Communication Studies

for CAPE®

2nd edition

Communication Studies

for CAPE®

Kathryn Shields Brodber
Arlene Dwarika
Winifred Ellis
Winford James
Maria Lashley

2nd edition

Contents

Introduction

This Study Guide has been developed exclusively with the Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC®) to be used as an additional resource, both in and out of school, by candidates following the Caribbean Advanced Proficiency Examination (CAPE®) programme.

It has been prepared by a team with expertise in the CAPE® syllabus, teaching and examination. The contents are designed to support learning by providing tools to help you achieve your best in Communication Studies. The features included make it easier for you to master the key concepts and requirements of the syllabus. *Do remember to refer to your syllabus for full guidance on the course requirements and examination format!*

Inside this Study Guide is an interactive CD which includes activities to assist you in developing good examination techniques:

- **On Your Marks** activities provide sample examination-style essay type questions, with example candidate answers and feedback from an examiner to show where answers could be improved. These activities will build your understanding, skill level and confidence in answering examination questions.

- **Test Yourself** activities are specifically designed to provide experience of multiple-choice examination questions and helpful feedback will refer you to sections inside the study guide so that you can revise problem areas.

This unique combination of focused syllabus content and interactive examination practice will provide you with invaluable support to help you reach your full potential in CAPE® Communication Studies.

1.1 Oral and written communication

- to identify the elements of oral and written communication
- to differentiate between the two forms of communication
- to recognise the different forum required for oral and written communication forms
- to select the appropriate form of communication needed to convey a specific message.

Did you know?

Eye-contact is an important visual aspect of communication. It is not only a good test of how well an audience listens to you, but also an effective strategy that allows the audience to be a part of your presentation.

Activity 1

List the different examples you can think of oral and written forms of communication. Use the following headings:

Oral Forms of Communication:

Written Forms of Communication:

In our daily lives we communicate with each other both orally and in the written form. When we communicate orally, we do so using conversations, arguments, speeches, debates, oral recordings, songs and poetry. Sometimes when communicating orally, we add gestures such as hand movements or facial expressions and we modulate our voices by regulating the volume, pitch, tone, rate and pronunciation. Sometimes it is useful to incorporate presentation aids such as pictures, videos or music to reinforce our ideas while we speak. All of these methods, known as non-verbal communication, help to make our communication efforts more effective and interesting.

So when do we use the written *mode*? We use the written mode to write notes, reflections, reports, letters, text messages or different types of essays. When we write, we have to decide whether to explain our thoughts at length or to be brief depending on the form and purpose of the message. Regardless of which form we use, the process of communication involves the effective transfer of information from one person to another.

As a form of expression, writing shares certain characteristics with oral communication but generally they differ in terms of structure and style. The table below specifies the differences between oral and written communication.

Oral communication	Written communication
temporary unless recorded	permanent (words cannot be retracted)
dynamic	static
flexible	precise
auditory information	visual information
use of rhythm, stresses, intonations, volume, pitch, tone, pause to convey emotion	use of punctuation, emotional words to convey the writer's tone and attitude to the subject
use of gestures, movement, appearance and visual aids	use of visual aids, such as pictures alongside writing
uses techniques to keep the interest of the audience, known as audience appeal	pace of reading is controlled by reader – opportunity for re-read
supports ideas with compelling arguments	supports ideas with relevant details, such as evidence
acknowledges the point of view of others by allowing and facilitating discussion and debate	acknowledges the point of view of others by representing both viewpoints in writing

Here is a question that you may not have asked yourself: how much of your daily communication is written and how much is oral? A lot of today's communication is written using text messages, emails and blogs.

Despite this, face-to-face oral communication is still generally preferred. With modern technology, audio and visual applications allow us to communicate orally despite the separation of time and place. For example, Skype and FaceTime can allow us to see and talk to a person who is not there with us.

Both forms of communication have their uses, and the choice to use either written or oral communication depends on:

a. The situation: for example, a presentation for a group of students at school about AIDS might require a different form to a presentation about AIDS at the United Nations Headquarters.

b. The forum that it is intended for: a meeting, gathering, seminar, protest or television.

Let us explore some of the advantages of both forms of communication using the table below:

Advantages of oral communication	Advantages of written communication
improves relationships – makes communication more personal	facilitates lengthy, and detailed, communication
captures emotions through gestures and modulation	emotions such as anger can be hidden
time saving and cost effective	available across time and place
uses speech to negotiate meaning – communication can be more persuasive	ideas can be thought about before being expressed
confidentiality	can be made public
less potential for misunderstanding	permanent and legally binding
immediate feedback	can be edited or re-written

When planning oral or written work for school and other projects, it is useful to use a general format, to assist with organising your ideas for presentation. The table below outlines the main components of written presentations and oral presentations. Note that oral presentations will generally be prepared in written form before they are communicated, which allows for some of the advantages associated with written communication.

Written presentation	Oral presentation
Introduction – thesis statement, topic sentences, writer's purpose	Topic – purpose and audience, theme
Body – main points, supporting ideas, coherent, supporting examples and details, comparison, classification, cause-effect.	Body – logical arguments developed with supporting evidence; issues analytically explored; issues summarised
Vocabulary and mechanics – punctuation, grammar, spelling, transitional words, tone etc.	Audience appeal – punctuation, emotional words, anecdotes, interesting vocabulary, tone, rhetorical questions, references etc.
Conclusion – bring together major issues explored	Conclusion – summarises argument, provokes thoughts, make recommendations
Editing	Editing

Activity 2

Study the features of oral and written communication, and the advantages of each, and answer the following:

1. Identify one or two other characteristics of oral and written forms of communication.

2. Explain each characteristic listed as it relates to the form of communication.

3. Select one communication form (oral or written) and state how its unique features will allow you to effectively communicate an idea or message.

Activity 3

Study the two scenarios below and identify the appropriate form of communication needed to communicate the messages. Keep in mind the forum it is intended for and the situation involved.

a. In the monthly church meeting on the church compound, Hamida wants to convince the members of the Woman's Group to host the annual Church Bazaar.

b. Aiden, a student at Signal Hill Secondary, wants to publish his *research* findings from his physics project using academic standards.

- to identify and understand the different levels of comprehension
- to examine the different levels of comprehension, using several excerpts
- to analyse an excerpt representing the different levels of meaning
- to write questions that represent the different levels of comprehension.

The way that writers think, and readers make sense of the information, can be presented as a hierarchy. This is known as the six levels of comprehension. We begin at the lowest literal level, and as we gain a greater understanding, we reach the highest level, referred to as evaluation. At each stage, we are able to make informed judgments from our understanding. Below are the six levels of comprehension:
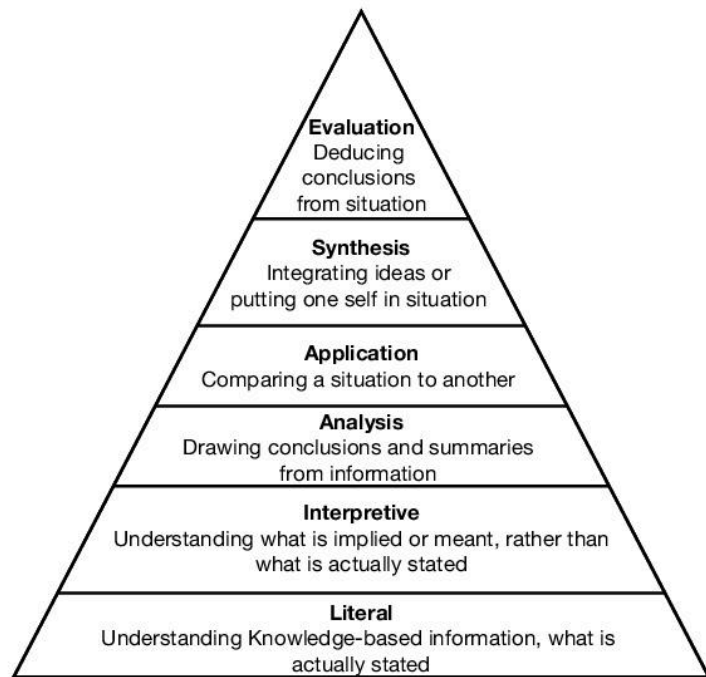
Let us look at some examples of the different levels of meaning.

- **Literal**

Carnival is over and I am tired and weak,
My head is spinning and I am now a freak.
Come Ash Wednesday and free me from this madness,
Restore me to my place of gladness.

Carnival Madness, anonymous.

In the poem, the poet expresses the negative impact of carnival on her life. This is the literal meaning. Beyond this, there is an implicit religious plea to be free of carnival.

- **Interpretive**

I quickened my footsteps when I saw him coming. I could feel his eyes on me. My movement was too slow.

In this sentence the literal actions of the speaker allow us to deduce that the character is trying to flee from the other person, although it is not stated explicitly.

- **Analysis**

In order to perform the operation several steps had to be taken. The nurses had to ensure that all of the equipment was sterilised. It was also important to remove unwanted hairs from the patient as these could cause infections. The last procedure was to dress the patient in the appropriate apparel.

Notice that the procedure is broken down into smaller parts, which can now be illustrated using various methods.

- **Application, synthesis and evaluation**

  When Christopher Columbus came to the West Indies, his main agenda was to seek wealth and develop trade routes for the Spanish empire. During his voyage in 1492, he landed in the Bahamas and called it San Salvador. In his other voyages, he landed on the rest of the Caribbean and continued to explore and harness the **resources** *to develop Spain. This trend continued for many years with the same pattern and opened up the new world to further exploits.*

  From this extract, you could:

  - apply and compare what the Spaniards did in the Bahamas to other scenarios (application)
  - dramatise this episode in a skit (synthesis)
  - assess the purpose of his agenda to the benefit or demise of the Caribbean people, or express your opinion on the role of the Spaniards in the West Indies (evaluation).

Let us consider some words associated with each level of understanding.

Literal	Interpretive	Analysis	Application	Synthesis	Evaluation
name	describe	compare	solve	predict	assess
identify	summarise	contrast	illustrate	compose	criticise
outline	identify	distinguish	demonstrate	design	support
recall,	explain	explain	use	assess	compare
state	express	conclude	dramatise	create	defend
write	differentiate	criticise	interpret	propose	conclude
select	review	generalise	report	construct	judge
list	discuss	determine	review	invent	determine

Activity 1

Find an extract from a newspaper or online news source, and:

1. write a question for each level of comprehension
2. discuss the questions with your peers and teacher
3. ask another student to respond to your questions.

Activity 2

Read the text below and then answer the questions that follow.

It was a hostile work environment but Fredrick needed employment and he knew that he had to muster the courage to approach the obnoxious boss in Scrappy's Construction Company. He stealthily strode into the small, musty, white-washed office and approached the owner behind the desk.

"Good day," said Fredrick.

Without looking up from his desk, Mr. Scrappy aggressively responded, "What is so good about the day and what is your business here?"

"I am here to see if you need a truck-loader or driver, Sir?" and he continued eyeing the expressionless man with conviction as he continued, "I am very good at both and hard working too."

"Oh, so you say, but let me be the judge of that since very few men have been able to please me lately."

Mr. Scrappy then turned and proceeded towards the back of the building, followed closely by Fredrick who walked with poise and wore a slight smile on his face.

1. Who is seeking employment in this text?
2. What do you think will be his fate?
3. Describe the character of Fredrick.
4. How would you feel faced with a similar confrontation?
5. Summarise the situation orally for your class.
6. If you could, how would you change the character Mr. Scrappy?

- to identify the different modes of understanding
- to recognise the importance of reading for different purposes
- to understand the importance of listening for different purposes.

Writers and speakers have different intentions when they communicate: they might be writing/speaking to inform, to entertain or to persuade.

This section focuses on the reader/listener and how they extract information from a written or spoken communication by reading or listening, and to understand the writer or speaker's intention.

The purpose of reading

As you read, you attempt to make sense of the information in front of you, in order to to get a deeper understanding of the message that the writer is trying to convey. When you read, you are using the different levels of comprehension. These include: interpretation, integration, analysis and evaluation.

Sometimes you will find yourselves reading a variety of materials for different purposes such as billboards, text messages or teacher's notes. For example, at school you may have to read a novel:

- for pleasure
- for information to answer questions in class
- to write a critical report for a book review.

As a reader, you use a variety of comprehension strategies to understand what you're reading. The three major modes of comprehension are:

1. **Efferent mode** – reading to the information or main points that support the meaning of the text
2. **Aesthetic mode** – reading and focusing on the expressive and affective *language* in the text, and to form an opinion.
3. **Critical mode** – reading to engage with the text in debate, discussion and analysis of the author's intentions.

The purpose of listening

It is important to listen effectively by:

- making notes
- summarising the ideas mentally
- getting cues from the speaker's tone of voice
- being mindful of the context in which listening takes place (efferent or aesthetic, for example).

Listening is also a very important aspect of communication. We do it even before we speak. While it is used effortlessly, it is a skill that also needs to be developed. An effective listener: identifies the speaker's purpose, only interrupts when necessary, observes the non-verbal cues of the speaker and shuts out the barriers to listening, such as noise and technological devices (refer to section 14.7 for more on barriers to communication). We listen for the following purposes:

- to get information
- for enjoyment
- to understand and learn.

The modes of comprehension in listening are the same as for reading:

- **Efferent mode** – listening in order to understand the meaning of a message, report, song, or poem. You can brainstorm or take notes in this process.
- **Aesthetic mode** – listening to a story, song, or poem for pleasure and to connect with the presenter in some way.
- **Critical mode** – listening for to evaluate, to express an opinion or to make a judgement.

Critical reading and listening

Critical reading and listening are very important aspects of comprehension and are necessary for effective communication to take place. What you hear or read is often applied to your existing knowledge and views. In this way, it reinforces what you already know or adjusts your ideas and opinions.

A critical reader and listener must be conscious of the following when listening and reading:

- the speaker or author's purpose
- techniques of persuasion being used
- emotional language
- logical ideas and supported arguments.

Activity 1

Read the following excerpt and identify when the different modes of comprehension listed above are used.

The holidays were approaching and Marcelle was getting worried. He so loved this time of the year in Barbados. In his small cramped college apartment, he reflected on his mother's warm fruit cake and the warm, crisp air in Bridgetown. This brought tears to his eyes as he knew he may not be able to experience this – at least not this year. Marcelle has lost his part-time job at the restaurant and the Christmas airfares were too high to be offset by his scholarship fund. He decided to email his mother, with the hope that she could offer a solution. He knew he had to repeat a semester of examinations, but felt excited that he would be graduating soon. He stayed up all night hoping that his request would not be fruitless or seem unreasonable.

Activity 2

Read the two compositions below then identify and discuss the different modes of comprehension used in each.

Rapso

Money goin around but
None for we
Politicians driving mercedez benz
And we cyah get nottin for free.
Liberate we
Liberate we.

Poem

I am lonely, calm and proud,
in this holy land – where I wear my shroud.
My labours are not in vain,
and my mind, not put to shame.
Come mother of glory and
unite me with my history.

- to understand the purpose of communication
- to evaluate the relationship between the audience and the author's purpose
- to explore the strategies used for different communicative purposes.

Did you know?

There are times when two or more purposes may be combined.
For example if you are writing an advertisement, the intention may be to inform and to persuade.

The purpose of communication

When you communicate, you usually do so with specific aims, goals and intentions. Consider some of the following reasons for communicating: to inform; to persuade; to argue; to evaluate a situation; to explain; to negotiate meaning' to express feeling; to entertain; to explore an idea.

For effective communication to take place, you usually have to identify the audience, the purpose and the situation at hand. You may want to consider the following:

- Is your audience made up of adults, teenagers or children?
- What is the profession of the audience?
- What is the *culture* of the audience?
- What is the social background of the audience?
- Is it a formal or an informal setting?
- Is it an oral, written or media presentation?
- What graphics are you going to use?
- What is your point of view?

Now that you have your audience, purpose and situation in mind, you can consider several strategies to effectively communicate your message. Here are some useful ones:

- use of emotional appeal – the writer/speaker draws on emotion to engage the audience.
- use of examples
- use of dialogue
- use of appropriate vocabulary
- persuasive devices
- use of descriptions
- use of characterisation – actions and words.
- use of cause and effect
- use of comparison and contrast
- use of point of view – the first, second or third person voice to allow the audience to identify with the perspective
- sequence of ideas
- use of bias – to persuade the audience to accept a point of view
- use of language – formal/informal, tone of voice, attitude, irony, sarcasm, hyperboles
- *reliability* of the source and *validity* of the information – fact, opinion, quotes from experts, scientific *data*, published data, web pages, libraries, newspapers, journals, books, statistics
- visual and auditory aids – pictures, 3-D images, captions, music, recording, cartoon, Internet pop-up advertisement etc.

Activity 1

Study the following scenarios and identify the criteria (audience, purpose, situation and writing strategies) to be considered for the message to be effectively communicated.

1. Jeremiah, the President of the Seaside Secondary School Environmental Club, has to prepare a speech on littering to give to the students during morning assembly.

2. Randolph, a student at Catholic Boys Primary School, sends a text message to his cricket team members to meet him for an impromptu practice match, the same day.

3. A politician is making a speech in the city square to promote his party in the upcoming election campaign.

Activity 2

Read the advertisement below and:

1. State the writer's purpose in no more than 30 words

2. Identify the audience it is intended for

3. State the strategies used to communicate the information.

Hey Businessmen, Marketing Professionals, Advertising Representatives – Leading Phones Advertising Marketing wants to give your business the EDGE.

We offer the best Mobile Applications to serve your business needs.

We create them, place them and track them for your growing business.

We do floating Ads. Audio Ads., Banner Ads. and Video Ads.

Since we already have 60% of the leading Mobile Advertising market share, how can you go wrong?

Join us today and let us place your advertisement in the palm of everyone's hands.

Leading Phones Marketing – taking you advertisements into the 21st century.

Activity 4

Look at the cartoon and comment on the purpose of the language used.

Saving our team does *not* mean allowing the opponent's ball to go into the net, Thomas.

- to explore the role of punctuation in enhancing oral and written communication
- to use punctuation marks to effectively communicate ideas.
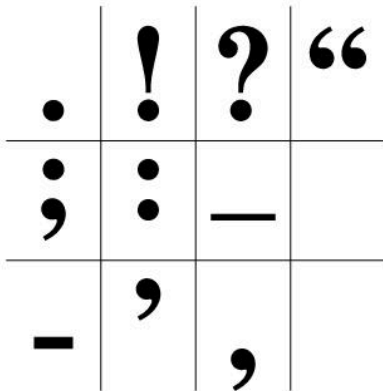
Did you know?

You should not use the question mark at the end of an indirect sentence. For example:

I asked my teacher if she had another book.

Punctuation marks may appear to be simple symbols, but they serve an important function when it comes to organising your ideas and facilitating the reading process. Without the use of the relevant punctuation marks, the ideas that you are trying to convey can be distorted and lost. The strategic use of punctuation marks can also help you to create a distinctive style of writing and to emphasise the tone of your writing.

Types of punctuation marks and some strategic functions

1. A full stop or period (.) is used:
   a. at the end of a sentence e.g. *I like to walk in the evening.*
   b. at the end of indirect speech e.g. *My mother asked me to come home.*
   c. with abbreviations e.g. *The student got her Ph.D after five years.*

2. Comma (,)
   a. to separate elements in a series e.g. *I looked around, jumped over the fence, picked the fruit and attempted to jump the fence again.*
   b. to introduce words or phrases e.g. *Hesitantly, I approached the abandoned house.*
   c. to connect two independent clauses e.g. *I love football, but I prefer swimming.*

3. Question mark (?)
   a. at the end of a direct question e.g. *Can I come with you?*
   b. with rhetorical questions e.g. *Who is responsible for educating us? We are?*

4. Exclamation marks (!)
   a. to issue a command e.g. *"Help!" he cried, "I need a rope!"*
   b. to convey sarcasm e.g. *Are Sunshine products made in the Caribbean? What a creative choice of name!*
   c. to close questions that emphasise emotion e.g. *Where do you think you are going? Halt!*

5. Quotation marks ("...")
   a. to capture the direct words of a speaker e.g. *My mother said, "Do not leave until you have something to eat."*
   b. when speech comes in the middle of quoted language and is set apart e.g. *"I have an opinion," she said, "What is yours?"*
   c. when a new paragraph begins with the change of a new speaker e.g. *"I am free to do as I please," she said, stamping her feet on the ground and staring at her father. "Not in this house," he replied.*
   d. may be used to report silent speech e.g. *"I wish I could fly like a bird," Mark said to himself.*

6. Semi-colon (;)
   a. for a stronger division than a comma e.g. *I love all kinds of cakes: fruit; sponge; marble; cheese, cherry and chocolate; Dundee and lemon pound.*

    b. replaces conjunctions such as 'and', 'or' and 'but' e.g. *I love to ride; I can't since I broke my leg.*

    c. to separate closely related independent clauses e.g. *The children go to bed early each night; they are afraid to be late for school.*

7. Colon (:)

    a. after a salutation in a letter e.g. *Mr Jordon Richards:*

    b. to separate titles and subtitles e.g. *The Hobbit: An Unexpected Journey*

    c. to introduce a definition e.g. *Communication: The exchange of information.*

    d. to introduce sequence or effect e.g. *Mary spent many days planning for her birthday party: thus she could not complete her assignment on time.*

    e. to introduce direct speech e.g. *Sam said: "I don't know."*

    f. to introduce words of characters in drama

       e.g. *Felix: I would like to be the one to know.*

          Leena: And why must I tell you?

8. En/em rule (–)

    a. the 'en rule' is used for periods of time e.g. *October – November*

    b. the 'em rule' is used to indicate an emphasis, interruption or change of thought e.g. *He is a genius—the only genius—who changed the world.*

9. Hyphen (-)

    a. when a noun is treated as a separate word e.g. *brain-teaser*

    b. between two or more adjectives when they come before a noun e.g. *brightly-lit room*

10. Apostrophe (')

    a. to express omissions e.g. *gov't (for government), can't, he's.*

    b. to show possession e.g. *The girl's book.*

Activity 1

Punctuate the following sentences appropriately.

1. Dr Rodriguez said AIDS is rampant in the Caribbean
2. Calmly I walked up to the step to greet her
3. The dress was grey the shoe black
4. The thirty five year old woman bought all the anti aging products that she could find Anti Wrinkle 500 Face Perfect Wrinkle Free and Smooth Skin
5. Mrs Jones hat flew off her head fell onto the streets was was smashed by a car and destroyed

---

Activity 2

Punctuate the unedited paragraph below with the appropriate punctuation marks.

> The reflective piece a struggle with peer pressure traces the life of a high school student Volander Huggins and her struggle with peer pressure in the monologue a combination of registers dialectal variations and communicative behaviours are used to capture the different experiences in her school life based on social interactions with her peers and school leaders
>
> Both formal and informal registers are used to capture Volander's experiences formal register is used when she relates her experiences to the audience and informal *register* is used when she describes her interactions with her peers the informal register effectively captures the mood of the atmosphere and adds to the trauma of her experiences the colloquial words and the *Creole* language is used to pass insults on her for example
>
> 'Ey bumpy skin guyal you would might rise to the top of we class but then fall flat on you face like a buss jonnny bake.'

☑ *Exam tip*

When you are critically analysing questions, you are expected to:

- identify the literary devices used
- comment on the effectiveness or suitability of the literary devices used
- explain how the literary devices relate to the theme of writing
- state whether the author's purpose is achieved with the use of the literary devices.

Literary devices and their function in communication

Literary devices are used to make writing clear, effective and to evoke interest among the readers. Some devices are used to demonstrate emotions, mood, and attitude to a subject. Other devices are used as persuasive tools to convince the reader or audience of the writer's point of view.

Some literary devices used for narrative writing and descriptions allow the reader to be part of the author's experience and make reference to the five senses. Here are some of the main literary devices, and their function:

- simile – making comparisons between things that are not similar using 'as' or 'like'
- metaphors – making comparisons between two things, where one subject is implied to be the other so as to make a connection between them
- personification – gives human traits to inanimate objects
- symbolism – uses an object to create metaphoric meaning
- imagery – creates mental pictures based on the five sensory experiences
- allegory – a narrative that serves as an extended metaphor such as a fable, parable or poem

Sound devices

In addition to the main literary devices listed above, an author may also choose to make use of sound effects in their writing, for emphasis. These include:

- onomatopoeia – a word whose sound is close to the meaning
- alliteration – a repetition of similar sounds in the sentence
- assonance – the repetition of vowel sounds within a sentence
- rhyme – repetition of identical or similar sounds or words

Tone and mood

The tone and mood of a piece refers to the emotions that are conveyed in writing and speech.

Tone specifically refer to the author's attitude towards a subject, a topic or a character. Mood is the emotional perspective of the author, which establishes the atmosphere of the piece of writing. See the table below for examples of words that can be used to describe the tone or the mood of a piece.

Words to describe 'tone'	Words to describe 'mood'
anxious, courteous, curious, depressed, desperate, disgusted, encouraging, friendly, frustrated, formal, happy, hopeful, indifferent, ironic, judgmental, melancholy, optimistic, sad, sarcastic, tense	amused, angry, bewildered, bored, calm, cynical, dark, disappointed, excited, hopeful, thankful

Other literary devices are used for persuasive writing

- diction – the author's choice of words to create the mood and reveal the attitude
- rhetorical question – a question where the response is implicit
- irony – words that convey the opposite idea of the literal meaning
- sarcasm – a mild form of irony
- exaggeration – a device used to create emphasis by making it bigger, worse or better
- hyperbole – specific words used to exaggerate a situation
- analogy – a device used to establish a relationship between two concepts
- oxymoron – contradictory concepts placed together to reinforce meaning
- paradox – an absurd statement that contains conflicting ideas but that may have some truth
- repetition – saying the same thing over, to reinforce the point
- euphemism – the use of more pleasant words to describe what is in reality harsh or repulsive
- innuendo – a device which suggests something unpleasant without saying it directly
- pun – a play on words based on the similarity of the sounds with different meanings
- litotes – an understatement

Activity 2

Have a peer read the poem and then answer the questions that follow.

> She crossed the river in the last glow of the evening
> The water encircling her angelic feet
> And shadows dancing to the swaying trees' beat.
>
> On the river bed
> She was met with applause
> As the squirrels circled all aroused
>
> There she met solitude, the lively lord
> And was greeted by the night
> With its tender whispers
>
> While time did pass their sacred meet
> Childish echoes now rant discreet
> The melody resonating at the water's edge
> Without memories of footprints of the times she tread.
> 'Placidity', anonymous.

1. Identify two literary devices used by the poet and suggest how these reinforce the meaning of the poem.
2. What is the writer's tone of voice?
3. What is the mood of the poem?
4. What is the poet's intention by naming the poem 'Placidity'?

Activity 1

Identify the literary device used in the following sentences:

a. 'Oh! what beautiful weather this is on this fine rainy morning.'

b. 'I am sorry to say but your brother has gone to heaven.'

c. She is like a giant in front of the other students.

d. Makaila is a warrior on the battlefield.

e. Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers.

f. 'I am so sleepy that I could fall asleep standing.'

g. Crack! The whip went on the boy's back as he howled.

h. She had a brave tremble in her voice as she approached her boss.

i. 'My conscience hath a thousand several tongues,

And every tongue brings in a several tale,

And every tale condemns me for a villain.'

