

NATIONAL CERTIFICATE IN
WHOLESALE AND RETAIL
OPERATIONS SUPERVISION, NQF
Level 4, ID 49397

Written Communication

**Aligned to unit
standard: 119465**

Learner Study Guide

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This Learner Study Guide articulates in the following programme and manner:

**NATIONAL CERTIFICATE IN WHOLESALE AND RETAIL OPERATIONS
SUPERVISION, NQF LEVEL 4, ID 49397**

WHOLESALE AND RETAIL Learning Programme

Written Communication

Write and present texts for a range of communicative contexts, US ID 119465



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Introduction to this programme

Dear learner

Welcome to the learning programme – **Write and present texts for a range of communicative contexts, US ID 119465**

The unit forms part of Written Communication for the NATIONAL CERTIFICATE in Wholesale and Retail Operations Supervision, which is registered with the WHOLESALE and RETAIL SETA.

Congratulations on choosing to upgrade your skills. We believe that this is one of many learning programmes that will develop and improve your skills.

Over the past couple of years, South Africa has made a significant shift from the old dispensation in education (where learners used to be bombarded with theory and very little practical work) to an outcomes-based education model (based on competency rather than on theory). The aim of the shift is to make the South African labour force more productive and show them how to apply the knowledge that they have gained from training programmes.

The learning programme you are about to start is outcomes-based and in line with the outcomes as stipulated in the applicable unit standard. The assessment is also in line with the assessment criteria as stipulated in the unit standard. Once you have been declared competent on the outcomes of this unit standard, you will receive **credits** towards a nationally recognised qualification.

You will be assessed formatively and summatively. The **formative** assessment will be conducted as you work through the lessons of this Study Guide and the **summative** assessment will be conducted when you have completed your training. Assessment can also be defined as the method that is used to determine whether you have mastered the skills that you will be taught during this learning programme. Assessment usually consists of two components, namely **instructional learning** (as conducted during this learning programme) and the **workplace assessment** – to determine your practical skills and your ability to implement what you have learnt.

The purpose with the Practical Guide Logbook (which will be handed to you by your assessor) will be to assess whether you can apply what you have learnt in the workplace.

Another added advantage to the new dispensation is the fact that recognition of prior learning is also considered and can count towards achieving credits towards a skills programme or qualification. Life experience, work experience and previous courses attended can be taken into consideration for recognition of prior learning purposes, should it relate to the specific learning programme or qualification you are working towards. This is merely a brief description to the new dispensation and barely covers what one can learn about this.

So, you will undergo theoretical training; receive your Practical Guide Logbook and Learner Assessment Guide & Portfolio of Evidence. At this point, you and your assessor will sign the Assessment Plan and your assessment will commence! You will be guided all the way.

We hope that this makes you as excited as it does us and it is a real privilege for us to be able to facilitate and assess you on the outcomes of the unit standard that we are about to start.

Please feel free to communicate any questions to your facilitator or to your assessor.

Remember, look out for the following icon in your Study Guide:

This icon indicates an activity that must be completed and placed in your Portfolio of Evidence (PoE).



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Purpose of the learning programme

Purpose

The purpose of this learning programme is to enable learners to effectively write and present complex subject matter by engaging in accurate language and its construction. They will be able to select text type, subject matter and language that will suit the audience, purpose and context. They will be able to use linguistic structures and features that enable them to influence their readers and audience and are able to use language that is appropriate to the socio-cultural, learning and the workplace or technical environment as required.

Critical cross-field outcomes

During the Lessons (and theoretical process), the practical component and the workplace experience you will complete during the course of this programme, there are also CCFO's

These CCFO's are as follows:

CCFO	Details
Identify and solve problems	The ability to identify and solve problems using context to decode and make meaning individually and in groups in oral, reading, signed and written activities.
Work effectively with others and as part of a team	The ability to work effectively with others and in teams when using interactive speech in activities, discussions and research projects
Organize and manage oneself and one's activities effectively and responsibly	The ability to organize and manage oneself and one's activities responsibly and effectively through using language
Collect, analyse, organize and critically evaluate information	The ability to collect, analyse, organize and critically evaluate information that is fundamental to the process of growing language capability across language applications and fields of study
Communicate effectively	The ability to communicate effectively using visual, mathematical and language skills in formal and informal communication
Use science and technology effectively and critically	The ability to use science and technology effectively and critically to access and present ideas and exploring the ethics of science and technology through studying texts from and about these fields
Demonstrate an understanding of the world as a set of related system	The ability to demonstrate an understanding of the world as a set of related systems using language to explore and express links, and exploring a global range of contexts and texts
Contribute to the full development of self	The ability to contribute to full self-development by engaging with texts that stimulate awareness and development of life skills and the learning process

Entry level requirements

Learners being registered against this learning programme, must **already demonstrate the following competence:**

- They must have achieved competence on Literacy at NQF Level 2, in specific relation to unit standard **Write and present for a defined context**

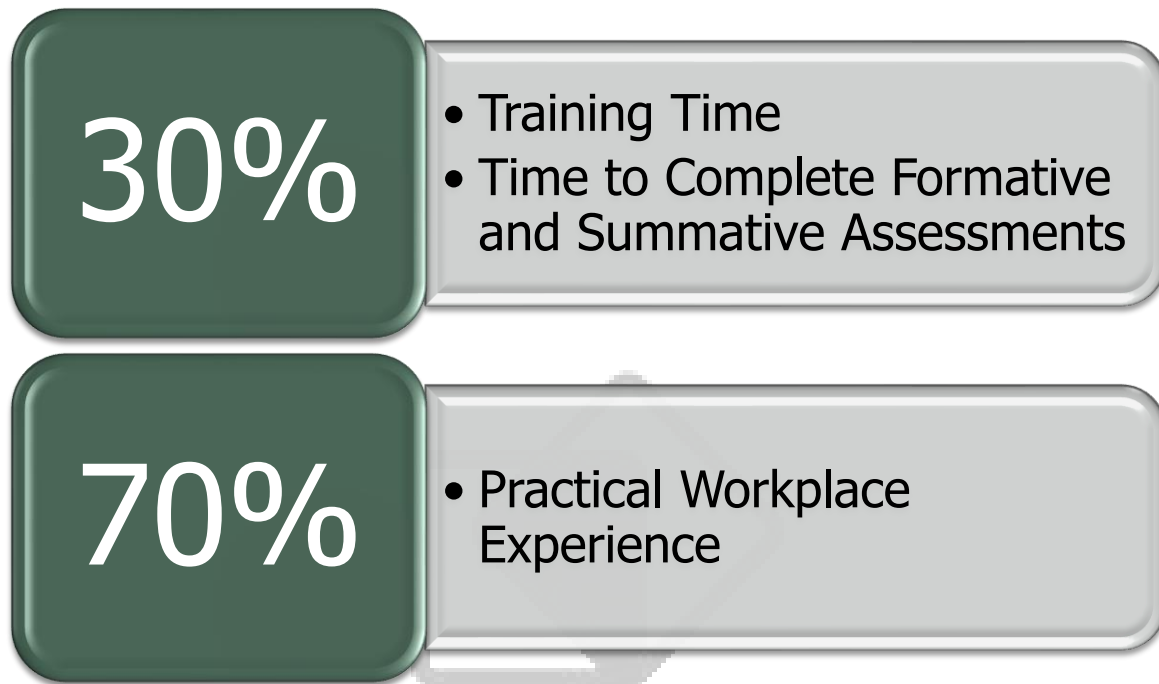


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Learning programme schedule

This Learning Programme carries a weight of 5 credits. These credits are converted into actual working hours which equate to a total of 50. This means it will take approximately 50 hours for you to undergo the training, assessment and all other requirements before you are found competent against this unit standard.

These 50 hours are broken up as follows:



30% of 50 = 15 Hours

5 Hours (1 Day)

This time is for the actual training session. Here, you will be attending class or tuition with the rest of the learners. Learning will be based on the requirements of the unit standard.

15 Hours (2 Days)

During the training session, the facilitator will inform you of the assessment requirements for the unit standard – both Formative and Summative. During this time you will need to complete your Formative Assessments and also ensure that all required forms and preparation sheets are signed together with your Assessor for you to undergo the Summative Assessment requirements. These may include components of Knowledge, Practical and / or Case Studies or Projects.

During this time, you may also contact the Assessor for assistance on the requirements of the Assessments. The learning group may also make use of this time to self-help on the Assessments.

70% of 50 = 35 Hours

35 Hours (5 Days)

During these 5 days, you will need to be based at a workplace – assisted by the workplace mentor, coach or assessor to ensure that you achieve the specific outcomes and assessment criteria as detailed on the Practical Workplace Logbook. These will need to be signed off by the workplace mentor, coach or assessor and submitted as part of your PoE.

Any other activity (outside of the PWL) that will assist you in demonstrating competence on any of the specific outcomes should be included as evidence in your PoE.



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Unit Standard

Unit Standard: 119465



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SOUTH AFRICAN QUALIFICATIONS AUTHORITY

REGISTERED UNIT STANDARD:

Write/present/sign texts for a range of communicative contexts

SAQA US ID	UNIT STANDARD TITLE			
119465	Write/present/sign texts for a range of communicative contexts			
ORIGINATOR				
SGB GET/FET Language and Communication				
PRIMARY OR DELEGATED QUALITY ASSURANCE FUNCTIONARY				
-				
FIELD			SUBFIELD	
Field 04 - Communication Studies and Language			Language	
ABET BAND	UNIT STANDARD TYPE	PRE-2009 NQF LEVEL	NQF LEVEL	CREDITS
Undefined	Regular-Fundamental	Level 3	NQF Level 03	5
REGISTRATION STATUS		REGISTRATION START DATE	REGISTRATION END DATE	SAQA DECISION NUMBER
Reregistered		2015-07-01	2018-06-30	SAQA 10105/14
LAST DATE FOR ENROLMENT		LAST DATE FOR ACHIEVEMENT		
2019-06-30		2022-06-30		

In all of the tables in this document, both the pre-2009 NQF Level and the NQF Level is shown. In the text (purpose statements, qualification rules, etc), any references to NQF Levels are to the pre-2009 levels unless specifically stated otherwise.

This unit standard replaces:

US ID	Unit Standard Title	Pre-2009 NQF Level	NQF Level	Credits	Replacement Status
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8970	Write texts for a range of communicative contexts	Level 3	NQF Level 03	5	Complete
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PURPOSE OF THE UNIT STANDARD

Learners at this level write/present/sign texts with complex subject matter and a need for various levels of formality in language and construction. They select text type, subject matter and language to suit specific audiences, purposes and contexts. Writers/signers can use linguistic structures and features to influence readers/their audience. They draft, redraft and edit own writing/signing to meet the demands of a range of text-types. They use language appropriate to the socio-cultural, learning or workplace/technical environment as required. They explore presentation techniques as an alternative to writing/signing own texts.

Learners credited with this unit standard are able to:

- Write/sign for a specified audience and purpose
- Use language structures and features to produce coherent and cohesive texts for a wide range of contexts
- Draft own writing/signing and edit to improve clarity and correctness

LEARNING ASSUMED TO BE IN PLACE AND RECOGNITION OF PRIOR LEARNING

The credit calculation is based on the assumption that learners are already competent in terms of the following outcomes or areas of learning when starting to learn towards this unit standard: NQF Level 2 Unit Standard entitled Write/present/sign for a defined context.

UNIT STANDARD RANGE

Controls language patterns and structures and engages with context, purpose and audience.

Specific range statements are provided in the body of the unit standard where they apply to particular specific outcomes or assessment criteria.

Specific Outcomes and Assessment Criteria:

SPECIFIC OUTCOME 1

Write/sign for a specified audience and purpose.

OUTCOME RANGE

Narrative, discursive, reflective, argumentative, descriptive, expository, transactional, business correspondence, electronic texts, multi-media presentations.

ASSESSMENT CRITERIA

ASSESSMENT CRITERION 1

The purpose for writing/signing, the target audience and the context are clear in relation to the learning task or activity.

ASSESSMENT CRITERION 2

The text-type, style, and register selected are appropriate to audience, purpose and context.

ASSESSMENT CRITERION 3

Language appropriate to socio-cultural sensitivities is selected and used in an appropriate manner without compromising own values or arguments.

ASSESSMENT CRITERION 4

Writing/signing is well-structured and conveys its message clearly.

ASSESSMENT CRITERION 5

Critical thinking skills are used as strategies for planning.

ASSESSMENT CRITERION RANGE

Brainstorming, mind-mapping, using spider diagrams, highlighting

ASSESSMENT CRITERION 6

Writing/signing reflects a clear point of view with sound reasons and facts to support arguments and logical development of a clearly articulated premise.

ASSESSMENT CRITERION 7

Research skills are evident in the way data and information relevant to the context is identified, located, selected and synthesised for inclusion in the final text.

ASSESSMENT CRITERION RANGE

Accessing information from different sources, sorting, categorising, classifying, sifting for relevance, validity and reliability, recording, reporting, formulating conclusions

SPECIFIC OUTCOME 2

Use language structures and features to produce coherent and cohesive texts for a wide range of contexts.

ASSESSMENT CRITERIA**ASSESSMENT CRITERION 1**

Meaning is clearly expressed through the use of a range of sentence structures, lengths and types.

ASSESSMENT CRITERION 2

The use of paragraph conventions and links between paragraphs in texts, promotes coherence and cohesion in writing/signing. Their use is explained with reference to logical progression, cause and effect and/or contrast.

ASSESSMENT CRITERION 3

The overall structure of a piece of writing/signing is controlled and the conclusion is clearly formulated.

