document. • Captions are headings or subscripts to pictures. They indicate what a picture, diagram or photograph is all about. • Carefully selected pictures and captions can have a powerful effect on the audience. Compare the example where an article in a newspaper about starving children in Ruanda contains no pictures and another where there are pictures with children on the brink of death from starvation. The latter will have a stronger influence on the audience. A third example, where the picture is accompanied by a caption ‘Thuli’s last moments’ will have a very distressful influence on most readers.
Cinematographic effects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The director of a film manipulates the audience by means of sounds and visual effects. • Sound effects include voices (dialogue between characters, background voices or commentaries); music (to create or enhance atmosphere, heighten tension, relax the senses or helping the audience identify the subject); and technical sound effects (realistic or natural sounds that establish credibility and realism, dramatic sound effects to add atmosphere, silence to contrast with sound and/or create a feeling of loneliness or isolation). • Visual effects such as: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Framing – the sequence of ‘frames’ tell a story. ▪ Composition – the positioning of the characters within each frame. This affects how the audience responds to the scene. Each composition contains a focal point to which the director of the film wants to alert the audience. ▪ Proxemic range or distance – which might give an indication of the relationship between the characters. ▪ Line – the image or composition of images may give the direction of a linear line and this can be used to create the desired mood or atmosphere. For example, horizontal lines implicate peace and harmony; vertical lines suggest strength or spiritual leanings; and diagonal lines create the impression of movement and activity. • Lighting – to enhance the effect of a scene. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Lighting from above, for example, portray the character in a positive light whilst lighting from behind (silhouette) or below creates a negative impression. ▪ Bright light portrays daylight or happiness. ▪ Dim lighting may reflect night-time, sadness or a sombre mood. • Focus – soft or sharp lines created by the focus of the camera lens. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Sharp focus reflects reality. ▪ Soft focus (slightly blurred) is used to create a romantic, peaceful, gentle or surreal atmosphere. ▪ Differentiated focus (combined focused detail and unfocused background) draws the attention to the focus area. • Colour expresses and affects moods and emotions. Different colours have different emotional affects, for example: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ White – purity and innocence. ▪ Black – darkness and/or evil. ▪ Red – danger/ anger/ passion. ▪ Yellow – happiness. ▪ Green – growth / hope / peace.

Structural feature	Purpose/Use
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Blue – calmness / coldness/ aloofness. • Camera angles shift the way that the viewer perceives characters and respond to situations. For example: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ High-angle shots (taken diagonally from above) – detract from the character, making him or her less significant. ▪ Aerial shots (taken from directly above) – give a bird’s eye view and have a more extreme effect than high-angle shots. ▪ Low-angled shots (taken from a low perspective upwards) – have the intention to make the character appear more important and powerful. ▪ Eye-level shots are taken from the natural position and the effect is usually neutral.
Photographs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Used in newspapers to draw attention. • Used in brochures to show what a product looks like or to show the business premises as part of the marketing project. • Photographs are interpreted in the same manner as films because they resemble single ‘frames’ from films.
Captions	Identifiable title for a graphic or a table in the text.



Activity 36: Reading techniques and structural features

Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.

The facilitator will give you a textbook. Work in small groups.

36.1 **Skim** (i.e. do not read the full text) the extract. Who is the intended audience? Where/how did you identify the intended audience?

36.2 Evaluate whether the book is of interest to you as an employee in the wholesale and retail sector and whether it can help you in learning more about the sector or, in doing your job or in managing other people.

36.3 Skim the first chapter. Does it have an *Introduction*? If so, does it seem as if the chapter achieves the outcome statements as indicated in the Introduction? Motivate your answer.

36.4 Select a key term in the first chapter. Where will you check if the term is discussed elsewhere in the book? Find the other places in the book where the term is used/discussed.

36.5 Does the book have a glossary to help you find definitions of important terms?

36.6 See if you can find a table in the book. Explain how it helps you make meaning of the information.

36.7 Comment on the effectiveness of the font type and size used in the book for text and headings.


	<p>36.8 Comment on the use or the lack of visuals (diagrams and graphics) in the book. Are there any specific recommendations that you could make in this regard?</p> <p>36.9 Are the headings and sub-headings in the chapter effective in helping you to make meaning out of the text? Explain.</p> <p>36.10 Evaluate the book in terms of its purpose, the context and its suitability for the audience. Write down your conclusion in this regard.</p>
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7.1.6 Using reference materials to clarify meanings

A range of reference materials can be used to clarify the meaning of words, concepts, language structures and conventions:

Reference source	Use
Dictionaries	<p>A dictionary can be used to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Look up the meaning of a word • Find the English translation of a word in your language and vice versa • Check the spelling of a word • Check the plural of a noun or past tense of a verb • Find the synonym or antonym of a word • Check the part of speech of a word • Find out how to say a word • Find examples of the use of a word
Instruction manuals	<p>Instruction manuals are used to learn how to use something, such as a microwave oven.</p>
Textbooks	<p>A textbook is a comprehensive resource on a specific topic, for example, managing your own business; managing people; customer service; etc. Textbooks are authoritative sources of information, as they are usually written by authors who are experienced and subject matter experts in a particular field.</p>
Thesauruses	<p>A thesaurus contains synonyms (words with the same or a similar meaning) and antonyms (words with an opposite meaning). A thesaurus helps you find a word with a similar meaning, which may help you understand the meaning if you read a similar word that you know the meaning of. It may also help avoid repetition in your writing because you can use or alternate words with similar meanings.</p>
Encyclopaedias	<p>An encyclopedia is a type of reference work that contains a summary of information from either a particular branch of knowledge (for example, <i>Encyclopedia of sea plants</i>, or all branches of knowledge. Encyclopedia articles, which contain more information on a topic than dictionaries, are usually accessed alphabetically by topic.</p>
The Internet	<p>Internet resources include web sites, blogs, web cats and podcasts.</p>

Reference source	Use
	<p>While you can have some confidence in the information contained in books because they are edited before they are published, reliability of Internet sources can be a problem because anyone can ‘publish’ information on the Internet. You should evaluate Internet resources before using information from them in your writing.</p> <p>Check the following to evaluate an Internet source:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Author’s authority: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Is the author clearly indicated? ▪ Are there any qualifications and/or credentials listed for the author? • Web site rating: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Has the site been rated by a reputable group? ▪ Has it won any awards? • Bias • What type of site is it, as evident from the domain address, e.g. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -edu or -ac: indicates an educational site such as university or college -gov: indicates a government site -org: indicates an organisation or advocacy group -com or -co: business ~: indicates a personal web page • What is the purpose of the site, e.g. to inform or to persuade or to market products/services? • Content and accuracy: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Is the content covered adequately? ▪ How does the content compare with other sites on the same topic? ▪ Are sources of information indicated? ▪ Does the web site have links to other reliable web sites on the topic?

	<p>Activity 37: Using the Internet</p> <p>Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.</p> <p>Search the Internet for information on cashing up procedures. Select two sites and evaluate them, using the checklist.</p>
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7.1.7 Following an effective research process

Your research process for collecting information from texts should be focussed, logical and effective.

7.1.7.1 Research and research methodology defined

Research is about finding facts about something you need to know.

Wikipedia defines research as follows: ‘**Research** can be defined as the search for knowledge, or as any systematic investigation, with an open mind, to establish ... facts, usually using a scientific method.’

Research can be conducted through a variety of methods, depending on what you need to find out.

These methods include:

- Reading and reviewing written texts as part of an organised investigation into a topic.
- Asking experts in the field about their opinion.
- Interviewing experts.
- Analysing photographs.
- Observing the behaviour of people who do not know that they are being watched, e.g. consumer buying behaviour.



For the purposes of this programme, we will focus on reading and reviewing written texts as part of an organised investigation into a topic.

7.1.7.2 Identifying and defining the scope of the topic

Identify and define the scope of the research project by considering aspects such as the following:

- Subject or topic to be researched.
- Audience.
- Information.
- Opinion required?
- Length specified?
- Sources that can be consulted.

Topic and scope

- Start analysing the topic by framing it in a question.
- Break the task down into logical segments.
- Decide on the scope by deciding what to include and what to exclude.
- Formulate the scope in a short paragraph, using as many active verbs as possible – that will later serve as the outline for your project.
- Make sure that the scope indicates the deliverables of the project, i.e. output at the end of the project that makes doing the project worthwhile.

Audience

Understanding the audience is important to make sure that the needs of the audience will be met.

- How will the information be used?
- What is the level of education of the audience?

Length

The length will be determined by the nature of the subject and the purpose of the research project.