Richard III, William Shakespeare

j. The wind stood up and gave a leap as it blew everything in its path.

2 Genres of writing

2.1 Exploring different writing genres

Learning outcomes

- to identify the differences between writing genres
- to explore the general characteristics of writing

Did you know?

The intention and the purpose for writing are intertwined. For example if you wanted to sell a product, you would choose a type of persuasive writing such as a newspaper advertisement.

Writing genres

A literary genre refers to a category into which a literary work is grouped, based on the form and technique of writing. There are three major types of writing that you can choose from to communicate your ideas or goals.

- Narrative
- Descriptive
- Expository

In addition to the three main types of writing, we will also consider two further sub-types of writing: argumentative/persuasive writing and reflective writing.

Narrative writing – this essay is an account of events or experiences that are imagined or real. It is used to tell a story or to entertain. It can take the form of a short story, novel or a historical event.

Descriptive writing – this type of essay describes a person, object or situation using the five senses. It is done vividly and clearly, the reader can be a part of the experience.

Expository writing – this type of essay has several uses. It can define a term, be used to inform, provide detailed description of how something works or provide instructions. It gives both information and explanation at the same time. With this type of writing it is better to assume that the reader knows nothing about the topic in order to provide the necessary details. The essay can take the form of:

- an account
- a comparison
- cause/effect
- problem/solution
- a process
- a factual report
- a summary of ideas

Argumentative/persuasive writing – this is a form of expository writing that convinces the audience or the reader that the writer's point of view is valid. It embodies examples, evidence and emotional appeal.

Reflective writing – this is a type of writing that embodies elements of both descriptive and narrative. This type of writing is used to share thoughts on an event or scenario that is significant. This can take the form of, for example, a letter or a diary.

Each of these types of writing will be explored in more depth in the chapters that follow.

Activity 1

Identify the writing genre in each of the extracts below:

1. One problem with carnival is that it is very expensive to host and often results in a loss of GDP for a Caribbean country, due to the duration of the event. For the duration of carnival, the entire country is engaged in related activities. Moreover, there are additional expenses, which include: the construction of stages, competition funds, and labour costs in order to deal with littering and crime issues. The Government can alleviate this problem if they reduce the number of days designated to the event and enforce strict laws regarding leave in the government services for those who participate in the events. In addition, the masquerades and band managers could be asked to contribute to the stage construction projects.

2. It was the most depressing sight to behold. The trees were littered over the expanse of the forest. The pungent smell of smoke was nauseating and the ashes on the ground provided a blanket of soot to walk on. I saw no animal in sight and feared that all that was living was lost. Even though the warm, breeze blew across the expanse, I suffocated in the now approaching darkness.

3. The sun was out in its glory and I knew today was going to be good. I set out for school with my books in one hand and my costumes in the other. I was going to be the star of our school play and nothing was going to stop me. Today I was going to stand out and everyone would admire that timid girl who sat at the back of the classroom. No longer would they make fun of me, no longer would I hold my head in shame. I was going to shine like a diamond!

4. School uniforms are a waste of time and money. A uniform is difficult to design and takes a lot of research. The problem is compounded when teachers have to take valuable time from the classroom to come up with a unique colour and style (which unfortunately makes all of us look the same). Moreover, the cost of production is ridiculous. An entire uniform, from the tie to the socks, costs over J$500. Imagine how many more educational tools we could purchase with that money. I say down with the uniform and in with our educational privileges!

5. When it was time to select my portfolio piece, I knew immediately what I had to do. I had to write a journal of my experiences as a student in Clement Howell High School. I had both a challenging and inspirational educational experience growing up as a teenager and I wanted to share this with my peers from the Turks and Caicos Islands. Moreover, I wanted them to know about the value of a sound education and as such reinforce my theme of 'Education and life'.

Activity 2

Match each of the following to one or more of the writing genres discussed.

- poetry
- diary entries
- journals
- historical writing
- eulogy
- short story
- debates
- a monologue
- a play
- letter to the editor
- literary analysis
- song
- character sketch
- research
- advertising
- reports
- personal experiences
- autobiography

Narrative and descriptive writing

Narrative and descriptive writing belong to the same category of creative writing which includes stories, poetry, journals etc. Narrative writing is focused on telling a story by evoking emotions with imagery; descriptive writing describes a person, object or event in detail so as to allow the reader to experience it.

In narrative writing, the goal is to create an interesting plot to engage the reader. Here the emphasis is on concrete details and clear images. There is also the emphasis to induce empathy. For example:

'The rain fell and blew a strong breeze that whipped my body and gave me a chill.'

In descriptive writing, the focus is on the details of the event, rather than moving the plot forward. This is done with the use of details and the incorporation of the senses. For example the writer would not just say:

'She moved towards her opponent.'

Rather, they might say:

'With bold, unforgiving eyes and a heart that had become so cold, she took bold steps towards her opponent.'

Forms of narrative and descriptive writing

Narrative and descriptive writing can take many forms, including:

- short story
- novel/novella
- poetry
- fable/myth/legend/folktale
- play/skit
- realistic fiction
- journal/diary/logs
- biography/autobiography
- essay

Features of narrative and descriptive writing

Here are some characteristics of narrative and descriptive writing. You will note that while narrative writing is developmental with a distinct introduction, body and conclusion, the goal of descriptive writing is to leave images in the reader's mind.

Features of narrative writing	Features of descriptive writing
tells a story or event conveys a point of view (first, second, third person narrative)	objective – based on fact and scientific writing subjective – based on creative writing (personal opinion, intuition and emotions)
figurative language and imagery	figurative language and imagery

character development and dialogue	uses five senses – sight, smell, taste, touch, hearing
chronological: beginning/middle – climax/conclusion	logical: introduction – to get readers' attention body – to convey thoughts and feelings, sensory details conclusion – to emphasise impressions you are trying to create
based on conflict, action, and problem/resolution	use of 'action words' – verbs use of adjectives use of transition words – below, above, suddenly, shortly, during etc.

Activity 1

Read the two extracts below and identify

1. the genre used

2. the writer's purpose for creating each piece of writing.

Extract 1

The idiosyncrasy of this town is smoke. It rolls sullenly in slow folds from the great chimneys of the iron-foundries, and settles down in black, slimy pools on the muddy streets. Smoke on the wharves, smoke on the dingy boats, on the yellow river, —clinging in a coating of greasy soot to the house-front, the two faded poplars, the faces of the passers-by. The long train of mules, dragging masses of pig-iron through the narrow street, has a foul vapor hanging to their reeking sides. Here, inside, is a little broken figure of an angel pointing upward from the mantel-shelf; but even its wings are covered with smoke, clotted and black. Smoke everywhere! A dirty canary chirps desolately in a cage beside me. Its dream of green fields and sunshine is a very old dream, —almost worn out, I think.

'Life in the Iron Mills.', Rebecca Harding Davis

Extract 2

People could hardly get any accommodation in the town itself but these poor men lived and had been living in the colony for fifteen or twenty years ......far from the madding crowd of the town. If they had lacked anything it was electricity and this was now going to be removed. Women dreamed of it with all their might and men waited impatiently.

One day under the big banyan tree, the people sat; and while they gossiped among themselves the inevitable topic of electricity crept in.

'I say, what if we do ask for money for it?' Puran was obviously not sure about this point.

'No, no: it cannot be ...' and Gajjan Singh repeated his worn out answer.

All were silent until someone repeated, 'No, it cannot be ...'' And then they talked on for hours.

'The Night Shines, from Sunshine and Shadow: An anthology of short stories, edited by Roy and Clifford Narinesingh

Activity 2

1. Write a short descriptive essay on the following:
   - a photograph or painting of your choice
   - an inspiring view

2. Select a narrative form of your choice and write a short piece on the following:
   - a memorable journey
   - an encounter that changed your life.

The purpose of argumentative writing

We use arguments in our everyday lives. We debate about personal or academic subjects of interest and we do so with emotion, elevated voices, gestures and ideas that may or may not be based on truth. Arguments are based on the intention to *persuade* the listener that what we are presenting is the truth and to challenge the opposing ideas. The goal is to convince the audience of your points of view with rational arguments, supported judgments, your values and beliefs, and the use of emotional language. It is important to be aware that writers use arguments and persuasive language for their own purposes, and that the author's purpose may therefore be biased. However, as a student engaged in academic writing, you should ensure that your arguments are based on facts. We engage in '*fallacy*' when we do not have enough knowledge about a subject. This should be avoided since it can lead to uninformed judgments.

Argumentative or persuasive writing is used in several forms of writing. These include:

- speeches (e.g. political, to present social issues etc.)

- advertisements

- critical essays (e.g. the analytical section in your portfolio)

- news

- letters (e.g. to the editor, to convince a friend, recommendations etc.).

In addition to the use of evidence and emotional appeal, strong arguments must be credible and reliable. In other words they can be proven or verified.

For an argument or persuasive essay to be considered balanced, the following criteria should feature:

1. A thesis statement that presents your point of view and informs the entire argument (Introduction).

2. An analysis that explores the thesis statement and grounds it in evidence. It also observes and refutes counter arguments using arguments that support your point of view (Body).

3. A summary that reinforces the main statement or summarises your ideas and makes recommendations in some instances (Conclusion).

Some techniques used in persuasive writing:

- Evidence – supporting facts to confirm the claims that you make. E.g. *In today's world, males are becoming more fashion conscious. According to research recently conducted by Caribbean Fashion magazine, 67% of Caribbean men between the ages of 18 and 55 spend 30% of their salary on fashionable clothing.*

- Sources of authority – claims made by people who are experts in topic. E.g. *The University of the West Indies found that 45% of the students at the University are overweight due to poor eating habits.*

- Scientific appeal – use of charts, percentages and researched data that informs a topic. E.g. *Leading research by Bowell University informs the public to be conscious of their general wellbeing, since 28% of the population in any given district can access medication without a prescription.*

- Use of direct or personal appeal – appeal to needs of audience so they identify with the topic. E.g. *'The environment is all of our business.'*

- Emotional appeal – use of emotive language to involve the audience. *'How many more children must go hungry when you can make a difference?'*

- Analogy – drawing a link between similar issues so as to reinforce your points. E.g. 1. *Students are like flowers rather than sponges. The art of teaching is not to pour your knowledge into them but to give them time to open and bloom.*

- Contrast – explaining how issues are the same or different so as to reinforce your points. E.g. *Coleridge and Wordsworth both dealt with the theme of nature but in different ways.*

- Use of examples – drawing reference to scenarios to reinforce your points. E.g. *Advertisements by social media networks are now responsible for 20% of leading sales by businesses.*

- Use of rhetorical questions – a question asked by the speaker that requires no answer from the audience. The response is unanimously shared. E.g. *Isn't it our obligation to save our environment?*

- Repetition – repeating the point of view or idea for reinforcement. E.g. *'Hunger and strife must end, it must end!'*

You also need to recognise the language used in persuasive writing, especially by advertisers. Here are a few to consider:

- exaggeration
- repetition
- rhymes, songs, catchy phrases
- pun on words
- emotional words
- exclamations
- questions

Activity 1

Write a speech for your peers at school urging them to be cautious about the effects of mass media (including the Internet) on their everyday lives. Ensure you adhere to the following:

- make a plan of the essay – include your thesis statement, points of argument and supporting evidence

- research the topic and collect the supporting data

- pay attention to your audience

- decide on your tone of voice

- write a draft of the speech

- allow your peers to assist you in editing the speech.

- rehearse the speech in front of your peers using verbal and non-verbal communication techniques.

Activity 2

As a concerned student, you have discovered that the appeals made to the student body at your school about littering are not working.

1. Select one form of campaign from the list below that you think will be effective in reaching your student body.
   - a three-minute speech for the student assembly
   - a poster for the school billboard
   - a message for your Facebook page
   - an advertisement for the school magazine.

2. Suggest why this form of communication is best suited to convey the message.

3. Identify another form of communication that can be effectively used in conveying the same message:

Pay attention to the following:
- your purpose
- the audience
- your tone of voice
- devices used for persuasion.

2.4 Expository writing

Learning outcomes

- to understand the function of expository writing
- to explore the types of expository writing
- to write and edit an exposition.

Key term

Style: A person's distinctive way of speaking or writing that arises from factors such as pronunciation, word choice and sentence structure.

The functions of expository writing

Expositions are used in our daily lives to answer the questions to many issues that confront us. An exposition involves the questions *Who? What? Why? When? Where?* and *How?*

Expository writing serves several functions:

1. To explain, for example, you may want to *explain* how a computer works.
2. To describe, for example, you may have to *describe* the process of planting corn.
3. To inform, for example, you want to *inform* the public about the dangers of a hurricane.
4. To present facts or ideas, for example, you may want to present some *factual information* on the increase of the incidence of bullying at your school.

While expository writing is objective in nature and seeks to present facts, you can include an opinion based on the issue of discussion and even present a recommendation for the analysis of a topic. It is also important to consider the following before you begin to write:

1. Collect the information to inform your writing via research and interviews.
2. Ask yourself what the purpose of your writing is: is it to inform, explain, describe?
3. Who is the target audience?
4. Is it for a newspaper, a webpage or a magazine reader?
5. Draft a plan for your essay to organise your ideas coherently.
6. Consider the **style** of writing to be used. Also consider the narrative voice to be used (first or third person).

Types of expository writing

There are five main types of expository writing.

1. Process

This type of expository writing includes general instructions or directions, reports, biographies and autobiographies, plans and processes. The information provided is logical and carefully sequenced and should be presented clearly so that it is easy to follow or understand. It is important to show the relationship between the various aspects of the process by using connecting words such as 'firstly', 'however', 'as'.

This type of writing takes two forms:

- to show how something works
- to understand a process.

For example: *Turning on a computer involves several stages. First, you have to turn on the button on the CPU and then on the monitor; the computer will start. When your computer is 'booted up', a dialogue box will appear on the screen and cue you to type in your username and password. Do so. When you have done this, click the 'enter' button on the keyboard and you are ready to access your programmes to begin.*

Checklist:

- Is the purpose of the instruction stated?
- Are the instructions sequenced?
- Does the writer address the audience?
- Are the ideas connected via connecting words?

2. Cause and effect

This type of essay aims to explain the causes (reasons) or the effects (results) of an event or situation. Sometimes there may be many causes for an event or situation. For example: *What are the causes of the misuse of the Internet by teenagers?* At other times there may be many effects of an event or situation. For example: *What are the effects of the misuse of the Internet among teenagers?*

3. Compare and contrast

This type of expository essay compares people, places, events, situations or things. There are three different ways it can be approached:

- The comparative essay explores the similarities between two or more things.
- The contrast essay highlights differences between two or more things.
- The compare and contrast explores both similarities and differences between two or more things.

4. Classification

This type of essay breaks a subject down into categories for the purpose of analysis. The aim of the essay is to organise or sort so as to highlight similar characteristics within the subject. You should:

- Include in the thesis statement the topic and how it is going to be classified. E.g. *Tourists in the Caribbean can enjoy outdoor activities such as bird-watching, fishing, sun-bathing and water-sports.*
- State the author's purpose. E.g. explain why the classification matters to the reader.
- Describe each category, giving each one it's own paragraph
- Support each category with an example or illustration.
- Explore the similarities and differences of each category where necessary.
- Use transition words such as: 'the first category', 'the second category'.

5. Problem and solution

This essay identifies a problem and provides a solution, along with the argument for the proposed solution. For example, the problem might be homelessness, climate change or road fatalities due to use of cell phones whilst driving. You should:

- Describe the problem.
- Propose the best possible solutions, supported with examples and details.
- Provide arguments for the solution.
- Explain why one solution is better when compared to others.
- Use an analytical tone.

Activity 1

Decide on the most appropriate type of expository writing for each of the topics below. Then, choose one topic and write a short expository essay.

a. Boys are not given enough attention in the classroom.

b. The use of technological gadgets at school is beneficial to students.

c. Homework has a negative effect on the modern day student.

d. Slavery had a positive impact in the development of the Caribbean.

e. How to equip a child for twenty-first century life.

3 Summary-writing skills

3.1 Exploring the author's purpose and formulating topic sentences

Learning outcomes

- to explore the stages of writing summaries
- to infer the author's purpose and intentions in summary writing
- to formulate a topic sentence from an extract.

🔗 Link

The differences between quoting, paraphrasing and summarising are explored on the Purdue University Online Writing Lab. The full link is provided on the CD.

You engage in constructing summaries in your everyday lives. You may be asked to summarise a film that you have viewed, an article for a class presentation or to give a report of your daily activities. In Communication Studies, you will be asked to summarise the author's purpose and intentions in Paper 01 and Paper 02. (You are also required to summarise extracts in Paper 03/2).

A summary is a condensed version of a larger written or oral report. It focuses on answering the questions *Who? What? Why? When? How?* in a short and succinct form.

Summary writing is a process-oriented task and involves several steps in order to capture the author's intentions for writing. It is important to pay attention to the following stages when you engage in summary writing:

1. Identify the author, title and source of the information.
2. Read the extract to get the general meaning.
3. Re-read the extract to identify the main idea and separate out the supporting points.
4. Label, highlight, underline or code the main idea(s) in each paragraph.
5. Look for connections for the highlighted points or codes.
6. Formulate the theme, thesis statement or main idea.
7. Capture the author's intention for writing.
8. Write a draft, pulling together the important ideas that you've identified.
9. Use coherent sentences.
10. Pay attention to the word limit and eliminate unnecessary words, explanation, analogies, illustrations, examples, references.
11. Use your own words as much as possible. Do not paraphrase.
12. Edit by eliminating unnecessary words, paying attention to grammar, punctuation and spelling, and using connecting words.

The author's purpose

When you read an extract, you have to identify the author's intentions or purpose before you can begin to summarise it. Remember an author's intention can be to inform, entertain or persuade. The following can be considered to decipher the author's intentions for writing:

1. Look for overt statements which are normally found in the introduction e.g. *'Support the campaign against illiteracy.'*
2. Consider the author and source of the extract: for example, if the article is taken from an editorial, it is normally to persuade the reader.

3. An analysis of the text based on the topic, content and structure of the extract is normally the best indication of the author's intentions

The checklist below is useful for this:

- Does the writer intend to change the reader's opinion, provide information, evoke imagination or entertain the reader?
- Does the writer use humour, sarcasm, examples?
- Does the writer use compare and contrast, repetition, logical arguments?
- Which parts of the topic are emphasised when compared to others?
- How is the topic developed through the use of repetition, rhetorical questions, examples, humour?
- What types of evidence are used – statistics, quotations, emotional words etc.?
- Is there sufficient supporting evidence to convince you?
- What types of sentences are used – short, complex, unclear?
- What is the author's choice of words – emotional, scientific, technical, sarcastic?

Topic sentences

The central theme, subject or thesis statement forms the topic sentence of an extract. It contains the main idea and states the author's position or point of view. It is normally found in one sentence and does not contain the details of the text. The topic sentence is often found at the beginning of a paragraph. It is general enough to capture the overall meaning of the extract, but specific enough to help you to understand the main point in the paragraph.

Key term

Topic sentence: the main sentence in an extract, that summarises and organises the extract. The topic sentence can appear anywhere in the extract, but often appears at the beginning.

Activity 1

Read the following extract and:

1. State the writer's purpose in approximately fifteen words.
2. Identify the strategies you used to identify the author's purpose.

'Instagram' – revolutionising the way teenagers communicate in today's world.

If given the opportunity to select one form of social media with which to communicate, Caribbean teenagers would invariably select *Instagram*. *Instagram* has become more popular than Facebook since includes the technology to manipulate picture images. *Instagram* records teenagers' lives and allows everyone to share comments and experiences instantly. Marla Stone, psychologist and author of *Communicating in Modern Times*, states that Instagram has proven to build the self-esteem of teenagers in several Caribbean communities. Studies also suggest that teenagers prefer to use a form of social media that is not yet popular with their parents.

Rebecca Bold
Information Technology analyst for 'The Daily Spectacle.'

Activity 2

Read the following example and formulate a topic sentence.

As a child, I enjoyed observing the wet environment every day during the rainy season. I revelled in observing the waters in the ponds and ravines. I suppose every boy made a paper boat to sail in the waters when the downpours came. I remember how the waters would flow rapidly down the main causeway and I often admired the tumultuous waves in the ponds. My mind often drowned in them. I do not think that we have a distinct rainy season anymore, but it is one of the most memorable times of my life.

Learning outcomes

- to select the main idea from a piece of writing
- to distinguish between the main and subsidiary ideas
- to formulate topic sentences and link them to subsidiary ideas
- to understand the logical linkages between ideas.

Key term

Topic sentence: A topic sentence is the most important sentence in a paragraph, which expresses the main meaning of the paragraph.

Distinguishing between main and subsidiary ideas

One of the most important tasks in summary writing is to identify the main idea from a speech or extract. First, you need to locate the main idea from the paragraph. You may find the main idea in the topic sentence. It can also be found at the beginning or the end of a paragraph. At times, you will have to look at the details in the paragraph to come up with the main idea by yourself.

When looking for the main idea it is recommended that you leave out the examples that support the topic sentence and omit unnecessary words and sentences. These are referred to as the subsidiary details. It is also important to differentiate between the main and subsidiary details. The subsidiary details are how the author or speaker supports his theme or topic. This can be done by illustrations, examples, repetition, literary devices, direct speech, analogies, evidence, descriptions, popular sayings, sources of authority and detailed explanations. It also includes the opinion and objective of the speaker. It is good to note that the subsidiary details are not included in the topic sentences, but rather support and inform it.

Let us identify the topic sentence in the paragraph below:

supporting details → *All over Malaysia the people anxiously awaited the news of the recovery of flight MH370 that had gone missing somewhere over the Indian Ocean. Families of the flight members prayed that the plane would be recovered and that their loved ones would return home safely.*

topic sentence → *The details of the rescue operation were important to their peace of mind and the safety of their families. Any news that was broadcasted by the Malaysian government was important to them at the time.*

Now us explore the main idea in the following paragraph. Ask yourself:

- What is the main idea?
- What types of supporting details are used?

supporting details ↓

main idea → *Modern society depends on the use of technological devices to communicate rapidly. Without it communication would be delayed. It would take hours or days to get a letter or message to our friends and families abroad via ships and planes. In cases of an emergency or important decision, we would have delayed responses, which can result in negative consequences or fatality in some cases. We would be constantly anxious awaiting news or results that are critical to our well-being. Rapid communication is surely vital to our lives.*

supporting details ↙

Activity 1

Read the extract below, and answer the questions.

1. What is the main idea in the extract?
2. What are the supporting details?

> In the village of Beulah, several campaigns were launched to three hundred thousand residents to get them to stop using pellet guns, bows and arrows and sling-shots in their neighbourhood to kill the migratory birds. These birds use the mangrove swamps in the area as a nesting ground between May and September of each year. This forms part of the wild-life preservation plan instituted by the government.

Combining main ideas

After you have completed the process of extracting the main ideas from paragraphs, the next stage is to link them together to form a coherent summary. After you have selected the main ideas, be sure to sequence them so that you can state them logically. It is a good idea to put the main ideas in your own words as far as possible. Be sure to maintain the essence of the passage in the process by retaining technical terms and important vocabulary. At this point you have started condensing the material.

Activity 2

Read the following extract and state the main idea in no more than twenty words.

Narrow passageways and mossy concrete blocks determined my path. The air was stifling and the smell of mould and decay filled my nostrils. I quickened my pace, keeping in mind to the place of ecstasy that they had promised, and made my way to the main street.

Amid the noise and tremours of the street, the taste of charcoal meat filled the air. It made me nauseous. The sun pelted down on me like arrows, I had to run for cover. Giddy and haunted by the dust and heat, all the colours I saw before me were blurred. By the push of the crowd, I found my way to the opening. What lay before me was what I was in search of. The shrine stood bold and majestic against the filth and squalor. A gem amid the dirt. With this sight before me, I knew that I would survive from here on.

Activity 3

Read the following passage and identify the main ideas from the two paragraphs and connect them coherently. Be sure to leave out supporting details.

The rules for the examination at the school are clear. No tested material, books or notes, cell phones or think-pads are allowed in the examination centre. The invigilator has the right to confiscate these materials upon entry to the room. Students must decide beforehand the essentials to be taken into the examination centre. This is listed against each subject area to be tested in the examination timetable. If a student is caught with unauthorised material, s/he will be disqualified from all other examinations.

If a student is caught cheating, the invigilator has the right to confiscate the answer sheet, dismiss the student from the examination room and send the student to the examination committee. The student automatically scores zero on the test and the class teacher records the mark as such. In addition to this, the student will eventually be sent to the principal's office where an investigation will ensue and a suitable form of punishment will be administered by the school. This can include community service or essay writing exercises. The parents of the student will be called in for a conferencing session and the remarks written in the report book will indicate the act of dishonesty. It is hoped that this plan will reduce the incidence of cheating in examinations.

Writing effective summaries involves a process of note-taking, condensing material, writing and then editing.

Note-taking

Note-taking is an effective strategy for summarising a reading or listening exercise. It ensures that ideas are logically stated and connected.

For a written summary, pay attention to the following:

- Read the text carefully to get the essence of the meaning.
- Write the main ideas and separate supporting details.
- Be precise in your selection of details. These must reflect the text accurately.
- Each paragraph has its own meaning which connects to the previous paragraph and then the whole.

You can use graphic organisers to help you to organise your ideas – e.g. What is your topic? How is it divided? Are there any connections between the sub-topics?

See how the graphic organiser can best illustrate the ideas in the passage below.

In order to boost the programme of study and to register as many local and foreign students as possible, the University of the Caribbean Countries (UCC) wants to stage an exposition for two weeks during the semester break. The mass media, UCC's website and the campus human resource department are making the event a prestigious and unforgettable one for prospective students and eager parents alike. For this event to be successful, there are other criteria involved: it must be well organised, include the faculty members, have proper funding and requires a shut-down of the university from its normal activities.
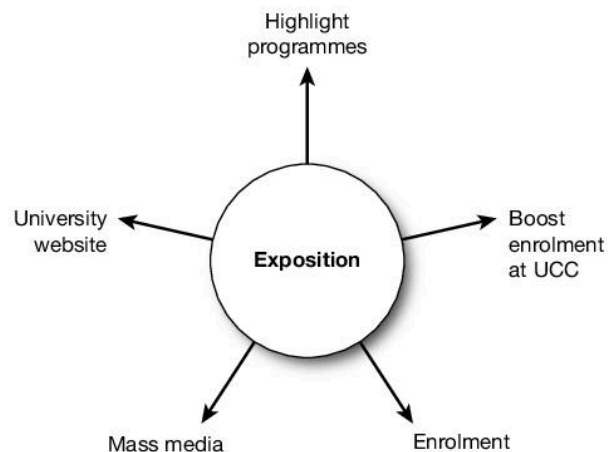
When you listen to oral presentations, take relevant notes, identifying the speaker's main points through:

- emphasis on important points by the use of repetition or tonal modulation involving a higher pitch
- non-verbal cues such as body movement and facial expressions

Condensing material

The process of condensing material involves extracting the important material from the text, with purpose and intention, keeping in mind the objective of the reading or listening exercise. You need to keep in mind the objective of the reading exercise. Are you reading or listening to find a solution? Are you reading to determine the causes of an incident? Or to extract information to answer a question?