SPECIFIC OUTCOME 3

Draft own writing/signing and edit to improve clarity and correctness.

ASSESSMENT CRITERIA**ASSESSMENT CRITERION 1**

Writing/signing produced is appropriate to audience, purpose and context. Corrections are an improvement on the original.

ASSESSMENT CRITERION 2

Control of grammar, diction/clarity of sign, sentence and paragraph structure is checked and adapted for consistency.

ASSESSMENT CRITERION 3

Logical sequencing of ideas and overall unity are achieved through redrafting.

ASSESSMENT CRITERION 4

There is clear evidence that major grammatical and linguistic errors are edited out in redrafts.

ASSESSMENT CRITERION 5

Inappropriate or potentially offensive language is identified and adapted/removed.

ASSESSMENT CRITERION RANGE

Obfuscation, excessive use of jargon, jargon used to exclude, insensitive choice of words, (gender, rank, hierarchies in familiar settings or organisations, family, sports, wealth) offensive or incorrect register

ASSESSMENT CRITERION 6

Experimentation with different layouts and options for presentation is appropriate to the nature and purpose of the task.

UNIT STANDARD ACCREDITATION AND MODERATION OPTIONS

- This Unit Standard will be assessed by an assessor and moderated by a moderator, registered with the relevant accredited ETQA responsible for the quality assurance of this Unit Standard.
- Any institution offering learning that will enable achievement of this Unit Standard must be accredited as a provider through the appropriate quality assuring ETQA, or Learning Programme approval with an ETQA that has a Memorandum of Understanding with the quality assuring ETQA.
- Verification (external moderation) of assessment and moderation by the provider, will be conducted by the relevant quality assuring ETQA according to the moderation guidelines in the relevant Qualification and the agreed ETQA policy and procedures.
- An individual wishing to be assessed through RPL against this Unit Standard, may apply to an assessment agency or provider institution accredited by the relevant quality assuring ETQA, or by an ETQA that has a formal agreement/accreditation with the relevant quality assuring ETQA.

Critical Cross-field Outcomes (CCFO):

UNIT STANDARD CCFO IDENTIFYING

Identify and solve problems: using context to decode and make meaning individually and in groups in oral, reading/signing and/or written activities.

UNIT STANDARD CCFO WORKING

Work effectively with others and in teams: using interactive speech/sign in activities, discussion and research projects.

UNIT STANDARD CCFO ORGANISING

Organise and manage oneself and one's activities responsibly and effectively through using language.

UNIT STANDARD CCFO COLLECTING

Collect, analyse, organise and critically evaluate information: fundamental to the process of growing language capability across language applications and fields of study.

UNIT STANDARD CCFO COMMUNICATING

Communicate effectively using visual, mathematical and/or language skills: in formal and informal communications in writing/signing.

UNIT STANDARD CCFO SCIENCE

Use science and technology effectively and critically: using technology to access and present texts.

UNIT STANDARD CCFO DEMONSTRATING

Understand the world as a set of inter-related parts of a system: through using language to explore and express links, and exploring a global range of contexts and texts.

UNIT STANDARD CCFO CONTRIBUTING

Contribute to the full development of oneself: by engaging with texts that stimulate awareness and development of life skills and the learning process.

REREGISTRATION HISTORY

As per the SAQA Board decision/s at that time, this unit standard was Reregistered in 2012; 2015.



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Introduction to this Learning Programme

Writing can take on many different styles and forms depending on the situation. For example, text messages between you and a friend will most likely be short and informal. Contrast this with a letter you may send to a potential employer, which would be longer and definitely more formal.

Writing texts in the workplace is formal and has rules and guidelines. You will always need to take note of the following:

1. WHO you are writing for and to
2. WHAT you are saying
3. HOW you will say it

Purpose, audience and context are vital when preparing for your texts.

This Learner Study Guide introduces you to the concept of writing for different contexts and different audiences, using appropriate language structures to suit these situations.



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Lesson 1

Writing for a specific audience and purpose

In order for you to demonstrate competence against the specific outcome indicated above, you will need to achieve the following:

LO1 → Identify the purpose of writing, the audience and the context

LO2 → Use the appropriate text-type, style and register

LO3 → Select language that is appropriate and sensitive to the purpose, audience and context

LO4 → Structure the writing well to ensure the message is conveyed

LO5 → Use critical thinking skills such as brainstorming, mind-mapping, spider diagrams and highlighting

LO6 → Support the writing with a clear point of view, sound reasons, facts and a logical flow

LO7 → Use research skills when required

Writing skills are an important part of communication. Good writing skills allow you to communicate your message with clarity and ease to a far larger audience than through face to face or telephone conversations.



You may be called upon to write a report, plan a strategy at work, write a grant application or press release within a volunteering role; or you may fancy communicating your ideas online via a blog. And of course, a well written CV or resume with no spelling or grammatical mistakes is essential if you are looking for a new job.

Today when anyone can be their own publisher, we see more and more examples of poor writing skills both in print and on the web. Poor writing skills create poor first impressions and many readers will have an immediate negative

reaction if they spot a spelling or grammatical mistake. As just one example, a spelling mistake on a commercial web page may cause potential customers to doubt the credibility of the website and the organisation.

SECTION 1: Well-structured writing

Narrative and descriptive writing

Writing a narrative composition appeals to one of our basic instincts – the impulse to share stories. Sometimes the aim of the story teller is simply to entertain, to provide a moment of escape from the business of the day or the horrors of the night, but sometimes the aim of the story teller is to instruct, to help others in their understanding of something.

The skills needed to narrate a story are not entirely the same as the skills needed to write a good essay.

Descriptive elements

The ability to describe something convincingly will serve a writer well in any kind of essay situation. The most important thing to remember is that your job as a writer is to show, not tell.

Let nouns and verbs do the work of description for you. With nouns, your readers will see; with verbs they will feel. In the following paragraph, taken from George Orwell's famous essay – *Shooting an Elephant* – see how the act of shooting the elephant delivers immense emotional impact. What adjectives would you expect to find in a paragraph about an elephant? Big? Grey? Loud? Enormous? Do you find them here? Watch the verbs, instead. Notice too, another truth about description; when time is fleeting, slow down the prose. See how long the few seconds of the shooting can take in this paragraph.

When I pulled the trigger, I did not hear the bang or feel the kick – one never does when a shot goes home – but I heard the devilish roar of glee that went up from the crowd. In that instant, in too short a time, one would have thought, even for the bullet to go there, a mysterious, terrible change had come over the elephant. He neither stirred nor fell, but every line of his body had altered. He looked suddenly stricken, shrunken, immensely old, as though the frightful impact of the bullet had paralysed him without knocking him down. At last, after what seemed a long time – it may have been five seconds, I dare say – he sagged flabbily to his knees. His mouth slobbered. An enormous senility seemed to have settled upon him. One could have imagined him thousands of years old. I fired again into the same spot. At the second shot he did not collapse but climbed with desperate slowness to his feet and stood weakly upright, with legs sagging and head drooping. I fired a third time. That was the shot that did for him. You could see the agony of its jolt his whole body and knock the last remnant of strength from his legs. But in falling he seemed for a moment to rise, for as his kind legs collapsed beneath him, he seemed to tower upward like a huge rock toppling, his trunk reaching skyward like a tree. He trumpeted, for the first and only time. And then he came, his belly towards me, with a crash that seemed to shake the ground even where I lay.

Do not forget that the business of the essay is to make a point. In his essay, Orwell succeeds in portraying the horrors of an imperialist state, showing how the relationship between the oppressed Burmese and the British oppressor is de-humanising to both. When writing a narrative, it is easy to get caught up in the telling of the story and forget that, eventually, the reader will ask: *SO WHAT?* and there had better be an answer!

Read Jeffrey Tayler's *The Sacred Grove to Oshogbo* and try to determine exactly at what passage in the text do you become aware of the point of Tayler's essay. Take note of the rich detailing of the forest, the caretaker, and the minister from the city and try to describe how the details lend themselves towards the purpose of the article.

May 26, 1999

The driver steered his moped down the corrugated mud road outside of the Nigerian town of Oshogbo, north of Lagos, with me bouncing along on the back seat. In front of a wooden

gate he wobbled to a halt. The surrounding rain forest was dripping with humidity, wraiths of mist wandered between the big trees, I got off, paid him and entered.

The Sacred grove of Oshogbo was one place I had been looking forward to visiting in Nigeria. As prevalent as indigenous religions still are in West Africa, it is often hard to find public expressions of them in towns and cities, the Christianity brought by European slavers and colonialists has taken root and pushed most of these religions out of mainstream life. but in the Sacred Grove shrines honour all the local deities, including Obatala, the god of creation, Ogun, the god of iron and Oshun, the goddess of water, whose aqueous essence is made manifest by the river running through the trees. The place is unique in the Yoruba religion, and that intrigued me.

As I passed through the gates I heard a squeaky voice. A diminutive middle-aged man came out from behind the trees – the caretaker. He worked a toothbrush sized stick around in this mouth, digging into the crevices between algae'd stubs of teeth. He was barefoot; he wore a blue batik shirt known as a **buba**, baggy purple trousers, and an embroidered skullcap. I asked him if he would show me the shrine. Motioning me to follow, he spat out the results of his stick work and set off down the trail.

We stopped in front of a many-headed statue. **Ako Alumawewe**, he blurted out, sucking on the stick. A deity? I asked. He nodded and spat, then headed down the trail to another stone effigy, that of Egbe. After kissing the ground at its base, he held forth at length in mellifluous Yoruba. Since I spoke no Yoruba and he, it turned out, no English, it became clear that my visit wasn't going to be as edifying as I had hoped.

Hello!

I looked back up at the trail. A Nigerian man in penny loafers was making his way gingerly around the puddles and heading our way. He was young, but a belly was already spreading under his white Izod shirt, he wore tight beige highwater trousers. It was clear that he was living a life of relative plenty. He introduced himself as Pastor Paul, from a church in Benue State.

You come to look at the Grove? He asked, shaking my hand. **Good, it is very touristic.**

A young woman emerged from the trail. Her wardrobe too, could have been bought on sale at JC Penney's, but unlike Pastor Paul, she was fit, with fresh eyes.

My interpreter, Pastor Paul said, pointing to her. **Of course I can't understand these people. We have our own language in Benue State.**

The little man talked up a storm in Yoruba, but the interpreter said nothing. Our guide then led us down to the river. The water ran bright green between the trees, monkeys jumped around the canopy above. Arising from a mess of roots was Oshun's statue, which occasioned a monologue from the little man.

What is he saying? I asked the translator. **He says locals bring sacrifices to the gods here: maize, moi-moi, cola nuts.**

Father Paul shook his head, his brow wrinkling, his lips pursing. There were no locals about, I noticed. Where were they? Dodging oversized ferns, our guide hopped down the trail and we followed him.

Debel! Debel! He said, pointing with disdain at a pug-nosed bust with an evil smirk standing amid a tangle of roots. The Devil.

The pastor's face retained its pinched expression. **Of course, this man is ignorant,** he said to me, waving his arm in dismissal. I said nothing.

Up at a promontory above the river we found Olu Igbo – the lord of the forest. Placing his stick in his back pocket, the little man fell silent and bowed. It was indeed an awesome sight – a giant stone effigy standing among great trees, with huge eyes and long arms spread out like wings. Hoots and warbles percolated in from the foliage; rain began to fall but its drops, intercepted by the manifold layers of leaves above, hardly touched us.

The pastor harrumphed. **I tell my people in church to abandon these beliefs for God.** His voice rang loud in the amphitheater of great trees. **Such ignorance. Our American pastors have a lot of say about how ignorant we are. We are trying to change, but these beliefs persist. Life is hard in our country. The people want to insure themselves, so they worship God and these idols. But it's ignorance. Don't you agree?**

Why did you come here then? I asked him as we walked back to the road.

To see the skilled work of our artisans.

That was as good an answer as any. At the gate we tipped the guide and parted our ways.

NARRATIVE TEXT??

A narrative text is a piece of text which tells a story and entertains the reader or listener.



SECTION 2: The audience, purpose and context

Discursive and argumentative texts

We all write to accomplish different things in articles. The goal of our writing dictates the format and style of the text. There are different forms and many of them are quite similar. However, each has unique requirements that make it different from the others. Two such

similar styles are the discursive text and the argumentative text. The difference between the two lies in the purpose and structure of the text.

Discursive purpose

The goal of a discursive text is to present a balanced and objective examination of a subject. Like an argumentative text, the topic may be controversial, but the discursive text attempts to present a much more balanced discussion of the issue. It does not, however, have to be expressly neutral. The text should present both sides of the discussion, supported by facts and research. The writer may draw tentative conclusions about the subject and suggest these to the readers or audience.

Discursive style

The discursive style is written in a more formal and impersonal style than other texts. It begins with an introduction to the topic. Each issue should be discussed in a separate paragraph and each paragraph should begin with a strong topic sentence. The text will typically alternate a paragraph of point followed by a paragraph of counterpoint. Discursive texts often have transitional wording leading into the next paragraph. The writer may choose to either express a low-key opinion in the final paragraph or leave readers to draw their own conclusions.

Argumentative purpose

The writer of an argumentative text attempts to clearly present a strong position on a particular topic. Its purpose is to both educate and persuade the reader or audience on a particular point of view. In this regard it is similar to a persuasive essay, but generally presents its view in a stronger, perhaps more controversial, way. It may target an audience that is more resistant to its viewpoint or message.

Argumentative style

Argumentative texts follow a general format. The writer states an initial thesis that contains the point of view from which the author is arguing. The body generally presents both sides of the argument, although each con is refuted in turn. The writer may first present the pros of the argument, then offer the cons and refutation later in one paragraph. Or, each con may be both presented and refuted in an individual paragraph. The author presents the desired conclusion in the final paragraph.