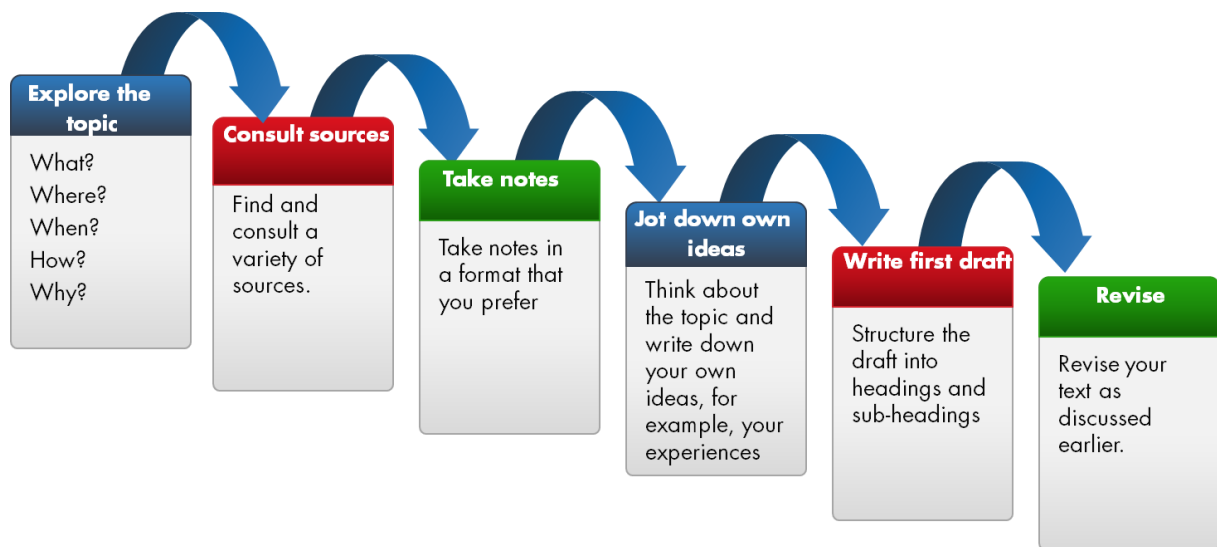
Sources

A variety of sources should be used and these can include:

- Books.
- Periodicals.
- Newspapers.
- Electronic media such as the internet.

7.1.7.3 Planning and sequencing information gathering and research steps

Planning is necessary as several steps are involved, such as:



The more focused that you are in your actual research, and the more sure you are about what you want to achieve, the more effective and efficient you will be therefore the less time you will use to achieve your objectives.

A research schedule will help you be effective.

Scheduling is about sequencing the steps to be performed and allocating time lines to the steps.

Consider the following questions before scheduling the steps:

What is the purpose of the research? What do you want to be able to decide as a result of the research?	
Who is the audience – investors, bankers, customers, etc.?	
What kind of information is necessary to enable you to make the decision or to enlighten the audience?	
What sources will provide the information?	
How will the information be collected, e.g. reading, interviews, questionnaires, observing customers, conducting focus group sessions, etc.?	
When is the information needed?	

It is helpful to use a format such as the following:

Step	Time-frame
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	

7.1.7.4 Research and information gathering techniques

Technique	Guidelines
Gathering information from texts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do preliminary research to explore the topic by skimming through a variety of resources. • Find books in a library and bookstores. • Find periodicals and newspaper articles in a library. • Write letters to experts to request information, if necessary.

Technique	Guidelines
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Record the relevant information, making use of an appropriate note-making system (refer to Chapter 4).
Using appropriate Internet resources	<p>Make sure that the electronic sources that you use from the Internet are reliable and authoritative.</p>
Interviewing	<p>Interviews with experts are very valuable for any research project. Apart from the fact that you will gather information first-hand and have information that is not available elsewhere, your credibility as researcher will be enhanced because of the initiative you took to find experts and because you extended the search for information beyond the usual kind of printed sources.</p> <p>Interviews require advance planning of the questions that you will ask. You also need time to make an appointment so be sure to plan for these when preparing your schedule.</p> <p>Preparing for and conducting the interview:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Become as informed about the subject as possible so that you know what to ask and so that you can gather the information that will specifically come from the expert. Use the notes that you made during reading of texts to prepare questions. Dress appropriately for the interview. Keep in mind that people feel more comfortable speaking to people who dress like they do. Be on time for the interview. Take accurate notes during the interview. Behave politely and ethically. If you want to record the interview, ask the interviewer’s permission beforehand. Make the recording as unobtrusive as possible. Check your understanding. If you make notes, you may ask the interview to check the accuracy of the notes. Let the interviewee do the talking. You are there to get information, not to impress the interviewee with what you already know. End the interview professionally by checking your notes for accuracy and asking whether you may call again if you have further questions. Thank the interviewee. Send a thank you note as follow-up.
Observing	<p>Observing means watching the behaviour of a group of people, for example, how customers brows products on the shelves and make decisions.</p>

7.1.8 Sifting information for relevance



Sifting of information was discussed under section 7.1.1.

7.1.9 Classifying, categorising and sorting information

Questions to help with classifying and categorising:

- What similarities are there between facts and ideas? In what respect are there differences?
- Which ideas are related and how do they belong together?
- How can the facts be grouped?
- How can the document be organised in such a way that it optimises the ability to communicate the intended information or knowledge?
- How can the information be classified to help the reader to quickly find specific parts of the document?

Sorting

The main purpose of sorting materials is to optimise its usefulness.

Information can be sorted on the basis of:

- Alphabetical order or topic.
- Date.
- Location.



7.2 Identifying and presenting main ideas from texts

7.2.1 Techniques for identifying and representing main ideas

You should identify and present the main ideas in different types of text such as textbooks, magazines, newspapers, brochures, policies, questionnaires, notices and videos.

The methods for identifying and distinguishing main ideas and the purpose were discussed earlier.

A variety of techniques for representing summaries of texts were also discussed earlier. In addition to those already discussed, you can also represent texts through simulation and role-play.

<p>Simulation</p> 	<p>Simulation is the imitation or replication of a real-world process or system.</p> <p>Example:</p> <p>You may simulate the steps for counting stock.</p>
<p>Role play</p> 	<p>Role play involves changing of one's behaviour to assume a role, or act out an adopted role in personal interactions.</p> <p>Example:</p> <p>You may role play the appropriate behaviours for handling a customer complaint.</p>

7.2.2 Identifying and explaining socio-cultural issues

Texts contain socio-cultural issues expressed in idioms, slang, jargon and proverbs.

Slang and jargon were explained earlier.

7.2.2.1 Idioms

An idiom is a combination of words with a figurative meaning.

Examples:

Idiom	Meaning
He was pulling my leg.	He was tricking me by telling me something untrue.
It rained cats and dogs.	It rained really hard.
Could you keep an eye out for that?	Could you maintain awareness of that?
I can't keep my head above water.	I cannot manage the situation.


To make meaning out of text, you can use a dictionary to find the meaning of an idiom if you don't know what it means. You will find the meaning by looking for the first word, e.g. *cats* if you search for *rain cats and dogs*. You may also enter the words *meaning of rain cats and dogs* on an Internet search engine.

7.2.2.2 Proverbs

A proverb is a simple saying, popularly known and repeated, that expresses a truth based on common sense, wisdom, or the practical experience of humanity.

Examples:

Proverb	Meaning
A chain is only as strong as its weakest link.	The weakest link refers to a person who is not fulfilling his or her role in a team, thereby having a negative impact on the performance of the team.
Man’s best friend is a dog.	A dog performs valuable service to humans.
A golden key can open any door.	Money opens any door.

	<p>Activity 38: Idioms and proverbs</p> <p>Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.</p> <p>Find and explain the meaning of the given idioms and proverbs.</p>
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7.3 Reading and responding to texts

7.3.1 Categories of text

Texts can be categorised as follows:

Type of text	Purpose	Intended target audience
Textbooks	Textbooks are produced to help learners learn.	Learners/Students
Magazines	Magazines are collections of articles and images about diverse topics of popular interest and current events.	General public, adults
Newspapers	Newspapers deliver <i>news</i> and other information in an up-to-date, factual manner without bias.	General public, adults
Brochures	Brochures are used to market the products of a business.	Potential customers
Policies	Policies provide guidelines to employees on how to behave in certain types of situations.	Employees
Questionnaires	Questionnaires are designed to obtain information, for example for marketing, or to obtain information on opinion.	Usually existing or potential customers

Type of text	Purpose	Intended target audience
Notices	Notices are used to inform employees about matters and issues.	Employees
Memoranda	Memoranda are used for internal communication in an organisation.	Employees
Agendas	An agenda lists the topics to be discussed during a meeting.	Attendees of a particular meeting
Application forms	To apply to an organisation, for employment, or for a service provided by the organisation.	Interested parties
Documentaries	A documentary film is a non-fiction motion picture that is made with the intention to document an aspect of reality. The primary purpose is typically to educate or to maintain a historical record.	Interested parties
Novels	The purpose of a novel is entertaining reading.	Readers from the general public who read for entertainment
Photographs	The main purpose of photographs is to communicate or to share some experience with others. Photos are, for example, used to communicate product features to customers and potential customers.	Customers, potential customers and other significant people with whom the photographer wishes to share an experience
Diagrams	Diagrams help the reader to get a clearer picture of your message.	Readers of a document
Blueprints	A blueprint is a reproduction of a technical drawing, documenting an architectural or an engineering design.	People who have to construct a building or manufacture an engineering product
Films	Films – unless they are documentary films – are intended for entertainment.	General public with a need for entertainment
Official documents	<p>Official documents are issued to, for example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prove date of birth (birth certificates) • Prove citizenship (identity documents) • Prove ownership of an asset such as a house or vehicle • Serve as record of approval to trade or conduct business (business licence) • Prove competence against an exam or qualification successfully completed 	<p>Citizens</p> <p>Owners of assets</p> <p>Business operators</p>

Type of text	Purpose	Intended target audience
	(matriculation certificate; degree certificate)	

7.3.2 How points of view are shaped

Texts reveal the writer’s point of view, that is, a particular attitude or way of considering a matter.