Here are some tips to consider:

- decipher the writer's purpose
- underline or highlight important points or make relevant notes at the side of each paragraph
- formulate a theme or main idea for the extract
- observe the tense – normally the present tense is used to express ideas in a summary
- consider some 'connecting/transition' words to begin your outline of the summary.

Writing prose summaries

When writing your summaries it is important to adhere to certain guidelines for continuity and logic. It is important that you capture the writer's purpose and ideas being conveyed. It must also be kept in mind that the person who reads your summary may not understand the original information that you have read or heard.

Think about:

- connecting your main ideas and sorting them based on similarities or differences
- omitting supporting details, examples, illustrations, statistics, repetitions etc.
- identifying the logical ideas of the writer or speaker
- organising your paragraphs to represent the writer or speaker's ideas; e.g. problem-solution, cause-effect, advantages-disadvantages, compare-contrast
- re-organising the ideas of the extract or speech if they are not logical; e.g. the last paragraph can have a point that connects to one in the first paragraph
- being sensitive to your audience and the purpose of writing
- replacing a phrase with a single word
- using your own words as far as possible.

Editing

Editing work contributes to the fluency of the writing, and makes your main points more coherent. Use the following checklist to help you to edit your draft (more details on editing can be found in section 18.8):

- accuracy of content
- use of relevant connecting words – thus, moreover, also, however etc.
- no direct quotations
- grammar, punctuation, spelling, vocabulary
- word limit
- tense used
- stated author's purpose
- omission of your own opinion.

> **Activity 1**
>
> Find an extract from a newspaper or an online news source and:
>
> 1. State the main idea
> 2. Summarise the arguments,
> 3. Say if the arguments are valid.

4.1   Gathering information through structured research

Learning outcomes

- to gather, and evaluate, information about current issues
- to explain the nature of research
- to compare approaches taken to collecting research information
- to review the principles involved in reporting the content of sources.

Activity 1

1. Identify a topic that you feel strongly about and will not entertain any conflicting opinion.
   a. How did you come to that position?
   b. Why will you not consider alternative views?
2. List three topics on which you are open to opposing ideas. What is the difference?

This unit focuses on the research process and the questions to ask or strategies to use in investigating issues.

Many of us are unwilling to have our strongly-held opinions challenged, especially if they have roots in our belief structures. Even when others present factual challenges, we do not surrender.

There are other propositions which we may be unclear about. So before making up our minds, we seek further and better particulars than those immediately available to us. We research the issues in a number of ways, including informally soliciting the opinions of those around us – friends, relatives, colleagues – or noting discussions on the radio. However, research on some issues requires a more structured approach: consulting authorities and experts, combing library catalogues, subject texts and magazines, technical documents, local and international news sources, and Internet **search engines**. Identifying, collecting, analysing and interpreting information on a systematic basis is the core of formal research.

Approaches to research

Research questions arise from a problem or a hypothesis. The topic of our investigation, and the nature of the findings we hope to make, will determine the approach we take to our research. There are four kinds of research: quantitative; qualitative, mixed methods/pragmatic and advocacy/participatory. When developing or critiquing research, the suitability of the approach for the kinds of issues investigated and questions posed is an important consideration.

It is interesting to note that we may take different approaches to the same topic. Let us consider an example, in relation to comparing male/female use of *interruptions* in interaction.

- We may take a *quantitative* approach, by totalling the number of interruptions which men and women make, in single-sex and mixed-sex conversations, and reporting on them (often after expressing them in percentages).
- If, instead, we decide to investigate the various kinds of interruption that occur, the contexts in which they take place, and the results on the interaction, our approach is *qualitative*.
- We could also investigate the issue in relation to both the frequency of occurrence and the contexts and purposes for which they are used. That would be a *mixed methods* approach.
- A researcher, however, may promote a case on behalf of women who, he/she asserts, are disadvantaged by being frequently interrupted by male interlocutors. This would be an *advocacy* approach.

The process of research

Research is a systematic process which takes us on a journey of discovery, leading us through the following steps:

Identify general questions to be explored

→ determine the specific topic of research

→ collect information from identified sources

→ evaluate sources (in terms of questions posed, relevant literature, research approach(es), data collection and presentation, analysis and interpretation of findings, conclusions)

→ cite sources

The diagram below illustrates the cyclical nature of the process.

```
        4. Find relevant          5. Search the internet
         source articles             for relevant
                                       material


  3. Find source        1. Determine the        6. Evaluate your
     books              topic of research           sources


        2. Collect background      7. Cite all sources
         information in               usedin your
         reference books,            bibiliography
         encyclopedias etc.
```
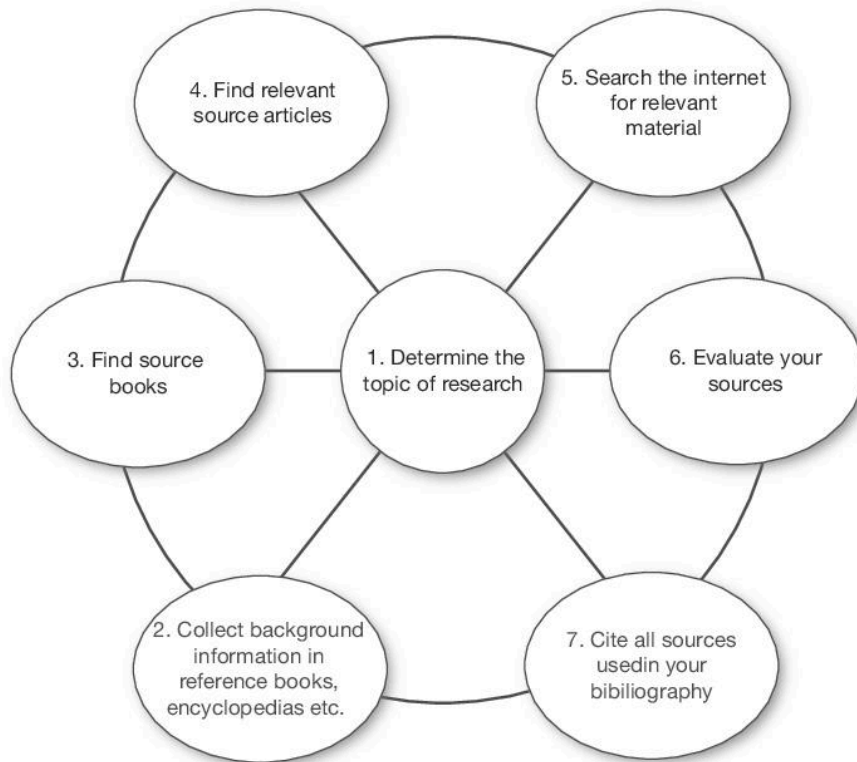
The background information you gather may provide you with new information; different points of view; different kinds of evidence support for these views – anecdotes, declarations from individuals, statistics, comparative examples in support of one or another position. We will investigate these in successive sections.

Noting information from sources

As you conduct your research, you will need to note important details on each of the sources you decide to consult. Here are some steps to follow:

■ Make complete citations of the authors, dates, titles, publisher and page numbers of all sources.

■ If you are copying or cutting-and-pasting information, insert quotation marks and the specific page(s) from which it came.

■ Avoid copying; instead, put the points you intend to use in your own words, whether by paraphrasing or summarising the original.

Activity 2

1. Identify a problem that you are interested in, and explain why the problem is of interest.

2. Is the problem relevant or important to you and/or others?

3. Draft five questions around this topic that you need to research, in order to develop informed opinions.

Activity 3

Identify two current issues – one local and one international – that you think would best fit each of the four categories of research. What specific aspects of the issues would be investigated in each case?

Activity 4

What advantages are there to look at the research process as cyclical rather than linear?

Did you know?

Systematic research helps us to gather data and draw conclusions.

- to establishing credentials of authors/publications
- to distinguish fact from opinion
- to determine bias
- to detect psychological persuasion.

When we conduct an evaluation, we make a judgment about the appropriateness and/or effectiveness of a(n) individual/programme/event/location/treatment (and so on), within a specified context or in fulfilling a particular purpose. An evaluation may be ongoing, or it may occur subsequent to the object of scrutiny.

During the process of evaluating issues and information, we have to consider the following:

- establishing the credentials and purposes of those presenting or reporting on the information
- differentiating between facts and opinions being conveyed
- determining bias
- detecting psychological persuasion.

Establishing credentials

What would your response be if you heard that someone who does not mean you well has been asked to provide a character reference on you? For obvious reasons, you would be anxious. This is the reason that we are usually asked to name references ourselves, and why it is not a good idea to submit a name without first checking on that referee's willingness to act in that capacity. It is also important to select an appropriate person: don't ask someone who has only known you in a limited context for a short time, or is of dubious character, to endorse you.

Similarly, we have to ask questions about a provider of information. While, usually, we can easily access authentic material as hard copy publications, it is often difficult to do the same for material published through the Internet. Many of us do, however, rely indiscriminately on information from that source, without necessarily probing its credibility, legitimacy or authenticity. Obvious questions relate to the credentials of the author and/or panel of publication referees, in terms of reputation, qualifications in the area, expertise and/or practical experience in the field, or in a related area.

Also remember that expertise in one area cannot be arbitrarily transferred to another. So, for example, a warder in an adult prison may have no expertise in instilling and/or maintaining discipline in school children; the bases of any pronouncements s/he may make in this area at least questionable, therefore. If you were to accept them blindly, you would do so on the basis of a flawed assumption – that an authority at one level is necessarily an authority at another.

The author's purpose(s) is/are also crucial. Does the presentation represent fact, opinion, an objective assessment or promotional material, for instance? Each of these purposes requires a different standard of evaluation. The material may also be a blend of these.

Differentiating between facts and opinions

Let us return to the prison warder. S/he is, of course, free to offer an opinion about anything s/he has an interest in. It is for us to critique the grounds for that opinion – that is, whether or not it is an informed

and educated opinion. There is one rule of thumb we can keep in mind here: while facts are not debatable, opinions are. So it may be a fact that studying four hours each day is generally beneficial to students, but whether that is enough to get you good marks in your exams is debatable – it is an opinion open to more than one point of view.

Determining bias

When we express a point of view, we may not have done an objective analysis; we may be representing or influenced by special interests. Similarly, in responding to questions in a survey or interview, we may not provide a genuine response. It may be that we feel threatened by those asking questions, perceive them to be associated with a particular response or even suspect them of manipulating information. So, for example, if those conducting a survey on likely voting patterns in an upcoming election seem to be connected to a political party, many respondents will simply claim to be intending to vote for that party. In other words, we cannot assume neutrality; we have to eliminate the possibility of bias.

Detecting psychological persuasion

One of the characteristics of so many contemporary local or international issues is their dramatic nature. International bombings, for instance, affect us emotionally. Our responses may be further engaged by sensational headlines, reports of gory details and pictures and audio of distraught victims or uncaring perpetrators. Transmitted vividly through technology, they leave us unable to determine facts, or report dispassionately on them. Flawed arguments or analyses may be presented as well, and these are known as fallacies.

Activity 1

1. Read the opening lines to a newspaper article below, and evaluate whether or not there is bias or psychological persuasion.

2. If so, what techniques and language does the reporter use to achieve this?

Local athlete in doping scandal

Beloved sprinter Bryan Johnson has left a nation heartbroken after accusations of doping, following the recent conviction of fellow runner Richmond Adams. Johnson, who has won gold at the Olympics and World Championships, has denied the allegations, beseeching his fans and the press not to paint him with the same brush as his former colleague. There is, as yet, no evidence for the accusations.

Activity 2

Your teacher asks you to rank a set of articles you have collected during your research on teenage antisocial language and behaviour at school. How would you:

- identify the sources of the articles

- judge the credentials of authors and publishers

- differentiate between facts and opinions

- determine whether there is/ is not bias

- recognise techniques of psychological persuasion ?

Activity 3

1. Collect six opinion pieces on a current issue from your local newspapers and note the following for each:

- credentials of author

- evidence (if any) of possible bias

- opinions expressed

- factual or other supporting evidence

- fallacies in arguments and other psychological techniques (with explanation).

2. Save these pieces and your notes for further analysis.

🔗 Link

For more on fallacy, visit The Writing Center (provided by the University of North Carolina), and find the handout on 'Fallacies'. The full link can be found on the CD.

- to define *research design*
- to distinguish between the four research methods/approaches discussed in section 4.1 and research designs
- to explain the purposes and features of particular research designs.

Activity 1

1. What do you understand *research design* to mean?

2. Consult a research-based study in one of your CAPE texts in a subject other than Communication Studies, then make notes on the following:

   - the general research method(s) the study employs

   - the purpose and focus of the study

   - the structure and plan of the study

   - the methods used to gather information for the study

   - the kind of analysis presented and conclusions arrived at in the research.

3. Which of the above bullets best describes a research design, and why?

Research designs

In section 4.1, we looked at four general approaches to conducting research – quantitative, qualitative, mixed methods and advocacy. These are also referred to as *research methods*. Having established these general approaches to our investigation and topic we will next decide on a specific *research design* which will vary depending on the nature of our research topic and the research method. We may, for example, be interested in further exploring existing material, such as texts, histories, results of experiments and statistical studies, or in producing new information, proposing an original perspective on or expanding the research of the topic. Our purpose will define whether to conduct a scientific experiment, statistical analysis, wide-scale survey of a population, or an in-depth study of a select group. Therefore, the topic being studied, the purpose of the study and the advantages/disadvantages of a design for the related context are among the considerations which will influence our decision on an appropriate choice.

Here are some of the more popular designs you would have come in contact with, on a regular basis and that you will have to choose from for your own research.

- **Experimental designs**
  A researcher chooses to observe a particular process/event/feeling/object – referred to as a dependent variable. S/he selects one or more variables – an independent variable – which s/he theorises may have a causal effect on the dependent variable. Then s/he carefully tests whether there is, in fact, a cause-effect relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable. In this design, the researcher has control of the independent variables and the selection and manipulation of groups and contexts to be studied. Experiments may be conducted in many spheres of interest. This type of research is used to isolate the effect of an individual variable.

- **Survey designs**
  We use survey designs to investigate attitudes, beliefs, opinions, market trends and so on, as we attempt to represent entire populations, through the use of strategic sampling. Surveys may be designed to capture the characteristics of a population, to compare populations or aspects of them, at a particular period, and this is referred to as a cross-sectional design. If researchers want to capture attitude and opinion changes during a period, they may use a longitudinal design, or sometimes a series of independent samples, referred to as successive independent sample design. Surveys are best used to understand a general trend in opinions and views.

- **Case studies**
  Case studies are in-depth studies of events, individuals, groups, situations, and so on. A case study may use the findings of previous research in order to build a current case. Case-study researchers do not manipulate the context or participants; rather, they ventilate issues, situations and concerns, providing explanations in relation to the particular object of study, which is allowed to 'speak for itself' or function on its own terms. Narrative and historical designs often fall in this category. Case studies are best for detailed research.

- **Ethnographies**

  Ethnography is the investigation of the behaviour of groups, communities, societies and cultures. Ethnographers direct a lens on to the habits, values, practices, and so on, of the people/practices who/which are the focus of their study. They never impose their views, perceptions, judgements or interpretations on the material they collect; instead, as they conduct their analyses, and in order to ensure authenticity in their findings, they solicit the assistance and perspectives of members of the groups under study. Ethnography is best used for an unbiased study, without a specific outcome in mind.

- **Correlational studies**

  In correlation studies, researchers study whether or not variables co-occur with each other, and also make predictions about possible correlations between them. Although we are often tempted to assume that correlation equals a causal relation, this is not the case; therefore, we cannot consider or establish causation by using a correlational design. This research design is used to understand the relationship between two variables.

> ☑ *Exam tip*
>
> When asked to propose alternative research designs or to critique the choice of one design over another, make certain to use the scenarios provided, to inform your response.

Activity 2

1. Find an everyday analogy to explain the relationship between research methods/approaches and a research design.

2. Note cause/effect relationships which an experimental design could be used to test in geography, chemistry, physics, psychology, sociology, education.

3. Explain how and why a researcher's lack of control of independent variables and groups to be tested, may negatively influence or cast doubt on the results of an experiment.

4. Find a case study and a survey done on any aspect of the welfare of young people in your territory.

   a. Explain the benefits each design offers to the findings presented

   b. Compare the limitations you identify in each case.

5. Note the benefits to be derived from ethnographic research and the possible challenges to be overcome.

6. Relational studies are often conducted in schools. Identify variables studied in this context, then list some of the correlations and predictions made in research you have been exposed to.

7. For each of the designs summarised above, list the advantages and disadvantages. Which factors would contribute to a researcher's selection of one design over another one, which is equally appropriate for a particular topic?

5.1 Primary, secondary and tertiary sources of information

Learning outcomes

- to identify primary, secondary, tertiary sources in different disciplines
- to compare their functions
- to discuss ambiguities which may arise in the classification of sources.

Identifying sources

In this section, we will explore how to understand the differences between, and how to analyse primary, secondary and tertiary sources. When we hear or read someone's autobiography, an account of an incident in which they participated, or an experiment or clinical trial which they conducted, we are receiving first-hand information from a *primary source*. We are primary sources when we present original reports about issues, events, experiences and incidents in which we are involved, or descriptions and findings of experiments and trials that we conduct.

On the other hand, biographies, reports about the same events, issues and incidents from people who were not there in person are *secondary sources*, as are analyses of original reports of experiments and clinical trials, and interpretations, critiques and opinion pieces.

Tertiary sources are sources that consolidate and point to primary and secondary sources. The Internet can be classified as a *tertiary source*, as it can be a tool to locate both original and second-hand information. Tertiary sources also include indexes, directories, guide books, abstracts, bibliographies, encyclopaedia and dictionaries.

The purpose of a source, in context, will help you to distinguish its appropriate classification. The main distinction between primary and secondary/tertiary sources, however, is the difference between gaining information directly or indirectly. On the one hand, you will be receiving first-hand, authentic information, directly from a source which was current during the period of focus of your research. You will also be able to collect information through person-to person interviews, or by observing events in progress. On the other, secondary/tertiary sources, such as encyclopedia, will provide second/third-hand information, after the fact, which is particularly valuable in circumstances when primary sources may be unavailable.

Link

For further explanation and examples on the different sources of information, visit the University of Maryland University Libraries webpage. You will find the full link on the CD.

Activity 1

Without reference to any research material, make notes on the following:

1. Classify each of the following as primary/secondary sources: individuals, books/magazines, text messages, photographs, surveys, emails, encyclopedia, websites, broadcast radio conversations, news commentary and analysis, audio/video tapes, television interviews, diagrams.

2. List any problems or questions you encountered in question 2.

3. Select one of the subject areas you are studying, and list some of the primary and secondary sources used in it. What kinds of information does each kind of source provide?

Below are some examples of each of the sources in used in different disciplines.

Discipline	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary
Music	Artist's CD	Media ranking of CD	Store inventory of CDs Biography of artist
Literature	Prominent person's diary/ literary work/ media interview	Critic's review/ analysis of diary/ work Interview	Library catalogue Bibliography entry in diary/ work/interview
Medicine	Doctor's notes on patient with anxiety disorder	Documentary/ thesis on anxiety disorder	Medical textbook
Language & Communication	Data base of recorded conversations	Analysis of conversational patterns/ strategies	Textbook on conversation analysis
History	Archival material Archaeological finds on slave revolts in the Caribbean	20th century movie about slavery	Internet resources on slavery
Chemistry/ Physics	Researchers' lab notes, Journal articles, Reports on original trials experiments patents	Monograph,/ text book, analysis/ summary of researchers' findings	Encyclopaedia, handbook
Sport	Telecast of cricket match	Commentary on cricket match	Wikipedia on cricket
Furniture	Cabinet maker's workshop	Furniture distribution outlet	Online catalogue

Recognising perspectives

Have you noticed that first-hand accounts of the same facts may differ? We may both be involved in the same incident, but recount the details in different ways, through different perspectives. In fact, there may be multiple, divergent first-hand perspectives and reports on the same event. An example is the reporting of historical facts. The story of our Caribbean region, as written/purveyed, first-hand, by its enslavers and colonisers, is very different from the first-hand accounts of the same facts by those who were enslaved and delivered to the region.

The very words we choose in recounting experiences may also display subtle differences in perspective; so instead of reporting that he arrived in the Caribbean at a particular day and time, Columbus claimed that he *discovered* the region. The indigenous citizens already living there, however, would likely have reported that he had *invaded* it!

Did you know?

An *extended definition* is a definition with an explanation which may be very involved, including references, examples, comparisons and a range of figures of speech.

Look up online Jerome K. Jerome's extended definition "On being in the blues". It still rings true today, although it was written in 1886!

Activity 2
1. Do some research in your library or on the Internet on sources you can use for your area of study or research topic. Make notes on your findings.

2. Find and explain examples of:
   a. sources which may be classified differently, depending on their context
   b. language indicating different first-hand perspectives on an issue.

Learning outcomes

- to identify the different categories and functions of communication provided by the Internet

- to compare the benefits and pitfalls of different components of the Internet, such as social networking, instant messaging, browsing websites

- to discuss the benefits and disadvantages of the Internet.

The Internet is an extensive resource which facilitates free access to a wide range of possibilities for immediate communication, building community, and apparently limitless information. For example, we are able to:

- cross time and space barriers using email, video and voice communication applications

- develop and maintain contacts throughout the world, sharing intimate details of everyday life through social media networking

- gain access to a wide range of opinions, topics and comparative information provided by individuals, groups and corporations, through browsers and search engines

- teach and learn skills through online means, using audio and video sites, message boards, chat rooms, slide sharing facilities, etc.

For these reasons, the Internet can be referred to as an 'intelligent tool', and a very important tool for research.

Activity 1

1. Classify the major groups of services that the Internet provides. List examples in each group.

2. List, with their functions, the Internet services which you use regularly.

3. Compare the contexts in which you would use search engines, social networking and instant messaging. What advantages and disadvantages do you associate with each?

4. What other Internet tools facilitate:
   - interpersonal communication
   - group communication
   - mass communication?

🔗 Link 1

Visit the website: http://www. educause.edu

Then find the following article: 'Using Technology as a Learning Tool, Not Just the Cool New Thing', Ben McNeely

Activity 2

1. Link 1, written by Ben McNeely, a university student, shares a perspective about the benefits of Internet technology for people his grandparents' age, as well as his contemporaries, whom he refers to as the 'Net Geners'. Consider and then make notes, in your own words, on the following questions.

   a. Do any issues arise in establishing the author, date and publisher of the piece?

   b. List the technologies and their benefits to Ben's grandfather, grandmother, his classmates, himself and his brother, which he discusses.

   c. What are the benefits Ben describes that are derived by Patrick Clark, Chris Reynolds, Jake Seaton and himself, as individuals and as a group of Net Geners?

   d. How do the learning styles of Net Geners and the 'Greatest Generation' differ in their approach to problems, and why?

   e. What is Net Geners' attitude to distance education, and why?

   f. How and why does cheating with technology occur? Why, in your view, should traditional meanings of cheating be adhered to?

   g. What problems are associated with the provision of technology in education, as described by the author, and what solutions does he offer?

2. Would you recommend this article to your peers? Write a blog explaining why/not, including your assessment of its style, the information it presents and the analysis it provides, followed by your overall judgment. Compare your findings with those of your peers.

With the plethora of information available through the Internet, we should always ask the usual important questions about the material it presents. Link 2 provides some guidelines on evaluating resources, and discusses the importance of evaluating authority, design, objectivity, currency and navigation. It also provides related sites for your examination.

Activity 3

Read the guidelines in Link 2, and then answer the following questions:

1. Are all criteria equally important in evaluating print and Internet sources? Why/not?

2. Why are they applicable to all Internet sources? Why not?

3. Why do the authors say the Internet can be almost useless for some topics? List three such topics, with explanations for your selections.

4. What is the virtue in using both Internet and non-Internet sources?

Activity 4

In Link 3, Amanda O'Connor explores instant messaging, and its effect on students' writing. Study the link, then answer the questions below:

1. On what authority, if any, does the author present this article?

2. List each question posed, with a summary of the answer and supporting evidence presented.

3. How (with specific reference to examples from the text), would you evaluate the design, objectivity, currency and navigation of the piece?

Activity 5

In Link 4, Justin Marquis explains the benefits and drawbacks students derive from using social media.

1. Explain, with reasons, why each of the negatives apply to you as a student.

2. How important are the points made in relation to social constructivism, breadth of knowledge and technological literacy to your use of social media?

3. What are the 21st century skills referred to and how does game-based learning help students acquire them?

4. Give your opinion, with reasons, on the likely effectiveness of the five strategies proposed for teachers to 'ensure student engagement rather than mandating social media blackouts in higher education'.

Activity 6

1. Compare, then rank, with reasons, the presentations in the links above, using the five criteria presented in Link 1.

2. Research the Internet for discussions of the pros and cons of the use of other Internet resources by students. Make certain to evaluate each source, using the criteria in Link 1.

🔗 Link 2

Visit the website: http://www.bcps.org/

Then find the following article: 'Trash or Treasure? How to Evaluate Internet Resources'

https://www.bcps.org/offices/lis/models/tips/eval.html www.bcps.org/offices/lis/models/issues/tips/trash.

🔗 Link 3

Go to the website: http://education.jhu.edu/

Then find the following article: 'Instant Messaging : Friend or Foe of Student Writing?'

🔗 Link 4

Visit the website: www.teacherthoughts.com.

Then find the following article: 'The Pros And Cons Of Student Social Media Use'

☑ *Exam tip*

Be as specific as possible in your answers; so refer to *website* or *YouTube* rather than 'the Internet', and *Facebook, Twitter* etc, as appropriate, rather than 'social media sites'.

Determining the comparative value of sources

Because of the availability of local and international, dated and contemporary sources in print, electronically and through the Internet, we should have little trouble locating them. Having identified their location, however, we need to discriminate among them, in relation to their credibility, as well as the accuracy, currency, relevance and value of the information they contain.

The suitability of a source will depend entirely on the subject and the method of research. An academic piece of research, for example, will rely predominantly on scholarly articles and books, which can be in print or online. For current information, you would choose a newspaper or magazine, or a website relating to the topic of research. For very general information on a historical figure, you may consult an encyclopaedia or the Internet, and for more for detailed research, you will choose instead to read historical texts and biographies. For every research project, we need to consider and select the source that is the most appropriate and valuable.

It is also important to know where to locate sources: your school or local library will have a selection of print books and magazines specialising in a particular field of study. Dictionaries and encyclopaedias can also be found in libraries or via online sources. Scholarly articles will generally be accessed via online subscription *databases*. The Internet is a good source of information, but it is important to choose your sources carefully as not all are very credible or reliable (see section 5.4 for more on credibility and reliability).

Activity 1

You have been asked to write essays on the topics listed below. Make notes, with reasons, on the advantages/disadvantages of the sources indicated for each.