Reflective writing

This 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 their life. Many reflective writers keep in mind questions such as *what did I notice? How has this changed me? Or what may I have done different?*

Therefore, the focus is on writing that is not only descriptive. The writer doesn't just hit the reply button, rather, they revisit the scene to note details and emotions, reflect on meaning, examine what went well or revealed a need for additional learning, and relate what transpired to the rest of life.

While anyone can use reflective writing for personal development, the practice is often incorporated into professionalism training for physicians, nurses, teachers, social workers and others needed to offer more humane and compassionate service to their patients or

clients. The student becomes more attuned to noticing, listening to, recording and responding to the stories of patients and colleagues in years to come.

Reflective writing asks the practitioner not only to pull back the lens and observe events, human interactions and perspectives in the field of study, but also to become more conscious of their emotional responses to situations encountered in training and practice, to find metaphors for experiences and to contextualise observations.

When reflective writing is shared in classes and groups, careful listening and provision of responsible, sensitive feedback to fellow students and practitioners is encouraged.

SECTION 3: Substantiating writing

Expository texts

The two main basic types of texts are narrative (described previously in the Lesson) and expository. The main purpose of narrative texts is to tell a story. It has a beginning, middle and an end, characters, plot of conflict, and a setting. Usually, narrative texts are written from the author's imagination. The main purpose of expository text is to inform or to describe. Authors who write expository texts research the topic to gain information. This information is then organised in a logical and interesting manner using various expository text structures. The most common expository text structures include:

- ➔ Descriptive
- ➔ Enumerative or listing
- ➔ Sequence
- ➔ Comparison and contrast
- ➔ Cause and effect
- ➔ Problem and solution



Descriptive

This includes main idea and detail such as the following:

....in my walk I killed a buck goat of this country, about the height of the grown deer, its body shorter, the horns which are not very hard and forks 2/3 up on prong short the other round and sharp-arched, and is immediately above its eyes. The colour is a light grey with black behind its ears down its neck and its face white around its neck, its sides and rump around its rail which is short and white. Very actively made, has only a pair of hoofs to each foot, his brains on the back of his head, his nostrils large, his eyes like a sheep – he is more like the antelope or gazelle of African than any other species of goat... (Lewis and Clark as Naturalists)

Enumerative / listing

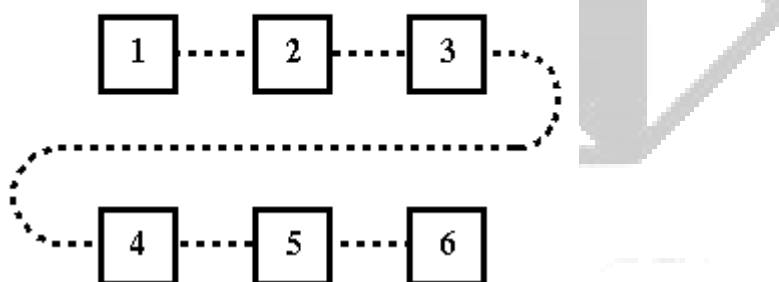
This includes listing connected information, outlining a series of steps, or placing ideas in a hierarchy, such as the following:

...By early 1803 Lewis was in Philadelphia. He took crash courses in medicine, botany, zoology and celestial observation. He studied maps and journals of traders and trappers who had already reached as far up the Missouri River as the Mandan villages in North Dakota. By the time he left Washington he knew as much about the West, and what to do when he got there, as any man in America ... (Lewis and Clark: Preparations)

Signal / Cue Words

- The following; Then
- Addition; Another
- Well; Furthermore
- Finally; Few
- Likewise; Besides
- Several some; Many
- A; Also
- In; As

Bridging Snapshots



Sequence

This includes a series of events leading up to a conclusion, or the sequence of occurrences related to a particular happening. Note that the events can be separated in years as in a historical time line; or in a series of actions taking only a few seconds, hours or days. Such is the example below. Both enumerative and sequential text organisation is basic to completing a set of directions to perform a task either in a laboratory or work setting.

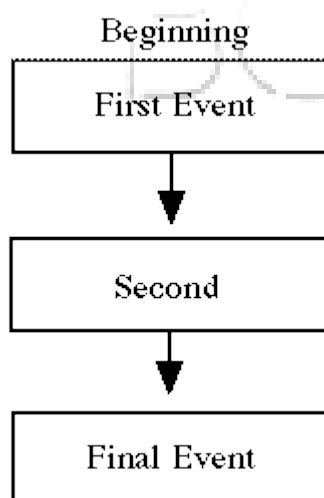
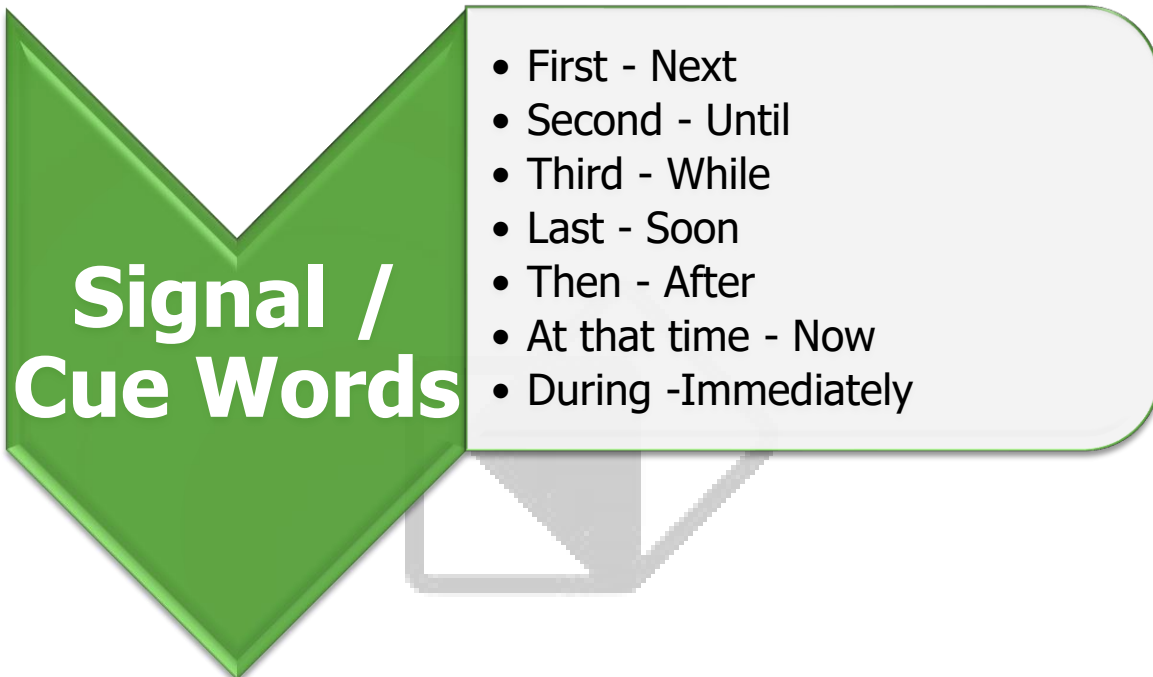
January 18, 1803 – In secret communication to Congress, Jefferson seeks authorisation for expedition – first official exploration of unknown spaces undertaken by United States government. Appropriation of \$2,500 requested (Final cost will be \$38,000)

Spring – Lewis, now picked as commander, is sent to Philadelphia for instruction in botany, zoology, celestial navigation, medicine from nation's leading scientists. Also begins buying supplies to outfit the expedition. Lewis writes to former army comrade, William Clark, inviting him to share command of expedition. Clark writes to accept.

July 4 – News of Louisiana Purchase announced. For \$15 million, Jefferson more than doubles the size of United States: 820,000 square miles for 3 cents an acre. The next day, Lewis leaves Washington. (Timeline of the Trip)

Plants on the Trail with Lewis and Clark, Dorothy Hinshaw Patent)

The quality of Lewis's surviving plant specimens is amazing, considering their age and the difficult conditions on the trail. Preparing and preserving plants is time-consuming and demanding process. A specimen has to be spread out properly, then pressed between two sheets of blotting paper. The paper soaks up the moisture from the specimen, drying it out. The specimen must be removed, aired and placed between fresh sheets until it is completely dry, so it won't rot. There were times when Lewis had to deal with a large number of plants all at once. While he stayed with the Nez Prece Indians, for example, he had between thirty and fifty specimens to tend to every day. (Page 22-23)



Comparison / contrast

This involves describing how two or more events, places, characters or other ideas are similar or different in several ways. Comparing several habitats or eco-systems is one example of this type of text:

...In temperament, Lewis and Clark were opposites. Lewis was introverted, melancholic and moody; Clark, extroverted, even-tempered and gregarious. The better educated and more refined Lewis, who possessed a philosophical, romantic and speculative mind, was at home with ideas; Clark, of a pragmatic mould, was more of a practical man of action. Each supplied vital qualities which balanced their partnership...(Biography of Lewis and Clark)



- However - Even though
- But - On the contrary
- Yet - Otherwise
- Despite - In comparison
- Still - On the other hand



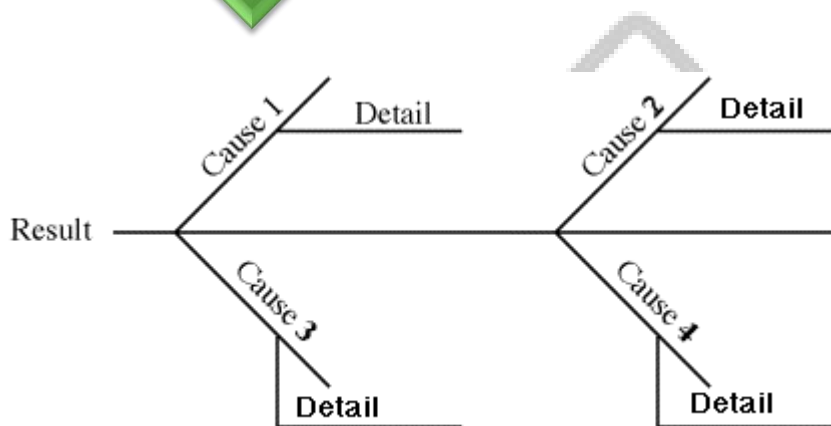
Cause and effect

This may involve several reasons why an event occurred or several effects from one cause, and of course, as single cause / effects situation.

...Captain Clarke and some of our men in a periogue went ashore with them; but the Indians did not seem disposed to permit their return. They said they were poor and wished to keep the periogue with them. Captain Clarke insisted on coming to the boat; but they refused to let him, and said they had soldiers as well as he had. He told them his soldiers were good and that he had more medicine on board his boat than would kill twenty such nations in one day. After this they did not threaten anymore and said they only wanted us to stop at their lodge, that the women and children may see the boat. (The Journals: September 25, 1804, Patrick Gass)

Signal / Cue Words

- For this reason - Thus
- In order to - As a result
- Because - Consequently
- So that - On account of
- Therefore - Accordingly



Problem and solution

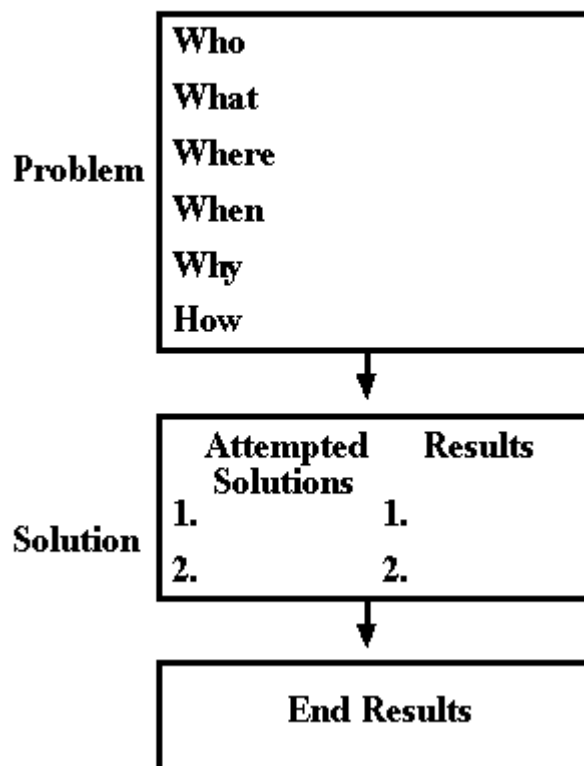
Authors use this technique to identify the problem, give possible solutions with possible results and finally, the solution that was chosen.

On June second they arrived at a major fork in the river, in north-central Montana, an estimated 465 river miles upstream from the mouth of the Yellowstone. It shouldn't have been there. No Indian informant had mentioned it. There was not even a hint of it from anybody. Yet it posted the most significant geographical question of the entire Expedition. Which of these rivers was the Missouri? The issue was fraught with danger. They needed to reach the Rockies, find the Shoshoni Indians, get some horses, portage to the head of the Columbia, and reach the Pacific before winter closed in. To choose the wrong route would consume twice the time it would take to correct the mistake, and would, Lewis declared, not only lose them the whole of the present travel season, but would probably so dishearten the party that it might defeat the expedition altogether...(Decision at the Marias)

Signal / Cue Words

Problem	Solution	Because	Cause	Since	As a result	So That
---------	----------	---------	-------	-------	-------------	---------

Problem/Solution Outline



Retellings

Retellings are oral or written post reading recalls during which we relate what we remember from reading or listening to a particular text. Unlike a summary, a retelling is a holistic representation of our understanding rather than just re-capping the main points.