Language structures are used to shape or support a point of view.

- Bias (cultural or religious or peer preferences, misrepresentation, discrimination, racist, sexist, ageist);
- Humour;
- Irony;
- Sarcasm;
- Use of omission and silence;
- Figurative expressions;
- Repetition;
- Hyperbole;
- Generalisations;
- Stereotyping; pictures and captions; typography; and
- Grammar.

Several writing techniques and language structures are applied in communication to achieve certain impacts and elicit certain responses from listeners, readers and viewers.

These include length of sentence; punctuation; diction and choice of words; use of figurative language; irony; humour; sarcasm; satire; and legalisms.


Most of these techniques were discussed in Chapter 2. Those that were not are explained in the table below:

Writing technique or language structure	Description and impact on the receiver of the message
Figurative expressions	Make written documents more interesting as it ‘enlivens’ the text. They also demonstrate points of view and/or attitude in writing. <i>Examples:</i> <i>‘He fought like a tiger.’</i> <i>‘The man is as strong as an ox.’</i>
Omission of facts	The writer remains silent on some facts to make a point. Readers who share the same point of view can have their view reinforced. However, readers who do not agree with the (biased) point of view can reject the message and object to it.

Writing technique or language structure	Description and impact on the receiver of the message
Hyperbole	Deliberate exaggeration that is used for effect, e.g. <i>‘There were millions of butterflies in the sky.’</i> It creates a vivid image in the mind of the reader/listener.
Repetition	Stating the same facts over and over in different ways in an effort to influence the reader and build support for a point of view or to take action. Consider the TV ads for Verimark that all make use of the phrases <i>‘and you get ... and you get ... and ...’</i> . The objective is to get the viewer to immediately act on the advertisement.
Humour	<p>Humour can add a great deal of enjoyment of things.</p> <p>However, humour that is based on supposed weaknesses or vulnerability of a particular group is usually being used in an attempt to influence readers/listeners in a negative way about that group. So-called <i>‘innocent’</i> jokes can influence people to adopt beliefs about, for example <i>‘dumb blondes’</i> and <i>‘merry fat people’</i>.</p> <p>Humour is used in cartoons – a form of authorial comment.</p>
Irony	The use of words to convey a meaning that is the opposite of its literal meaning. Example: <i>‘The irony of her reply, “How nice!” when I said I had to work all weekend.’</i>
Satire	A text or performance that uses irony or wit to expose or attack human vice, foolishness, or stupidity. Example of a report on a satirical news web site that attacks the naivety or stupidity of a young man who went for an acting audition: <i>‘Hi, there, thanks for bringing me in today. I really appreciate the chance to audition for you all, and I hope you like what you see. Also, real quick before we get going, I just wanted to let you guys know that I’m still not totally clear on what acting is’¹.</i>
Sarcasm	A remark and form of humour that people use that means the opposite of what they seem to say and are used to mock or deride someone. Examples: <i>‘Sometimes I need what only you can provide: your absence.’</i> - Ashleigh Brilliant <i>‘It’s always darkest before it turns absolutely pitch black.’</i> - Paul Newman <i>‘It’s a catastrophic success.’</i> - Stephen Bishop
Misrepresentation	False or incomplete statements or deliberate hiding of inconvenient facts.
Discrimination	Prejudicial treatment of an individual or particular group based solely on their membership (whether voluntary or involuntary) in a certain group or category.
Generalisations	A sweeping statement (<i>‘They always/never ...’</i>) or a statement that is presented as a general truth but that is based on limited or incomplete evidence, for example, <i>‘All politicians are on the gravy train.’</i>
Stereotyping	Oversimplified ideas or standardised images held by one person or group of another e.g. the stereotype that all Italians are emotional or Germans are perfectionists.
Typography	Refers to the layout of pages – the visual representation. A <i>‘zippy’</i> layout that catches attention is likely to be used in popular magazines to catch the eyes and

¹ (<http://www.theonion.com/articles/i-just-want-to-begin-this-audition-by-saying-that,18390/>)


Writing technique or language structure	Description and impact on the receiver of the message
	communicate to readers that they are going to be entertained. A straightforward layout with little variation in font and visuals signals to the reader that the text was seriously written.



Activity 39: Identifying points of view

Please complete the activity in your portfolio guide.

Identify the point of view in the given texts. Justify your observations.



Activity 40: Impact of language structures

Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.

If you are asked to write an article on ‘Banning of smoking in public areas’ tick which of the following facts would you use if:

1. You support the ban?
2. You are against the ban?

Available facts	Supporting the ban	Against the ban
Passive smoking is a danger to non-smokers		
The most toxic fumes causing sinus and respiratory health problems come from traffic		
Smokers have a right to choose where they want to smoke – they have rights as well		
Banning smoking on long air flights has led to increased air-rage		
The only result of banning smoking in airports is that smoking passengers rush to the outside and then smoke excessively right at the door where non-smoking passengers have to pass in any case		
Non-smokers have to be protected against the effects of passive smoking		
Banning smoking in the office had led to reduced productivity because of the time wasted to walk outside for a smoke		
Banning smoking in public areas is supported by 60% of the population surveyed recently		
There has been a decrease in street litter in cities where smoking in public places is banned		



Activity 41: Impact of language structures

Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.

Read the following text and answer the questions that follow.

*'As we know the TV shows are often contrary to religion and education. And also, the effect caused by television in general has negative effects. We must create a positive activity for children who used to spend time in front of the television - like to learning, playing, gardening, taking up sports etc. Because we cannot coop up our kids in a room four square meters or in the house alone without activities that could not help the physical and personality development of children. We cannot deny that the programs presented on television grab children’s attention. This makes children love spending hours in front of the television. Simply by pressing the remote, they can change channels to their liking. Television shows are not entirely good for viewing. Moreover, children do not have strong controls against them.'*²

41.1 Is the writer acting as an unbiased reporter presenting facts? Substantiate your answer.

41.2 Are or could there be other views toward the subject that are not discussed by the writer?

41.3 What influence could an article such as the above have on readers who do not have more facts available to them?




Activity 42: Writing technique or language structure

Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.

Identify the writing technique or language structure applied in each of the following texts.

² Adapted from Negative Effect Watching Television on Children. 29.07.2010 | Posted in Family | Author: itha <http://wparticle.net/negative-effect-watching-tv.html>

	Text	Writing technique or language structure applied	What impact could this possibly have on the audience?
1	All new entrepreneurs are <i>in the same boat</i> where they have to put their dreams into action.		
2	There are hundreds of problems with this vehicle.		
3	Americans are loud people.		
4	That business has seen better days.		
5	Smoking is a cause of pollution. It not only makes non-smokers smoke passively, it pollutes the air with bellows of yellow smoke.		
6	A person steps in big puddle of water by mistake, and his/her friend smiles kindly, starts to help his friend up and remarks, ‘well now, don't you have all the luck!’		
7	A person steps in big puddle of water by mistake, and his/her friend laughs out loudly, ‘Lucky you!’		
8	Fat people shouldn’t be on TV.		



Activity 43: Layout and typography

Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.

Go to a bookstore and look at the magazines for sale. Compare 2 magazines of a different nature and different purpose, for example ‘You’ and ‘The Economist’ or ‘Financial Mail’. Comment on the typography and the effect on the audience.

Name of magazine 1:	Name of magazine 2:

7.3.3 Responding to texts and supporting your own ideas and opinions

When you read a text, you can respond to it in various ways, including the following:

Response	Think about ...
Agree/Disagree	What part of the text’s main point do you agree or disagree with? Why do you feel the author is right or wrong in her/his opinions? For example, ‘ <i>Although the author makes strong points, I do not think the article is</i>

	<p><i>entirely accurate and, in fact, disagree that ... is true, based on my personal experience.'</i></p> <p>In this example, the response to the text is expressed (<i>'... disagree that the article is entirely correct...'</i>) and the opinion is supported by <i>'... based on my personal experience.'</i></p>
Reflection	<p>What did this text make you rethink or reconsider that you may not have thought about before?</p> <p>What impact did it have on your thinking about key ideas?, for example, <i>'Before reading this report I had assumed ... , but now I see ...'</i></p>
Conversation	<p>What might your experiences add to the argument?</p> <p>How might they revise or alter the author’s ideas to be more accurate to what you know and think?, for example, <i>'While I agree with ..., it seems to me it’s even more complicated than the author recognises.'</i></p>
Rhetorical analysis	<p>How effective was the text for its intended audience?</p> <p>What was its purpose?</p> <p>Did it work?</p> <p>Where did the text succeed or fail most obviously?, for example, <i>'Although I ultimately agree with what the author argues, I don’t think he was successful in getting his point across to his intended audience. I would have been much more easily swayed if the article had done ...'</i></p>

7.3.4 Evaluating the relevance of texts

Evaluating the relevance of texts in terms of its meaning to yourself and others in peer, community or group work, is part of your response to texts.