- A healthy lifestyle – Wikipedia, supplement company, nutritionists
- Local entertainment – entertainers, fan mail, media reviews
- Euthanasia – terminally ill patients, medical practitioners, parents/ spouses of patients
- Social media and teenagers – parents, social media sites, teenagers
- Bullying at school – bullies, victims of bullying, parents of bullies/ victims
- Academic tests – teachers, students, educational institutions
- Doping in sport – athletes, coaches, sports administrators

Evaluating during reading

 In distinguishing between sources, we have to ask evaluative questions as we read their content, in order to decide if the source meets our needs, and is accurate, credible and reliable. It is generally not necessary to read the whole source in order to decide if it will be useful to us: a skim read or reading just the summary will be enough to determine the usefulness of a piece to our research.

Once we have decided that a source is useful, we can use the following guidelines, provided by Purdue University, to evaluate the source. In the next section we will also consider how to evaluate the reliability and validity of a source.

▪ Read the preface. What does the author want to accomplish? Browse through the table of contents and the index. This will give you an overview of the source. Is your topic covered in enough depth to be helpful? If you don't find your topic discussed, try searching for some synonyms in the index.

▪ Check for a list of references or other citations that look as if they will lead you to related material that would be good sources.

▪ Determine the intended audience. Are you the intended audience? Consider the tone, style, level of information, and assumptions the author makes about the reader. Are they appropriate for your needs?

▪ Try to determine if the content of the source is fact, opinion or propaganda. If you think the source is offering facts, are the sources for those facts clearly indicated?

▪ Do you think there's enough evidence offered? Is the coverage comprehensive? (As you learn more and more about your topic, you will notice that this gets easier as you become more of an expert.)

▪ Is the language objective or emotional?

▪ Are there broad generalisations that overstate or oversimplify the matter?

▪ Does the author use a good mix of primary and secondary sources for information?

▪ If the source is opinion, does the author offer sound reasons for adopting that stance? (Consider again those questions about the author. Is this person reputable?)

▪ Check for accuracy.

▪ How timely is the source? Is the source twenty years out of date? Some information becomes dated when new research is available, but other older sources of information can be quite sound fifty or a hundred years later.

▪ Do some cross-checking. Can you find some of the same information given elsewhere?

▪ How credible is the author? If the document is anonymous, what do you know about the organisation?

▪ Are there vague or sweeping generalisations that aren't backed up with evidence?

▪ Are arguments very one-sided with no acknowledgement of other viewpoints?'

The Purdue University Online Writing Lab, Contributors: Dana Lynn Driscoll, Allen Brizee.
Last Edited 2013-02-13 11:01:58 (Accessed 15-08-2014)

Citing sources correctly

It is important to keep accurate records of your sources as you do your research, to allow you to compile a bibliography listing all of your sources. This will allow the reader of your work to locate the original source should they wish to check facts and context, or to investigate your work further. A complete citation includes the following: Name(s) of author(s); date, title and publisher. You should enclose in quotation marks and cite page numbers of any sections of a work you copy or quote directly.

Activity 2

1. Use the tips for evaluating sources to evaluate the following:

   ▪ one print source from each of two different CAPE subjects you are studying

   ▪ a web source you have consulted for each subject.

2. Explain which of the three sources you have found most credible, and why.

3. Make complete citations of each source evaluated, in an appropriate style.

Activity 3

Use the tips for evaluating sources to provide a more complete evaluation of the sources suggested for one of the topics outlined in activity 1.

Activity 1

1. Make notes on your responses to the following questions, using introspection only.

   a. What are the characteristics of a reliable person, motor vehicle, telephone or service?

   b. How do we decide whether a driver's license, passport/ other identification or professional certificate is valid?

   c. Use your answers in question 1 to define the terms *reliable* and *valid*.

2. Compare your definitions with those in extract 1.

☑ *Exam tip*

Be careful not to confuse the terms *validity* and *reliability*. It's an easy mistake to make.

Reliability and validity are concepts which we apply regularly in everyday life. We apply them to people, transportation, services, identification, certification and opinions. In fact, if we were to accept all these at face value, we could find ourselves in serious difficulties.

In any research, it is essential to determine the reliability and validity of your sources in order to determine their usefulness to your study. For your Communication Studies portfolio, you will need to evaluate the reliability and validity of the information gathered during your research. In order to do this, you will need to consider the reliability and validity of the author or speaker of the source, the social/historical context in which it is written, and where it is published/presented.

The terms reliability and validity have slightly different meanings, and implications, in different fields of study. Here are two definitions of reliability and validity: the first from science and the second from social science. Can you recognise the subtle differences between them?

Extract 1: validity and reliability

a) The principles of validity and reliability are fundamental cornerstones of the scientific method. Together, they are at the core of what is accepted as scientific proof, by scientist and philosopher alike. ...

The idea behind reliability is that any significant results must be more than a one-off finding and be inherently repeatable. ...

Validity encompasses the entire experimental concept and establishes whether the results obtained meet all of the requirements of the scientific research method.

Shuttleworth. M, (Oct 20, 2008). Validity and Reliability. Retrieved March 2, 2015 from Explorable.com:https://explorable.com/validity-and-reliability

In science, validity and reliability are equally crucial to the evaluations we make of our sources of information. We may depend on someone with an ulterior motive to provide us with an assessment of another person's capabilities an unqualified person posing as an authority in an area, or an entity with a vested interest in a product or service recommending it to us. In all these cases, we would be making judgments using unreliable and invalid sources.

Extract 2: establishing validity and reliability

To appreciate the concepts of validity and reliability and how you might establish them, consider how you would behave as a juror deliberating in a criminal trial. Lawyers for both sides would argue their cases as persuasively as possible. Your task as a juror is to determine which of the arguments to believe. In deciding if a lawyer had "proved the case," you would probably ask these questions regarding validity: Are these claims credible? Can I truly believe that this evidence means what these witnesses and lawyers say it does? To determine the reliability of the evidence, you would ask questions such as these about the accuracy of the witnesses' recollections and testimony: Can I trust the accuracy of their eyes and ears? Could time or emotions have played a trick on their memories?

So how do legal "researchers"—defense lawyers and prosecutors—convince a jury of the essential truth and accuracy (validity and reliability) of their cases? They do it through the twin processes of *corroboration* and *impeachment*. When they want the jury to believe what one of their witnesses said, they bring in other independent witnesses. If an additional witness *corroborates* everything the first witness said, it increases the confidence a juror will have in the initial testimony. The more independent pieces of evidence a lawyer can place before a jury, the more the jurors will trust the truthfulness and accuracy of the claims. Conversely, if lawyers want the jury to doubt the truth and accuracy (validity and reliability) of the other side, they try to *impeach* (challenge the credibility of) the testimony of the other side, by, for example, entering into evidence alternative or irreconcilable reports on the same phenomenon from several independent sources.

Sagor, R. (2000). Guiding School Improvement with Action Research.
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development: 112–113

As extract 2 demonstrates, qualitative researchers have parallel ways of establishing the equivalence of scientific validity and reliability in their research. They concentrate on ensuring that their processes and data are credible, that their outcomes can be corroborated, that their findings are applicable to similar contexts and, are consistent, and that their results are repeatable.

To establish the validity of sources, we have to ask questions about:

■ the author/publisher

■ their purpose(s)

■ the social and historical context in which the source is composed

■ accuracy, currency and relevance of information and conclusions

■ appropriateness of data/data-collection procedures

■ biases.

We will discuss how to evaluate the reliability and validity of data collection methods in section 6.3.

Activity 2

1. Explain how each of the points bulleted above contribute to the validity/reliability of sources.

2. Under what specific conditions could the following items be reliable and valid sources of information:

   ■ fiction

   ■ books over 50 years old, magazines of various types, journal articles, artefacts, fossils, blogs, Wikipedia

3. Find sources of information on validity and reliability on the Internet. For each, record their website, then compare and rank them according to their reliability and validity.

Argument

Argument is a strategy of persuasion, as are quarrelling and advertising. However, unlike the latter, which depend on psychological appeals, argument should be based on logical persuasion: providing propositions of various kinds which are intended to lead us, through a process of reasoning, to the conclusions proposed. What this means is that, rather than reacting uncritically to argument, we have to evaluate the truth of its propositions, and the logic of the reasoning processes presented.

The processes of reasoning

There are two main categories of argument which differ, substantially, in the direction of the process of reasoning employed, the strength of conclusions drawn, and the reasons/premises offered in support of them.

- ■ *Deductive* **reasoning** usually begins with general hypotheses and moves to conclusions about specifics. It is possible to establish whether a) the premises and conclusions are true, and b) there is a logical connection between them – referred to as validity. **It is important to note that validity in argument has a different specific meaning to that discussed in section 5.4: here, it refers to the logical structure of an argument, and NOT to its content.** Therefore, an argument may be valid, although its premises and/or conclusion may not be true. However, to be considered *sound*, a deductive argument has also to be true.

- ■ *Inductive* **reasoning** presents known observations examples, comparisons, causal explanations and/or statistics, as the basis for the probable or likely generalisations arrived at. To test inductive reasoning, we have to judge a) the relevance, acceptability and sufficiency of the information which constitutes the premises and b) the strength of their connection to the conclusion. Usually, an inductive argument with all true premises is referred to as cogent. When there is a high probability of the conclusion following from the premises, the argument is referred to as 'strong'.

Activity 1

1. Browse the opinion columns and letters to the editor in your local newspapers of the past few weeks and make notes on the specific arguments they present, using:

   - ■ if … then…

   - ■ examples, comparisons, causal explanations

   - ■ statistical support.

2. Listen to local radio programmes airing news and sports analyses, in-studio and phone-in talk. Record or take notes on one or two of those which are highly controversial. Then make notes on:

   - ■ points of argument, the counter-arguments and their justification.

Fallacies in reasoning

How often have you unquestioningly supported a position because it is shared by the majority; accepted the credentials of an irrelevant authority; or assumed a cause-effect relationship between events occurring sequentially? These are some of the consequences of flawed reasoning (fallacies) which we employ in order to convince ourselves and others of the rightness of our claims or the positions we take on an issue.

In argument, a fallacy is a failure or a flaw in reasoning which renders an argument invalid. Fallacies are sometimes grouped in categories, as follows.

- Fallacies of relevance – for example: appeal to tradition, biased authority, bandwagon, personal attack (ad hominem).

- Component/structural fallacies – for example: circular reasoning/ begging the question, false cause, hasty generalisation, misleading statistics, non sequitur (does not follow).

- Fallacies of ambiguity – for example: composition/exception, division, equivocation, faulty/weak analogy.

- Fallacies of omission – for example: lack of evidence, arguing from the negative, argument from ignorance, loaded question, stacking the deck.

Activity 2

1. Use the principles you have learned here to analyse and make full notes (with reasons) on the arguments collected in activity 1.

2. Explain the context in which you presented an argument you knew to be illogical, in order to persuade someone.

   a. List the argument, and note why it was flawed. Did it succeed in being persuasive? Why/not?

   b. Restructure the argument so that it is valid/strong and sound/ cogent.

Key Points

1. Argument is a process of logical reasoning linking premises to conclusions.

2. Two main categories of argument are deduction and induction.

3. Validity in deduction and strength in induction refer to the logical structure of arguments.

4. True premises in induction make the argument cogent.

5. Fallacies are flaws in reasoning.

6. Conclusions in sound deductive arguments are guaranteed as true; in sound inductive arguments, they are highly probable or likely.

6.1 Understanding data collection methods

Learning outcomes

- to define *data* and *data collection methods*
- to distinguish data collection methods from research methods/designs
- to explain the characteristics and functions of select data collection methods.

Activity 1

Answer the following questions, as if you were under examination conditions.

1. What *are data collection methods*?

2. Classify the following as either a) *data collection methods* or b) *research designs*: case studies, a census, document analyses, emails, experiments, field notes, the Internet, interviews, observation, performance studies, polls, portfolios, questionnaires, recordings, reviews, samples, surveys, tests, text analyses.

3. Construct a three-column table with three headings: Topic, Research Design and Data Collection Methods. Complete the table in relation to the following topics: student achievement; scientific/medical experiments; attitudes to new products; opinions about issues; comparisons of groups or lifestyles; cultural events; trends.

Data collection methods

Data collection methods are the tools we use to collect facts and figures which, when processed or analysed, become information. Just as there are primary and secondary/tertiary sources, so there are primary and secondary data, defined by whether you are gathering original data or using already available data. Discussions on data collection methods often identify and confuse data collection methods with the research methods or designs outlined in sections 4.1 and 4.3. Further, some discussions also attach limitations to the uses of various methods, inaccurately designating the latter as qualitative and the former quantitative. Listed here are three of the main methods of data collection:

- **Questionnaires** collect different types of data, depending on the approach to collection, the type of questions and the intended analysis. Open-ended questions, allowing for narrative answers or suggestions from responders, require a qualitative analysis, while close-ended questions will limit responses, and generate numerical, quantifiable data for analysis.

- **Interviews** have the same sort of flexibility as questionnaires, depending on how structured they are. An unstructured interview encourages an interviewee to offer clarification or an extended answer, introduce material or frame answers in a way not anticipated, and requiring qualitative analysis. However, a formal, structured interview, with interviewers sticking to the questions asked and rigorously limiting the scope of answers rated on a scale, will provide numerical data requiring quantitative/statistical analysis.

- **Observation,** similarly, can be classified as structured or unstructured, as well as participant or non-participant, thereby generating different kinds of results. In participant observation, the researcher is present during the research process and takes detailed field notes and/or audio/video recordings of events. The researcher may or may not actually participate in activities, taking care not to influence results by being present. In a structured observation setting such as a lab, however, pre-defined variables are observed, recorded and rated using prepared schedules and conventions. What is to be tested, how, when and where the research is to take place, are all pre-determined, and the responses confined. The results therefore require a more quantitative analysis.

In addition to the three main data collection methods outlined above, surveys, individual research (such as at a library) and focus groups can also be considered data collection methods. There is clearly no necessary one-to-one correspondence between any specific research design and the data collection methods used, which are subject to some amount of manipulation. Each context has its own requirements, and it is important to select the appropriate data collection method for each individual study. (We will return to this in section 6.2.)

Extract 1 below (Creswell 2003) discusses the appropriateness of data collection methods and the use of complementary methods of data collection.

Extract 1: Data collection methods

…it is useful to consider the full range of possibilities for data collection in any study, and to organise these methods by their degree of predetermined nature, their use of closed-ended versus open-ended questioning, and their focus for numeric versus non-numeric data analysis.

Researchers collect data on an instrument or test (e.g. a set of questions about attitudes toward self-esteem) or gather information on a behavioural checklist (e.g. where researchers observe a worker engaged in using a complex skill). On the other end of the continuum, it might involve visiting a research site and observing the behaviour of individuals without predetermined questions or conducting an interview in which the individual is allowed to talk openly about a topic largely without the use of specific questions. The choice of methods by a researcher turns on whether the intent is to specify the type of information to be collected in advance of the study or to allow it to emerge from participants in the project. Also, the type of data may be numeric information gathered on scales of instruments or more text information, recording and reporting the voice of the participants. In some forms of data collection, both quantitative and qualitative data are collected. Instrument data may be augmented with open-ended observations, or census data may be followed by in-depth exploratory interviews.

Creswell, J. (2003). Research Design. Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches (2nd ed.) Sage Publications, Inc.: 17–18

Activity 2

1. Identify and note the research designs which could use the following data collection methods: artefacts, audits, clickstream, cookies, diagrams, diaries, documents, films, focus groups, GPR, logs, maps, media recordings/texts, self assessments, photographs, portfolios, satellite imagery, simulation, stories, testimonies, web beacons.

2. Note, with reasons, the advantages/disadvantages of each method in question 1.

3. List any of the methods in question 1 which could also function as research designs, the conditions to be met, and the appropriate data gathering methods they could use.

4. Assess the effects of the methods in question 1 on:

   - the quality/limitations of data collected;

   - participation of respondents;

   - time and space constraints;

   - ethical considerations.

- to explain the functions of a scenario to decisions of appropriateness
- to demonstrate and/or assess the appropriateness of data collection methods to different scenarios.

Link

The link below provides more information on collecting data, and provides activities for practice. The link is also provided on the CD.

www.evaluatod.org/e-learning/collecting-data/index.php

Appropriateness is an important consideration in all communication and no less so in research, where the selection of research methods/designs and data collection methods is intricately linked to the research problem we are investigating, the questions to be addressed, the information already available and the gaps we are intending to fill so as to solve that problem.

Just as existing research is centered within a context, so a scenario provides a hypothetical situation, which we explore as we propose solutions. The type of research to be undertaken, the purposes and objectives of the study, the bases on which they will be studied, including what will constitute data and the ways in which they will be collected, processed and analysed, are all determined by that specific scenario.

In this section, therefore, we will concentrate on how to best use scenarios in answering questions on appropriate methods of gathering data.

Activity 1

1. What purpose does a scenario serve in research?

2. Write down the information you would need and the steps you would take to ensure that you select the methods of data collection appropriate for a given scenario.

Now let us work through the scenarios of two previous CAPE Communication Studies examinations.

Activity 2

Read through extracts 1 and 2, focusing on the scenario supplied, then study the examiners' commentary.

1. Write answers to each part of the question. (Refer to your notes, if necessary.)

2. Discuss your answers with your classmates and teacher.

Extract 1

The question came in three parts and was based on a scenario in which a Mr David Henry, the person in charge of discipline at Kingsman High School, was looking to research the reasons for students not doing homework. Part (a) asked candidates to identify two methods of data collection that Mr Henry could use for his research; Part (b) asked them to state one advantage and one disadvantage of the methods they had selected in Part (a); .... .

...

For Part (a), stronger candidates were able to select two appropriate methods. Weaker candidates tended to just select any two methods

without any thought as to whether these would have been suitable based on the scenario given. For example, many of them selected 'observation', but the scenario given ruled out that method completely. Also, weaker candidates had difficulty distinguishing between methods of collecting data ... and research design ... .

In Part (b), stronger candidates provided appropriate advantages and disadvantages while weaker candidates tended to just select advantages and disadvantages from lists that had been memorised, without giving any consideration to the scenario; this resulted in inappropriate answers.

Report on candidates' work - Communication Studies Paper 01 May/June 2012 (accessed 24/09/2014).

Extract 2

Questions 1 and 2 were based on a situation in which a group of sixth-form students decided to investigate the increasing use of alcohol and cigarettes among students aged 13 to 18 at their school; they were particularly interested in finding out which gender was affected more. Question 1 came in three parts, with Part (a) asking them to identify two methods the researcher could use to gather data, Part (b) to state one strength and one weakness of each of the methods identified, and Part (c) to suggest a reason why they could use a related article found on the Internet.

Candidates generally did not have a problem with the question. However, the following observations must be made:

- In Part (a), weaker candidates provided types of research rather than the appropriate data collection methods.

- In Part (b), weaker candidates provided clearly memorised advantages and disadvantages without paying attention to their appropriateness vis-à-vis the given scenario.

- Part (c) presented the greatest challenge to candidates. There was a clear tendency to regurgitate notes rather than apply knowledge. Many candidates did not score full marks because they could not say why the information in a secondary source could be useful.

Report on candidates' work - Communication Studies Paper 01: May/June 2013: (accessed 24/09/2014)

Activity 3

Complete the following tasks, then discuss your answers and any problems you experienced completing these exercises with your classmates and teacher.

1. Find previous CAPE Communication Studies examinations and practise answering the questions posed on scenarios. Then refer to the examiners' reports to compare your answers with those expected.

2. Why would Part (c) (2013 examination) be challenging to students? What lesson can be learnt from this?

3. Develop other scenarios and alternative data-collection methods appropriate (with reasons) to each.

✅ *Exam tip*

1. Read the instructions carefully to determine what specifically is required.

2. Use any scenario given to focus your answer, rather than writing information not related directly to the specific question asked.

3. Be prepared to discuss, when required, specific reasons for all judgments/evaluations made – i.e. *why* and *how*, rather than just *what*.

6.3 Reliability and validity of data collection methods

Learning outcomes

To explain, exemplify and critique the reliability and validity of data collection methods, in context.

Activity 1

1. Revise the definitions of reliability and validity discussed in section 5.4.

2. Respond to the view that tests used to predict students' success in a future course of study are likely to be a reliable, though not necessarily a valid measure of such success.

3. Is it possible for a scale, experiment, questionnaire or test to be reliable, though not necessarily valid, and/or valid, though not reliable? Present scenarios to illustrate your responses.

4. What factors could influence the validity and reliability of data- collection interviews and participant observation?

Validity and reliability do not apply only to our sources of information; they apply, also, to the methods we use to collect and analyse our data. We question the *validity* of data and data collection methods, when we ask the following questions:

- Can the data collected produce the type of information required for the purposes/questions researched?
- Can these data be measured in the ways identified?
- Are they able to produce the kinds of conclusion the research design allows for?
- Are there any threats to validity introduced by the data collection methods?

In other words, we are judging the suitability of the data and data collection methods for measuring what they purport to measure.

On the other hand, questions about the *reliability* of a data collection method revolve around the consistency and accuracy with which we will be able to produce our results, and the extent to which they can be replicated under comparable conditions. The following questions help us to establish reliability in data collection:

- Who collected the data, when, where and how?
- If someone else collected the same data, would s/he get similar results?
- Would an independent analysis of the same data yield the same results?
- What threats to reliability have to be considered?

Activity 2

Extract 1 (below) is part of Sagor's (2000) explanations of validity and reliability in relation to data and data-collection methods. Read it, then answer the following questions:

1. Identify three examples of invalid scientific research procedures.

2. Under what conditions could the instruments in paragraph 2 prove to be invalid?

3. What circumstances could have ensured the reliability of the officer's speedometer?

Extract 1

Validity

… By asserting validity, the researcher is asserting that the data actually measure or reflect the specific phenomenon claimed. Scientific history is full of examples of research findings that were discredited because they were shown to lack validity.

A mercury thermometer is an example of a valid instrument yielding valid data. The height reached by the fluid in an accurate

thermometer is a valid and appropriate measurement of air temperature. Similarly, the movement of a membrane in a barometer is an appropriate and valid way to determine barometric pressure. A ruler can be a valid way to measure length, and … a scale can be a valid measure of weight.

…

Reliability

Reliability is a different but no less important concept. Reliability relates to researchers' claims regarding the accuracy of their data. A few years ago, when a police officer issued me a ticket for speeding, I didn't question the validity of his using an expensive, city-issued speedometer. I was willing to concede to the officer the validity of measuring vehicular speed with a speedometer. However, I urged him to consider my thesis regarding the reliability of his speedometer. I respectfully suggested that although I knew he sincerely believed that his speedometer was accurate, he ought to consider the possibility that it could be damaged. I argued that if it were broken it wouldn't produce an accurate, credible, and reliable measure of my speed. What I was suggesting was that although speedometers are valid measures of speed, they aren't always reliable. …

Sagor, R. (2000). Guiding School Improvement with Action Research. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development: 110, 111–112

Activity 3

1. Link 1 explains some of the threats to validity and reliability which may be associated with specific data-collection methods. Make notes on them, substituting your own scenarios. Discuss your notes with your teacher and classmates.

2. Evaluate, with reasons, the approach of each of the following, and the factors which would affect the validity and/or reliability of the data-collection methods described:

   ■ You go to buy a bag of bulk oranges. The vendor allows you to sample them. You put your hand in the bag and select a few which seem good, so you buy the bag.

   ■ A course requires a course-work essay and a final examination. The teacher gives them equal weighting.

   ■ A researcher wants to find out whether anyone in your school is suffering from cyberbullying, so s/he interviews, on a one-to-one basis, those who seem likely to be targets.

3. A school organises focus groups of student athletes to investigate the incentives they may have received to transfer to a school with better sports facilities. Suggest alternative methods their schools could use to gather the relevant information, and compare them, in terms of the validity and reliability of each.

7 Structuring and presenting evaluations

7.1 Cohesion and coherence in texts

Learning outcomes

- to define *cohesion* and *coherence*
- to compare the contexts in which coherence and cohesion apply
- to explain and exemplify devices for ensuring cohesive and coherent presentations
- to evaluate cohesion and coherence in your own and others' writing.

Activity 1

1. What kinds of comments by your teacher would indicate to you that your assignment lacks cohesion and/or coherence?

2. How would you ensure that your presentations are cohesive and coherent, and what specific techniques would you employ?

Did you know?

Although we are making a distinction, here, between *textual cohesion* and *coherence* (of content/ ideas), many texts use the terms interchangeably.

No matter how interesting, relevant and important a piece of communication is, if the ideas being conveyed are not linked to each other, or to the topic under discussion, the listener/reader will be unable to make the connections, and will perhaps even be inclined to dismiss the communication. You have already explored the importance of writing coherently and forming links in section 3.2, but we will now consider how to establish the links required for the reader to follow your thought processes.

Writing may lack textual cohesion because of indiscriminate use of transitional words and phrases; faulty pronoun reference to antecedents; or flawed sentence structure, resulting from poor punctuation or the incorrect use of modifiers. At a more general level, inadequate use of examples and illustrations in support of main points and thesis statements, or a failure to present evidence to substantiate an argument, would also contribute to incoherence.

Textual cohesion

Writers achieve textual cohesion by using a variety of techniques.

- **Transitional words and phrases** (also referred to as *discourse markers*) enable us to establish links within our communication: to suggest reasons and results, make comparisons, establish time lines, and so on. Their use facilitates our audience's comprehension of the logical progression of our ideas. Transitional words and phrases have inherent meaning, which allows them to perform specific functions in communication; however, in arbitrarily interspersing a selection of markers in their texts, students often overlook this meaning, thereby warranting the negative and discouraging comments of their teachers.

- **Punctuation** has specific, logical functions that contribute to the cohesion of written texts. Without punctuation, your text will be jumbled; with flawed punctuation, the relationships between words, phrases and clauses will be unclear. For more on punctuation, go back and review section 1.5.

- **Modifiers** often create confusion about the meaning of an idea, if they are badly placed. Some may be attached to the wrong referent in a sentence; others may be simply dangling, disconnected from any referent, while still others may be squinting, ambiguously placed.

- **Parallel constructions** provide balance in a sentence, by repeating a structure in a series. So if your first item is a noun/adjective/ infinitive, subsequent items in the list will copy that structure. Non-parallel structures not only sound clumsy, but also result in a lack of cohesion in a text.

Transitional words and phrases and their functions

The table below lists the major categories of transitional markers, which can help you to link your ideas in a way that is cohesive and coherent, and will facilitate the reading of your work.

Add/ Intensify	Clarify	Compare Similarities	Concede	Contrast / Contradict	Create Emphasis	Show Cause / Effect	Indicate Time / Order
Also	For instance	Likewise	Although	Conversely	Indeed	Accordingly	Then
Further	This means that	Similarly	Granted that	Rather	Certainly	Consequently	During

Assessing textual cohesion

As you study your sources, you should be better able to develop an understanding of the cohesive ties in the texts by asking the following questions. You should also apply these to your own writing:

- Have I been able to follow the links in the text?
- What cohesive devices allow for this?
- Does the text seem to lack cohesion?
- What links would remedy the problem?
- How has the presence or absence of such links contributed to the communicative effectiveness of the text?

Activity 3

Write a blog explaining what textual cohesion is, how it is achieved, and why it is necessary for effective communication. Discuss your blog with your classmates and teacher.

Coherence

Have you ever written an essay in which, although you have been certain to achieve textual cohesion, your teacher comments that s/he finds your meaning unclear? It happens all the time. Here is an example.