Transactional texts

Transactional writing is writing that is part of a chain of written communication intended to communicate, persuade or inform. Often transactional writing takes the form of letters or emails and is part of a written conversation. Other types of transactional writing include grant proposals and job applications.

Transactional letters should be brief. The best way to write them is to plan them out before committing them to paper or screen. Typically they include a short opening paragraph thanking the recipient for their prior communication. A transactional letter usually contains two main paragraphs, one to establish the topic and the second to elaborate on it. The ending is brief and formal, as befits a professional communication.

Business correspondence

Business letters

Business letters have been the only type of business correspondence for very long, so commonly, business correspondence is still associated with them more than with any other type. Business letters have very well established rules and regulations. Depending on the workplace, certain formats and templates will be used for the purposes of writing out and sending business correspondence. The following must be noted when writing business letters:

- The formatting
- The use of letterheads and proper stationery
- Type of paper to be used
- Envelopes to be used (if applicable)
- Fonts applicable
- Folding business letters
- Multiple page formatting

Business memos

There are less rules for writing business memos than letters. Many workplaces use business memos, but these are being replaced by the use of email.

Business memos are used to notify people within the workplace of meetings, or issuing out requests or instructions. Email is more commonly used nowadays and is more efficient. It is fast, reliable and much more easily controlled in terms of document flow.

Business faxes

These have been around for an exceptionally long time. However, these are more rapidly being replaced by email and instant messaging (if enabled within the workplace).

Faxes are dying a slow death. There is such a thing as faxing via computer, but it is so close to email it should be treated as one (fax to email system).

Business email

Business email is the most common form of correspondence internally and externally in most workplaces today. It is very helpful as a means of instant communication but becomes a burden for those who have thousands of unopened messages sitting in their inbox. Spam or junk mail is also a very big issue though it can be controlled.

Rules apply to business email as it is now very commonly used. The following must be noted:

- ➔ Spelling and punctuation
- ➔ Grammar checks
- ➔ Email etiquette

Other types of business correspondence

Business newspapers and magazines / journals, press releases and numerous others are types of business correspondence. Business reports, documents and applications are also correspondence and the rules of the workplace need to be applied when writing any of these.

SECTION 4: Using appropriate language

When we write texts we need to be sure we are using accurate grammar and punctuation; we also need to ensure that our writing (especially business correspondence) is written in a neutral manner, which does not offend and will not offend any of the readers or target audience.

To make this task easier, here follow a number of rules to apply when we are writing texts.

Rule 1

Use concrete rather than vague language.

Vague: The weather was of an extreme nature on the North Coast.

This sentence raises frustrating questions. When did this extreme weather occur? What does *of an extreme nature* mean? Where on the North Coast did this take place?

Concrete: Durban had unusually cold weather last week.

Rule 2

Use active voice whenever possible. Active voice means the subject is performing the verb. Passive voice means the subject receives the action.

Active: Barry hit the ball.

Passive: The ball was hit.

Notice that the party responsible for the action – in the previous example, whoever hit the ball – may not even appear when using passive voice. So passive voice is a useful option when the responsible party is not known. Example: *My watch was stolen.*

Rule 3

Avoid overusing *there is, there are, it is, it was*, etc.

Example: There is a case of meningitis that was reported in the newspaper.

Revision: A case of meningitis was reported in the newspaper

Even better: The newspaper reported a case of meningitis (Active voice)

Example: It is important to signal before making a left turn

Revision: Signalling before making a left turn is important

OR: Signalling before a left turn is important

OR: Signalling before making a left turn is important

OR: You should signal before making a left turn

Rule 4

To avoid confusion don't use two negatives to make a positive without good reason.

Unnecessary: He is not unwilling to help

Better: He is willing to help

Rule 5

Use consistent grammatical form when offering several ideas. This is called parallel construction.

Correct: I admire people who are honest, reliable and sincere

Note that *are* applies to and makes sense with each of the three adjectives at the end.

Incorrect: I admire people who are honest, reliable and have sincerity

Rule 6

Word order can make or ruin a sentence. If you start a sentence with an incomplete phrase or clause such as *while crossing the street* or *forgotten by history*, it must be followed closely by the person or thing it describes. Furthermore, that person or thing is always the main subject of the sentence. Breaking this rule results in the dreaded, all-too common dangling modifier or dangler.

Dangler: Forgotten by history, his autograph was worthless

The problem: *his autograph* shouldn't come right after *history* because *he* was forgotten, not his autograph.

Correct: He was forgotten by history, and his autograph was worthless.

Dangler: Born in Cape Town, my first book was about Cape Point.

The problem: the sentence wants to say I was born in Cape Town, but to a careful reader, it says that *my first book* was born there.

Correct: I was born in Cape Town and my first book was about Cape Point.

Adding *ing* to a verb (as in crossing in the example that follows) results in a versatile word called a participle, which can be a noun, adjective or adverb. Rule 6 applies to all sentences with a participle in the beginning. Participles require placing the actor immediately after the opening phrase or clause.

Dangler: While crossing the street, the bus hit her. (Wrong, the bus was not crossing)

Correct: While crossing the street, she was hit by a bus

OR: She was hit by a bus while crossing the street

Rule 7

Place descriptive words and phrases as close as is practical to the words they modify.

Ill-advised: I have a cake that Mollie baked in my lunch bag

Cake is too far from lunch bag, making the sentence ambiguous and silly.

Better: In my lunch bag is a cake that Mollie baked.

Rule 8

A sentence fragment is usually an oversight, or a bad idea. It occurs when you have only a phrase or dependent clause but are missing an independent clause.

Sentence fragment: After the show ended.

Full sentence: After the show ended, we had coffee.

ACTIVITY 1

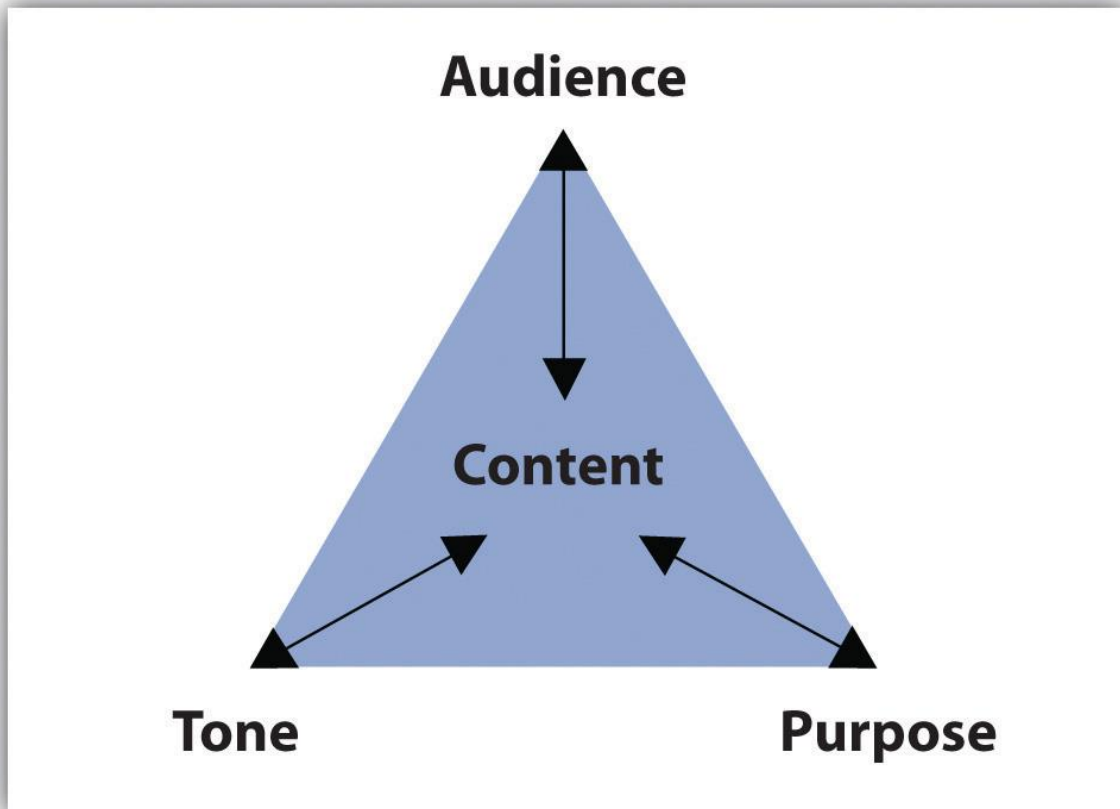


Activity 1

Please complete this activity in your Learner Assessment Guide and PoE.

This activity is aligned to SO1, AC1, AC2, AC3, AC4 and AC6

SECTION 5: Critical thinking skills



Brainstorming technique

Brainstorming with a group of people is a powerful technique. It creates new ideas, solves problems, motivates and develops teams. Brainstorming motivates because it involves members of a team in bigger issues; and it gets a team working together. When needing to write texts that require research skills, brainstorming activities are a brilliant way to obtain ideas, especially when you are working within a group.

It needs to be structured and it follows certain rules. The brainstorming process is described further down. As it involves team work, understanding the rules is vital. Brainstorming places a significant burden on the facilitator of the session (if one is being used) to manage the process, people's involvement and sensitivities, and then to manage the follow up actions. If used well, you will see excellent results in improving the organisation, performance and team development and of course – a great piece of writing!

The brainstorming process includes the following steps:

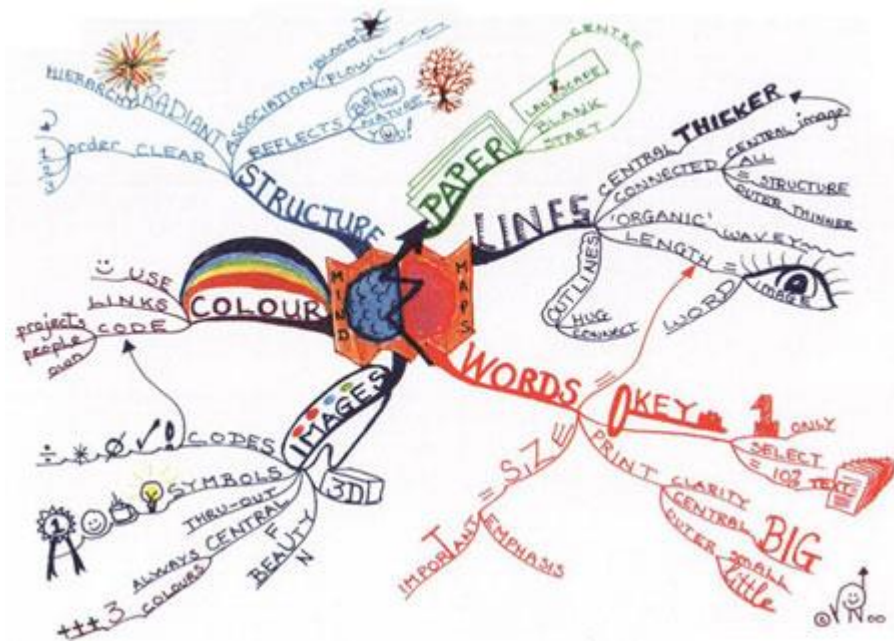
1. Define and agree on the objective or purpose
2. Brainstorm ideas and suggestions having an agreed time limit
3. Categorise / condense / combine / refine
4. Assess / analyse effects or results
5. Prioritise options / rank the list as appropriate
6. Agree actions and timeframes
7. Control and monitor follow up actions

Mind maps

A mind map is a graphical way to represent ideas and concepts. It is a visual thinking tool that helps structuring information, helping you to better analyse, comprehend, synthesize, recall and generate new ideas.

Just as in every great idea, its power lies in its simplicity. In a mind map, as opposed to traditional note taking or a linear text, information is structured in such a way that resembles an activity that is both analytical and artistic, it engages your brain in a much, much richer way, helping in all its cognitive functions. And best of all, it is fun!

So how does a mind map look like? Better than explaining is showing an example:



This is a mind map about mind mapping itself. It presents, in a visual way, the core elements and techniques on how to draw mind maps.

Benefits and uses of mind maps

Basically, mind mapping avoids dull, linear thinking, jogging your creativity and making note taking – fun again! But what can use mind maps for?

- Note taking
- Brainstorming (individually or in groups)
- Problem solving
- Studying and memorisation
- Planning
- Researching and consolidating information from multiple sources
- Presenting information
- Gaining insight on complex subjects
- Jogging your memory

Planning the day, or planning your life, summarising a book, launching a project, planning and creating presentations, writing blog posts.

How to draw a mind map

- **START** in the middle of a blank page, writing or drawing the idea you intend to develop. I would suggest that you use the page in landscape orientation.
- **DEVELOP** the related sub-topics around this central topic, connecting each of them to the centre with a line.
- **REPEAT** the same process for the sub-topics, generating lower-level sub-topics as you see fit, connecting each of those to the corresponding sub-topic.

Some other recommendations:

- Use colours, drawings and symbols – be as visual as you can
- Keep the topic labels as short as possible, the temptation to write a complete phrase is enormous, but always look for opportunities to shorten it to a single word or figure – your mind map will be much more effective that way
- Vary text size, colour and alignment. Vary the thickness and length of the lines. Provide as many visual cues as you to emphasise important points.