This aspect was discussed in section 7.1.8.

You should be able to justify your evaluation, i.e. explain why you say that the text is relevant or not.

7.3.5 Identifying implicit and explicit messages

An **explicit** message is a message that is clearly **expressed**, for example:

- *'Smoking causes cancer.'*
- *'He made a mess in the kitchen while baking a cake.'*

An **implicit** message is a message that is **implied** but not clearly expressed, for example: *'He made it (the cake) in the kitchen and ate it in the dining room. With WetJet both floors were clean before he was.'*



Activity 44: Reading and responding to texts

Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.

Read the article on customer service and respond as indicated.

7.4 Conclusion on reading, viewing and responding to text

Critical analysis of texts assists in understanding the point of view or the message that the communicator wants to get across.

There are several techniques that can be applied for reading, analysing and evaluating text.

Chapter 8: Using language and communication in learning programmes

Specific outcomes and assessment criteria

US	Specific outcome	Assessment criteria
119460	1. Use learning strategies.	1. Learning takes place through communicating with others in groups or as individuals. Range: Facilitators, other learners, colleagues.
	2. Manage occupational learning materials.	7. Occupational learning materials are organised for efficient use. Range: Videos, texts, handouts, textbooks, charts, maps, plans, and diagrams
	3. Plan and gather relevant information for a given context and purpose.	1. Information gathering steps are planned and sequenced appropriately. 2. Information gathering techniques are applied. Range: Gathering information, reading/viewing, interviewing, observing, using appropriate electronic sources. 3. Information is sifted for relevance. 4. Information is classified, categorized and sorted. 5. Scope of information gathered is appropriate for given context and purpose. 6. Conclusions are presented in the appropriate format.
	4. Function in a team.	1. Active participation happens in group learning situations. Range: Discussions, activities, workshops. 2. Responsibilities in the team are taken up and group work conventions are applied in learning situations. Range: Turn taking, rotation of roles: conducting, chairing, recording, and reporting. 3. Negotiating techniques are practised. 4. Teamwork results in meaningful products or outcomes. Range: Reaching consensus, completing tasks.
	5. Reflect on how characteristics of the workplace and occupational context affect learning. Range: Environmental features, technological resources, communication	1. Sector and organisation type is identified. Range: Sector/occupational focus: Services, manufacturing, financial, educational, etc. Organisation type: Government, parastatal, heavy/light industry, large organisation, small business. 2. Features of the occupational environment are described and discussed.

	resources, communication strategies, and multilingual needs in relation to client or colleague interaction.	3. Ways in which these features affect learning processes and/or application of learning are described and discussed.
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Learning objectives

After completing this chapter, you will be able to:






- Formulate and use learning strategies.
- Learn through communicating with others
- Manage occupational learning materials.
- Function in a team.
- Reflect on how characteristics of the workplace and occupational context affect learning.

8.1 Self-directed learning

In the complex and fast-developing world, every person should become a life-long learning person. This is especially so for entrepreneurs if they want to stay ahead of the competition.

Much of this learning will be self-directed learning – a process whereby the individuals identify their learning needs and take charge of their own learning.

There are **five main keys for self-directed learning**:

	1 Identify your leaning needs.
	2 Develop a learning model for your learning.
	3 Specify your learning objectives.
	4 Identify the learning resources to use.
	5 Manage your learning process by: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Formulating your own learning strategies.

- | | |
|--|--|
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Managing your occupational learning resources and materials. |
|--|--|

8.1.1 Identifying your learning needs

Learning needs can be deficiencies in knowledge, skills and competencies. Identify your own learning needs by answering the following questions:

- What do I know (in this area)?
- What do I need to change?
- What skills and competencies do I need to acquire?
- What is stopping me from achieving this area?
- Am I clear about what I need?
- How can I build on my knowledge and experiences to fill the gap?

8.1.2 Developing a model for learning

When you have determined what you know and what you do not yet know, you can develop a plan to guide your learning efforts to achieve your learning goals.

The model for learning may consist of a list of components such as the following:

- Formulating your purpose – stating what you are aiming for.
- Using your learning needs to formulate learning objectives.
- Identifying the knowledge, skills and competencies needed for each of the learning objectives – what is the key information and skills that you need to acquire.
- Identifying the possible and most appropriate learning resources.
- Planning an approach for utilising the learning resources.
- Constructing new information, building mechanisms, designing tables, concept maps, Mind maps and diagrams.
- Preparing for group discussions by planning questions to ask and being prepared for questions that others may ask.
- Assessing how new knowledge that you gain relates to what you already know and why it is related.
- Evaluating what you have learned.

8.1.3 Specifying your learning objectives:

Learning objectives help learners to:³

- Identify what knowledge, skills, attitudes and values they want to learn.

³ Azer

- Think, reflect, link information and determine priorities.
- Discuss what they need to do.
- Focus on what they want to learn.

The learning objectives should describe what you will **learn** (not what you will do) – they need to define the learning needs that you have identified. For example: *‘To achieve competence in providing customer service.’*

Be specific when specifying your learning objectives:




- Exactly what do you want/need to learn?
- By what date?



Examples of learning objectives, based on the example above, namely: *‘To achieve competence in providing customer service’*:

- *Understanding (knowledge):* To understand the principles of customer service.
- *Skills:* To apply the principles of effective customer service.

8.1.4 Identifying relevant learning resources

A variety of learning resources can be used:

Resource centres	Dictionaries	General texts
 <p>These are libraries that contain traditional educational resources such as books, journals, software and audio/visual materials, but they also promote electronic information resources.</p>	 <p>These are books that list the words of a language in alphabetical order and gives their meaning, or that lists equivalent words in a different language.</p>	 <p>These are textbooks relevant to the topic about which you want to learn.</p>

Internet	Videos/DVDs	Other learners
 <p data-bbox="228 510 560 584">Internet sources include web pages and blogs.</p>	 <p data-bbox="627 472 965 546">Video-taped production on a topic.</p>	 <p data-bbox="1018 488 1382 622">Other learners are a valuable resource because learners can work in a group to research or discuss topics.</p>

For resources to be relevant and an effective, they should:

- Be suitable to you as target audience – level and detail of information. Some sources on economic issues and business management are, for example, suitable for school students while others are aimed at practising businesspeople.
- Be up-to-date.
- Be designed to contribute to the learning process e.g. not be ‘popular’ or speculative literature.
- Be well organised, easy to read, interactive by nature and engaging.
- Use elements such as tables, graphs, flow charts, digital images and concept maps to explain complex topics.
- Contain summaries, review questions and case studies to help the learner with recapping and review.
- Allow learners to reflect on the main concepts learnt and to assess their learning.

Selecting books

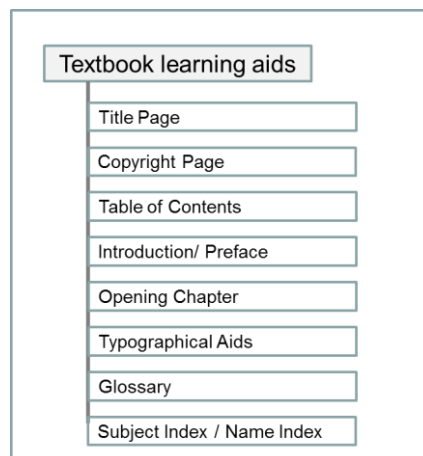
From a book’s content, you will be able to identify sub-topics about which you want or need to learn more. For example, should you want to know more about marketing of a small business in general, you will start with a book such as **Marketing your small business**.⁴ From its contents, you might identify aspects such as ‘Direct mail letters’, ‘Planning your advertisement’, ‘Publicity’ or ‘Events’ about which you want to learn more. These topics could then serve as key phrases for looking for books that cover the topics in more detail.

Doing a quick preview of books

Acquire a quick overview of the contents of the book by surveying it.

⁴ Neville Sherriff

Books that have the purpose of educating typically have a content layout as in the diagram below, where each feature of the book serves as a learning aid.



To preview a book, examine the features in the front and the back of the book.