Example 1:
Young people like to enjoy themselves, although this is usually only allowed on weekends and holidays. One weekend, I was happy to go to the mall, where I saw some of my friends, who were so busy holding an animated conversation, that at first they did not see me. These days, we all like to raise our voices when we disagree with others' points of view. Nevertheless, I held my peace, as I was not going to be drawn in to a shouting match. Obviously, some people enjoy shouting at each other, but sometimes, it is good to observe the Biblical injunction: 'A soft answer turneth away wrath, while grievous words stir up strife'. When it was clear that they were thoroughly enjoying disagreeing, I hurried home to join my siblings in enjoying the telecast of an international cricket match.

Activity 4

Read the text above that is considered unclear, then answer the following questions:

1. Why, in spite of its cohesive links, is the text jumbled?

2. Rewrite it so that it becomes a model text. What changes are necessary, and why?

It is also true that a text does not have to be cohesive in order for us to infer its meaning. Consider the following example:

Example 2:
A: Someone is at the door.
B: I am in the bath.

Activity 5

Consider examples 1 and 2. Explain, with justification, the alternative meanings and possible communicative difficulties they encode.

The two previous examples illustrate the importance of distinguishing textual cohesion from the logical and meaningful presentation of ideas, also referred to as *coherence, content coherence,* and *coherence of ideas*. As Olshtain and Celce-Murcia explain in the following extract, both the authors and their audiences have significant roles to perform in establishing coherence.

Extract 1: Extended definition – Coherence

Coherence is the quality that makes a text conform to a consistent world view based on one's experience, culture, or convention. It can also be viewed as a feature of the text which incorporates the ways and means by which ideas, concepts and propositions are presented. Coherence is the result of a reader's appropriate response to the writer's plan and relates to the discourse world of written texts, to pragmatic features, and to a content area; it usually fits a conventionally and culturally acceptable rhetorical tradition in terms of sequence and structure. In the process of interpreting a written text, the reader assesses his or her specific purpose for reading and then recruits his or her knowledge of the world, previous experience in reading, and familiarity with writing conventions and different types of genres to arrive at that degree of interpretation deemed necessary. (pp 717–718)

Olshtain, E. & M. Celce-Murcia. (2008). 'Discourse Analysis and Language Teaching' In Schiffrin, D. Et al. The Handbook of Discourse Analysis. Blackwell: 707–724

As you are aware, in exposition, in order to express our ideas with clarity, we have to present them within a logical framework. The unity and relevance of the ideas explored and the logical relationships among them contribute to the overall coherence of expository texts. If that text is delivered in writing, the ways in which we connect our ideas through paragraphs, and the variety of sentence structures are vital to establishing coherence. The organisation of a piece of writing is also crucial to its clarity. Introductory paragraphs set the stage for the development of ideas through the following paragraphs, to the conclusion, so that each functions as part of our logical framework. The central idea or theme of a piece should be stated clearly in the introduction, and then again in the conclusion and should be evident throughout the body of the text. For more on organisation (including introduction and conclusion) refer to unit 18.

In extract 2, Kane (1988) explains how coherence of a paragraph may be achieved.

Extract 2: Coherence in paragraphs

'Examining whether the sentences of a paragraph correspond with its ideas is a good test of the coherence of the paragraph. The correspondence need not be exact. ... But if you cannot outline a generally clear relationship, the paragraph is probably confused and confusing. (p. 69)

'Paragraph unity involves two related but distinct concepts: coherence and flow. Coherence means that the ideas fit together. Flow means that the sentences link up so that readers are not conscious of gaps. Flow is a matter of style and exists in specific words and grammatical patterns tying one sentence to another. Coherence belongs to the substructure of the paragraph, the relationships of thought, feeling and perception. (p.71)

Relevance alone is not enough to establish coherence. All the ideas in a paragraph can relate to the topic yet be poorly arranged.

Arrangement often inheres in the subject itself. ... in some subjects there is a logical structure implicit in the subject that determines order of thought (p. 72)

Kane, T. (1988). The New Oxford Guide to Writing. Oxford University Press: 69–72

Activity 6

Read extract 2, then answer the following questions.

1. What are the features that mark a text as coherent? Make a list.

2. What strategies does a writer use to ensure that a text is coherent?

3. What knowledge does a reader have to have, in order to interpret coherence in texts?

4. Discuss your responses with your teacher and classmates.

Activity 7

Below is a collection of statements about evaluating sources. Develop them into a coherent, multi-paragraph text on the subject.

Evaluating Sources

Different kinds of sources have different characteristics. Research methods are not the same as methods of data collection. We have to assess whether the data-collection method used is appropriate. The reasoning some sources offer is questionable. Some sources and data-collection methods are not reliable. Scenarios can be useful. A text can be cohesive but not coherent. Many students have difficulty understanding the notion of validity.

Learning outcomes

- to explain differences between oral and written reports
- to explain differences between informal and formal styles in reporting
- to demonstrate the conventions of formal, written English style.

When we speak of style in presentations, we are referring to the way in which our content is expressed. Is the tone conversational or impersonal? Informal or formal? Objective or subjective? Is the meaning expressed directly or indirectly? Are the ideas expressed coherently or is their meaning unclear? Are there cohesive ties, or are sentences (writing) and utterances (speech) disconnected or poorly connected? Is the expression choppy or fluent, longwinded or concise? Is the vocabulary technical, formal, slang, jargon?

Our choice of style is related to our target audience and our purpose in speaking and writing, as well as the **medium** or **channel** through which we are communicating. So, for example, we may be explaining an issue to an academic audience. A written presentation would require more dense expression than a lecture, while a conversation about it – whether face-to-face, or through social media – would be likely to be much less formal.

Activity 1

Identify a current issue and find at least two versions published in the media.

- What is the main purpose of each report?
- What audience is the target in each, and how do you know?
- How is the audience expected to respond to each story, and how do you know?
- In what ways do the headlines differ?
- List specific differences in formality, word choice, tone, sentence structure you observe.

Activity 2

1. Link 1 explains the nature of style, and some important points to be considered. Read the handout, then make notes on the following questions:

- What problems of style are identified in paragraph 2?
- How do the goals of academic writing affect style?
- What can tone reveal about a target audience?
- Are there aspects of tone in this Communication Studies guide which you should avoid in academic essays and reports? List them, with reasons.
- What reasons for wordiness, and ways of correcting this, does the writer present? Substitute your own examples for the five problems of wordy constructions described.
- Paraphrase the points made with respect to the use of the passive voice, nominalisation and weak verbs.
- Write a definition for *Ostentatious erudition*. List its characteristics, provide examples and explain its effects on meaning.

2. What strategies for revising and editing are suggested? How effective and/or challenging do you think these may prove, and why?

🔗 Link 1

Visit the website: http://writingcenter.unc.edu and find the handout on 'Style'.

The full link is provided on the CD.

As discussed in section 1.1, speaking and writing a language require differences in style, and differences in context also require differences in style. Information processing in writing is facilitated by a text, which a reader is able to revisit at will, in order to decipher meaning conveyed in a dense style. We are unable to do the same if that style is used in the delivery of a speech – unless we receive the written version. On the other hand, a speaker may be questioned about unclear statements or fuzzy concepts. Further, oral presentations may be supplemented by non-verbal cues which aid in communicating nuances of meaning, and, of course, clarifying ambiguities. Differences in spoken and written style are, therefore, inevitable.

Activity 3

Link 2 compares everyday expression with academic style, and the pitfalls to be avoided when we are aiming at academic language. Read the handout, then answer the following questions.

1. Explain why we should avoid each of the aspects of informal English listed.

2. What stylistic benefits would result from well-structured writing?

3. Explain why making academic writing formal and impersonal, by observing each of the bulleted points under the second heading, is important.

4. Why is it necessary to 'put some distance between what you're writing and yourself as writer' by hedging?

🔗 Link 2

Academic Writing

Visit the website: http://library.bcu.ac.uk/

Find the study guide on writing. The full link is provided on the CD.

Link 3 provides some guidelines on making oral academic presentations. Once again, your purpose and audience will guide the style of your presentation, which should be focused, organised, clear and concise. Your powerpoint and the tone of your presentation will demonstrate an appropriate style. Then, as the guide emphasises, practice will lead you towards perfection. For more on speeches and presentation, refer to unit 17.

Extract 1 reminds us of the recurring need to revise and edit our work for style.

🔗 Link 3

Visit the website: www.virginia.edu.

Find the article 'How To Make an Oral Presentation of Your Research'. The full link is provided on the CD.

Extract 1: Problems of style in CAPE Communication Studies

'In numerous scripts, organisation and expression were unsatisfactory. Effective introductions and conclusions were rare; transition structures were often inaccurate and quite mechanical; paragraphs were incoherent; phrasing was rambling and verbose; and there was an abundance of spelling and grammatical errors. (In respect of grammatical errors, subject-verb disagreement and tense errors predominated.)'

Report on Candidates' work in the Caribbean Advanced Proficiency Examination, May/June 2010

Study tip

Ensure that you adopt an academic style in your writings for CAPE Communication Studies. The examiners will be considering organisation and expression, effective introductions and conclusions, correct transition structures, coherent paragraphs, and correct spelling and grammar.

Activity 4

Develop and deliver an oral presentation on *Style makes a difference*, with an accompanying written handout, to your class. Be clear, concise, coherent, complete and correct. Ask your peers and teacher to evaluate them.

Learning outcomes

- to compare reports on a given topic, in relation to:
  - author, purpose, audience, style
  - adequacy of sources, data, findings presented
  - arguments and support offered.
- to structure, write, revise and edit your original evaluation report.

In previous chapters, we have investigated various aspects of evaluating sources. In this section, you will apply the principles learnt to evaluate a set of articles on teenage issues published in popular online and other sources. Then you will compose an original evaluation report.

The emergence of social media has raised a number of issues about the negative influences to which young people, in particular, have been exposed. Many teenagers appear unable to judge, understand and cope with the consequent challenges from the expanse of communicative possibilities which have ensued from this platform. Cyberbullying is one of these issues, which we will be exploring in this unit as we evaluate.

Activity 1

Use the Internet and your library to do some research on cyberbullying. Find two or three articles on the subject.

1. For each article, make evaluative notes on: the author; publication; purpose; information; supporting data; arguments raised, conclusions and supporting evidence; techniques of psychological persuasion.

2. Compare the notes for each article, listing characteristics shared and differences observed.

3. What accounts for these differences?

4. How and why do such differences affect a) the presentations and b) your response?

Preparing an evaluation report

One way in which a formal evaluation report is different from an academic school essay is its structure. Both kinds of exposition have introductions and conclusions, with intervening paragraphs developing their themes. Both require cohesive paragraphs and the coherent development of ideas. However, while essays often are not divided into sections marked by headings and subheadings, formal reports are. Further, the more complex and formal a report is, the larger the number of its parts, including preliminary and supplementary material.

The basic sections of a report remain the same, regardless of its complexity. They comprise three main sections, further subdivided to meet the specific aims of the report and its content. Your evaluation will include the following:

- **Introduction:** to orient your reader to your purpose (evaluation); the source being reviewed; your assessment of its author's/ publisher's credentials, and relevance of the source; the purpose and audience intended.

- **Text/body:** which you will further subdivide as you present your analysis of the source, including:
  - the structure of the presentation; its coherence and cohesion
  - the sources consulted and cited

- a content analysis of the information provided; findings; corroboration of existing information; new information
- the data on which findings are based; the data-collection methods used; their validity and reliability
- the arguments/opinions expressed, and the justification/evidence supporting them; inclusion and treatment of alternative points of view the validity and soundness/ strength and cogency of the arguments.
- the clarity, correctness and conciseness of the writing.
- **Conclusion:** your assessment of the effectiveness of the source and its usefulness or otherwise to your concerns/project.

A heading will also help to introduce readers to the main subject of your report.

Activity 2

1. Expand the notes you made in activity 1 to write a draft evaluation report comparing the articles on Cyber bullying that you studied.

2. Include a paragraph identifying (with reasons) the article which is likely to be the most effective in your report.

Revising and editing your draft

Many students believe that revising and editing are the same thing: that is, making corrections in spelling, punctuation, concord and so forth. In fact, that is what editing is about, and while that is a very important process, your work is not completed until it has been revised. Revising refers to going back through the draft to check our content, reconsider our arguments and supporting evidence, and to make sure that our presentation is coherent and that its style is appropriate to its intended audience and purpose. So in this process, we may decide, for example, to cut or expand our content, reject or provide alternative arguments for those we originally presented, re-organise our information and so on. It can be advisable to share our work with a peer: we are more likely to overlook key items when we are too familiar with our own work so it can be helpful for someone to look at it objectively. This is known as peer-review or conferencing. Revising and editing academic work is covered in more detail in section 18.8.

Activity 3

1. Once you have written your draft evaluation report, revise and edit your work checking the content, ensuring that your arguments are well thought through and that you have supporting evidence for each argument. Consider the style that you have chosen and whether it is appropriate for the audience and for the intended purpose of your report.

2. Now pair up with another student and exchange your reports for a peer review. Follow the same process to revise the work of your peer.

---

8 What is the role of language in community?

8.1 Language and communication

Learning outcomes

- to compare early and later models of the communication process
- to present an extended definition of language
- to discuss, in comparison to communication systems in general, how various attributes of language make it unique to human beings.

Key points

- Early models of communication present a linear, one-way process of a message from a sender to a receiver, and affected by noise. Later models include feedback, which creates a cyclical process.

- Human communication has much in common with that of other animals, but is more complex, because it includes language.

- Language begins and is organised in the brain, employing not only signals but also symbols that require interpretation. It is therefore open to creative uses, as well as to manipulation.

- Misunderstanding may result from mixed messages, or problems in interpretation.

- Cross-cultural communication and projection through time and space add to language complexity.

Is language a synonym for communication?

All animals use various means to communicate within their species, as well as to attract the attention of those outside of it. They use visual, auditory and chemical signals to gain and share information about themselves, their relationships with others, and their responses to their environment. Some such signals are shared by species, so that crying and wincing in pain are recognisable across classes of animals, while some are specific to a particular animal, so only horses neigh.

Human communication has at its disposal a wide variety of non-verbal tools, including what we refer to as **body language**. So we may make gestures, blink and wink, frown, nod or shake our heads and shrug our shoulders to communicate different things. (For more on non-verbal communication, refer to section 15.2). We acquire these means naturally, as we do our motor skills (provided we are not experiencing physical challenges). Our communication is, however, far more complex than that of other animals. Unlike animals, we are also able to employ these tools for symbolic purposes; and, of course, we use the **aural/oral** means of communication that we refer to as *language*.

So why make a distinction between body language and language? Both, after all, are part of the communication systems of human beings. However, from a linguistic perspective, the label language is confined to our verbal means of communication, produced in a well-functioning brain. In language, sounds combine in various ways to form words, which convey meaning. These words are further grouped to form utterances (in speech) and sentences (in writing). They are constructed on patterns, which may be pre-determined in relation to the specific language which is being spoken. This means that the term body language is a contradiction in terms.

The dynamism, complexity, versatility and creativity of human language surpass the communication systems of other animals – even those, like parrots, which can imitate, and chimpanzees, which have been taught to produce sentences. Language also facilitates individual, inter-group and cross-cultural communication, through various channels, in several languages, across time and space. As it is open to interpretation, language communication between users may result in miscommunication. These are some of the reasons for considering language human.

Activity 1

Here is a model of communication proposed in 1949.

a. How does the process work in this model?

b. Do you consider it an adequate representation of communication?

c. Note the reasons for your answers, then discuss them with your peers.
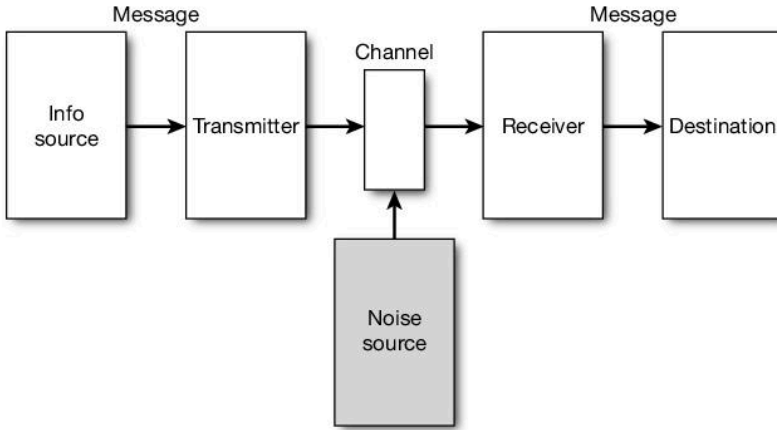
Activity 2

Study the model of communication below.

a. In what ways is it different from the model in activity 1?

b. What does its inclusion of the specific channels listed suggest about the cycle?

c. Considering what you have learned so far, is the title an accurate reflection of the diagram? If so, why? If not, propose a title which more accurately reflects its content.
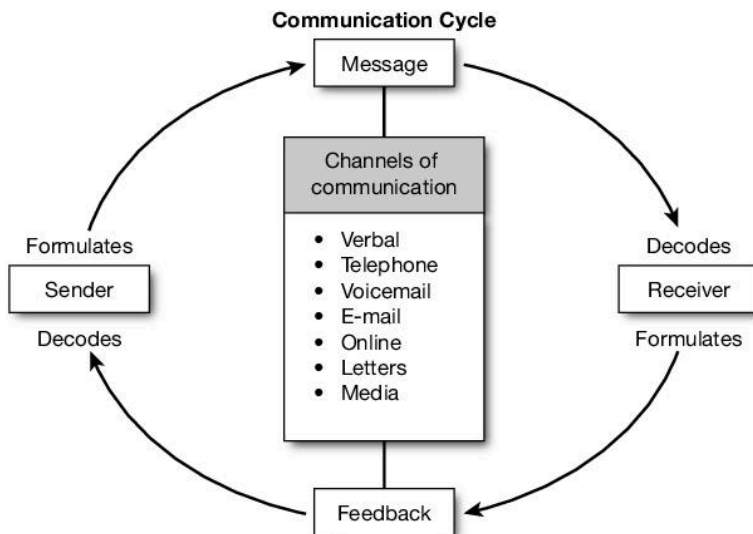
Activity 3

1. Make full notes on how animal communication in general works, then compare it with how language communication functions, as presented the figure in activity 2.

2. Why are some people with brain damage unable to use language?

3. What is the difference between a signal and a symbol? Explain, with examples, different symbolic uses of language.

4. Make notes, with examples (from your own language use, the media, literature and other sources), on the characteristics of language which cause it to be uniquely human. Record complete citations of your sources.

5. With reference to your examples, write an expository paragraph on each characteristic of language.

6. Develop an extended definition of language

Language and community

From its initial stages, language is a community effort. Babies left alone in a room, with a sturdy item to hold on to, will crawl and walk of their own accord. They would not, however, be able to independently develop and use language; they must hear others speaking and have the company of a human being to imitate. Then they will use this person as a sounding board, as they attempt to create meaningful patterns with sounds.

The story of the girl, Alesha, who was brought up by wolves, is a case in point. She shared the communication system and lifestyle of her mentors, so that when she was rescued, she had to learn how to communicate using language. Learning and then sharing language with our family, and others within our social space, is therefore the first stage of community among human beings and shows that language is not instinctive but is a learned behaviour.

Language is also a marker of our identity, being a primary means of our expression of our sense of self, in its personal, social and cultural manifestations. A shared language is therefore integral to the bonds we make within and among the social and cultural groups with whom we interact. It embodies the traditions, ideals and aspirations of those with whom, through a common identity, we share community.

We also develop attitudes to others and make social assessments of them, based on their use of language, in relation to ours. Our positive assessments of those we associate with, or aspire to associate with, are reflected by adopting their language, or accommodating to its features. We avoid the language practices of those we disapprove of, or do not understand.

Howard Giles, a psychologist, proposes the term 'accommodation' to describe our adjustment of our language to reflect the proximity we wish to establish to others' views, opinions and language. He describes our indication of distance, on the other hand, as 'divergence'.

Being part of a community

As our social outreach expands, we become members of different groups, which are instrumental in our developing a sense of community. Each group has its discourse of interaction: its language and other ways of communicating. So, if we are young people, or are engaging in street talk, we may use slang - words and expressions that are informal, evolving and temporary. There may also be specific terms of address and specialised codes developed between us, which others find hard to decipher. Similarly, in the academic community, our use of jargon, or specialised vocabulary, identifies us as having technical expertise in a particular discipline. The language characterising our group membership and/or participation in its activities will function to cement our relationships.

There are also linguistic and other interactional markers of social practice and cultural norms within community networks, relating, for example, to formality, politeness, disagreement and gender interaction. These networks also share ways of addressing and/or referring to others; conversational routines, and ceremonial and religious observances.

Should we wish to change our status, join a new group or participate in a new culture, what we have to do is master the conventions which will ensure our integration within that community. Conversely, if we wish to disconnect from or emphasise our non-association with a group, we will avoid the use of its linguistic and other social indicators.

Activity 1

Consider these questions:

1. What do we mean by 'community'?
   a. How does community arise?
   b. How do we promote, develop and sustain community?
2. What roles does language play in community?
3. How does community feature in your life?

Activity 2

Think about a group you belong to.

1. What group is it?
2. How did you come to be part of it?
3. What are the practices which identify the group?
4. What language(s) do you speak in the group?
5. What are some of the specific words, expressions and special meanings which identify members as belonging to the group?

Activity 3

1. Use specific examples from your experience to illustrate the points made about sharing a language identity, developing language attitudes, and adopting the features of others' language.

2. Identify some of the other roles language plays in developing and sustaining community. For each role, write a paragraph explaining how this occurs. Refer to examples from your own experience, such as personal anecdotes, social and news media, and cultural practices.

3. Use the notes you made in activity 2 to write an essay on the language of the group you identified. After summarising its norms, practices, and activities, explain in separate paragraphs how specific words, expressions and coded meanings mark membership in the group.

4. Imagine you are an outsider overhearing the language use of the group in activity 2. Make notes on your reaction, with reasons, to the specific features which you do not share.

☑ *Exam tip*

- Always be precise when responding to a question on language. It is not enough to make general observations about vocabulary, expressions and so on, without discussing specific examples of each feature.

- Similarly, in a discussion on community, you need to explain the roles language plays by selecting particular examples, contexts and so on, for analysis.

8.3 Fragmenting/destroying community through language

- to explain the role of language in fragmenting and/or destroying community
- to discuss examples of divisions created through language stereotyping and profiling, inside and outside of your community.

Using language to alienate others

Just as we may use language to build community, we may also use and/or respond to it to emphasise our differences. This can discourage, fragment or destroy communication with others. Of course, we may simply wish to emphasise the distinctiveness of our own group identity, especially if it is in the minority, and/or with a unique philosophy, skill or product it wishes to promote. So, for example, the Rastafari in Jamaica created their own language – an offshoot of Jamaican Creole – to reflect their philosophy and mark their separation from the norms of the establishment, which they referred to as 'Babylon'. They introduced new words, modified English words and meanings, and also created new meanings for existing words.

Among the many possible reasons for isolating particular individuals or groups are:

- not sharing their concerns, way of operating, and focus
- resisting their influence
- responding to prevailing social attitudes and prejudices against them.

As language is just as significant a tool for alienating others as it is for identifying with them, our subconscious and often unrecognised rejection of community with such groups will be reflected in our language. Specifically, we may:

- refuse to use or fake ignorance of another person's language
- isolate them, by switching to a language unknown to them
- deviate from their usage
- remain formal, to maintain distance
- remain silent, to discourage interaction
- use body language to show our disapproval of their language use or contribution to the interaction
- openly disregard the rules of politeness by invading their space; making offensive remarks; contradicting or disallowing them a chance to express their opinions; using abusive, insulting language or making inappropriate, personal remarks.

Profiling and stereotyping through language

Profiling and stereotyping also emphasise differences or promote divisions. In the recent past, there have been international exposés of those who have been victims of shootings or incarceration on the basis of being racially profiled by private citizens or the security forces. Similarly, there have been reported cases of people going to Caribbean High Commissions and Embassies in Europe and the United States, claiming to be from particular territories and requiring assistance. They try to adopt the accent and vocabulary of the territory they are claiming, so as to appear credible.

Stereotyping through language takes many of other forms. Gender stereotyping of women has sometimes presented them as chatterboxes and frivolous. Some men exaggerate differences from these, so as to avoid being regarded as effeminate, rather than macho. Nationalities are also stereotyped linguistically. Trinidadians are considered accomplished in innuendo, exhibited in picong and calypsos, while Jamaicans have a reputation for being highly contentious, and 'tracing' (cursing) each other. The French are considered romantic, because of the vocabulary they have contributed to English.

Many attitudes to language have not been formed on the basis of linguistic criteria; rather, they reflect society's assessments of particular speakers or groups. For example, we may ascribe deviant or strange behaviour to certain social groups, or link negative associations to residents of certain communities, professions and so forth, and on those bases, discredit their language. In other words, we transfer our dislike, undervaluing, misunderstanding or fear of them, to our assessment of their language.

Key terms

Picong: taunting or ridicule

Calypso: originally a Trinidadian music, in syncopated African rhythm, typically with words improvised on a topical theme.

Activity 1

Make notes on the following questions:

1. Think of a context for the scenario below, and then explain the response of B below, in relation to that context:

    A: Hey there! Great hair!

    B: Clear off!

2. Think about an occasion when you have used language to dissociate yourself from others.

    a. What was the basis of your decision?

    b. What strategies did you employ?

    c. How effective were you, and why?

3. Consider the different groups of people you come in daily contact with:

    a. Do you use the same language to communicate with all of them? Why/why not?

    b. In what ways do you adjust your language to communicate with different groups, and for what reasons?

    c. What linguistic means do the groups use to alienate each other?

4. What kinds of language promote disunity in community?

Activity 2

1. Use your library and the Internet to research Rastafari language, making full notes on some of the innovations and modifications to English, which they introduced.

2. Identify a distinctive group in your community or territory and note examples of language differences, or differences in words and expressions related to terms of address, greetings, dress, food, cultural events and practices, from your own group.

Activity 3

1. Develop a data bank of local and international newspaper stories, recorded radio and television conversations and interviews, in which speakers diverge from each other. Practise analysing the specific features of this divergence, the insights they provide to the speakers' character, and the effects they have on the conversation in context. Discuss your analyses with your classmates and teachers.

2. Repeat exercise 1, in relation to excerpts from a selection of novels of your choice, or excerpts used in past CAPE Communication Studies examinations (available online).

3. Explain some specific examples of divergence that may result from a young person texting or sending social media messages to an older person who is unaccustomed to those channels of communication.

8.4 Technology, language and community

Learning outcomes

- to explain how communication is affected and effected by the use of technology in different cultural settings and interactive contexts.

Activity 1

1. Collect some recent examples of the use of traditional and 'new' technologies in your territory, to a) issue a public service alert/warning; b) promote a mass event; c) elicit public views on an issue.

2. Make notes on:

   - context, purpose and target audience of each example
   - message(s) communicated
   - appeals made/strategies employed
   - comparative advantages/ limitations of each technology in effectively communicating its purpose.

3. Refer to specific examples to develop three arguments for, and three against the view that 'Technology has had the greatest single impact on the spread of mass messages in the 21st century'.