Spider diagrams

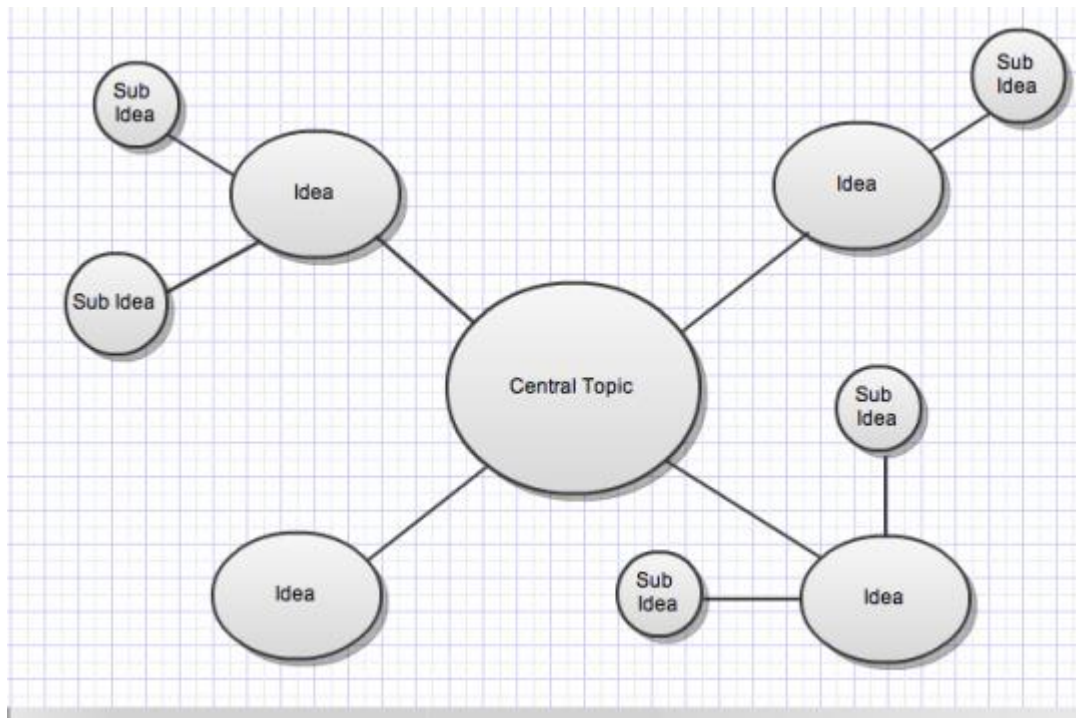
Spider diagrams are mainly used for planning (an article or a story) or creating and provoking ideas. Spider diagrams are not the same thing as mind maps but they can be just as useful in some ways as an idea organiser or an alternative note taking method.

These diagrams are very organised in a neat and clearly structured layout. Like mind maps, they start with a central idea and branch out. The main differences are that spider diagrams do not always use colour and there is no specific way of how you must structure a spider diagram.

The advantages of spider maps is that they are so easy and quick to make. You draw them how you like and they will be done in a matter of minutes. The reasons why you should use spider diagrams over linear notes is that like mind maps – they reflect on the structure of the brain. They start with a central idea, branch outwards from the centre, leaving endless possibilities.

Before mind maps were invented by Tony Buzan, spider diagrams would have been the closest thing to them. Sometimes it can be a bit of a job to create a whole mind map with all the colour and jazz if you just want to brainstorm some ideas, and that is where you use spider maps. Here is how you do it:

1. First you write what the topic or concept of the brainstorm is in the middle of the page, then draw a bubble around it. For example, if you were drawing a spider diagram to decide on a topic for a poem, you can write POEM in the middle and then draw the bubble
2. Next start with the sub-idea: one of the possible topics for the poem could be your pet dog (let us assume his name is Busta). You add the sub-idea by drawing an arrow or a line from the bubble outwards. You then label it at the end of the line. Some people like to make the line an arrow, some people like to draw a circle around the label. It is up to you. There are not set rules in spider diagrams.
3. Add sub-headings, sub-sub headings and so on. The ideas should start to flow and you can start your brainstorm.



Highlighting and annotating

Many learners find that marking their study texts with highlighter pens or annotating them by writing in the margins helps them to concentrate and enhances their understanding. This process also helps us when we are researching information for specific reports and other documents.

To use this technique, first read quickly through the text to get an overview of what it is about. Then read it more closely, pausing at the end of each paragraph to identify the main points. In the page margins you may like to add brief comments and queries as annotations.

You then decide what you want to highlight or underline to help you to recognise key points and their significance. You may decide to emphasise:

- A sentence or word that sums up an important idea
- Quotations
- Statistics
- Specialised terms
- Important or useful data
- Examples or links to other ideas

You could use different coloured pens to mark different kinds of information, but be careful not to highlight so much that it becomes distracting.

This technique is not a replacement for making your own notes, but may form the first stage in creating diagrams, such as spider diagrams and mind maps.

SECTION 6: Research skills



Being able to research and use materials which back up your study or offer different interpretations of your study area is an essential aspect of studying and learning.

Primarily you need to be aware of where to look for information, how to access it and how to use it. You must also be able to scrutinise your sources to check that they are relevant and of a suitable nature to be included within your work.

Finding information

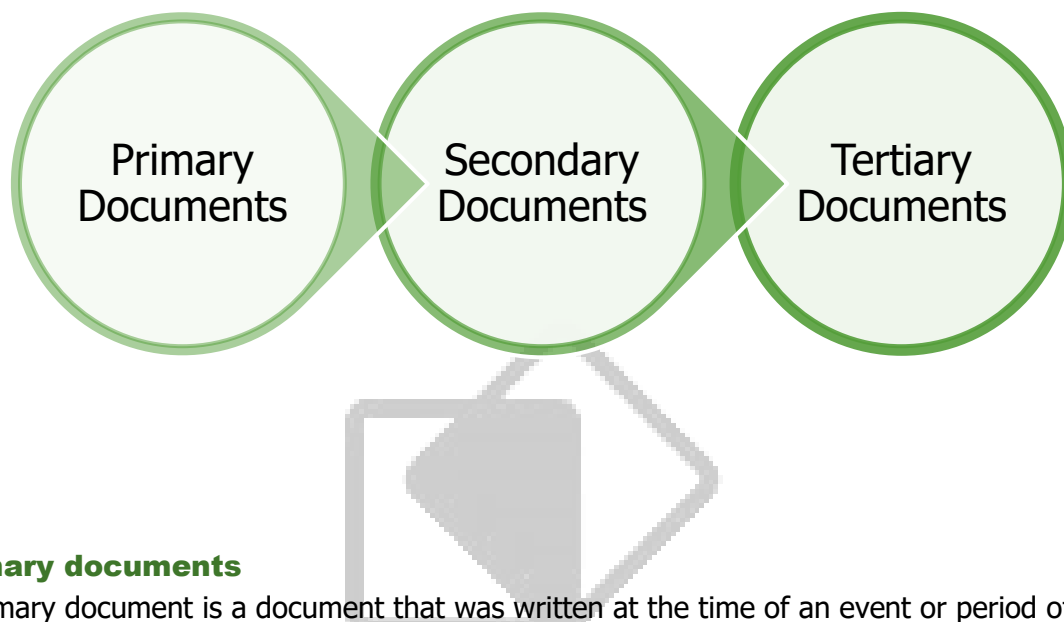
You may assume that text books are the primary source of information when you are engaged in a research project. This may be true to a degree, usually there is little need to question the credibility of such texts – they have probably been recommended. There are, however, many other sources of information which should not be overlooked. Such sources include the internet, newspapers, journals, transcripts from radio or TV programmes, leaflets, photographs and other articles.

Within the category of books there are many different types and genres, for example, fiction and non-fiction, including dictionaries, encyclopaedias, biographies, almanacs, archives, and many more. There are even more categories of websites and other internet resources. All sources of information can be of relevance on the subject matter of the research or project you are working on.

It is important to understand that all information will have a certain degree of validity or otherwise you may run into a problem when presenting your facts. Be careful when you are using sources from the internet as there are possibilities of forgery and changing documents and texts on the internet. Make sure you are using credible websites. Another important factor to consider is to ensure that the information is relevant to the topic. Many times when

we use internet websites, we search using the keywords of our topic only to find that there is no link between that and the subject being discussed in the site. Be careful of this. Ensure that you read the information before using it in your texts.

All documents that you use for research purposes fall into one of three categories:



Primary documents

A primary document is a document that was written at the time of an event or period of research. These documents therefore include literary texts, letters, speeches and historical documents such as birth certificates and diaries. A live newsfeed is a primary source.

Secondary documents

A secondary document is written after an event – usually the authors will not have witnessed the event themselves. Such documents are usually written with reference to primary documents and attempt to provide an interpretation. Core texts are an example of secondary documents. In current affairs a secondary source would be a standard news story.

Tertiary documents

These documents usually act as pointers to primary and secondary documents. They are indexes, directories, bibliographies and other categorised collections of information – documents that you can turn to and be guided to other, potentially relevant, documents on a particular subject.

Where to find information

There are a lot of different sources of information available to you. The following list cannot cover all sources of information, rather it contains the main sources you are likely to find useful.

Wherever you get your information, do ensure that you conform to the workplace standards and rules, and keep a note of all your sources. In the case of books and journals you need

to take special care to note page numbers if you intend to use a quote or to paraphrase or summarise from any publication. For internet resources you need at least the URL as well as the date that you accessed any webpage from which you quote or to which you refer. Do not overlook proper referencing, plagiarism is a serious offence.

Library sources

It is often possible to go to a physical library without being a member and to search through the shelves and access publications and other resources. Many libraries have a retrieval system to help you locate documents – such systems are commonly accessed via a computer. Retrieval systems enable you to search a database of titles held at the library, usually either by the author, the title of the book or publication.

It is also now common for libraries and the documents that they hold to be available online. There are numerous obvious advantages to this:

- You can access the information you want, when you want
- You can access the information from anywhere that has an internet connection
- As documents are held electronically, numerous people can be reading the same document at the same time
- You can search electronic documents or whole libraries of documents, quickly to find relevant information.

However, there are also some potential disadvantages to the digital library:

- The documents available electronically may be limited. This will depend to an extent, on which documents have been subscribed to. Older and historic documents may not be available electronically
- Some people find it easier to work with physical copies of books and journals – to flip through the pages and easily bookmark sections.

It is good practice to use a combination of library resources, familiarise yourself with the facilities at the library that are available to you and the type of documents that are available.

Internet sources

There is a phenomenal amount of information available online, via webpages, blogs, forums, social media, catalogues and so forth. As there is so much information available and because such information can be published quickly and easily by anybody and at any time, it is important that you are careful in choosing reliable sources.

For many topics the internet can be a very important place to research. In some areas, the internet may be the most appropriate way of gathering information. Whenever you use the internet for research remember that the authorship, credibility and authenticity of internet documents is often difficult to establish. For this reason you need to be careful and take care when using the internet for research for reports and other documents.

Use good judgement and common sense when researching online. Whether or not a source is appropriate or useful will largely depend on your area of research. Some tips for general internet research:

- **Check the domain name of the site** – generally domain names that include .ac. or .edu. are educational establishments

- **How did you arrive at the source** – if you found the resource via a search engine or a link on another website then you may need to scrutinise it more carefully

SOURCES FROM BIBLIOGRAPHIES

Another way of locating information, books or publications, which may have a bearing on the topic being researched is to check through the bibliography of core texts or related books. Authors will have consulted other professionals and by checking their bibliography you will discover related publications which may well enhance your own research. Some authors will also provide a list of recommended reading and since they have already researched the subject area it may be worth taking note of their findings.

SOURCES FROM COLLEAGUES

It is always worth discussing your study with friends, family and colleagues – you will often find that they have some interesting points of view and sometimes they may be able to help with sourcing of information. They may have for example, studied the topic at some time or know someone who has and be able to find or lend you relevant books or other resources.

ACTIVITY 2

	Activity 2 Please complete this activity in your Learner Assessment Guide and PoE. This activity is aligned to SO1, AC7)
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Categorising information

You categorise information in the same way that you would group or categorise anything else – you look for similar properties. Think about how children are grouped at school. They may be put into groups by age, sex or ability. These children have been grouped by the features that they share; these could be physical features (such as sex) or more tangible features like ability.

It is possible to categorise or group information in many ways. When it comes to categorising the information you have researched, you need to first sort it into the order you have set out for your document. There may be pieces of information that pertain the body of your document, or introduction, conclusion, etc.

Classifying information

Classifying information is very similar to categorising information and the two are commonly used interchangeably. An example of classifying information would be:

Imagine you collected a shoe from each person in your learning group and place the shoes on a table that everyone can see. You then ask the learners to classify the shoes based on shared characteristics (much like categorising them into similarities as indicated above), such as type, colour, markings, kind of closure or materials, etc. You can ask the following questions:

- *How many different ways can you classify the shoes (based on the categories above)*
- *What characteristic is the most common?*

- *What characteristic is the least common?*

Sorting the information

- Go back to your main question or topic and ask yourself what it means
- Make sure you know how much you are expected to write
- Underline the key words
- Write down what information you need
- Plan your report – the structures are different for each text that you need to write, so ask if you are unsure
- Work out how many words you can write on each point
- Relax for active reading!
- As you read, look for answers to your questions
- Tell yourself the main points or ideas of what you have just read
- Link ideas using a mind map
- Use your word limit to guide your reading
- Reject information that is far too detailed for your purpose
- Gain confidence
- Start realising that some bits don't fit in – you can discard them
- Take notes in whatever way works for you
- Start writing to your plan – start with whatever seems easiest and keep going without worrying about style. It is a good idea to start by stating things clearly and simply in short sentences
- Work on your first draft – each time you work on your draft it will get better
- Remember to write out your bibliography
- Enjoy improving your work!
- Ask someone to read what you have written and give you feedback

And finally, when you have followed these tips, and you think you can improve your work by just doing a little bit more research, then don't be afraid to do it. Time spent on good research is rarely wasted.