Preview the front of the book:

- Read the **Title page**. It gives exact information about the title of a book, the author(s), the publisher and the city in which the book was published. The city can help establish whether a book is relevant to all learners or only to learners in a specific country. For example, a book discussing procedures for a court of law that is published in New York will have little relevance for learners wanting to learn about South African court procedures.
- Find the date of publication on the **copyright page**. This helps with establishing the currency of information. For example, for some topics such as general management functions, a book that is 5 years old could still be relevant; however, a book about a computer programming language that is two years old could be totally out of date.
- Read the **Table of Contents** to get an overview of how the book is organised and of the major topics discussed.
- Read the **Preface** or **Introduction** to get an idea of the approach taken in the book. This will help you find out whether it describes special features that are provided to help learners learn.

Preview the back of the book:

- Check to see if the book contains a **Glossary** at the end of the book or short glossaries at the end of each chapter. Glossaries contain alphabetically-arranged lists of important words and their definitions.
- Determine whether the book contains a **Bibliography** – a list of references – at the end of each chapter or at the end of the book.
- Determine whether the book contains an **index** at the end of the book. An index is an alphabetically-arranged list of subjects and the numbers of the pages on which these subjects appear in the book. Some books contain one or more of the following: Subject index; name index (names of people mentioned in the book); place index; index of figures.



Activity 45: Identifying learning resources

Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.

45.1 Where will you find a library in your area?

45.2 Do you have access to dictionaries? If not, where can you find some?

45.3 Visit a library or book store and find books that cover a topic about customer service. Make a list of the books, containing the following information for each book:

- Surname and initials of the author(s)
- Title (and if relevant, sub-title)
- Publisher

45.4 Make a list of any videos or DVDs that you can find in the library about customer service.

45.5 Can you find any Internet resources about customer service in retail?

8.1.5 Effective use of learning resources

Start with the resource that will provide you with a good overview of the subject matter. Then use resources containing detail of the topics within the subject matter.

In most cases, books covering the broad topic that you want to learn about, will serve this purpose.

8.1.5.1 Reading for meaning in books and articles

Consider the purpose with which you are looking at the book. For example:

- Are you looking for main ideas, specific information, complete comprehension or a detailed analysis?
- How will you use the text in your learning process?

Consider the title – what does it mean?

Consider what learning aids are being used:

- What does the background or summary predict the text will do?
- Does there seem to be a clear introduction and conclusion? What do they tell the reader?
- Does the text include statistics, tables and pictures?

Read the opening chapter:

The first chapter of the book is the most important because the author sets the stage for what is to follow. At first glance the first chapter often seems not to say much but it presents the reader with a framework for the text in the rest of the book.

The first chapter often introduces the important terminology that is used in the book, or it provides an overview of how the book is set out and how it should be used for the best effect.

Note the typographical aids:

The typographical aids used in textbooks or books that are intended to educate contain various typographical aids including different text types, e.g. headings and subheadings to divide the chapter into sections and form a brief outline of the chapter; **italic print** to call attention to text; and enumeration (numbering of facts or ideas within a paragraph).

8.1.5.2 Making useful notes from text in books and articles



Note-making systems were discussed earlier.

The following the guidelines will help you reading for understanding and making notes in your own words, in order to avoid plagiarism:

1. Actively read a section or chapter.
2. Take a questioning approach to help you actively engage with the text.
3. Close the book/journal/magazine.
4. Write down, in your own words, the main points of what you have read. If you can do this, you have understood the text. If not, you should re-read the text.
5. Note down the full details of the source you have read so that you can acknowledge the source.

(Source: Adapted from <https://sites.google.com/a/qmu.ac.uk/>)

8.1.5.3 Acknowledging resources

You should properly acknowledge the resources you used. You may use the Bibliography in this Learner’s guide as an example for citing books, journals and Internet sources.



Activity 46: Using learning resources affectively

Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.

Use a book or article and select appropriate information on the topic of customer service.

46.1 Write a one-page summary, with headings and sub-headings of one of the chapters in the book, so that you can use the summary for learning purposes.

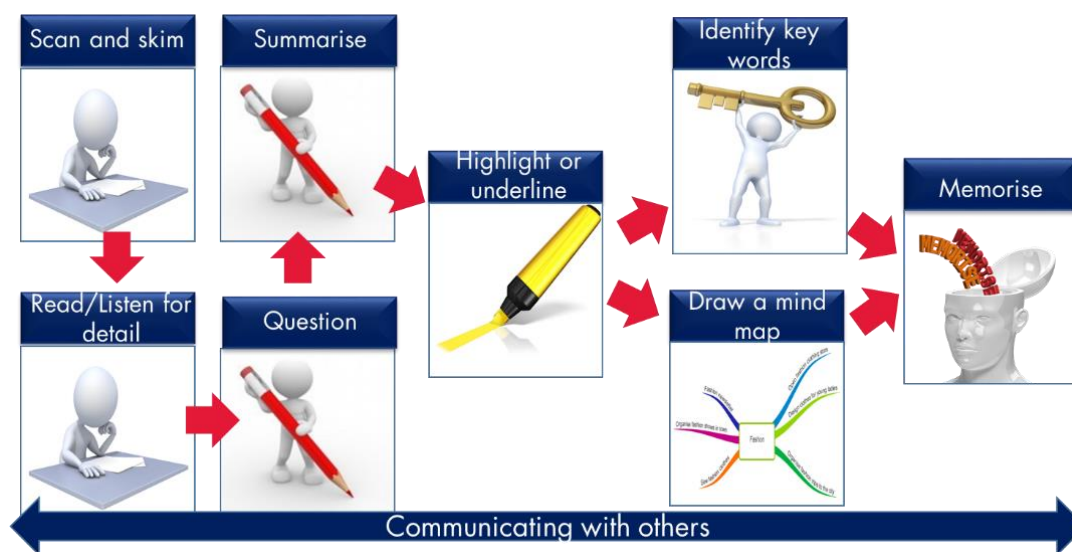
46.2 Acknowledge the resource.

8.2 Using learning strategies

Learning strategies were discussed in Chapter 7. Below is a summary:

- **Scanning and skimming** (discussed earlier)
- **Reading for detail** (discussed earlier).
- **Underlining** is an effective method for highlighting key ideas to memorise.
- **Questioning** – to check understanding and clarify meaning (discussed earlier); getting information and asking for help if you need it.
- **Summarising.** These can be progressively reduced, for example, the first step is to make a summary if a chapter. Then you use a highlighter to highlight the key idea in every paragraph. Next, you can use a pencil or pen to circle the key word or phrase in every paragraph. When you reach the memorising stage, you can write the key words in the left-hand margin and memorise them. If you have read through the material so many times to reach this stage, you should find it relatively easy to write a coherent text if you can remember the key words in their sequence.
- **Drawing mind maps** (discussed earlier). Colourful mind maps assists with memory because the mind finds it easier to recall a picture. To memorise the mindmap, study it thoroughly then close it up with a piece of paper and try to draw it until you remember all the key points. – Make sure you can explain all the key points indicated on the mindmap.
- **Taking notes** (discussed earlier).
- **Communicating with others.** Throughout your learning journey – and at any point – you can communicate with other people such as facilitators, other learners and colleagues to ask them questions or ask them to share their experiences related to the topic about which you are learning.
- **Memorising.** You can use different methods of memorising, for example
 - **Visualising** – forming a visual picture in your mind and focusing on all the aspects thereof.
 - **Rhymes** – using the key words to make up a rhyme. Usually, the funnier the rhyme the easier it is to remember.
 - **Acronyms** – using the first letters of key words to make up a ‘word’.
 - **Acrostic** – using the first letter of key words to form words that make up a sentence.

The steps in which you can apply the learning techniques can be represented as follows:



Note that the above is not a fixed method or sequence — you have to find what works for you.

8.3 Managing occupational learning materials

8.3.1 Organising learning material

Learning material must be organised in such a manner that it can be retrieved easily. In libraries, for example, books are classified into subject matter and authors and then organised on shelves. In addition, a catalogue or index is used through which a person can search to locate the books.

	<p>Activity 47: Organising learning materials</p> <p>Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.</p> <p>Work in groups. Discuss how the following types of learning material can be organised by a learner for easy access.</p>
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Text books	
Videos	
Internet sources	

Handouts from a training course	
Charts	

Tips for organising learning material:

- Properly plan and design a system that will be ‘written in stone’ – you don’t want to change the whole system in a short while – that will create a lot of work.
- Do not rush – think through the system, keeping all the types of material in mind.
- Design the system with the future in mind; not only for the material that you currently have available. Do, however, be practical and make sure that the system is ‘lean and mean’, not over-classified.
- Test before finalising the system.

8.3.2 Understanding layout and features of learning material

Features in learning material can guide the learner as to the purpose, target audience, point of view, etc. of the material.

These aspects were discussed in detail in Chapter 7.

8.3.3 Engaging with technical language and terminology

Technical terminology means the specialised vocabulary of any field, not just technical fields.

Some terms are, however, specifically used or used more often in particular technical fields.

A manager at a production or manufacturing organisation will, for example, have to understand terms such as **productivity, capacity planning, capacity management**, and so on, in order to make the necessary calculations to be as productive and efficient as possible.