🔗 **Link 1**

On YouTube, look up David Crystal's 'The Effect of New Technologies on English'. The full link has been provided on the CD.

In this section, we will be looking at competing views on the characteristics and impact of specific examples of new technologies.

As an example, extract 1 below discusses the impact of new technologies on Bahamians' use of their Creole first language.

1. New technologies and Bahamian creole culture

'… the public domains in which BCE is found and permissible in The Bahamas continue to increase as the years go on. In particular, new digital technologies are allowing Bahamians to express themselves and communicate with each other in their first language (L1) in many ways not available to previous generations. Web forums, social media, and texting, for example, allow Bahamians the opportunity to attempt to approximate the phonetic patterns of their L1 through eye dialect spellings. Digital music technologies allow easier production and distribution of locally produced music, music that often involves BCE. What's more, increasingly affordable digital videography and streaming video technologies are allowing more and more Bahamians to participate in video production, with the end product often involving BCE. In fact, 2012 saw the start of the first Bahamian produced television drama series: *Gippie's Kingdom.*' (pp 46–47)

Oenbring, R. and W. Fielding. (2014). 'Young Adults' Attitudes to Standard and Nonstandard English in an English-Creole Speaking Country: The Case of the Bahamas' In Language, Discourse & Society 3 (1): 28–51.

Activity 2

Discuss three ways in which new technologies are affecting communication in specific social and cultural contexts in your territory.

Activity 3

1. In Link 1, David Crystal surveys old and new technologies, and discusses their impact on English.

   - Note technologies surveyed and their impact on language and communication.
   - Prepare a similar analysis of communication through blogs or Facebook.

2. John Humphrys (2007 *Daily Mail*) bemoans changes in the Oxford Dictionary, citing texting as the cause. Note:

   - targeted audience
   - psychological appeals / stylistic features
   - specific claims (with reasons) made for dictionary use and against texting
   - complaints against smiley faces, abbreviations, ambiguity
   - effect of expressions such as 'this modest little rant' in context
   - defence anticipated from texters and their supporters.

3. John McWhorter (Link 3) explains texting in context. Note:
   - definitions
   - explanations and arguments
   - examples and comparisons
   - appeals.

4. David Crystal asserts (Link 4) that 'Texting is good for the English Language'. Note:
   - authority supplied
   - myths identified and evidence for debunking each
   - explanations for problems in sourcing data
   - advantages and downsides of texting, as described.

5. For Crystal's presentation in Link 4, note:
   - further evidence / examples re texting
   - bases for describing texts as creative
   - characteristics of tweets
   - changes made to the rules of Twitter and associated benefits/ disadvantages derived
   - effects on users' cognitive functions by Twitter's requirements.

Activity 4

1. New technologies have brought innovation in communication. Write a paragraph, including examples, on the changes in language use, discourse styles and interactive patterns introduced or modified by specific platforms and applications you identify.

2. Methods of mass communication about local and international issues have changed substantially during the 21st century.
   - Select any ONE issue, and collect reports, opinions, cartoons etc. from newspapers, radio and television, the Internet and any other mass media platforms available. Record full details of all sources.
   - Make notes on each, regarding: medium of presentation; target audience; kinds and sources of information presented; opinions/ points of view expressed; language/discourse features; logical/ psychological appeals; direct/subliminal messages conveyed; technologies employed.
   - Write (with reasons) an evaluation of the most effective presentation.

3. Use your notes to develop a multimedia presentation comparing the perspectives shared on the issue, and the strategies used to communicate them, through the various media platforms.
   - Are the facts established, and are they differentiated from opinions?
   - What are the perspectives of the author, and how do you know?
   - How do purpose, audience and context influence appeals made and language used?
   - Are there specific cultural appeals made, and if so, why?
   - What functions do the technologies employed serve, and how effective (with reasons) are they?
   - By what means are subliminal messages shared, and what is their purpose?

Link 2

Visit www.dailymail.co.uk, then find the article: 'I h8 txt msgs: How texting is wrecking our language'. The full link is provided on the CD.

Link 3

On the TED Talks website, look up: 'Txtng is killing language. JK!!!' by John McWhorter. The full link is provided on the CD.

Link 4

On YouTube, look up 'David Crystal on Texting (S1E2 of It's Only a Theory'

Exam tip

Provide responses, explanations and examples in relation to specific questions asked and/or scenarios presented

Marking social categories

Language is used to objectively label our bio data with reference to social categories, such as age, gender, race social class and occupation. It is also used to define, stereotype, express and sometimes reinforce perceived social differences. Certain social expectations are encoded in the categories labelled, so that when the reality is different, or society's expectations towards them change, we adopt another label or add a meaning to an existing one.

If we take gender labels, we can trace the evolution of certain roles and attitudes through them. In the unequal pair spinster/bachelor, for example, 'spinster' connotes a woman at home hoping for, but without suitors, while a 'bachelor' has not yet decided on whom to marry. For the former, there is no choice, while for the latter the decision is his. The modern-day 'bachelorette', who has decided not to marry or has not yet selected a marriage partner, regains her choice, and therefore readdresses the gender equality.

Language and social value

Our language is integrally related to who we are individually, socially and culturally. It is a reflection of our social characteristics: our age, gender, educational background, social class and occupational interests. It is also instrumental in determining the social worth and value society attaches to these and it may ultimately be a tool for stigmatising and controlling us.

Society establishes hierarchies reflecting the differentials in power, authority, respect and value it accords to social groups. Such inequalities, once institutionalised, create and enhance the social distance among groups. Highly valued groups will exaggerate those differences, including language use, which cement their social advantage and obvious prestige. Although some members of the less valued groups may aspire towards and adopt features of this model, they are likely, also, to gain 'covert' prestige by exaggerating those features of their own group language, which establish and maintain solidarity and status among their members. Operating as we do, in more than one sphere or group, we modify our language so as to gain the related benefits.

Did you know?

Covert prestige has been associated with the language of working-class men. A standard work is Trudgill's *The Social Differentiation of English in Norwich* (1974), but you may find others.

Social profiling

Society's evaluation of speakers and groups results in social profiling of various kinds, which somtimes leads to discrimination and/or violence against targeted groups. Recent cases of civilian and police shootings of young black men in the USA have been attributed to *racial profiling*, with its associated assumptions of criminality. Pronunciation is a marker of *linguistic profiling*, often linked, as it is, to the region in which we live, our race, level of education, class and gender.

Social profiling may facilitate social engineering and control by those in authority and their restricting of the freedoms of others. It sometimes results in limiting the employment, education, legal representation, freedom of association and other rights and privileges of harassed groups. When such groups are also cut off from participation in the media, their voices and concerns will also ultimately be muzzled.

Activity 1

- Use web or dictionary sources to make notes on the differences in social meaning (with reasons) suggested in each set following: manager/manageress; bachelor/spinster; man /wife; Mr./Mrs.; man-to-man/person-to-person; doctor/female doctor.

- In what kind of context would you expect to hear each of the following terms of address: sir/boss; madam/love; miss/sir; brother/sister; Mr. T/Ms D; mummy/auntie/daddy?

Activity 2

In section 8.3, you identified language features of a group different from yours. Make a two-column table comparing the language features of both groups. Now make notes explaining the relationship between the social characteristics of each group and specific examples of its language use.

Activity 3

1. Research and list, with examples, language stereotypes linked to differences in age, gender, social class and education in your community. Make full citations of your sources.

2. Identify some of the prominent groups in your society. What makes them prominent? List any specific words and expressions linked to their interests or lifestyles. List and explain any special terms which outsiders use to describe the interests or behaviour of these groups.

3. Make notes on how you modify your terms of address, level of formality, style of speaking and vocabulary, as you move from the school room to recreational activities, to home.

4. Have you ever experienced social/linguistic profiling or heard about it in your territory? Explain the specific kind of profiling and its outcome, in any two situations you can recall. If not, refer, in detail, to two examples in the newspaper archives of the region.

- to present an extended definition of the term *social attitudes*
- to identify some of the social issues which generate attitudes to language
- to explain the ways in which we express social attitudes through specific language features or behaviours
- to discuss ways in which our social responses reveal particular attitudes to the language use and communication styles of others.

Forming and expressing attitudes

We all develop attitudes or ways of thinking about life – its people, relationships, events and situations – and, of course, language. These attitudes are learned: grounded in our cultural heritage, shaped by the norms and values established by society and evaluated by its yardsticks. They are reinforced by education, media, precept and example. Eventually, they become ingrained as personal preferences. Our attitudes encapsulate our emotional responses, analyses and opinions, and serve as a means to project our self and our identity. They often determine the ways in which we describe or respond to the behaviour of others, and become a foundation for establishing or avoiding community within or among groups.

Aside from the content of our messages, various verbal and non-verbal behaviours express our attitudes, whether intentionally or not. Our tone of voice is an obvious clue; other signals include intonation, volume, gestures, head and eye movement and switching between languages.

The opinions we voice, the stances we take and our style of delivery also convey our attitudes. Let us consider the approach we take to listening to and evaluating others' points of view. We will be regarded as respectful and facilitative if we defer to others, or are willing to clarify or rephrase our communication. If we are unwilling to yield to obvious logic or determined to speak over interlocutors, we will reveal ourselves as egotistical and boorish. When we make light of, or refuse to consider, another point of view, we will be viewed as dismissive of others by exhibiting a blinkered approach to the subject.

Our language behaviour will be equally instructive about our allegiances and the value we place on our social ties. We may decide to accommodate to the linguistic features of interlocutors, by seeking to adopt their grammar, pronunciation, special vocabulary, word meanings and/or ***idiomatic expressions***. This would suggest our positive attitude to aspects of the identity they project through their language use and our desire to establish an affiliation with them, on that basis.

On the other hand, if we were to highlight features demonstrating age, gender, class and professional differences in our language, we would be communicating a desire to downplay, if not deny, a connection. Further, if we were to feign ignorance of their language, or perhaps even switch to another, we could be accused of being exclusionary.

Language attitudes may be subject to alternative interpretations. In the examples given here, the person whose speech we accommodate may interpret our intention as mocking and our attitude as disrespectful. Similarly, we may not intend to alienate others by diverging from their usage. Although we may be displaying insensitivity to our interlocutors, we may simply be signalling the value we place on our association with another group, by emphasising our solidarity with its practices. It is the context of our interaction, which will make clear how our behaviour should be interpreted.

Activity 1

1. Note your responses (with reasons) to the following:

   a. smoking in public spaces, discrimination at the workplace, opinionated people, brides over one hour late for their wedding, taxi drivers speeding, music blasting after midnight.

   b. nagging, loud talking, fake accents, old people using slang, unexplained jargon in public communication, unclear instructions.

2. What specific attitudes do you and the others in the following scenarios display, and why?

   a. You enter a store and make a request in English. The attendant responds in Spanish. Raising your voice, you repeat your request in English.

   b. Your teacher finds fault with the 'slapdash' nature of your work. You insist that she is mistaken, then flounce back to your seat, sulking.

   c. You move to another territory to attend school. Every time you begin to speak, your classmates are overcome with laughter. One student comes to console you and suggests you ignore the others.

   d. Caribbean citizens who are travelling to the USA adopt an accent on the way to the airport.

Activity 2

1. In what ways are attitudes formed, adopted and expressed? Make notes, with examples, of other attitudes to language that you have come in contact with, and the sources of these.

2. Using Internet or library sources, write an extended definition of *social attitudes*. Cite your sources completely.

3. Construct a two-column table. List the styles of delivery and associated attitudes noted above, then add your own examples in both columns.

4. Create some short scenarios in which the participants display the following attitudes: belligerent, cocky, forgiving, humble; stubborn, impertinent, confrontational, arrogant, conciliatory. Note what specifically caused each attitude.

5. How do cultural traditions, education, international communication, class distinctions, advertising and media contribute to the moulding of language attitudes in society?

Key point

- Attitudes are learned from traditions, social practice and experience.
- Society attaches values to them.
- Language attitudes index our identity and group memberships, as well as our assessments of people and situations.
- Verbal and non-verbal cues assist us in evaluating them.
- Attitudes may be interpreted in more than one way, made clear by the context of communication.

☑ *Exam tip*

It is not enough to refer to positive, negative or neutral attitudes. Identify specific attitudes, and explain their sources.

The extracts below discuss social attitudes to adolescent and non-standard language, and those encoded in the use of slang. Read the extracts carefully, then do the activities that follow.

Extract 1: Adolescent Language

It is traditional to view adolescents in our society as sloppy (they leave their clothes on the floor), rebellious (they don't do what they're told), and irresponsible (they forget their pencils). This view of adolescents is visited on their language, which is judged sloppy in its imprecision, rebellious in its supposed use of slang and profanity, and irresponsible in its greater use of non-standard grammar.

Engaged in a fierce negotiation of the social landscape, social values, differences, tolerances, and meanings, adolescents are continually making new distinctions and evaluations of behavior. In the course of this endeavour, they come up with new terms for evaluation and social types (*dweeb, homie*) as well as for emphasis (*hella, totally*). Lexical innovations mark new distinctions. When a community takes up a new word, it recognises, ratifies and expands the importance of that new distinction.

I have seen any number of media pieces on adolescents' use of *like* as in

*I'm **like** just standing there, you know, and she **like** comes up to me and like pushes me **like** that, you know?*[...]

These innovations are touted as evidence of adolescent inarticulateness, sloppiness, vagueness, unwillingness to commit – you name it. But all kinds of innovations come from adult quarters that barely attract the attention of the public. Particularly trendy these days is the spate of nouns used as verbs ... as in *that should **impact** the market, please access the mail file, let's **team** and I recently **accessed** my hotel's **messaging** service.* These snappy turns of phrase seem to suggest that we are dealing with people of action. I am willing to bet that if it were adolescents introducing these forms, we would see a considerable negative public reaction.

Eckert, P. 2004. 'Adolescent Language'. Finegan, E. and J.R. Rickford
Language in the USA Cambridge: pp. 361–374

Activity 1

1. What characteristics of adolescent language does the author present as being criticised by society, and why?

2. Are there reasons other than those suggested in paragraph 2, which promote adolescent innovations in vocabulary? What terms do you and your peers currently use?

3. Compare the author's attitudes to adolescent innovations and adult innovations. What specific 'negative public reaction' could she be anticipating in her final observation? How do you know?

4. How would you respond to the view that language is simply a vehicle for expressing our attitudes to others?

Extract 2: Slang

Slang tends to refer to types of people, relationships between people, social activities and behaviour and judgements of acceptance or rejection. Common slang meanings are represented by items such as *dipstick* (stupid person), *goldbricker* (shirker), *big enchilada* (important person) and *numero uno* (self).

Slang does have some consistent characteristics. Slang is ephemeral, entering the lexical choices of its users and falling into disuse at a more rapid rate than the vocabulary as a whole. Slang is used in informal situations where spontaneous rather than planned language is the norm. Slang identifies its users with a group or an attitude. Slang projects at least a nuance of irreverence or defiance toward what is proper.

Most slang is created, used briefly by a small number of speakers, and forgotten before it is even recorded in a list of slang expressions or noticed by a dictionary maker.

Eble, C. 2004. 'Slang'. Finegan, E. and J.R. Rickford Language in the USA Cambridge: pp.375–386

Activity 2

1. What is denotation? Explain, with examples, three language features, other than slang, which we use to express our attitudes or emotions.

2. List, with meanings, six slang words:
   used in your parents' time, but no longer current
   adopted into the regular lexicon of English.

3. Write three paragraphs discussing the unsuitability of slang for academic communication.

Extract 3: Covert Prestige

"Covert prestige" can be associated with certain linguistic forms. It reflects the value system of our society and of the different sub-cultures within this society, and takes the following form: for male speakers and for female speakers under 30, non-standard working class (WC) speech forms are highly valued, although these values are not usually overtly expressed. These covert values lead to sex-differentiation of linguistic variables of a particular type that appears to be common to at least many varieties of language in urban societies.

Trudgill, P. 1984. 'Sex and covert prestige'. Baugh, J. and J. Scherzer, Language in Use. Prentice Hall: pp. 54–65

Activity 3

Trudgill finds that male speakers in Norwich (United Kingdom) gain covert prestige from certain non-standard pronunciations – such as *in'* rather than *ing* (e.g. walk*ing*). Which words and phrases, pronunciation or grammatical patterns provide covert prestige to you and your friends, and in what contexts?

What is identity?

Identity refers to who we are, who we perceive ourselves to be and the personas we project to others. Who we are is not just about us as an individuals – our age, gender, race and nationality – but also about the processes by which we come to know about and present ourselves in our socio-cultural context. This means that our cultural heritage with its associated traditions, history and relationships is important to our identity. The organisation and social norms of our specific society must also play a part in its development. Group memberships we establish are also instrumental in who we become, and how we relate to others around us. In the mix, our language and communication practices are major tools in our self actualisation, self expression and our negotiation of group allegiances.

So, we do not simply inherit our identity through our genes or by direct transfer from our ancestors. We construct it through our upbringing, schooling and interpersonal relationships. As children, for example, we develop our gender identity initially, through the conventional choices our parents make in dressing us, selecting our toys and structuring our activities. Yet, it is not by chance that some girls become tomboys. If they have no sisters, and spend their time participating in the games and pastimes of their brothers and brothers' friends, they are likely to learn and enjoy the interests, play styles and language of boys. They may even prefer imitating the sounds of cars and trucks than holding motherly conversations with their dolls.

Our identity is certainly not fixed, or of a single dimension. We perform it, negotiate and change it, in accordance with our desire for acceptance in the networks we value and through the various roles we play during our lives. So, for example, you may decide to become a popular entertainer in a band. You adopt the dress of the other members, their pronunciation patterns and characteristic slang words and phrases. If you are in Jamaica, you may lower the pitch of your voice and repeat 'yu si mi' or 'yu no siit?' in conversation, to emphasise that you belong. At another level, you will have heard of some Caribbean nationals travelling to the USA and adopting a 'twang' before they have boarded the aeroplane, so as to become one of the crowd on arrival there.

Most importantly these days, we all have to question the identities some people project through social media and the Internet, since these may be fictitious or stolen. Cable network shows include many stories of lottery scammers and 'catfish' who have been revealed by their plagiarising of others' words in the love letters and requests for money sent to their unsuspecting victims.

Constructing alternative language identities

In order to construct authentic language identities, we first have to understand the specific language choices, conventions and styles which characterise each group or sphere of activity in which we wish to operate. The next step is to modify our language accordingly. The musical *My Fair Lady* is an interesting and enjoyable example of the difficulties involved in learning and being able to project, convincingly,

an alternative high-status identity. It tells the story of Eliza Doolittle, a working class flower girl, who takes speech lessons so that she may pass as a lady. You will need to develop mastery of the language, register, style and other conventions characteristic, especially, of international, academic and professional written communication, in order to claim legitimacy in these spheres. Of course, no one will take you seriously if you attempt to transfer these written language features to your oral recreational activities and everyday interaction with friends and family!

An important basis for questioning the identities people project through their language is the appropriateness of their expression for the task. Your teachers may question your authorship of essays, if the style is obviously not yours, or if do not understand the jargon you use. You may also receive a failing grade if your reports and book reviews are not written using the required style, conventions and organising principles. We all are tempted to ridicule those whose language is not in keeping with the usage of a group they are claiming to be members of. Seniors trying to imitate slang, or people seeking to impress by using pretentious language, filled with malapropisms, are cases in point. The television series *Oliver at Large* and many of our local plays, folk stories and Caribbean novels provide a humorous look at our unsuccessful, inappropriate attempts to perform language identities.

Activity 1

1. How would you describe your personal identity? In what ways do you express it? Is it fixed, or changing? Why/why not?

2. Do you think it is possible to have more than one identity? If so, how could this occur? If not, explain why not?

3. List three features of your language and communication styles which people associate, stereotypically, with each of the following: your age, gender, social class, religious affiliation, cultural heritage.

4. Now you have answered question 3, do you need to revise your answer to question 2? Why/why not?

Activity 2

Make notes on the following:

1. examples of the influence the following have on the development of your identity: family traditions, schooling, adult role models, social norms, precepts of others

2. three instances when you experienced pressure to conform to social expectations; how you responded and why

3. three different identities you project and specific features you modify to be authentic in each

4. one occasion on which your language identity was questioned, and why.

10 What is a language?

Learning outcomes

- to present an extended definition of 'a language'
- to discuss the cultural influences on 'a language'
- to explain the structural properties of 'a language'.

Words and their meanings

While all human beings communicate through language, different communities speak individual languages. Each language is constructed on the basis of interlocking systems of words and their meanings, pronunciation patterns and rules for combining sentence elements grammatically. Although individual languages differ in the ways these systems are configured, some patterns are shared across language groups.

The words of a language are, for the most part, symbols: this explains why the same concept may be referred to by different words in different languages. For instance, chair in English is chaise French, silla in Spanish and stuhl in German. Note, however, that while the German stuhl refers to both a chair (with a back) and a stool (without a back), English, French and Spanish have different words for a stool. In English, also, another concept of chair is the one that a Professor occupies at a university – a high office, rather than a literal seat. Except for onomatopoeic words, therefore, the meanings of words in a language are randomly assigned initially, and then become conventional.

Words and their meanings are not fixed: they may be expanded, changed, collapsed or abandoned, over time. So the word 'sick' can mean both 'unwell' and 'cool' (as used by youth in America). Expanding to meet new frontiers, any language can also easily adopt a new term, such as the English acronym LASER, to embrace new scientific procedures or technological inventions.

When one culture comes in significant contact with another, whether through conquest or an influx of migrants, it is natural for the languages involved to exhibit cross-cultural influences. There are, for example, many words and phrases associated with a French lifestyle and incorporated in English during the Norman conquest of Britain. These include: rendezvous, hors d'oeuvre, tête-à-tête, à la carte, au fait, and chaise longue.

Some distinctions in meaning are culturally related, reflecting the lifestyles, interests and emphases of the speakers of a language. In the Caribbean, for instance, we have a range of tubers distinguished by different labels, according to their texture and taste, including several varieties of yam, as well as cassava, dasheen, commander coco, (Irish) potato and sweet potato. If you enter a supermarket in North America in which all these tubers may be found in a single bin, labelled 'yam', one reasonable inference to make is that the Caribbean influence in these communities is not strong.

Pronunciation and grammar systems

Each language has its system of pronunciation, though the combination of sounds, speech rhythms and patterns of emphasis differ from one language to another, as well as from one variety of a language to another. So English and French differ in their systems of pronunciation, as do American English and British English. Social class differences are also reflected in pronunciation. Since languages are linguistically equal, we

need to avoid the temptation to transfer the value judgements society makes of speakers, to their language use.

Individual languages also have their own established grammars, although there may be correspondences across languages. In English and French, for example, we use a verb to link subject and adjective in a structure such as 'I am ill'/'Je suis malade'. However, in **Caribbean Creole** languages, the subject is followed by the adjective: 'mi sik' in Jamaican and 'mwẽ malad' in French Creole. What this tells us is that, in this respect, the grammatical pattern of the Creole languages is different from that of their European parents. In fact, all languages follow grammatical rules, although not necessarily the same ones, to facilitate communication among their speakers.

Discourse conventions

Discourse practices include paying respect, giving and receiving compliments, participating in conversations, diffusing conflict and correcting others. These also reflect and convey cultural meaning. They all are subject to the language norms and related styles of appropriateness of a particular community, and are interpreted using its yardsticks.

Writing systems

Throughout the ages, we have used various means to represent language, including smoke signals, drumbeats, hieroglyphs (pictured), pictograms, the Morse code, Braille, shorthand and other writing systems. Writing allows us to conserve messages through time and space (displacement), for easy reference, later. However, there are many languages spoken all over the world, and not written. While a writing system is definitely an asset, therefore, it is certainly not a requirement for effective communication in a language.

Activity 1

Revise the characteristics of language explored in 8.3, then make two lists, one entitled *Language* and the other, entitled *A language*. What are the shared characteristics? What are the properties unique to 'a language'?

Activity 2

1. Why are the meanings of onomatopoeic words not randomly assigned?

2. Explain, with reference to examples, three different cultural influences on English, reflected in specific vocabulary items.

3. Make a list of six words which are pronounced differently in British English and American English.

4. List, with examples, five different ways in which English pluralises nouns, then compare this with the ways used by a Creole language you identify.

5. Compare the discourse practices noted in the section, of two groups in your community.

Dialects of a language

All language exhibits variation. Indeed, speakers of the same language living in different territories may develop/exhibit differences in the pronunciation and/or meaning of particular words, or they may use different words for the same concept. As we discussed in earlier sections, we also may individually choose to vary our language features to build or reject community, or to project a particular identity. We may also select among the varieties of language available to us.

All languages generate *dialects*, sub-varieties of a language associated with geographical regions, societal functions and social differences among speakers. So, for example, Boston English and New York English are just two of the very many regional dialects of American English. Similarly, the regional varieties of English of the Commonwealth Caribbean can be considered dialects of Caribbean English. There are also urban and rural dialects, minority dialects and those related to the social class, age and occupations of speakers of any given language.

A dialect is therefore a subclass of any language, exhibiting the regional, social class, ethnicity, occupational and gender differences of the speakers of that language. Dialects differ in their pronunciation systems, grammatical systems, vocabulary, word meanings and discourse practices.

Standard varieties or dialects

Standard varieties are the dialects that have undergone a process of standardisation – that is, they have been encoded in dictionaries and grammar books, through a writing system. Linguists – those whose profession it is to study language – agree that a standard dialect is not inherently linguistically better or worse than any other variety. However, since those who have power and authority in metropolitan government and other institutions use a standard dialect for formal, academic, official and international communication, it is also recognised as the *official variety* of a territory. Its written form is the most conservative, to facilitate displacement.

Educated speakers of a language are expected to be able to communicate effectively in the standard variety as well as master their occupational dialect and hold conversations at various levels of formality, all in that language. For these reasons, **Caribbean Standard English** is the variety our teachers concentrate on teaching us, especially for the purposes of reading, formal writing and analysing educational and technical material. In recent years, they have begun to require us to speak it fluently, too. While each of the territories of our region has its own pronunciation and differences in vocabulary, they all subscribe to this standard of formal English shared across the region, and used for international communication.

Vernaculars

On the other hand, **vernaculars** often fall in the category of *non-standard varieties*. Vernaculars are mass languages: the varieties which the majority of speakers in a country speak, and sometimes, their only language. Educated speakers often use these varieties in informal contexts, in the more relaxed circumstances of everyday life with friends

and relatives. We also use them as an option of style, or to project a particular local aspect of our identity. Sometimes stigmatised, they often serve as a means of solidarity among close-knit communities, working-class speakers and marginalised groups.

Creole languages

The *Creoles* of the Caribbean are the vernaculars of their territories, as well as the *first languages* of the majority of its inhabitants – the languages they first learn to speak, before attending school. If we apply all the yardsticks for assessing a language to Creole vernaculars, we will realise that they are full and viable languages. It is important to recognise is that the systems of pronunciation, word building and compounding, sentence structure and discourse which they employ are, in many cases, different from those of their European parents. These systems are related, instead, to their African parent languages. However, we are often unaware of these differences, because Creoles take the majority of their vocabularies from their European parents, and are identified as English/French/Dutch/Portuguese-based Creoles. (We will revisit these issues in the next unit).