Analysing, organising and recording information

The word analyse means to break something down into smaller parts. A meaningful analysis identified the parts and demonstrates how they relate to each other. You may have information from different sources which examines different aspects of the topic. By breaking down the information, you will be able to see relationships between the different sources and form them into a whole concept (like categorising and classifying).

Before beginning your report, write the introductory statement. A well written introduction statement is the most important piece in the entire report or document. It should both summarise for your reader the position you will be presenting and set up the pattern of organisation you will use throughout the report.

Another way to summarise the nature and function of the introductory statement is that it is a single sentence, usually in the first paragraph, which:

- Declares the position you will be presenting
- Sets up the way you will organise your report and

- Points to the conclusion you are going to draw

Remember that as you record your information, you will find that you will be getting rid of a lot of unnecessary information. If it doesn't relate to and support your topic – get rid of it. You will have an easier time recording logical information if you weed this unnecessary information out before you start.

Once you have identified which of your research information you will use, you may find some gaps where you need additional information. Leave enough time in your writing plan for an extra trip to the library or further research.

Remember that workplace documents need to be formatted according to set standards and some organisations even use templates for this purpose. If this is the case, ensure you use the templates provided and don't try and be too creative – as it may get thrown in the bin and you may be asked to redo the document.

Competence check for Lesson 1

Now that you have completed Lesson 1, are you able to understand and demonstrate such understanding?



Make necessary comments in the appropriate column so you can check / follow up on later during the learning programme. Ensure that if you are unsure of the concept, note your comments / questions to discuss with your assessor.

Learning Outcome	Check / Comments / Questions
I can identify the purpose of writing, the audience and the context	
I can use the appropriate text type, style and register	
I can select language that is appropriate and sensitive to the purpose, audience and context	
I can structure the writing well to ensure the message is conveyed	
I can use critical thinking skills such as brainstorming, mind-mapping, spider diagrams and highlighting	
I can support the writing with a clear point of view, sound reasons, facts and a logical flow	
I can use research skills when required	

Lesson 2

Language structures and features

In order for you to demonstrate competence against the specific outcome indicated above, you will need to achieve the following:

LO1 → Express the meaning of the text through a range of sentence structures, length and type

LO2 → Use paragraph conventions to create coherence and cohesion in the writing

LO3 → Formulate clear and controlled writing

SECTION 1: Expressing the meaning in writing

When we learn to write, we must begin by learning about the four types of sentences and the role punctuation plays in determining and creating these different sentence types.

The four types of sentences in the English language include:

1. Declarative sentences
2. Imperative sentences
3. Interrogative sentences
4. Exclamatory sentences

And there are only three punctuation marks with which to end a sentence:

- A period or full stop
- A question mark
- Exclamation point

Using different types of sentences and punctuation, we can vary the tone of our writing and express a variety of thoughts and emotions.

A **declarative sentence** simply makes a statement or expresses an opinion. In other words, it makes a declaration. This kind of sentence ends with a period or full stop.

Examples of this sentence type:

- I want to be a good writer. (Makes a statement)
- My friend is a really good writer. (Expresses an opinion)

An **imperative sentence** gives a command or makes a request. It usually ends with a period but can, under certain circumstances, end with an exclamation point. Examples of this sentence type:

- Please sit down.
- I need you to sit down now!

An **interrogative sentence** asks a question. This type of sentence often begins with who, what, where, when, why, how or do, and it ends with a question mark. Examples of this sentence type:

- When are you going to turn in your assignment?

- Do you know what the weather will be tomorrow?

An **exclamatory sentence** is a sentence that expresses great emotion such as excitement, surprise, happiness and anger, and ends with an exclamation point. Examples of this sentence type:

- It is too dangerous to climb that mountain!
- I got an A on my book report!

Learning about the different types of sentences and punctuation will help you become better writers by enabling you to convey various types of information and emotion when you write.

Sentences: simple, compound and complex

Experienced writers use a variety of sentences to make their writing interesting and lively. Too many simple sentences, for example, will sound choppy and immature while too many long sentences will be difficult to read and hard to understand.

Simple sentences

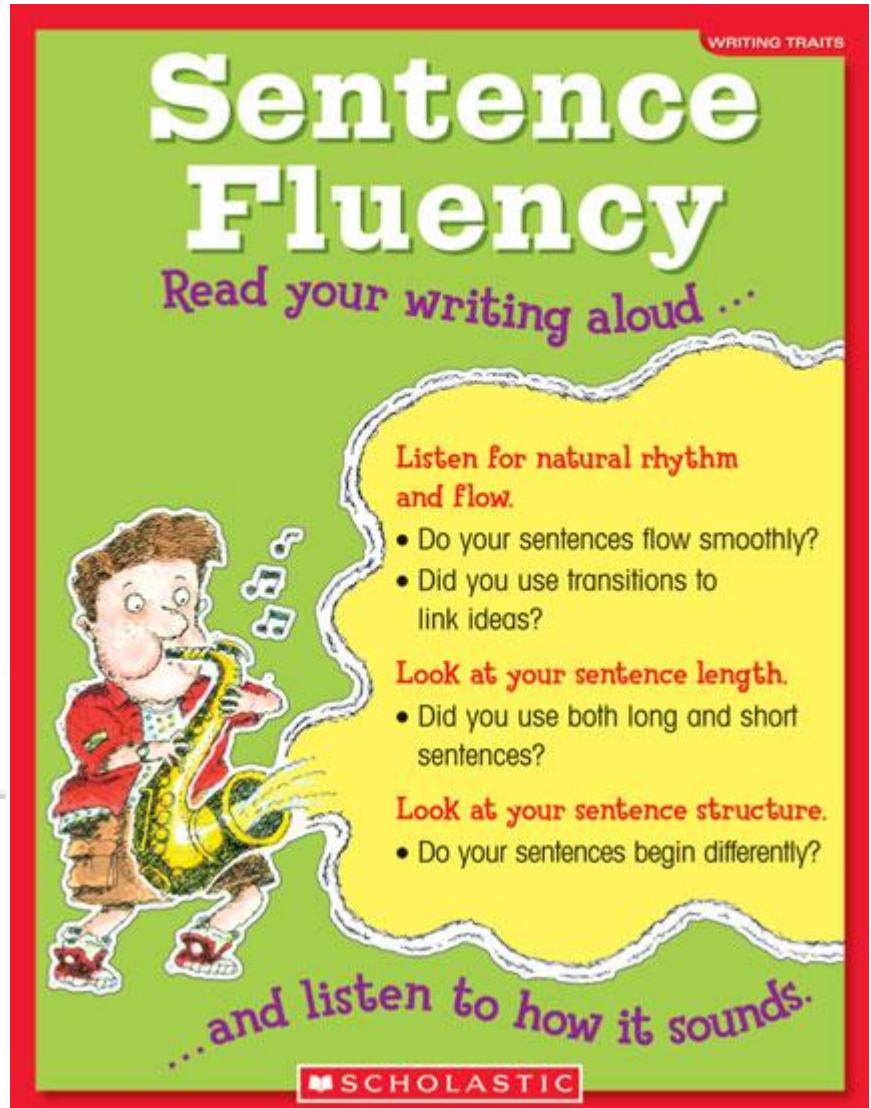
A simple sentence, also called an independent clause, contains a subject and a verb, and it expresses a complete thought. In the following simple sentences, subjects are underlined and verbs are in bold.

Some students **like** to study in the mornings.

Sipho and Jane **play** football every afternoon.

Vuyelwa **goes** to the library and **studies** every day.

The three examples above are all simple sentences. Note that the second sentence contains a compound subject and the third sentence contains a compound verb. Simple sentences therefore, contain a subject and verb and express a complete thought, but they can also contain compound subjects or verbs.



Compound sentences

A compound sentence contains two independent clauses joined by a coordinator. The coordinators are as follows: for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so. Except for very short sentences, coordinators are always preceded by a comma. In the following compound sentences, subjects are underlined, verbs are in bold and the coordinators and the commas that precede them are in italics.

I **tried** to speak Zulu, *and* my friend **tried** to speak English

Sipho **played** soccer, *so* Anna **went** shopping

Sipho **played** soccer, *and* Anna **went** shopping

The above sentences are compound sentences. Each sentence contains two independent clauses, and they are joined by a coordinator with a comma preceding it. Note how the conscious use of coordinators can change the meaning of the sentences. Sentences 2 and 3 for example, are identical except for the coordinators. In sentence 2, which action occurred first? Obviously Sipho played soccer first, and as a consequence, Anna went shopping. In sentence 3, it could have happened at the same time...but can you see how the coordinator that is used can change the meaning of the sentence?

Complex sentences

Some learners believe it is possible to identify simple, compound and complex sentences by looking at the complexity of the ideas in a sentence. Is the idea in the sentence simple or is it complex? Does one idea in a sentence make it simple? Do two ideas make it compound? However, sentence identification does not work that way.

Take the time to identify the subjects and verbs in a sentence. Then identify coordinators and subordinators when they exist. With these two steps, sentence identification not only becomes easy, but it also provides the foundation for understanding and writing all other kinds of more complicated sentences.

A complex sentence has an independent clause joined by one or more dependent clauses. A complex sentence always has a subordinator such as because, since, after, although or when (and many others) or a relative pronoun such as that, who or which. In the following complex sentences, subjects, verbs, subordinators and their commas have been underlined.

When he handed in his homework, he forgot to give the teacher the last page.

the teacher returned the homework after she noticed the error.

The learners are studying because they have a test tomorrow

After they finished studying, Sipho and Anna went to the movies

Vuyelwa and Peter went to the movies after they finished studying

When a complex sentence begins with a subordinator such as sentences 1 and 4, a comma is required at the end of the dependent clause. When the independent clause begins the sentence with subordinators in the middle as in sentences 2, 4 and 5, no comma is required. If a comma is placed before the subordinators in sentences 2, 3 and 5, it is wrong.

Note that sentences 4 and 5 are the same sentence except sentence 4 begins with the dependent clause which is followed by a comma, and sentence 5 begins with the independent clause which contains no comma. The comma after the dependent clause in sentence 4 is required, and experienced listeners of English will often hear a slight pause there. In sentence 5 however, there will be no pause when the independent clause begins the sentence.

Complex sentences / adjective clauses

Finally, sentences containing adjective clauses (or dependent clauses) are also complex because they contain an independent clause and a dependent clause. The subjects, verbs and subordinates are marked the same as in the previous sentences, and in these sentences, the independent clauses are also underlined.

The woman *who* called my mom sells cosmetics

The book that Jonathan read is on the shelf

The house which Nelson Mandela was born in is still standing

The town where I grew up is in the Eastern Cape

It is important to know that sentences containing adjective clauses are complex.

SECTION 2: Structuring text for coherence, cohesion and clarity

Paragraph conventions

Effective paragraphs have these characteristics: unity, coherence and adequate development. As you will see, all of these traits overlap. Using and adapting them to your individual purposes will help you construct effective paragraphs. This section of the Learner Study Guide focuses on the element of effective paragraph unity.

Unity

The entire paragraph should concern itself with a single focus. If it begins with one focus or major point of discussion, it should not end with another or wander within different ideas.

The topic sentence

A topic sentence is a sentence that indicates in a general way what idea or thesis the paragraph is going to deal with. Although not all paragraphs have clear cut topic sentences, and despite the fact that topic sentences can occur anywhere in the paragraph (as the first sentence, the last sentence or somewhere in the middle), an easy way to make sure your reader understands the topic of the paragraph is to put your topic sentence near the beginning of the paragraph. This is a good general rule for less experienced writers, although it is not the only way to do it. Regardless of whether you include an explicit topic sentence or not, you should be able to easily summarise what the paragraph is about.

Topic sentences:

- ➔ Limit the topic – you are writing a paragraph, not a book!
- ➔ Control the topic by making a judgement or giving a specific impression

Examples include:

1. My history class has two groups of learners: motivated and lazy

- a. *Limits*: two groups of learners in the history class
 - b. *Controls*: motivated and lazy
- 2. A certain customs official at the OR Tambo Airport knows how to make a traveller feel like a criminal
 - a. *Limits*: certain customs official at the OR Tambo Airport
 - b. *Controls*: traveller feels like a criminal
- 3. Lessons in karate turned out to be valuable
 - a. *Limits*: lessons in karate
 - b. *Controls*: valuable

Look at the following examples of topic sentences in which the topics are too broad or not controlled:

- 1. People are subjected to cruel environments. (What environments? The topic is too broad)
- 2. I walked into a local bar (So what? Why should it be important to the audience? The topic is not controlled because no judgement or specific impression has been stated)
- 3. Being a parent has been great. (How has it been great? Great is a broad and vague term)
- 4. It was her last year in high school. (What about her last year in high school? The topic is not controlled because no judgement or specific impression has been stated)

Coherence

Coherence makes ideas in a paragraph easier to understand and makes sentences flow more smoothly. Devices of coherence are like signposts to guide us through the argument.

Primary and secondary support

The topic introduced by the topic sentence should be discussed fully and supported convincingly with concrete details and examples and specific language. The amount and kind of support (example, illustration, comparison, cause and effect, etc.) may vary from paragraph to paragraph, depending on the author's purpose, but convincing paragraphs show more than tell the point that is being made.