If you need to use technical language and terminology, it is useful to provide a glossary with definitions in your documents. If you don’t understand a term, you should research it in a technical dictionary, product manual or on the Internet.

8.4 Functioning in a team

Learning in a team can greatly enhance one's learning if all members of the team share and exchange information, knowledge and experience. For team learning to be effective, one has to actively participate in team interactions and sometimes take the lead. It is also important to know how to manage conflict in the team, because where different ideas and experiences are being shared, there is always a chance that conflict can develop.

8.4.1 Meetings and discussions

8.4.1.1 Basic rules for planning learning meetings

- As for any other meeting that is to be effective, plan. Prepare an agenda and use the agenda to manage the meeting.
- Include in the agenda:
 - Date, time, venue.
 - Agenda items, timing allocated for each agenda item, people responsible for each agenda item.
 - Expected outcomes of the meeting.
- Circulate the agenda in advance so that the learning team can prepare. The action items could include aspects such as sharing information; finding information; giving feedback on actions since last meeting; generating ideas for solving problems or approaching a research project; planning; peer assessment; guest speakers on special subjects.
- Manage the meeting – agree outcomes; keep control; allocate responsibilities.
- Write and circulate notes on the outcomes of the meeting/learning session.
- Follow up on agreed actions and responsibilities.

8.4.1.2 Running meetings and discussions

- Keep control by sticking to the agenda, managing relationships and concentrating on the planned outcomes.
- Focus on the purpose of the meeting – each agenda item must have a purpose and these should be the focus for the meeting discussions.
- Facilitate and ensure participation. Encourage the quiet and nervous; suppress the over-zealous.
- Take notes on the salient points of the discussions. Note the agreed actions with the names of people responsible, the outcomes and the deadlines.
- Avoid lengthy discussions if you only need a decision.
- Defer new issues to another time – 'park' them and place them on the agenda for the next meeting.
- Observe behaviour of the team members and take note of signs of tiredness, exasperation and confusion and take the necessary action.
- Manage conflict and negotiate about issues as necessary.

- Do not put people down with phrases such as the following, as they kill enthusiasm and participation:
 - ‘A good idea, **but ...**’
 - ‘Be practical ...’
 - ‘All right in theory, **but ...**’
 - ‘Are you serious?’
- Present offers rather than stating positions.
- Communicate effectively by listening actively, speaking for a purpose.
- Handle emotions to avoid or resolve conflict.
- Uncover interests and solicit participation by using phrases such as the following:
 - ‘Let me see if I understand what you just said ...’
 - ‘I see it this way... How do you see it?’
 - ‘I would like your advice about ...’
 - ‘What concerns do you have ...?’

8.4.2 Applying group work conventions in learning situations

Group learning situations require that normal group work conventions be followed if these learning situations are to be effective.

Group work conventions that should be applied include:

- Members taking up their responsibilities.
- Taking turns to lead discussions and performing other responsibilities.
- Supervision. The team can elect a leader for a period and take turns to act as leader for coordinating and supervising actions and progress.
- Rotating roles for chairing and conducting meetings, recording agreed actions and reporting back to the group.
- Mentoring.

8.4.3 Mentoring

Mentoring takes place when a more experienced adult helps another adult to develop at work, in his career or in his business.

A mentor can be defined as a person who oversees and guides the development of another less experienced person through teaching, counselling, supporting and protecting such a person. The mentor acts to enhance the less experienced individual’s skills and intellectual development.

Entrepreneurs, who wish to learn more about managing businesses successfully, can benefit from having a mentor to discuss matters with. Often, such possible mentors are met through business networks formed at business clubs and associations.

8.4.4 Meaningful products and outcomes

Team work should result in meaningful products and outcomes. It is necessary that the team working on an assignment in a learning situation completes the required tasks and reaches consensus that will result in knowledge transfer.

Consensus is defined as ‘an opinion or position reached by a group as a whole’ by the American Heritage Dictionary. Consensus decision making is the process used to generate widespread agreement within a group. These instructions will guide you through that process.⁵

Reaching a consensus does not necessarily mean that the solution of first choice was reached. It is about the best interest of the group.

Consensus-decision-making is based on five requirements:

1. Inclusion – as many members of the team should be involved in the decision-making process. Nobody should be excluded.
2. Participation – each and every member must not only be included, but must also participate by contributing their suggestions and opinions.
3. Co-operation – all the people involved should work together, build upon each other’s suggestions and concerns, and come up with a decision or solution that will satisfy everyone in the group. The emphasis is on **everyone** and **not the majority**.
4. Egalitarianism (fairness and equality) – each member should have the opportunity to amend or veto ideas. Nobody’s inputs should weigh more than another’s.
5. Solution-seeking attitude.



Activity 48: Group learning

Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.

Plan and conduct a meeting with the objective of identifying a topic about which your group wants to learn more. Plan a learning strategy and identify an appropriate field trip that you could organise. Allocate responsibilities to people. Record the salient points of the meeting discussions for follow-up.

8.5 Effect of workplace and occupational context on learning

8.5.1 Sector and organisation type

The economy consists of several **industry sectors**. These include manufacturing, services, educational and manufacturing.

⁵ <http://www.wikihow.com/Reach-a-Consensus>

Organisations can also be from **several types**, e.g. governmental, parastatal, heavy/light industry, large organisation and small organisation.

8.5.1.1 Industry focus

Industry	Description
Services industry	<p>Comprises of organisations that primarily earn their revenue through providing intangible products and services.</p> <p>Examples of organisations in the service industry: retail, transport, distribution, food services, communications, accommodation, insurance and real estate.⁶</p>
Manufacturing industry	<p>Industry based on fabrication, processing, or preparation of products from raw materials and commodities. Includes foods, chemicals, textiles, machines and equipment, refined metals and minerals derived from extracted ores, lumber, wood and pulp products.</p>
Financial industry	<p>Encompasses a broad range of organizations that deal with the management of money, including banks, investment companies and insurance services.</p>
Educational industry	<p>Comprises establishments whose primary activity is education, including public, not-for-profit and for-profit establishments. Included are elementary and secondary schools, community colleges, universities, business schools and computer and management training, technical and trade schools, other schools and instruction and educational support services.</p>

8.5.1.2 Organisation type

Organisation type	Description
Government organisation	<p>A state organisation at any level: national, regional or local (municipal).</p>
Parastatal organisation	<p>An organisation performing a function usually associated with a government and under its indirect control.</p>
Heavy industry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An organisation in an industry which is capital- and/or labour-intensive, such as automobile, industrial machinery, steel, rubber, mining or petroleum. • The term ‘heavy’ refers to the fact that the items produced by ‘heavy industry’ used to be products such as iron, coal, oil, ships, etc. The reference currently also refers industries that cause disruption to the environment in the form of pollution, deforestation, etc.⁷

⁶ <http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/service-industry.html#ixzz15XEXGO4i>

⁷ http://www.investorwords.com/2292/heavy_industry.html#ixzz15XZGp4t6

Organisation type	Description
	<p>Another trait of heavy industry is that it most often sells its goods to other industrial customers, rather than to the end consumer.</p>
Light industry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is usually less capital intensive than heavy industry, and is more consumer-oriented than business-oriented - most light industry products are produced for end users rather than as intermediates for use by other industries. • Light industry facilities typically have less environmental impact than those associated with heavy industry, and zoning laws are more likely to permit light industry near residential areas. It is the production of small consumer goods.⁸ • One economic definition states that light industry is a 'manufacturing activity that uses moderate amounts of partially processed materials to produce items of relatively high value per unit weight'.⁹
Large/ small business	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In South Africa, organisations are classified as large, medium and small, based on the number of employees.

8.5.2 Features of the occupational environment

The occupational environment encompasses the physical surroundings and social environment. These factors can have an effect on the learning that takes place in the organisation. For example, large organisations often have formalised learning and training programmes, initiated by managers or by the Human Resources division.

In small organisations, the owner has to be aware of and on the lookout for opportunities for learning and for training staff. Most of the time, these opportunities should be very cost-effective because of limited resources.

⁸ Sullivan, Arthur; Steven M. Sheffrin (2003).

⁹ <http://www.answers.com/topic/light-industry>

Factors that influence the occupational environment include:



- **Level of knowledge and expertise** required for the organisation to function effectively. For example, in a law firm, a high level of knowledge that is up-to-date is required because case-law constantly creates new information to be used in legal cases. In a factory where computers are designed, a high level of technical knowledge, also ever-changing quickly, is required. In a small retail store, the critical knowledge is limited to aspects such as product knowledge, merchandising principles, stock control, customer service, etc.
- **Pace at which knowledge changes** in the industry.
- **Size of the organisation.** Larger organisations have experts who are responsible for identifying training needs and learning opportunities. Internal networks also contribute to the availability of more opportunities for sharing knowledge and experience. It is easy to identify a person within the organisation who can fulfil a mentoring function. Specialists can also attend to specialised tasks and knowledge areas. In small organisations, the owner is responsible for handling this, in addition to managing his business.
- **Technology used and pace of change in technology.**



Activity 49: Occupational context

Please complete the activity in your Portfolio guide.