Creole languages are increasingly expanding their functions in society. Interestingly, for example, Haitian Creole is one of the official languages of Haiti, the other being French.

Activity 1

1. List each of these items appropriately as British or American English, then add six more pairs to complete the lists: pants/trousers, sidewalk/pavement, jumper/sweater, guys/lads, flat /apartment.

2. Compare British and American pronunciations of the following, then identify six other items which exhibit such differences: tomato, schedule, lieutenant.

3. How are your vocabulary and pronunciation similar to and different from those in 1 and 2 above?

Activity 2

1. What would cause people in different regions to speak different dialects of the same language?

2. List the regional varieties of English in the Caribbean. Why can they be regarded as dialects of Caribbean English?

3. Provide examples to illustrate the other dialects listed in the 'Creole Languages' section.

4. Research and make notes on the processes by which a variety becomes standardised.

5. How does a language become 'official'?

6. Identify three occasions on which you switched from Standard English to your vernacular/Creole language, and your reasons for doing so. How effective were you, and why?

7. How do these English words – miserable, hand, stomach, sick, improve – differ in meaning or reference in any variety of Caribbean English or Creole you identify? List, with their alternative meanings, six other words in this category.

Distinctions in sociolects

The term *sociolects* represents a general category of social dialects incorporating the language distinctions associated with our social class, education, gender, occupation or other group memberships. The features of language which characterise sociolects are not only a means of identifying us; they are also a means of bonding us with other members of communities. On occasion, for example, as a male or female adolescent, you may decide to assert your masculinity/femininity, while interacting with a group of your peers. Your usage will have identifiable gender features, as well as those which are age related. Interacting with others through the Internet or by texting, you will use the codes of netspeak or chat slang. You will also learn to use the jargon of your occupation. As a prospective member of the academic community, for example, you will have to master the jargon of your discipline, while also observing the conventions of formal writing in that discipline.

Gender distinctions in genderlects

Many researchers have generalised about gender differences and the term. *Genderlects*, a sub-group of sociolects, has been used to represent these differences. Females are said to use more **standard language** and to be expressive of their feelings and emotions, attentive to others' views, and collaborative and supportive in both single-sex and mixed-sex conversations. Males, on the other hand, have been found to use more non-standard language, to disconnect from topics which are of no interest to them and to share information rather than emotions. In same-sex conversations, they observe hierarchy, while they attempt to dominate mixed-sex conversations.

In addition, males and females assign different meanings to the same conversational move. Maltz and Borker (1998) have attempted to explain how miscommunication between them may arise:

Male-female miscommunication

Minimal responses such as nods and comments like 'yes' and 'mm hmm' are common features of conversational interaction. We hypothesise that for women a minimal response of this type means simply something like, 'I'm listening to you; please continue', and for men, it has a somewhat stronger meaning such as 'I agree with you' or at least 'I follow your argument so far.' Different rules can lead to repeated misunderstandings. Imagine a male speaker who is receiving repeated nods of 'mm hmm's from the woman he is speaking to. She is merely indicating that she is listening, but he thinks she is agreeing with everything he says.

Maltz, D. and R. Borker. 1998. 'An approach to male-female miscommunication'. Coates, J. Language and Gender – a Reader. Blackwell: pp. 417 – 434

Adolescent slang

Informal language or slang used by adolescents can be considered a social dialect, developed as a way of defining identity. This will develop differently in different social contexts, and will evolve constantly.

Chat slang and netspeak

As we develop new interests, activities and concepts, it is natural that we will add new words and phrases to our language. So it is that *chat slang* and *netspeak* have become the language of texting and online communication. Note that many older people have not mastered these written and visual codes, with their new words and meanings, acronyms, abbreviations and emoticons, unless they are involved in serious social media interaction.

They may even be unaware of the meanings of symbols such as those below, used in email or communication.

:-)	I'm smiling or I'm joking
:'-)	I'm very happy
:-&	I'm speechless
:-D	I'm laughing
:-[	I'm pouting
:-I	I'm irritated or unhappy
<:(	I feel like a idiot
!?!	What? I can't believe it!

Activity 1

1. Research the following terms: slang, jargon, sociolect, genderlect, pubilect, chat slang and netspeak.
2. Develop an extended definition, with examples, of each term.
3. What features of language characterise each, and in what contexts are they used?

Activity 2

1. List, with examples, three differences you have noticed in:
   a. the vocabulary used by men and women, and
   b. the topics they talk about.
2. Make notes on the other gender differences noted by Maltz and Borker.
3. Identify three other differences you have noticed.

Activity 3

List, with their meanings, six slang words which you currently use. What attitudes do they indicate?

Activity 4

What functions do the email/text symbols above serve, and what reasons are there for their development? Do you use them? Why/why not?

Learning outcomes

- to refute some of the erroneous views society holds about Creoles
- to translate Creole grammar, idioms to English
- to explain some of the structural differences between the grammars of Creoles and those of their European parents.

Activity 1

Go online to find the articles listed in the Links box below. Read the articles, then answer the following questions.

1. How did Creole languages develop?
2. List the Creoles spoken in each Caribbean territory and their European parents.
3. List the territories in which the official language and the Creole have different European parents.
4. Why were Creoles not considered languages at first?

🔗 Link 1

'Creole languages', Salikoko Sangol Mufwene

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/142562

🔗 Link 2

'Creole languages of the Caribbean'

http://www.mona.uwi.edu/dllp/linguistics/creole.htm

Creole languages

Many of us in the Caribbean believe that Creole languages do not satisfy the criteria of being languages in their own right.

- We criticise them as being 'bad' or 'broken' versions of English/French/Dutch, and 'without rules', because although their vocabularies are similar, they do not follow the grammatical rules of those languages.
- Some regard Creoles as 'not a language', because they have no widely-accepted writing systems or grammar books.
- Our Creoles have also been described as 'inferior' because they are seen as 'not able to deal with abstract thought'.

Extract 1 considers some key responses to some of these views of Jamaican Creole.

'Extract 1: Creole: fact and fiction'

Any form of communication regularly used by a community of persons in interaction with each other, using a consistent set of sounds, words and sentence structures is considered by linguists to be a language. Creole has been used as a means of communication in Jamaica for at least three hundred years. Therefore, in accordance with the stated criterion, it is a language.

It is because differences between SE [Standard English] and JC [Jamaican Creole] have been shown to be more fundamental than differences between dialects of English in England that Creole is considered a different language. On the other hand, *Dread Talk*, the speech of the Rastafarians of Jamaica, could be considered a dialect of Jamaican Creole since they have the same basic grammar.

The absence of grammar books does not mean that the language in question has no grammar. All languages do not use the same devices for indicating, number, gender, case and tense, for example.

Creole does not use abstract vocabulary to express abstract concepts, but it can express the basic concepts so expressed in other languages, using non-abstract terminology. Jamaican proverbs express a range of truths using Creole. For example, 'Kowad man kip soun buon' (literally, 'Coward man keeps sound bones') expresses the same idea as 'Discretion is the better part of valour'.

Christie, P. 2003. Language in Jamaica. Arawak Publications

Indeed, in the last few decades, much research has been done to demonstrate the features of Creole grammar. In extract 2, linguist McArthur outlines some of the key features of Creole grammar.

Extract 2: Some features of Creole grammar

Time reference:
(Jamaican) *im waak*: He or she walked, He or she has walked; *im a waak*: He or she is walking; *im ben waak*: He or she walked, He or she had walked.

Noun plurals:
(Jamaican, Guyanese) *di daagdem*: the dogs; (Trinidad) *di dog-an-dem:* the dogs.

Clarifying or emphasising (sentences):
(Trinidad) *iz mi mʌdʌ tel mi du it*: My mother (and not someone else) told me to do it; (Jamaican) *a tief im tief di guot:* He stole the goat (he didn't buy it).

Emphasising (adjectives):
(Jamaican) *poto-poto:* slimy, muddy; *fenky-fenky:* slight, puny, cowardly, fussy; *batta-batta:* to beat repeatedly; (Guyanese) *tukka-tukka:* a kind of plantain.

Pronouns:
(Barbados) *yu* versus *wunu*; (Trinidad) *yu* versus *all-yu*.

Possession
(Trinidad) *mi fada kuzn hows:* my father's cousin's house.

McArthur, T. 1998.'Caribbean English Creole' Concise Oxford Companion to the English Language

Mixing and switching varieties

Often in informal conversation, we may personally mix or switch our language varieties. So we may first select Creole or our **Creole-influenced vernacular,** or **colloquial,** non-standard English, or formal Caribbean Standard English. Then we may mix varieties, by incorporating elements from the other two, or we may switch from one to another, for specific purposes – for instance, to clarify a point, quote someone else, or accommodate to or diverge from others. Interlocutors also do not have to use the same variety as others, also for contextual reasons.

Key points

- Creoles are languages, rather than dialects of their European parent languages, because they have rules governing pronunciation, grammar and discourse, which are different from those of these parents.

- A language does not have to be written to be a language; nor does it have to be standardised, to be considered legitimate.

- There have been many different spelling systems used to write Creole languages.

- Caribbean speakers use the varieties at their disposal in everyday conversation, and for different purposes – mixing and switching them.

- For formal, especially written communication, educated speakers are expected to use their official language.

✅ *Exam tip*

If asked to discuss the 'language features' of a given text provided in the examination, you must identify specific features such as noun plurals, verb patterns, vocabulary choices, word meanings, idiomatic phrases, then illustrate them with examples from the passage/cartoon/scenario provided. Avoid generalisations, or substituting your own examples.

Read extract 3 from `On Love' in *Quashie's Reflections,* written in 1968 by the Jamaican author, Inez Sibley. Then answer the questions in activity 3.

Extract 3: Quashie's reflections on love

"Lub is an awful ting, anyways de kine me ah tark bout. De way it mek me heart pulpitate, an me lose sleep ah nite time, and me caan wuk ah day time, an me caan eben nyam me roas coco an sal ting wid any satisfaction – I tell you man, dere is nutten in this wuld laka it, when you gat it bad.

Smady sey, 'Ah lub mek de wuld go roun,' but ah me ah go round tel me giddy wid it, me no noa whey me tan wid a Tomazina, dat yellow gal wid de trait hair an de flashin yie. When she luk pon me it wuss dan lectric shack, only dis kinda nicer. It trill me to me marrow bone. Ah wander doah ef she lub me laka me lub she, and ow me gwine find out. Me feel dat distressful cause me noa sey she ah de kine ob chile gwine fe hab plenty ob admirers dem.

Lard! Ef ah could ah only noa, ef a me she lub bes! Wid dis tart in ah me mine me go ah village one Sunday ..."

Sibley, I. 1968. 'On Love.' Quashie's Reflections in Jamaican Creole. Bolivar Press: p1

Activity 3

1. Why does Ms Sibley use this spelling system?
2. What insights does it give about the language Quashie is speaking?
3. By now, you will have realised that Inez Sibley has presented Quashie as speaking Jamaican Creole. You are going to translate the passage into formal, idiomatic Caribbean Standard English, by proceeding as follows:

   a. Revise the spelling and vocabulary so they are English.

   b. Underline all the Creole grammatical elements (pronouns, verb forms, time reference and so on), inthe passage. Translate these to English.

   c. Rewrite the passage in idiomatic Standard English, using a formal style. Consider the following:

   - How and why would you restructure the first sentence and any others like it?

   - Does *awful* in the first sentence convey Quashie's meaning? Are there any other such words?

   - What about phrases such as '*roas coco and sal ting*' and '*yellow gal*'?

   - Is '*it mek me heart pulpitate*' idiomatic English? Are there any other such phrases?

4. Discuss your translation with your classmates and teacher.

Read extracts 4 and 5 and then answer the questions in activity 4. Discuss your responses with your teacher and classmates.

Extract 4: The hunt

English came toward us big and black and walking noisily.

'Me tell you don't set foot here with no gun in you hand!' Pancho shouted, and his neck was swollen and ropey and his whole body tense and ready to spring.

'Eh, eh man. Nobody en't buy this bush yet,' English said.

'You looking for trouble, pardner?'

'Trouble? Me is a man who ...'

'Stay away, me telling you!'

'All right, pardner, all right. Is why you frying up you fat so!'

'Just keep out, that's all! Me does share the game me hunt with everybody and me swear if me catch you here again won't be no telling what will happen.'

'Come on,' I said. 'I can't hear the tinamous singing when the two of you start barking at each other.' I put an arm around Pancho's shoulder and he relaxed.

'Pardner me really thought you was vexed,' English said. ...

Carew, Jan. 'Black Midas'. Ramchand, K. 1966. West Indian Narrative. Nelson: p. 189

Extract 5: Kishwana

"You know how Cunningham died: a man of his age had no business in your group and getting himself killed in shootout with police. I didn't say nothing, though is me who had to find money to bury him and now have to take on more sessions in order to make ends meet for Kishwana and the children he leave behind. I know that as long as Kishwana is down here, not a thing or a person dare trouble her for they know what nobody don't tell them, that you will kill for her. But me don't want things to come to that. I suppose you know that she have boyfriend and you know who the boyfriend is."

"And you carry her gone up at his house gone sell her for lunch money," he broke in.

"Bellfoot," she said to him quietly, "What if one of your fool-fool lieutenant to curry favour with you, go trouble that boy! Star headlines: 'Power boy killed for visiting Shower girl'. You think your party going to confirm you and canvas for you? You well know sey all the big-ups in the party dem whether shower or power, the both of them live pass Liguanea, and go to the same church and drink champagne together."

Brodber, E. 2012. 'Kishwana'. The Word is a High Hill. Ian Randle Publishers: p. 53

Activity 4

1. In extract 4, identify specific features indicating the variety/varieties used by each speaker and their effect on the conversation.

2. The language of extract 5 includes Standard English, non-standard English and Creole. Refer to the examples from McArthur in the previous spread of this unit, to identify the phrases which are non-standard English, and those which are Creole. List them with their Standard English equivalents, in two different columns.

3. Compare the first speaker's use of varieties in the first and third paragraphs. What differences are there, and for what reasons?

4. What language is Bellfoot's response? Why do you say so?

Learning outcomes:

- to identify the elements of an interactive situation
- to evaluate the effect of each element on language choice
- to explain the notion of communicative competence
- to discuss the importance of communicative competence in effective interaction.

✓ Exam tip

You need to provide supporting examples and illustrations, to ground all the points you make. Vague descriptions, observations and comments or general explanations will not gain you many marks for analysis. You should also take it as given that, without specific examples from the interaction to bolster the points you make, your analysis is incomplete.

What is interaction?

In any analysis of interaction, we need to ask the questions what, where, when, who and why? Basic, situation - defining categories (who, what, when, where and why) are not single-dimensional. 'Who', for example, could refer not just to the gender and age of participants, but to the role they choose (or are required) to fulfil at each stage. 'Where' may refer not just to the physical or virtual space and the channels through which the interaction proceeds, but the social and psychological environment influencing how participants structure and perform the interaction.

Also extremely important are questions of 'how': for example, how the interaction develops, both sequentially and in terms of the stances participants take. A full analysis requires an examination of how messages are formulated and exchanged, as well as how participants' disposition, tone and attitudes contribute to the feedback received. The ultimate aim is to discuss how these considerations, in combination with the existing situational components, influence or are reflected in the language used.

Activity 1

Study the model of communication below, then make notes on the following.

1. What do the terms *source / encoder* and *receiver / decoder* suggest about the focus of the model?

2. If the focus of the model is changed to interaction, would you retain these terms? Why/not?
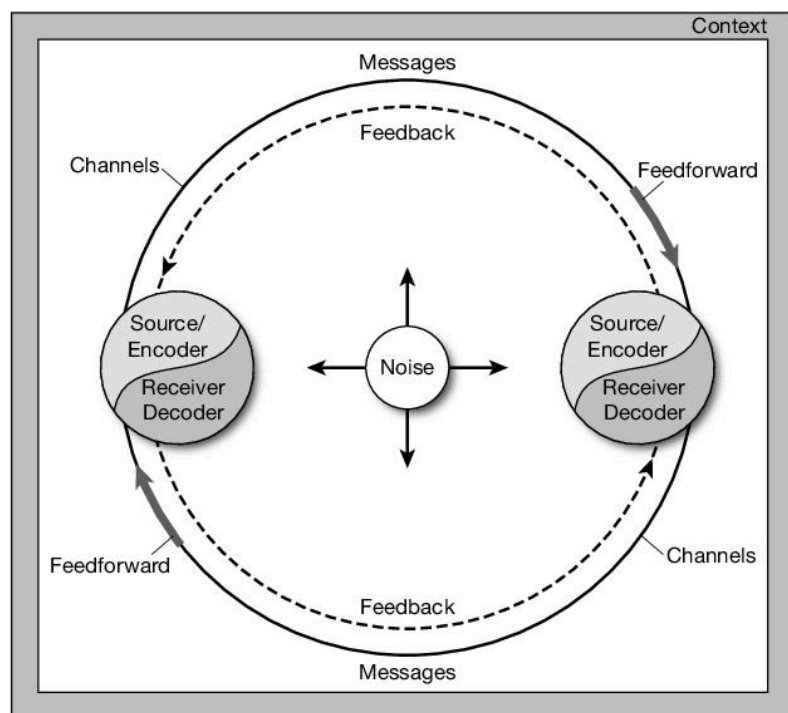
SPEAKING: The essentials of interaction

Hymes (1974) developed the acronym SPEAKING to summarise the fundamentals within interactive situations, and to guide analyses of interaction. You will find the mnemonic a helpful reminder of the points you have to consider in effectively communicating in face-to-face, written or electronic formats. It is also very useful for investigating and comparing communication styles and strategies within and among communities and cultures.

Here is what SPEAKING represents:

Setting (setting/scene)

Participants (speaker/sender; addressor; hearer/receiver/audience; addressee)

Ends (outcomes/goals)

Act Sequences (message form/content)

Key

Instrumentalities (channel/form of speech)

Norms (of interaction/interpretation)

Genre

Communicative competence and SPEAKING

Hymes (1974) presents the notion of **_communicative competence_** to describe our ability not just to use language grammatically, but also appropriately. He argues that, by observing SPEAKING, we ensure that our well-constructed and organised messages do not breach the conventions accepted for any particular communicative situation.

Consider the importance of norms in interaction, relating, for instance, to politeness. You will readily recognise that the following are not only problematic, but also likely to render your communication ineffective:

- ignoring or not responding to someone speaking to you
- abusing, insulting or making jokes about the infirmities of others
- imposing on the space or time of others, without acknowledging or apologising for the imposition
- not observing status differences while addressing others in formal contexts.

Out-group and cross-cultural interaction raise similar issues. While compliments about sexuality may be accepted in some situations, they are rejected as sexual harassment in others. In a country like Japan, which observes patriarchy, women are expected to use titles or other markers of respect, in addressing men. So, for example, a wife is required to add the respect marker -san to her husband's first name, should she choose to use it. There is no such requirement for her husband. Our failure to recognise and observe the conventions of appropriateness expected in out-group interaction can render our communication, though grammatical, as flawed, or even offensive.

Activity 2

1. Identify one sustained verbal interaction in which you have participated, and make notes on the following:
   a. what kind of interaction was it?
   b. where and when was it?
   c. who else was involved?
   d. why did the interaction take place?
2. At each stage of development:
   a. how did you respond to each other, and why?
   b. what specific kinds of language (with examples) were used, with what effect?
   c. how would you summarise the spirit of the communication, in one word?
3. How would you describe the interaction, overall?

Activity 3

1. Explain how observing the SPEAKING components individually and combined will ensure appropriate language use in interaction.
2. Give a detailed explanation of why the actions in the bulleted points above are problematic.
3. When and why would abuse, butting in, remaining silent and talking at the same time as someone else, be appropriate or inappropriate?
4. Compare the application of SPEAKING to the following scenarios: classroom vs. study group, funeral service vs. wake, market vs. supermarket, formal vs. fast-food restaurant.

Appropriateness

In interaction, we manipulate our language to indicate or negotiate our social relationships. It is expected that since you are young, for example, your vocabulary and conversational style with teachers and others in authority, senior citizens, or strangers will be more formal than with peers. Formality is, in fact, one way of paying respect. Of course, we often have relationships on different levels, with the same person. In these cases, the context of the communication influences our style: if our sibling is also our teacher, our styles of interaction in the classroom are likely to be different from our conversational styles at home.

Activity 1

1. Consider the following sentences. What is your response to each, and why?

   a. Worker to his boss: 'You joking, or what?'

   b. Student to teacher: 'Hey there!'

   c. Child to parent: 'I said I'm not doing that!'

   d. Father to son, 'Shut up, you idiot!'

2. Rewrite the sentiment expressed in each, in keeping with your response to question 1.

In a – d in activity 1, the communication is inappropriate, because, by ignoring the inequality of their statuses the speakers seem disrespectful to their interlocutors. Even if we assume a context: that the worker and boss are having a drink after work and the student and teacher are siblings, the speakers seem too familiar for the respective roles indicated. Similarly, the child's defiance and the father's abusiveness are out of place. In all instances, they have not used the correct register.

What is register?

Register refers to the styles we select for our communication, in response to the social situations in which we are participating. As the activity above underscores, it is often not only *what* we say, but *how* we say it, that makes the difference. So we make decisions on, or assess the *how* in relation to the suitability of the language used for the context and purpose of that communication. An important consideration in our choice of style or register is the level of formality of our context.

If you read the constitution and laws of your territory, or listen to the ritual prayers in some religious liturgies, you will understand why the formal written style employed is described as *frozen*. It is not just old-fashioned: it is fixed in the style of a previous era, and has remained static, on the page. The language reflects the conventions observed at the time of writing, which have been preserved through the ages.

In communicating in a super-formal context today, however, we are unlikely to select a frozen style: that is, unless we decide to quote a law, read from a religious text, or include a ceremonial prayer

or pledge. In official, written communication, including academic writing, business or administrative reports and proposals, we are expected to use a *formal* register. It is conservative, observing the conventions required for the particular assignment. This is sometimes also labelled a *neutral* style, because it relays information objectively. Similarly, in spoken communication in official situations and with those we do not know, we use a *formal* register, to maintain a polite distance and a demeanour of respect.

The register regarded as suitable for meetings with experts such as doctors and lawyers, or with our superiors at work, is labelled *consultative*. Even if our medical practitioner is our work colleague, domino partner, or a member of our community sports team in private life, our language is normally expected to indicate our respect for his/her expertise, during professional consultations and/or meetings.

In our least formal contexts, we adjust our register appropriately. So we may choose a *casual* style in interacting with our peers and/or social friends. Internet and texting style, with its chat slang, belongs in this category. For communicating with family members, very close relatives or others who share our personal space, we use an *intimate* style – for example, resorting to sounds and a shake of the head to express disapproval, or a raised eyebrow to signal disbelief.

You will note that the five styles described above range from extreme formality to familiarity. Our choice of style or register in interaction takes into account the role we play in relation to our interlocutors, in any given context. Having decided on where our context falls within the range, we suitably tailor our language.

Activity 2

1. What features of language are typical of each register and in what contexts do we use them? Why and with what features do we shift register?

2. Find one example from your own experience, reading, conversations aired on radio and television and so on, for each category of register. What are the features of each that help you decide on the category?. Discuss your findings with your teacher and classmates.

Activity 3

Rewrite each of the following in three other registers:

a. It is required that all students purchase their books at the beginning of the term.

b. You all so childish! Stop bugging me and getting on my nerves!

c. If you expect me to respond, you will have to give me some time to research the issues.

d. Bye for now! Love ya!

e. ROTFL BTW GTG L8R

Tailoring language appropriately

Read extracts 1-3, taken from a range of sources. Then answer the questions that follow in activity 4.

Extract 1: Offences against the person act

27. Whosoever shall unlawfully abandon or expose any child, being under the age of two years, whereby the life of such child shall be endangered, or the health of such child shall have been, or shall be likely to be permanently injured, shall be guilty of a misdemeanour. and, being convicted thereof, shall be liable to be imprisoned for a term not exceeding three years, with or without hard labour.

Ministry of Justice, Government of Jamaica

Extract 2: Tiger invites his white bosses home for Indian food

'My humble abode is not a massive structure, but I going to construct a building as soon as financial embarrassment over.'

'Urmilla hardly slept for thinking of what she was going to do. She got up determined and went to Rita.

'Girl, I in big trouble. Big, big trouble. If you know what Tiger go and do! He go and invite two Americans he does work with to come for Indian food tonight!'

'Is what happen to him at all? He crack? He is a damn fool in truth. He bringing wite people to eat in dad hut? Tiger must be really going out of he head, yes. Gul, yuh making joke!'

'Man, Rita, I tell you is true! My head hot! I don't know what to do!'

'Well yes,' Rita mused, 'Ah did know he chupid, but not so chupid! Well, all you have to do is do yuh best, gul.'

'Rita, you go have to help me, girl.'

'But sure, man. What yuh want me to do?'

'Yuh have to lend me plenty thing. I want glass. Plate. Cup. Spoon. Knife. Fork. Tablecloth –'

'Take ease, keep cool! Between the two ah we we go fix up everyting good. Don't look so frighten. Why the hell yuh fraid Tiger so? Allyuh Indian people have some funny ways, *oui*.'

'My wife could really cook good, your mouth will run water – I mean – your salivary glands will run when you eat that food.'

Selvon, S. 1952. A Brighter Sun. Longman Caribbean. Pp. 160–167

Extract 3: MeMa chastises Leonora

'Anyway that teacher man forming fool though. Don't bother make him put no more idea into you head for I take you from you was a baby and raise you up in good Christian home and spend money clothe and feed you and give you book and slate and pencil for school just like I give my own children and I never once treat you different from them in any way at all and I do this from the bottom of my heart because the Bible say 'Suffer the little children to come onto me' so dont bother make teacher turn you fool...'

Is so she go on and she slap the iron on the coal pot and grab a new one and when she wipe it done on the banana trash she slamming it down on the clothes the same way. Some time for so long she wouldn't say a word that I try walk way slow-like but she would see me and start up again.

'Where you think you going when I talking to you yu unmannersable little wretch you? Wait! You think say is yu friend them you with?'

And I confuse because one mind in me say that I should study and pass exam so that I can go to high school and speak good and wear pretty dress and high heel shoes like Miss Martin the other teacher and Teacher Wife who is also a teacher and I think it would really grieve Dulcie to see me succeed like that because she always fas'ing with me head and I have to wear her old dress and she tell everybody is ol bruck I wear but is only because she stupid and cant pass anything at all and even though she older than me Teacher put us in the same class an if I turn teacher I could get me hair straighten just like Teacher Wife. And I confuse because another voice say that MeMa will vex and she wont give me any encouragement even if I pass scholarship and Pa say he dont business.

Senior, O. 1986. 'Ballad'. Summer Lightening and Other Stories.
Longman Group Ltd.: pp.100–134

Activity 4

1. For each extract, name the registers used, and list the features (with examples), which identify it.

2. You have been asked to explain the law in extract 1 at a community meeting. Write your explanation using a casual, everyday English register.

3. Rewrite the conversations in extract 2 in formal spoken English.

4. In extract 3, Leonora decides to complain to her school's guidance counsellor, who asks her to present her complaints in writing. Prepare her report in formal, written English. Begin the report as follows:

   My mother has been warning me about ....