Topic sentences should be followed by general statements that categorise and organise information (primary support) and specific statements that describe, explain, illustrate the information (secondary support). Several different levels of general and specific statements are possible. Check to see that you have a balance of these too. A good technique for revision is to use highlighting of different colours to indicate primary and secondary support. Remember that abstract terms refer to ideas or concepts, while concrete terms appeal to the physical senses.

Level 1 (most general): nature

→ Level 2 (second most general): flower

→ → Level 3 (specific): daisy

→ → → Level 4 (more specific): Gloriosa daisy

→ → → → Level 5 (more specific): the yellow Gloriosa daisy in my grandmother's yard

Level 1 (most general): problem

➔ Level 2 (second most general): fear

➔ ➔ Level 3 (specific): fear of flying

➔ ➔ ➔ Level 4 (more specific): fear of flying in small planes in turbulence

Sometimes a writer will not support the topic sentence with specific details, instead they will restate the topic sentence, perhaps several times, in different words. When a writer makes this mistake, the paragraph never goes anywhere. Consequently, the readers are disappointed because the topic sentence contract is not fulfilled. Following is an example of a paragraph in which the topic sentence is restated, so the paragraph has no real support:

Enrolling in university for the first time is a trying experience. Trying to enrol leaves the learner perplexed. It is a day that is memorable because the learner is left flustered and bewildered. They don't know what is going on. The learner will always remember the event as a confusing time in university life.

Revised paragraph with support:

Enrolling in university for the first time is a trying experience. A new learner is unfamiliar with the layout of the campus and often does not know where to go for counselling, advising or payment of fees. Where is the cafeteria and the bookstore? The new learner is also unlikely to understand the registration process. What courses should they take and what happens if the courses are closed or cancelled? The learner has many questions in mind. Should they apply for financial aid? Will all their credits transfer to another university? What do all those computer numbers mean on the printout that is handed out? Would they have been better off enrolling online or, telephonically? If the learner is lucky enough to get these numerous, nagging questions answered and to have a final schedule in hand, they are still left with the feeling that something is missing. Upon arriving at home, the exhausted learner realises what it is: they forgot to pay the fees during the confusing enrolment process. The learner has to return to the university and eventually complete this trying experience.

Now the paragraph has three general statements:

1. A learner is unfamiliar with the layout of the campus and the process of registration
2. The learner has many questions in mind
3. The learner is left with the feeling that something is missing

The other information in the paragraph includes different levels of specific statements to support the general statements. By incorporating details such as these, the writer achieves an effective blend of general and specific statements.

Outlining

Outlining is very useful in both the pre-writing and revising stages. Look at the example below, noticing the decreasing levels of abstraction.

Example 1 – Topic – GOOD TEACHERS

Thesis: *A good teacher respects learners, has a personal interest in them and motivates them to do their best.*

Topic sentence 1 – A good teacher respects her learners:

- *She is considerate of her learners*
- *She criticises them tactfully*
- *She does not ridicule them or embarrass them*
- *She is patient with them*
- *She never patronises her learners*
- *She treats her learners fairly*
- *She is flexible and open-minded*
- *Her tests are fair*
- *She grades objectively and consistently*
- *She does not have favourites*
- *She shows that she values the contributions of everyone in the class*
- *She compliments her learners on their work*
- *She praises them for their involvement even when she disagrees with them*

Paragraph development

- Use examples and illustrations
- Cite data (facts, statistics, evidence, details and others)
- Examine testimony (what other people say such as quotes and paraphrases)
- Use an anecdote or story
- Define terms in the paragraph
- Compare and contrast
- Evaluate causes and reasons
- Examine effects and consequences
- Analyse the topic
- Evaluate the topic according to specified criteria
- Describe the topic
- Offer a chronology of an event (time segments)

Here are some techniques for achieving coherence in a paragraph:

- Arrange details in a logical order, i.e. spatial, chronological, order of importance
- Maintaining consistency in person, number and tense
- Providing transition words to link ideas from different sentences
- Repeating key words and using synonyms or pronouns to refer to nouns in previous sentences
- Using parallelism for words, phrases and clauses

ACTIVITY 3



Activity 3

Please complete this activity in your Learner Assessment Guide and PoE.

This activity is aligned to SO2, AC1, AC2 and AC3

Competence check for Lesson 2

Now that you have completed Lesson 2, are you able to understand and demonstrate such understanding?



Make necessary comments in the appropriate column so you can check / follow up on later during the learning programme. Ensure that if you are unsure of the concept, note your comments / questions to discuss with your assessor.

Learning Outcome	Check / Comments / Questions
I can express the meaning of the text through a range of sentence structures, length and type	
I can use paragraph conventions to create coherence and cohesion in the writing	
I can formulate clear and controlled writing	



BCONSULT

Lesson 3

Drafting and editing own writing

In order for you to demonstrate competence against the specific outcome indicated above, you will need to achieve the following:

LO1 → Produce writing that is appropriate to the audience, purpose and context

LO2 → Check the control of grammar, diction sentence and paragraph structure and adapt to ensure it is consistent

LO3 → Sequence the ideas and overall structure in a logical manner

LO4 → Edit major grammatical and linguistic errors

LO5 → Identify, remove and adapt inappropriate or offensive language

LO6 → Experiment with different layouts and options for presentation

SECTION 1: Editing and proofreading

Is editing the same as proofreading?

Not exactly. Although many people use the terms interchangeably, editing and proofreading are two different stages of the revision process. Both demand close and careful reading, but they focus on different aspects of the writing and employ different techniques.

Tips to both editing and proofreading

Get some distance from the text!

It is hard to edit or proofread a text that you have just finished writing. It is very familiar and you tend to skip over a lot of errors. Put the text aside for a few hours, days or weeks. Clear your head of what you have written so you can take a fresh look at the text and see what is really in the text. The better option is to get a colleague to read it for you.

Decide what medium lets you proofread most carefully

Some people like to work right at the computer, while others like to sit back with a printed copy that they can mark up as they read.

Try changing the look of your document

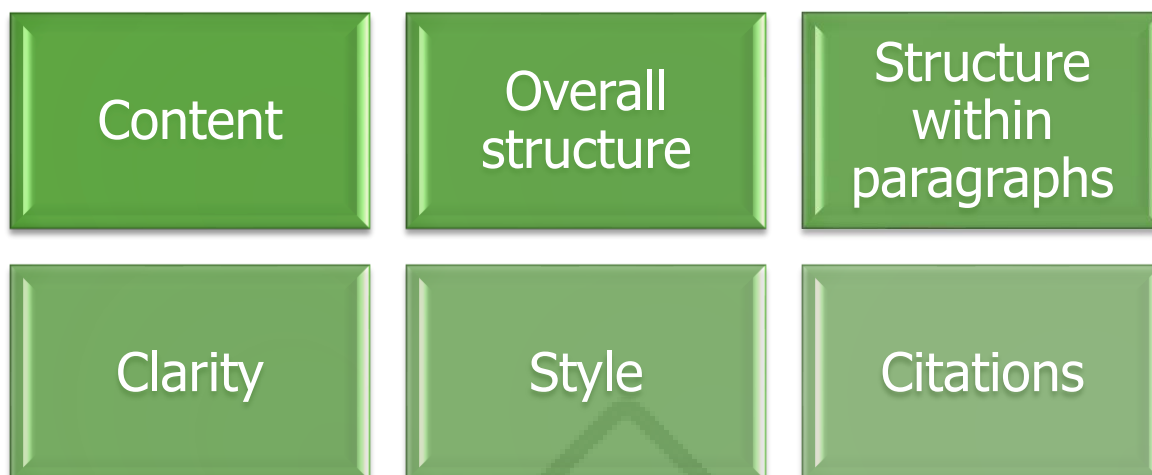
Altering the size, spacing, colour or style of the text is also important. By applying these changes and formats, you are able to give the document a more professional look.

It is important that you review your document prior to handing it out – make sure that:

1. Your grammar and language is consistent
2. Check your spelling
3. Check your sentence and paragraph structure
4. Correct all spelling and grammatical errors
5. Make sure that your text is sequenced logically

Editing

Editing is what you begin doing as soon as you finish your first draft. You re-read your draft to see, for example, whether the text is well-organised, the transitions between paragraphs are smooth and your evidence really backs up the argument. You can edit on several levels:



Content

Have you done everything that is required for the text? Are the claims you make accurate? If it is required to do so, does the text make an argument? Is the argument complete? Are all of your claims consistent? Have you supported each point with adequate evidence? Is all of the information in your text relevant to the requirements and the overall goal?

Overall structure

Does the text have an appropriate introduction and conclusion? Is your purpose clearly stated in the introduction? Is it clear how each paragraph in the body of the text is related to the purpose? Are the paragraphs arranged in a logical sequence? Have you made clear transitions between paragraphs? One way to check the structure of your text is to make a reverse outline of the text after you have written the first draft.

Structure within paragraphs

Does each paragraph have a clear topic sentence? Does each paragraph stick to one main idea? Are there any missing sentences in any of your paragraphs?

Clarity

Have you defined any important terms that may be unclear to your reader? Is the meaning of each sentence clear? Is it clear what each pronoun refers to? Have you chosen the proper words to express your ideas? Avoid using words you find in the thesaurus that aren't part of your normal vocabulary – you may misuse them.

Style

Have you used an appropriate tone (formal, informal, persuasive, etc.)? Is your use of gendered language (masculine and feminine pronouns like he or she, words like fireman

that contain man and words that some people incorrectly assume apply to only one gender – for example some people assume nurse must refer to a woman) appropriate? Have you varied the length and structure of your sentences? Do you tend to use the passive voice too often? Does your writing contain a lot of unnecessary phrases like there is, there are, due to the fact that, etc.? Do you repeat a strong word unnecessarily?

Citations

Have you properly cited quotes, paraphrases and ideas you got from sources? Are your citations in the correct format?

As you edit at all of these levels, you will usually make significant revisions to the content and wording of the text. Keep an eye out for patterns of error; knowing what kinds of problems you tend to have will be helpful, especially if you are editing a large document. Once you have identified a pattern, you can develop techniques for spotting and correcting future instances of that pattern. For example, if you notice that you often discuss several distinct topics in each paragraph, you can go through your paper and underline the key words in each paragraph, then break the paragraphs up so that each one focuses on just one main idea.

Proof reading

Proof reading is the final stage of the editing process, focusing on surface errors such as misspellings and mistakes in grammar and punctuation. You should proof read only after you have finished all of your other editing revisions.

Content is important. But like it or not, the way a document looks affects the way others judge it. When you have worked hard to develop and present your ideas, you don't want careless errors distracting your audience from what you have to say. It is worth paying attention to the details that help you to make a good impression.

Most people devote only a few minutes to proof reading, hoping to catch any glaring errors that jump out from the page. But a quick and cursory reading, especially after you have been working hard at the document, usually misses a lot. It is better to work with a definite plan that helps you to search systematically for specific kinds of errors.

Try to keep the editing and proof reading processes separate. When you are editing an early draft, you don't want to be bothered with thinking about punctuation, grammar and spelling. If you are worrying about the spelling of a word or the placement of a comma, you are not focusing on the more important task of developing and connecting ideas.

The proof reading process

The important thing to remember is to make the process systematic and focused so that you catch as many errors as possible in the least amount of time.

Don't rely entirely on spelling checks

These can be useful tools but they are far from fool-proof. Spell checkers have a limited dictionary, so some words that show up as misspelled may really just not be in their memory. In addition, spell checkers will not catch misspelling that form another valid word. For example, if you type your instead of you're, to instead of too or there instead of their, the spell checker won't catch the error.

Grammar checkers can be even more problematic

These programmes work with a limited number of rules, so they cannot identify every error and often make mistakes. They also fail to give thorough explanations to help you understand why a sentence should be revised. You may want to use a grammar checker to help you identify potential run-on sentences or too frequent use of the passive voice, but you need to be able to evaluate the feedback it provides.

Proof read for only one kind of error at a time

If you try to identify and revise too many things at once, you risk losing focus, and your proof reading will be less effective. It is easier to catch grammar errors if you are not checking punctuation and spelling at the same time. In addition, some of the techniques that work well for spotting one kind of mistake won't catch others.

Read slow, and read every word

Try reading out loud, which forces you to say each word and also lets you hear how the words sound together. When you read silently or too quickly, you may skip over errors or make unconscious corrections.

Separate the text into individual sentences

This is another technique to help you to read every sentence carefully. Simply press the return key after every period so that every line begins a new sentence. Then read each sentence separately, looking for grammar, punctuation or spelling errors. If you are working with a printed copy, try using an opaque object like a ruler or a piece of paper to isolate the line you are working on.

Circle every punctuation mark

This forces you to look at each one. As you circle, ask yourself if the punctuation is correct.

Read the text backwards

This technique is helpful for checking spelling. Start with the last word on the last page and work your way back to the beginning, reading each word separately. Because content, punctuation and grammar won't make any sense, your focus will be entirely on the spelling of each word. You can also read backwards sentence by sentence to check grammar; this will help you avoid becoming distracted by content issues.

Proof reading is a learning process

You are not just looking for errors that you recognise; you are also learning to recognise and correct new errors. This is where handbooks and dictionaries come in. Keep the ones you find helpful close at hand as you proof read.

Ignorance may be bliss, but it won't make you a better proof-reader

You will often find things that don't seem right to you, but you may not be quite sure what is wrong either. A word looks like it may be misspelled, but the spell checker didn't catch it. You think you need a comma between two words, but you are not sure why. Should you use that instead of which? If you are not sure about something, look it up.