Identify the sector and organisation type under which your organisation falls. Then describe the occupational environment and discuss the ways in which these features affect learning processes.

Industry sector	
Organisation type	

Features of the occupational environment	
How the features of the occupational environment affect learning processes	

8.6 Exploring education and learning opportunities

There is a wide range of education opportunities available, depending on what the learner has in mind for the future.

Educational opportunities are offered by private training providers, normally accredited by a relevant Sector Education and Training Authority (SETA). Public educational institutions such as universities also have a wide range of opportunities to offer.

8.7 Conclusion on occupational learning

For the employee in the wholesale and retail environment, much learning will take place in the form of self-directed learning. The first steps are to identify areas of knowledge to be gained and then to plan a learning strategy.

An important element of self-directed learning is the skill to conduct research and to apply appropriate research methodology.

Another element of effective learning is the ability to work in groups.

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ANNEXURE 1: Note-making form – Book

TOPIC:	
BOOK Title (and Sub Title)	
Author(s)	
Editor(s)	
Publisher	
City of publication	
Year of publication	
Page number(s)	Notes and quotations

Annexure 2: Note-making form – article

TOPIC:	
Article Title	
Author(s)	
Publisher	
Date of publication	
Page number(s)	Notes and quotations

Annexure 3: Sample research report

Source: www.chinavista.com/database/.../research_sample.html

Market Report of Selected Electrical Home Appliances

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1. Current status of electrical home appliance industry
2. Government policies
3. Purchasing Behaviours and Consumer Psychology
 - 3.1 Purchasing power
 - 3.2 Price anticipation
 - 3.3 Consumption habit
 - 3.4 Customers’ support
4. Consumer Durable Market Analyses
 - 4.1 Refrigerators
 - 4.1.4 major players
 - 4.1.2 Market share
 - 4.1.3 Trends

1 Current Status of Electrical Home Appliance Industry

The development of electrical home appliance industry in China has experienced three stages: initial development stage in 1979-1983; fast-growing stage in 1984-1988; and stable adjustment stage since 1989.

During the initial development and fast-growing stages from 1979 to 1988, the demand for and supply of daily-use electrical appliances grew rapidly in China. During this period, the possession of household refrigerators increased 101 times, with an annual growth of 78.14 per cent; the possession of washing machines increased 287 times at an annual growth of 102.88 per cent. Also during this period, domestic

demand for refrigerators had kept increasing at an annual rate of 92.23 per cent and that of washing machines at 84.82 per cent.

The fast solution of the massive demand within a short period of time led to a remarkable slowdown of the demand in the following years. During the seven-year period from 1988 to 1997, the national refrigerator possession grew 22.98 per cent a year on average. The growth rate was 94.78 percentage points lower than that in the previous stage. The domestic possession of washing machines grew 8.67 per cent a year on average, down 93.49 percentage points. The large-scale drop of the growth of demand restricted production growth. During the seven-year period, refrigerator output in China grew a meagre 2.97 per cent a year on average; and that of washing machines dropped 1.45 per cent annually on average.

1996 was a year when electrical home appliances grew stable in China. Production was oriented by market demand, and supply was more closely related with demand. Major appliances experienced rise and fall to different extent. The washing machines sector, which experienced negative growth on the previous year, achieved a 13-per-cent growth in 1996 to arrive at 10.68 million units. Refrigerator output was at the same level as that in 1995 at 9.28 million units. Range hood and electric cooker production experienced large-scale drop. Range hood output was 2.64 million units, down 30 per cent, and that of cookers was 14.24 million units, down 12 per cent.

Table 1 Output Of Selected Electrical Home Appliances (Unit:1000set)

	1996	1997	2000 demand
Refrigerators	9,282	9,746	14,000
Washing Machines	10,689	11,972	16,800
Cookers/Cooktops	14,240	20,000	
Dryers	406		
Range hoods	2,640		

One of the features of electrical home appliance export in 1996 was that the position of foreign-funded organisations improved largely. Their exports climbed to 50 per cent of the national total in 1996, compared with 38 per cent a year ago. The position of the State-owned organisations, however, dropped remarkably. Their exports declined from 52 per cent of the national total to 40 per cent. Foreign investment has produced impact to the appliance industry. In 1997, dozens of Sino-foreign joint ventures will become operational. These joint ventures have the advantage in capital, technology and brand, and they will quickly squeeze into the Chinese market.

2 Government Policies

China does not offer special policies to the domestic appliance industry. The appliance industry is an emergent sector with fierce market competition. To cope with the growth of the appliance industry, the entrance of foreign companies and expansion of Chinese manufacturers abroad, to standardize competition behaviours, to create an environment for fair play and to meet the demand for healthy development of the appliance industry in China, the China Association of Electrical Home Appliance Industry worked out the **Accord of the Chinese Electrical Appliance Industry for Civilized Competition** in 1997.

China mainly obtained the state-of-the-art technology of manufacturing and product technology of electrical home appliances through imports, which has resulted in such fatal weakness as poor ability for product development, domestic supply of spare parts and raw materials.

Electrical home appliance industry has long been one of priority industries of government assistance. The government had adopted high tariff policy as well as import license system to electrical home appliance import to protect the domestic market.

Foreign products, before entering the Chinese market, must pass the CCIB standard issued by the State Administration for the Inspection of Import and Export Commodities, in addition to requirements such as national security certification and meeting environmental protection standards.

The inspection procedures include: quality, specifications, quantity, weight, packaging of commodities and whether these commodities are up to the safety and hygiene standard.

Organisations have the autonomy in business administration, and such matters as how to use foreign brands or how to jointly use foreign brands are up to the decision of both co-operative partners.

3 Purchasing Behaviours and Consumer Psychology

Daily-use electrical appliances are consumer products for the public. The change of its market demand is vulnerable to such elements as purchasing power, consumers' anticipation of prices and consumption habits.

3.1 Purchasing power

As the Chinese economy grew fast in recent years, the income of the Chinese people had increased largely. During the Eighth Five-Year Plan period, the average per capita income of urban residents rose from 1,387.30 yuan to 3,892.90 yuan, growing 22.90 per cent a year on average; per capita net income of rural residents grew from 686.30 yuan to 1,577.70 yuan, rising 18.10 per cent a year on average. At the same time, because of the effect of the reform of distribution system and other elements, the income disparity has kept expanding. The difference between the average per capita consumer spending between urban highest income families and the lowest increased from 2.74 times in 1990 to 2.93 times in 1995. Both the rise of income and the increase of income disparity will lead to the rise of the overall purchasing power of the society. As China's overall economy is expected to continue its growth momentum this year and the next, the income level of the Chinese residents and the income structure will also continue the development momentum initiated since this year. The reasonable rise of the income will ensure the purchasing power needed for limited expansion of daily-use electrical appliance market.

3.2 Price anticipation

After two years of macro-regulation by the government, the price rise level has returned to the normal spectrum. The 1997 price movement will continue the 1996 trend – continuous growth at low speed. Good price prospect and people's confidence to the government's regulatory ability have made residents have low anticipation of the price rise level and a stable consumer psychology, which will help the smooth operation of daily-use electrical appliance market, devoid of sharp rise or fall.

3.3 Consumption habit

The improvement of living standard in recent years has imperceptibly influenced the habit of spending of urban and rural residents as they pay more attention to leisure time. When they select commodities, they emphasize convenience for use and how they can substitute people in doing family chores. Such a change of consumption habit will influence the demand structure of daily-use electrical appliances. In coming years, demand for highly efficient new products will rise remarkably.

3.4 Customers' support

The improvement of services before, during and after sales and promises to buyers concerning different aspects have become especially important in marketing. Honoring promises has helped promoting manufacturers' image. Advertising and new services jointly undertaken by manufacturers and retailers were common phenomenon of appliance sales in 1996.

4 Consumer Durable Market Analyses

4.1 Refrigerators

Market Size and Forecast Demand

China made 9.28 million refrigerators in 1996 when the sales of domestically-made refrigerators had 99 per cent of the domestic market share. About 1 million Chinese-made refrigerators were exported that year. In 1997 the output of refrigerators will increase 5 per cent, and reach 9.7 million sets. The market demand for refrigerators will be 14 to 16 million sets in year of 2000, and urban household possession of refrigerator will increase from 66 per cent in 1996 to 86 per cent in 2000.

Refrigerator market is composed of two segment of urban and rural areas.

(1) City and Towns. In 1985, only 9.57 per cent of urban families had a refrigerator. Over one decade later, refrigerator ownership in urban families has improved rapidly. In 1996, every 100 urban families owned 70 refrigerators. Refrigerator has become one of the three essential appliances in urban families. The overall demand tendency of urban refrigerator market is: coexistence of additional purchasing and replacing. A large number of refrigerators now used in urban families have entered the replacement period. Products having large freezing cabin, free of CFC, energy saving and low noise will be of high demand. The total amount in demand will rise stable and prices will rise slightly.

(2) Countryside. In 1985, only 0.06 per cent of rural families had a refrigerator. In the past decade, the introduction of refrigerators to rural families has been undertaken very slowly. In 1996, every 100 rural families had only 6 refrigerators. It was still at the initial stage for popularizing household refrigerators in the countryside.

Income level is a direct element deciding consumption growth for electrical home appliances in the countryside. In recent years, the income of rural residents has kept rising, and so as the spending on electrical home appliances. Since 1991, farmers' income growth has stopped fluctuating. Purchasing of electrical home appliances in every 100 households have improved to different extent.

Table 3 Rural Household Net Income and Possession of Electrical Home Appliances

	<i>Unit</i>	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Per Capta Rural Household Net Income	RMB yuan	708.55	783.99	921.62	1220.98	1587.00	1926.07
Color TV	Set / 100 Households	4.72	8.08	10.86	13.52	16.90	22.91
Washing Machines	Set / 100 Households	9.12	12.23	13.82	15.30	16.90	20.54
Refrigerators	Set / 100 Households	1.22	2.17	3.05	4.00	5.10	7.27

When comparing the ownership of three most major electrical home appliances, it is indicated that the popularization of refrigerators in rural families is obviously lower than color television and washing machines. The former is still in the initial growth stage for the popularization of a product. Income improvement, however, is challenging rural families' standstill demand for refrigerators. By June 1996, refrigerators smaller than 200 Litre accounted for 62 per cent of those already sold to rural families. Despite that small refrigerators are of dominant demand in rural areas, there is still market for the products larger than 200 Litre in the rural market.

One of the major problems hindering the development of refrigerator industry at present is idle production capacity. In 1996, the national refrigerator production capacity was about 20 million units, doubling the year's actual output. About half of the equipment were idle. Instant investigations conducted by the State Planning Commission and the State Statistics Bureau indicate that there were 12 new projects under construction at the end of May 1996, bringing an additional capacity of about 2 million refrigerators.

Another problem is that manufacturers of small capacity scattered around the country. In 1996, China had over 180 refrigerator manufacturers based in 19 provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions – each of these provinces has about 10 refrigerator manufacturers. The density in coastal regions is even higher. The arrival of foreign brands to the Chinese market in recent two years is another blow to the Chinese refrigerator industry.

4.1.1 Major Players

In 1989, there were 256 refrigerator manufacturers in China. After years of competition and dropping out, the number reduced to over 100 in 1995. The industry has a number of well-known brand established amid competition. They include Rongsheng, Haier, Meiling, Yangzi, Shangling and Xingfei. But, there are still a number of organisations whose equipment are idle and who are awaiting for closure or merge. Out of 64 refrigerator assembling plants, 14 have an annual output exceeding 200,000 refrigerators and their combined output account for 87 per cent of the national total, that is 87 per cent of the national output are produced by only 22 per cent of refrigerator manufacturers.

The China Association of Electrical Home Appliance Industry just published top refrigerator manufacturers in terms of 1996 output and sales. Kelon Group, with an annual output of 1.805 million refrigerators, ranked as the top refrigerator manufacturer for six consecutive years.

In December 1996, Kelon opened two manufacturing bases in Chengdu and Yingkou. Expected operation of the two plants in 1998, each capable of producing 500,000 refrigerators a year, will expand the production capacity of Rongsheng refrigerators from the current 2 million to 3 million a year. Kelon Group also invested over 100 million yuan to establish a modern research institute in Japan. Kelon (Japan) Co., Ltd. has recruited top appliance experts in Japan, America and Europe to supply the latest electrical appliance technology of the world. In the past year, Kelon Japan has applied integrated air vertical refrigeration, completely computer fuzzy control and other advanced technologies in Kelon's production. In July 1996, Kelon's Class-H shares were listed at the Stock Exchange of Hong Kong.

In May 1995, the government adopted the "exporting one, awarding one" policy, under which organisations exporting one refrigerator was allowed to import one compressor. Manufacturers or organisation groups that exported at least 1,000 refrigerators annually were offered the "exporting one, awarding one" treatment. However, lured by abundant capital resources of foreign multinational companies and under their threaten, some Chinese organisations started joint ventures, some of them have even lost the controlling power in the joint ventures. The refrigerator market competition has extended from home to abroad, and become white-hot.

Multinational companies, with strong capital resources as their backup and at the cost of losing money, have purchased a number of Chinese brands to piece eat the Chinese refrigerator market in forms of purchasing and controlling shares of Chinese organisations. Whirlpool of the United States, for example, has purchased Beijing's Snow Flake, LIDO (transliteration) of Sweden bought Changsha's Zhongyi, Samsung of Republic of Korea controlled Suzhou's Xiangxuehai and BOXIWEI (transliteration) of Germany purchased Chuzhou's Yangzi, and etc.

Table 4 Foreign Firms Producing Refrigerators In China By 1996

Company	Place of production	Brand used	Annual output
Whirlpool, US	Beijing (Snow Flake)	Whirlpool	1 million
LIDO, Sweden	Changsha, Hunan (Zhongyi)	Electrolux	1 million
BOXIWEI, Germany	Chuzhou, Anhui (Yangzi)	BOXIYANG (transliteration)	1 million
Matsushita, Japan	Wuxi, Jiangsu (Little Swan)	National	1 million
Sharp, Japan	Pudong, Shanghai	Sharp	1 million
Samsung, Korea	Suzhou, Jiangsu (Xiangxuehai)	Samsung	1 million
Meitaike (transliteration), USA	Hefei, Anhui (Rongshida)	Meitaike	1 million
LG, ROK	Taizhou, Jiangsu (Chunlan)	LG	1 million

The Chinese Government will work out anti-dumping policies to protect the national industries, restrict unfair competition within the industry (under which foreign companies are used to beat other Chinese players), and require foreign investors and joint ventures promising to export a certain percentage of their output.

4.1.2 Market Share

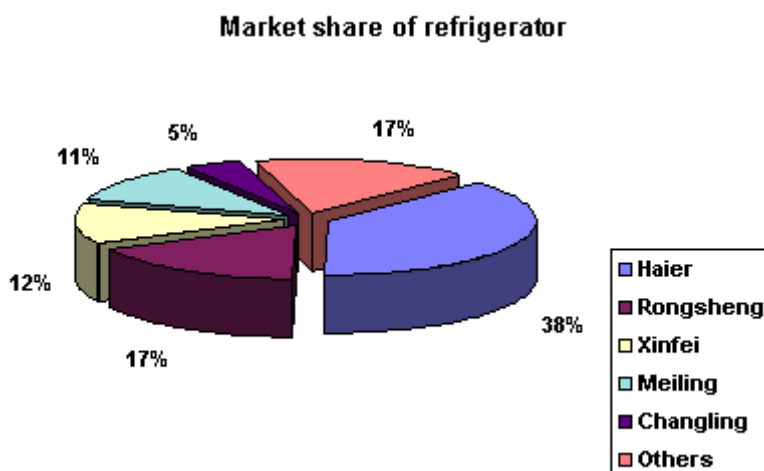
In 1996, China's refrigerator market was dominated by domestic brands. Sales of foreign brands were less than 3 per cent of the total, and 95 per cent of foreign brands were sold in Beijing, Tianjin, Shanghai, Jiangsu, Zhejiang and Guangdong. Refrigerators with the capacity between 180 Litre to 220 litres occupied more than half of the sales.

According to the December 1996 edition of Investigation to 100 Stores, Japan's National refrigerators had broken the long-time monopoly by Chinese brands in top 10 refrigerators. It ranked eighth.

Table 5 Beijing’s Market Share of Refrigerator

Brand	Market Share (%)	Average Price (yuan)
Haier	37.7	3,246
Rongsheng	17.3	2,645
Xinfei	12.3	2,786
Meiling	11.2	2,494
Changling	4.6	2,677
Others	16.9	

Graph 1 Beijing’s Market Share of Refrigerator



4.1.3 Trends

(1) The CFC substitution process in refrigerator production in China has been accelerated. Major manufacturers have been able to produce CFC-free products. Output of refrigerators with CFC substitutes has been raised as 25 per cent of the output were completely free of CFC in 1996, which met the demand of exporting to the developed countries as well as consumers' requirement for environment friendly products on the domestic market. Competition for the market shares has become fiercer. Haier, for example, has adopted such measures of developing diversified new products to suit consumer groups of different levels and of opening franchise shops in large department stores to improve its market share. Kelon has offered varieties of products to expand its market sphere and Xingfei has attempted to attract consumers by offering environment friendly products.

(2) At present, development of refrigerator products tends to be varied. Apart from such high demands on energy-saving, low-noise and other functions of public knowledge, other requirements such as both extremely large and extremely small capacities, diversified partition of refrigerator cabins and adopting environment friendly substances as refrigerants have become widely pursued by consumers.