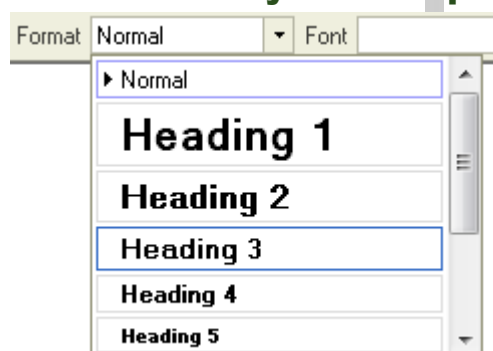
The proofreading process becomes more efficient as you develop and practice a systematic strategy

You will learn to identify the specific areas of your own writing that need careful attention, and knowing that you have a sound method for finding errors will help you to focus more on developing your ideas while you are drafting the paper.

SECTION 2: Produce writing that is appropriate to the audience, purpose and context

The one important aspect when editing and proof reading your draft, is to ensure that it *speaks* to the audience *about* the purpose within the *accurate* context. For example, if your text is about a study done within your community on how many care givers there are, you need to direct the information towards the people who will be reading the text. Is it your organisation? Is it a group of organisations? Is it community members or leaders? Make sure that the people who will be reading your document understand the language (level) you have used and also the words (vocabulary). Secondly, make sure that the text talks about the study and does not wander off. All the tips and guidelines provided to you in this Learner Study Guide are to keep you focussed on the topic. And lastly, make sure that you write within your context. Keep to your limits and boundaries – if you are writing about care givers within a specific community, keep to this information – do not start writing about care givers in the big city and even in other countries. You can most definitely make use of comparisons – but stay within your context and focus on the purpose of the document!

SECTION 3: Layouts and presentation



Formatting tends to refer to most things to do with appearance: text style, spacing, etc. It also refers to paragraphs and to the page layout.

Many formatting techniques are required to differentiate certain elements from the rest of the text. It is often necessary to add emphasis to key words or phrases. Footnotes are useful for providing extra information or clarification without interrupting the main flow of text. It is also very easy to abuse

formatting features however, and a document that has been over done can look and read worse than one with none at all.

You can apply formatting to:

- ➔ Spacing including line spacing which can make the text appear larger or smaller
- ➔ Space between words and sentences. Remember that changing the size of your font (and at times the font itself) you can also make the text larger or smaller
- ➔ Hyphenation – the programme you are currently using can insert hyphens for you automatically as you type the document
- ➔ You can insert quote marks where you have cited information or quoted directly. This does make the document more solid and professional
- ➔ Text alignment – you can make the text justified, centred, right-aligned and left-aligned to make your points. Many organisations use the justified alignment –but you can make use of the different types of alignment to make points across your document

- You can make use of large text when you are making a point
- Microsoft Word and other similar programmes enable you to make use of their built-in templates which are easy to use and include all the headings and body formatting. You just need to select the one you want to use
- You can also make use of other formatting features such as subscript and superscript features to emphasise text

Play around with the formatting features and make sure that your document appears professional – ensure that the formatting you have applied is in line with the audience, purpose and context. Take a look at the following examples of some of the fonts and the type of audience and purpose they could be linked to:

I am a very serious document	-	Management	Formal document
I am a very serious document	-	Management	Formal document
I am a very serious document	-	Management	Formal document
I AM A FUN DOCUMENT	-	KIDS	
INFORMATIVE DOCUMENT			
I am a fun document	-	Kids	Informative document
I am a fun document	-	Kids	Informative document
I am a professional document document	-	Management	Informative / formal
I am a professional document formal document	-	Management	Informative /
I am a professional document document	-	Management	Informative / formal

SECTION 4: Managing offensive language

Obfuscation

Obfuscation or beclouding is the hiding of intended meaning in communication, making it confusing, willfully ambiguous and harder to interpret. The word comes from Latin *obfuscatio* to darken.

It can be used for many purposes. Doctors have been accused of using jargon to conceal unpleasant facts about a patient. American author, Michael Crichton, claimed that medical writing is a highly skilled, calculated attempt to confuse the reader. BF Skinner, noted psychologist, commented on medical notation as a form of multiple audience control, which allows the doctor to communicate to the pharmacist things which may be opposed by the patient if they could understand it.

Jargon

When you read many articles, books and journals you will probably find incomprehensible language that some bad writers try to pass off as business communication. There is a great misconception that passive voice, undefined acronyms and abbreviations, and loads of jargon make for business writing. Writers should always strive for clarity. This does not

mean that jargon, slang and idioms are taboo – but when you use them, make sure the reader will understand what you are saying.

Jargon



OK Nugget,
kick the tires, lite the
fires, select zone 5,
tag the bogey, but
don't get in a furball.
Don't boresight,
check six,
then bingo to mom.
Got it?!

Jargon is the specialised technical terminology characteristics of a particular subject, characteristic language of a particular group. To use jargon effectively, you must know the audience. Almost all industries use jargon to some degree, which is alright because most people working within that industry will have a basic understanding of the work and its associated jargon. Business and sports writers are notorious jargon users, as those in medicine and education.

For most writers – the goal is clarity. Unless you have a specific reason to use jargon, it is best to avoid it. If you must include jargon, be sure to define it or make it understandable within the context of the text.

Bad writing is often the result of too much jargon. While jargon can be helpful when communicating within a specific group, too much jargon or jargon that is not clearly defined can lead to muddy, confusing writing. If you find yourself having to re-read a sentence over and over again it is often because it contains confusing jargon.

One way to help define jargon in your writing is to spell out acronyms or abbreviations the first time you use them.

Fuzzy: SCBWI announced on June 19 both the winner and runner up of the Don Freeman Memorial Grant-in-Aid.

Better: On June 19, the Society for Children's Book Writers and Illustrators (SCBWI) announced this year's recipient of the Don Freeman Memorial Grants for picture book illustrators.

Slang

A kind of language occurring chiefly in casual and playful speech, made up typically of short lived coinages and figures of speech that are deliberately used in place of standard terms for added raciness, humour, irreverence or other effects.

Slang is the language of the moment. It is especially common among young people. However, using slang effectively is very tricky. First, by its very nature, slang is short lived. Words or phrases that sound fresh today may be as mouldy as a week old bread by the time your document is sent to the audience.

ACTIVITY 4



Activity 4

Please complete this activity in your Learner Assessment Guide and PoE.

This activity is aligned to SO3, AC5

If you do use slang, you have to define it in context and use it frequently enough in your text for it to seem a natural part of the document.

Idioms

A group of words established by usage as having a meaning not deducible from those of the individual words (e.g. on pins and needles, meaning to be worried about something).

Idioms are those turns of phrases that mean something entirely different than the actual words would indicate. They are often synonymous with cliché (a saying or expression that has been so overused it has become boring and unoriginal), but not all idioms are clichés. Used wisely a well-chosen idiom can add colour and flavour to your writing.

Grammar and appropriate language

Gender specific pronouns

A learner planning to graduate this year should see his student advisor at once.

The writer of the above sentence is hopefully working at an all-male school; otherwise grief will follow them. When writing documents, you should avoid gender problems with the singular his or hers...most of these problems can be avoided without the use of the clunky he or she/him or her construction or the more monstrous he/she by using the plural.

Learners planning to graduate this year should see their student advisor at once. An occasional he or she is alright, but after a while it becomes too demanding of the reader's attention and the device becomes more important than the message. Where a single pronoun is necessary use either the masculine or feminine consistently enough to avoid confusion.

Avoid sexist terminology

Avoid language based on hurtful assumptions about gender:

I need to see doctor.

She is busy right now.

*No, I said a **doctor**.*

The conversation above probably took place between some chap and the lady at the front desk. A responsible, sensitive writer will never make demeaning assumptions about gender role. Whether words such as chairman and congressman are sexist and hurtful and whether their substitutes chairperson and members of congress are unnecessary and cumbersome is an argument that some people still make, but if we can avoid the argument with the use of reasonable substitutes, it is well worth it. The following table lists words that many people regard as sexist and some appropriate substitutes for those words.

Avoid	Use instead
Actress	Actor
Anchorman	Anchor
Businessman	Business person
Chairman	Chairperson, Chair
Forefathers	Ancestors
Foreman	Supervisor
Mailman	Mail carrier
Male nurse	Nurse
Man (meaning human being)	Person, people
Mankind	Humanity, people
Policeman	Police officer
Salesman	Sales representative, sales person
Stewardess	Flight attendance / cabin crew

Being careful to avoid sexist language should not lead into silliness. Ensure that the sentences that include such pronouns are fair and logical. In the box below is a perfectly wonderful definition of a college. It was written in the late 1940s by Howard Lowry, a critic of 19th century literature and a President of the College of Wooster. There are word choices in this definition however, that may make people cringe today:

A college is a corner of men's hearts where hope has not died. Here the prison house has not closed; here no battle is yet quite lost. Here, we assert, endow, and defend as final reality the best of our dream as men. Here lies our sense of community.

Howard Lowry

How would we write this piece of text differently today? How about *a college is a corner of our hearts where hope has not died? And here we assert, endow and defend as final reality the best of our dreams?* We definitely have not improved on the sound of his words, but have we lost anything by making these simple changes? The answer is not, and we have gained by decreasing the chances of offending or marginalising an entire gender from the definition of a college – something that would never have entered Howard Lowry's unbiased mind and generous heart.

Using register

In language, a register is a variety of a language used for a particular purpose or in a specific setting. For example, when speaking in a formal setting contrary to an informal setting, a speaker may be more likely to use features of prescribed grammar – like pronouncing words properly and using correctly structured sentences instead of speaking in a more casual way, and including slang, jargon and idioms in their communication.

WHY?

**BECAUSE
I SAID SO.**

In workplace communication, with friends, strangers, etc. there are unwritten rules that are followed when speaking and communicating, and this includes written forms of communication. These unwritten rules are often referred to as *register use*. Good communication skills can help you to communicate your messages effectively. Incorrect communication can cause problems at work, cause people to ignore you, or at best, send the wrong message. Of course, correct communication may not be very easy for many people as English is not their mother tongue.

Some examples of correct register use:

Wife to husband	Friend to friend
Hi honey, how was your day?	Hi Charlie, can you give me a hand?
Great. We got a lot done. And yours?	Sure Peter. What's up?
Fine, but stressful. Pass me that magazine please.	I can't get this to work.
Here you go.	Why don't you try to use a screwdriver?

Subordinate to superior	Superior to subordinate
Good morning Mr Jones, may I ask you a question?	Excuse me Peter, we seem to be having a problem with the Smith account. We had better get together to discuss the situation.
Certainly, how can I help you?	That is a good idea Ms Amons, would 4 o'clock suit you?

Notice how the language used becomes more formal as the relationship becomes less personal.

Some examples of incorrect register use:

Wife to husband	Friend to friend
Hello, how are you today?	Hello Mr Jones, may I ask you a question?
I'm fine. Would you mind passing me the bread?	Certainly. How may I help you?
Certainly. Would you like some butter with your bread?	Do you think you could help me with this?
Yes please. Thank you very much.	I would be happy to help you.

Subordinate to superior	Superior to subordinate
Good morning Frank. I need a raise.	Hey Jack, what are you doing? Get to work!
Do you really? Well, forget about it!	Hey, I'll take as much time as I need.

In the above examples, the formal language used for the married couple and friends is much too exaggerated for daily use. The examples for workplace communication show that the direct language often used with friends or family, is too impolite for these types of communication.

Correct workplace communication – both oral and written – depends on the situation and the tone of voice you are using. Make sure you use the correct tone and register when writing your formal workplace communication – you cannot use informal register when writing reports for board members or your superiors!

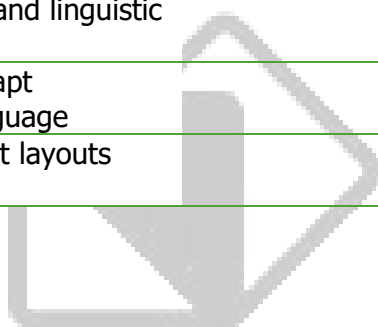
Competence check for Lesson 3

Now that you have completed Lesson 3, are you able to understand and demonstrate such understanding?



Make necessary comments in the appropriate column so you can check / follow up on later during the learning programme. Ensure that if you are unsure of the concept, note your comments / questions to discuss with your assessor.

Learning Outcome	Check / Comments / Questions
I can produce writing that is appropriate to the audience, purpose and context	
I can check the control of grammar, diction sentence and paragraph structure and adapt to ensure it is consistent	
I can sequence the ideas and overall structure in a logical manner	
I can edit major grammatical and linguistic errors	
I can identify, remove and adapt inappropriate or offensive language	
I can experiment with different layouts and options for presentation	



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Summary

Once you have written your text, it is time to put your document through the rewriting or editing process.

Before editing takes place, you will need to read through the document – or better yet – ask someone else to read through it as it will be easier for them to pick out any spelling or grammar mistakes.

Once these have been highlighted, the text can be re-written.

Remember the most important aspect is that you will need to ensure that the text meets the level of understanding of the audience (who will be reading), meets the required objective of the purpose (why it is being read), and the context (the environment, the type of text, etc.)

The beautiful part of writing is that you don't have to get it right the first time, unlike, say a brain surgeon!

You can always do it better, find the exact word, the apt phrase, the leaping simile.

Robert Cormier

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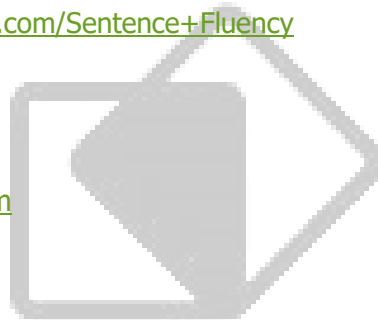
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Author

Maria-Jose Capão



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