12.1   Social history and Caribbean languages

Learning outcomes:

To explain the role of social history in the formation of Caribbean language identities.

Have you ever wondered why, when asked what languages they speak, many older citizens of the Caribbean simply name the language of the colonisers of their territory? It results from the social history of our region. European languages have traditionally been used to perform formal and official functions, and are also used for international communication. Learned through education, they accord high social status to those who have mastered them. On the other hand, the Creole first-language vernaculars of most Caribbean territories are often devalued, for the reasons discussed in section 10.3. Further, many of us do not acknowledge that the languages and cultures of our indigenous Indian populations are also part of our heritage.

One surviving indigenous language, with approximately 22,000 speakers in Honduras and 12,000 in Belize, is Garifuna. In the following extract, a member of the Garifuna language community of Honduras explains what this language means to its speakers today.

Extract 1: Garifuna in Honduras

Most Garifuna speak Spanish and Garifuna. The linguistic origins of Garifuna may remain in dispute. Researchers claim it to be a mixture of other languages, including Arawak, French, Yoruba, Swahili and Bantu, but it is a central part of Garifuna ethnic identity.

For us Garifuna, the defence of our language has always been very important. Many people have made fun of our language and the same thing happened to our ancestors. But they were never shamed by this. We speak our Garifuna language, we pray and sing in Garifuna. This is why it's important that the teachers who educate our children should be Garifuna, so that the children can learn Garifuna and our religious beliefs. Our religious beliefs and language are an important part of our culture and our Garifuna tradition and we have to defend them in the same way that our ancestors did.

Sieder, R. 2009. 'Honduras'. Blooming with the Pouis, Ramsay, P. et al. Ian Randle Publishers: p.72

Traditional values attached to Caribbean languages reflect the social hierarchies established through the plantation history of the region. Power and authority were invested in the European colonisers and their languages, to which house slaves gained initial exposure, and, thereafter, the educated. High value was placed on the European heritage of the territories, classified by their European languages. With political independence and nationalism, we have begun to appreciate the contribution of our African heritage to our culture, including Creole discourse.

For Caribbean people today, the Creole first languages of the majority are as integral to our identity as indigenous Garifuna is to its speakers. These Creole vernaculars encode and convey our cultural practices, our ambitions and dreams. We instinctively react in them; express our deepest emotions in them; tell stories, enact roots plays and perform dramatic poems in them; conceptualise and convey 'folk' wisdom and philosophy and healing rituals through them. Yet, many of us have so internalised the negative value colonial society placed on our slave ancestors that we are ashamed of and disown this heritage.

Did you know?

Most of the indigenous languages of our region are dying with their speakers.

Most speakers of Lokono (Arawak) in Guyana are over 50 years old.

There are only a few dozen Maroon speakers of Kromanti in Jamaica.

The last speaker of Berbice Dutch Creole (Guyana) died in 2005.

Only a few of the 3,000 Kalinago Indians resident in Dominica speak their indigenous language.

🔗 Link

For further research on Garifuna and other Caribbean indigenous languages, some links have been provided on the CD.

Activity 1

Use the sources in the CAPE syllabus and any others available in the library, online, or in your community, to review the social history of your territory. Then answer the following questions with detailed notes. Record complete citations of all your sources.

1. Who were the indigenous people? What language(s) did they speak, and what continuities/retentions in language and customs, if any, are identifiable today?

2. Which European country/countries ruled (with dates) during the colonial period? What language(s) did they speak? Are these languages spoken in your territory today? Why/why not?

3. Where specifically in Africa did the slaves come from, and what language group was their primary home language? What language and other cultural influences remain today?

4. When and from where did any indentured labourers arrive, and what language(s) did they speak? In what aspects of your territory's culture is their influence at least apparent, if not prominent

5. Are there any cultural, in-group (for example, gender-related) differences expressed in their language?

6. What differences (for example in values and attitudes and interaction), are recognisable among groups, and encoded in their language use?

Activity 2

1. Identify a Caribbean territory with a history similar to yours, and compare the:
   - historical links;
   - language(s) spoken;
   - cultural practices
   - associated vocabulary items (for food, clothing, religious practices, entertainment, and so on).

2. Repeat Exercise 1 on a territory you identify with a history that you consider to be very different from yours.

3. Use the Internet and your school or local library to research the social history, features and functions of Garifuna and the Maroon languages, and Kromanti and Saramaccan. Take note of your findings and discuss them with your classmates and teacher.

The history of our region has resulted in different language situations. The socio-linguist Mervyn Alleyne (1985) provides a classification of languages in the Caribbean, outlined in extract 2. Here is his classification. The italicised designations are explained in the body of each explanation:

Extract 2: Language situations in the Caribbean

1. *Multilingual*: Trinidad has standard and non-standard forms of English, a French-based creole, non-standard Spanish, Bhojpuri, Urdu and Yoruba. Suriname has Dutch, Sranan, Saramaccan, Njuka, Javanese and Hindi.

2. *Bilingual*: St. Lucia, Dominica, and Grenada have standard and non-standard forms of English and a French-based creole. The Netherlands Antilles has Dutch and Papiamentu (with English and Spanish widely used).

3. *Diglossia:* In Haiti and the French West Indies, French and a French-based creole exist but are kept relatively separate.

4. *Continuum*: Guyana, Antigua, Jamaica, Montserrat and St. Kitts have different graded levels of language beginning with a popular variety commonly called "creole" or "patois" and moving through intermediate levels to a standard norm of English at the other pole.

5. *Monolingual*: Barbados, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, and Puerto Rico have a standard and nonstandard form of European languages (English in the first case, Spanish in the others).

Alleyne, M. 1985. A Linguistic Perspective on the Caribbean. Woodrow Wilson International Center for Scholars: USA: p. 9–10

There are two points to note in Alleyne's classification:

- Alleyne has not included Tobagonian Creole nor Trinidad's English Creole; he has also omitted Bajan in Barbados, which is increasingly being recognised as a Creole.

- There is no one-to-one parallel between territories' language situations and speakers' usage or abilities.

  - *Diglossia* and *continuum* are restricted to language situations.

  - *Multilingual, bilingual* and *monolingual* are also used to describe speakers' language identities; so in situations of diglossia, speakers would be *bilingual* if they know both Creole and the European language. Only speakers of more than two languages would be considered *multilingual*.

  - Similarly, *bilingual* is also the appropriate description of speakers in continuum situations who can function in both their Creole and European languages. However, many speakers may not use, to any great extent, either language, and are therefore essentially *monolingual* in either language.

  - With institutions teaching European and Asian languages, increasing numbers of Caribbean speakers are likely to be *multilingual*.

Several reasons are offered by those who do not acknowledge our Creoles as languages. Pauline Christie (2003) discusses those claimed for Jamaican Creole, but applicable to other Creoles, in extract 3.

Extract 3: Creole: Fact and fiction

1. "There are no books written in Jamaican Creole"

Jamaican Creole is primarily an oral language but a writing system (orthography) for it has been in existence for several decades... In fact, there are several books written in Haitian Creole. ...

Key terms

Diglossia: derives from the Greek *di* (two) and *glóssa* (tongue/language), and refers to a situation in which two languages (or two varieties of the same language) are used under different conditions within a community, often by the same speakers.

Continuum: A continuous sequence in which adjacent elements are not perceptibly different from each other, but the extremes are quite distinct.

2. "Jamaican Creole has no standard form"

It is indeed true that Jamaican Creole varies widely. However, standardisation (agreement on a norm and its implementation) can be imposed on any language. ...

3. "Jamaican Creole is not spoken outside Jamaica"

What those who make this claim usually mean is that Jamaican Creole is not a language of international communication. This is true, and it is precisely why it is so important that Jamaicans master Standard English in addition to Creole. ...

4. "Jamaican Creole is a reminder of our dark and shameful past when our ancestors were backward and illiterate"

Every natural language developed at a time when its users were relatively backward and illiterate. No one can deny that Creole arose out of slavery, but it has turned out to be a regular medium of communication and a valuable symbol of Jamaican identity. Jamaicans abroad are very aware of the latter as they often resort to it as an in-group language. Jamaicans at home deliberately use code switching to express solidarity with other Jamaicans. ...

Even if one considers only the particularly cruel circumstances surrounding the birth of Creole, positives can be recognised. Creole demonstrates the creativity of generations of African slaves who did not simply string together mispronounced English words as some claim, but forged a system that is not only rule-governed but is also in many ways very expressive, as even many detractors of Creole have acknowledged.'

Christie, P. 2003. Language in Jamaica. Arawak Press: pp. 26–28

Here are some additional supporting counter arguments:

- Some Caribbean writers, years before independence, authenticated their characters by quoting them speaking Creole. Some authors sometimes present their authorial/narrative voices as also speaking Creole/vernacular. Selvon has been doing this since the 1950s!

- The Bible is currently being translated into the Creoles of the region.

- Creole Grammars have been analysed and described in grammar books from as early as 1966, when Beryl Bailey's *Jamaican Creole Syntax* was published.

- Members of the large and expanding Caribbean Diaspora also speak their Creole languages there, and their speech and communication patterns have been researched and discussed in books written about them. We have included an example of London Jamaican in section 13.1.

- The lyrics of Caribbean folk music, such as Calypso and Reggae, and those 'roots' plays which have had an international impact, are largely Creole.

There are many ways in which our social history continues to influence modern-day rejection of our Creole experience and, consequently, our local identities. Social prejudices are also built into some of the derogatory language we use to refer to, stigmatise or verbally assault each other. The practice may begin in families, from the time children can understand, and be reinforced by society, forcing them to retreat from aspects of their personal identity, or adopt another. We see evidence of this, for example, in behaviours such as skin bleaching or male exposure of underwear, which seek to emulate a non-Caribbean identity, and in the creation of gangs and their related discourse.

- to identify links between cultural heritage, language and discourse styles

- to explain some of the differences between Creole and English styles of discourse in the Caribbean

- to discuss strategies we may use for signalling alternative Creole/English identities.

Language and culture: a process of osmosis

Language and culture are mutually constitutive – that is, we cannot separate one from the other. Our culture embodies the philosophies, belief systems, values, attitudes, oral and written literature, and religious practices of our heritage, as well as the meaning and value society attaches to them. These are encoded within our language and also conveyed through it, as we have considered throughout Module 2.

Let us explore this further: while we are learning a language and manipulating its resources to communicate with others, we are also learning the way of life and traditions which moulded that language in the first place. Therefore, when we master the language, we have in essence mastered (sometimes unintentionally) many of its cultural underpinnings. In a sense, the process is like osmosis: we become cultural beings by participating in the traditions handed down through our socialisation. We then work at developing communicative competence.

It is a culture that gives meaning to particular discourse and interaction patterns. Cultural norms of appropriateness, for example, attach meaning to how we greet, acknowledge or contradict one another; how we pay respect, affirm, accord praise or blame; how we open, encourage and close conversations, or how we deliver speeches. Therefore, in societies such as ours, with multiple cultural inputs, our *cultural discourse* will differ from one group, community and/or context, to another. We perform alternative identities by modifying our language and styles to reflect these differences in meaning.

Activity 1

Make notes on the following:

1. What constitutes your cultural heritage?

    a. How have you been exposed to it through the cultural traditions (such as festivals, religious practices, poetry, riddles, stories, proverbs, dance, music, dress and food) of your family and group members?

    b. What styles of communication and/or interaction signal each tradition?

2. How, and for what purposes, do you express these styles:

    a. at home

    b. in other everyday situations

    c. at specific cultural events

    d. in formal situations?

3. Compare your answers to questions 1 and 2 with those of your peers. What differences are there, and why?

Being bombastic: the 'man-of-words'

Let us consider some examples from the Caribbean: speechmaking and storytelling are integral to Caribbean discourse. The performer's ability to manipulate lyrics, for example in folk and popular music, is also highly valued in our culture.

An American anthropologist, Roger Abrahams, studied performance patterns in adolescent and adult speechmaking in the emerging Creole culture of the West Indies of the 1950s. He observed their use of verbal gymnastics in both impromptu and planned contests. Extract 1 recounts a Nevis tea meeting Abrahams attended. The first part is his observation of the speechmakers, the second an example from one of the speeches given.

Extract 1: Chairmen's remarks

'As the chairmen continued to make their introductions and to comment on each act, it became clear that they are the premier performers. They not only had to make these interpolated speeches but also had to attempt to outshine the other performers, and, most important, each chairman had to prove himself the best speaker there. As they put it, each wanted to be regarded as "the cock with the brightest comb". They preened their feathers by making long, inflated, macaronic speeches.'

'That song reminded me of Moses standing on the banks of the Red Sea. It fills my heart with phil-long-sophy, entrong-losophy, joken and conomaltus., which is to say I come here today without any study. Dia Gratia, by the grace of God, I have tried my best. Time is tempus fugit. The same. I will say a few words about Moses. His life went into different parts: he spent forty years in Egypt, forty years in Medea, and forty years in the wilderness. ... I shall now say veedie, veedie, amrie, which is to say, I came, I saw, and I conquered. ...'

Abrahams, R. 1983. The Man-of-Words in the West Indies. Johns Hopkins UP: pp 17–18

Abrahams goes on to explain the performance of what he calls a 'man-of-words' in contexts such as the one described in extract 1.

Extract 2: Caribbean 'Men-of-words'

'The good talker, however, needs a more highly structured situation and more time to exhibit his talents. He commonly purveys a highly decorated and self-consciously artificial rhetoric; for these effects he must have a situation in which he can gain the complete attention of his audience. ... In the West Indies, he may channel his talents exclusively into preaching, but more commonly he holds forth at special performances traditional in festivals such as carnival, or at occasions such as wakes and wedding feasts. On both the islands and the mainland, some men-of-words have in the past specialised in writing friendship or love letters for other members of the community. ... Of ... importance is the way in which the good talker fits into the total picture of a community's traditions and institutions and how great the part he plays in the total range of its expressive culture.'

Abrahams, R. 1983. The Man-of-Words in the West Indies. Johns Hopkins UP: pp. 3–4

Activity 2

Read extract 1, then answer the questions:

1. Find the meanings of *interpolated* and *macaronic*, and examples of each, from the extract.

2. What are the accurate Latin translations of *by the grace of God* and *I came, I saw, I conquered*?

3. What effect does the speaker hope to achieve from his vocabulary and erroneous Latin?

4. Is 'Medea' a place?

Activity 3

Locate another example, in your territory, of the use of unusual language as a performance feature. Compare its context and features with those of extract 1.

Activity 4

Read extract 2, then complete the activity:

1. Prepare a chairman's opening comments at an international meeting of a Caribbean culture conference.

2. Explain the required differences in purpose, language, register and organisation from extract 1.

In his study, *The Man-of-Words in the West Indies*, Abrahams also notes similarities in traditional performances across territories, including:

- *Speech bands* in Tobago, in which 'the speechers (sic) are properly heroic in tone and diction. ... They always rhyme, use inflated rhetoric, and are strongly hyperbolic' (p.5).

- *Tea meetings* held throughout the Caribbean, and which, in Nevis, 'is a remarkable combination of pageant, mock fertility ritual, variety show, and organised mayhem' (p.16), in which the 'man-of-words' calls attention to himself through his improvation' (p.19)

- *Mummings* in Nevis [are] 'short entertainments performed for the benefits of households throughout the countryside' (p.13). ... 'The language of most of these plays, especially the hero-conflict dramas, is extremely ornate and hyperbolic.' (p.16)

Lexical innovations, modifications and philosophy

A community may reject aspects of society's philosophy, and therefore modify features of its language to reflect this. In extract 3, Pollard explains the philosophy behind the strategies of Rastafari:

Extract 3: Rastafari innovations

The language of Rastafari is Jamaica Creole (JC), the language of the Jamaican poor, "stepped up", in the terminology of one of the brethren, to reflect the philosophical stance of the Rasta man. ... The sound /ai/ is important in the speech of the Rastafari. It is a sound with a positive force. So in one word-making process, the initial syllable in any number of words is replaced by the sound /ai/ ("I" as in I-laloo = callaloo) ...The sound /ai/ is related also to the meaning "eye", the centre of sight allowing the Rasta man to be "far seeing" when compared to the non-Rasta whose sight is at best limited.

Just as sight is positive, blindness is negative and replaces the idea of seeing wherever a negative vibration is required. So, for example "cigarette" /siigaret/ becomes /blainjaret/ "blindgarete". This type of replacement forms the basis of another process ... A word like "oppress" as a term to describe the action of keeping a man down, is unacceptable to the man who feels the pressure. In Rasta it becomes "downpress", and "downpression" replaces "oppression". ... A more straightforward process accounts for words that retain their English/ JC forms but change their meanings.

Some examples are:

| /faawod/ forward | to leave, depart |
| /babilan/ Babylon | any person seen as representative of the Euro -centred Establishment |

Finally, there are new words, innovations, words whose forms are new but whose meanings, on investigation, reveal some semantic logic.

Pollard, V. 2000. DreadTalk Canoe / McGill-Queen's: pp. 55–57

Activity 5

1. List the aspects of Jamaican philosophy which the extract indicates that Rastafari reject.

2. Identify a non-mainstream community or group which uses distinct language features to reflect its values. List, with examples, some of these.

Feature substitution and code-switching

Other strategies we may use to express alternative identities include word substitution, and/or switching from one language/variety/register to another, during an on-going interaction. ***Code-switching*** may be multifunctional, depending on our context.

Extract 4 comes from a medical talk-radio show in Jamaica. The British-born host, having lived in Jamaica for several decades, has developed an alternative Creole radio identity to her Standard English professional voice, in which she provides simplified medical explanations. Here, she proposes an explanation, in Creole, for her caller to present to his girlfriend, from whom he has been hiding:

Extract 4: Talk-radio suggestions

Doctor:	Why don't you ask her if she minds seeing it. I bet you'll find that she'd rather have you even with the bumps.
Caller:	Yeh.
Doctor:	Than have nobody.
Caller:	Yeh.
Doctor:	So why don't you talk to her about it. Call her up first of all an tell her, "the reason you don't see me is because a cover up wid bump an' it look ugly an' I feel shy"'.
Caller:	Mhm.
Doctor:	And see what she say.

Shields Brodber, K. 2006. 'Is the pain in your belly bottom?' In Simmons-McDonald, H. & I. Robertson (eds.) Exploring the Boundaries of Caribbean Creole languages. UWI Press: p. 203

In extract 5, Miss Jess objects to her godchildren's impolite discourse:

Extract 5: Goddy's concerns

One Christmas when they came home to spend the holidays with their grandparents, they paid their godmother a visit, the first in a long while. The visit did not go well, because Miss Jess was not pleased with their manners and appearance. She expected them not only to be polite and pleasant, but more respectful and 'mannersable'. She did not have much experience with teenagers from the big city. Though they were not disrespectful, they were far from the humble and meek children she expected. For example, they answered "yes" and "no" as necessary, not the "Yes Goddy Jess" or "No Goddy Jess" as was customary for country children to say, and as she expected them to. To top it all, the young lady had arrived at her grandmother's house in a scanty rib tickler and a short shorts, the in-thing for teenagers. The young man had on a sleeveless T-shirt out of his pants, sorry out of his tight knee-length bike shorts. Miss Conse, when she saw them on the road, also disapproved with the remark "Is what dem young people coming to."

Lee, Easton. 'Godmother' In Run big 'fraid ... and other village stories. Bala Press: pp. 72–73

Activity 6
1. Read extract 4, then re-write the Creole sections in appropriate English.
2. What information does the switch provide us about the doctor, her audience and the purposes of her programme?

Activity 7
Read extract 5 then answer the following questions.
1. What differences in backgrounds explain the problem?
2. Write separate paragraphs explaining (with examples) alternative ways of expressing greetings, farewells, reminders, requests, reprimands, used by specific social groups you identify with.

Challenges in projecting an educated English identity

Learning outcomes:

- to explain some of the social pressures for projecting an English language identity
- to discuss possible social consequences of inadequate mastery of English, when that language is targeted.

One of the requirements of projecting a language identity is having a grasp of the features which characterise it. If it is an educated identity we wish to project, we are likely to have learnt it school, or some other institution. Contextual pressures will militate against our being successful, especially if we are aware of our limitations.

The extracts that follow provide examples to demonstrate how those communicating grapple with the problems to be overcome in mastering the lexical choices, grammatical relations, idioms and registers of their target language, English.

In extract 1, the character Tiger is trying to transform his profile as a primarily Creole-speaking common labourer to that of a proficient speaker of educated English. He has taught himself to read and is learning multi-syllable words from the dictionary, which he practices with his social superiors. Having invited his American bosses home for Indian food, he consciously attempts to impress them:

Extract 1: Tiger targets English

"My humble abode is not a massive structure, but I going to construct a building as soon as financial embarrassment over." (p.156)

"My wife could really cook good, your mouth will run water – I mean – your salivary glands will run when you eat that food." (p. 167)

"I was small, just a juvenile, and stupid then. My father did well vex with me afterwards, he say I should have waited for more things before eating. But you know how it is when you small and stupid, chief! Sometimes I does thing that if I did, am, hesitated more, life would have been different. I would have plenty more things. But is only when you mature you does reflect all of that!" (p.167)

Selvon, S. 1952. A Brighter Sun. Longman Caribbean: p. 156, 167

Other Trinidadian peasants use different tactics. In extract 2, a Chinese shop owner comments on response of local peasants when the overseer's white wife is there:

Extract 2: Imitating greetings

'An if she in the shop here to buy," Tall Boy said, "everybody else stop talking and stay like statues until she gone. And after, they trying to talk like how she talk, "good morning, isn't it a lovely day." In the end, Boysie had to open up account with groceries in town and have the goods deliver by van.'

Selvon, S. 1959. Turn Again, Tiger. St. Martin's Press: p. 214

Extract 3 illustrates Naipaul's hero, Ganesh, employing a different tactic, deciding to practise English at home with his wife Leela:

Extract 3: Ganesh targets English

One day he said, "Leela, is high time we realise that we living in a British country and I think we shouldn't be shame to talk the people language good."

Activity 1

Read extract 1, then complete the activity:

1. List the specific limitations in producing English which Tiger exhibits.
2. What pressures does his situation impose?
3. Rewrite his words in English appropriate for the occasion.
4. What benefits or disadvantages can be derived from imitating the speech of others?

Leela was squatting at the kitchen *chulba*, coaxing a fire from dry mango twigs. Her eyes were red and watery from the smoke. "All right, man."

"We starting now self girl."

"As you say, man."

"Good. Let me see now. Ah yes, Leela, have you lighted the fire? No, just gimme a chance. Is "lighted" or "lit", girl?"

"Look, ease me up, man. The smoke going in my eyes."

"You ain't paying attention girl. You mean the smoke *is* going in your eye."

Naipaul, V. S. 1957. The Mystic Masseur. André Deutsch: p. 72

Activity 2

Read extract 3, then complete the activity:

1. What feature of English does Ganesh target?
2. List the other problems which characterise Ganesh and Leela's speech.
3. Rewrite their conversation in English.

Sometimes, our efforts at projecting an alternative language identity are compounded by our inability to produce the discourse style related to our target. In other words, we may not adhere to the requirements of register, organising principles, tone, politeness and other conventions characteristic of formal speech and writing. In extract 4, Tiger misses the mark in his attempt at public speechmaking.

Extract 4: Tiger's speech

Tiger saw a chance to prove he was getting to be a man. He said: "I is the man of the house. And I have to answer Joe toast."

Urmilla moved with a sixth sense and filled the glasses again. Tiger looked at her and smiled and she knew she had done the right thing.

But when he began to talk he found it wasn't going to be easy as he thought, even with the rum in his head. "Well", he began waveringly, "… we …glad to have family and friends here today, especially as the baby born. Is true we not rich and we have only a small thing here but still is a good thing. So let we make a little merry for the baby. I should really begin different, I don't know what happen to me. I should say: "Ladies and gentlemens" and then make speech. But I cannot speechify good. I would learn though…". That was as far as he could go. He felt he would talk foolishness if he continued, and he gulped his drink.

Selvon, S. 1952. A Brighter Sun. Longman Caribbean: p. 52

Activity 3

Read extract 4, then complete the activity:

1. Note and revise all the problematic aspects of Tiger's presentation.
2. Write a speech for Tiger to deliver on another occasion, at a similar event.

Writing in an educated style provides its own challenges. This is especially so when we are moving across more than one register – for example, casual speech to formal writing. One characteristic of colloquial writing is that an individual has the licence to stray from convention, or even develop new ones. In extract 5, the author presents her voice as that of her protagonist, Bekka, who vividly captures the spirit of confusion which she is experiencing.

Extract 5: Bekka's confusion

And I confuse confuse because one mind in me say that I should study and pass exam so that I can go to high school and speak good and wear pretty dress and high heel shoes like Miss Martin the other teacher and Teacher Wife who is also a teacher and I think it would really grieve Dulcie to see me succeed like that because she always fas'ing with me head and I have to wear her old dress and she tell everybody is ol bruck I wear but is only because she stupid and cant pass anything at all and even though she older than me Teacher put us in the same class an if I turn teacher I could get me hair straighten just like Teacher Wife. And I confuse because another voice say that MeMa will vex and she wont give me any encouragement even if I pass scholarship and Pa say he dont business.

Senior, O. 1986. Summer Lightning and other stories. Longman Group Ltd: p. 111

Bekka is interested in sharing her concerns, in her own language. Now let us suppose that this is the first draft of what will be a report on her challenges, which she intends to present to her guidance counsellor. She will have to edit and restructure it.

Activity 4

1. Develop a list of adjustments/additions Bekka will have to make to make it English, in:
   a. its grammatical, lexical and idiomatic features
   b. the conventions of writing, such as spelling, punctuation, sentence structure
   c. the introduction and development of each point in a paragraph
   d. the development and logical flow of ideas.
2. Rewrite the extract as a first person report in formal, written English.
3. Write a justification for the kinds of changes you had to make, then discuss it with your peers and teacher.

Exposition

Exposition is a discourse type in which we clarify, classify, illustrate and analyse information. There are many kinds of exposition. We may be asked, for example, to provide an extended definition of a concept - not just in a word or phrase, but in terms of its properties, uses and so on. Since expository discourse aims at fostering readers' understanding, rather than appealing to their sensitivities or strongly-held opinions, we are required to present an objective view of the topic being examined, in a focused, clear and dispassionate manner.

Important considerations in determining the language, register and style we will use to make expository presentations are our purpose, the audience, the context of our communication and the means by which we will deliver it. The expository (academic) essay, a written genre, requires formal register and style, in Caribbean Standard English.

In extract 6, the author is responding to the following instructions given in a University of the West Indies Mona proficiency test:

'Write a FORMAL ESSAY **of about 300 words** on the following set question …'

Extract 6: Skin bleaching

'I strongly believe that we should love our skin, therefore I don't think anyone whatsoever should destroy it. I believe that we black people should respect our colours bearing our ancestors in mind, and also our heroes and heroines that fought for us in time of slavery so that we can be free now.

People, our skin is too sensitive and beautiful for us to be destroying it. After all, none of us made ourselves, none of us choose to be black. I guess none of us knows what God is doing, but trust me he does.

…
What little I know about relationships is that it should not be about the colour of a person's skin it should be about love, trust and communication. So if someone is persuading you to do it, leave them instantly, they don't want you.'

2007 English Language Proficiency Test of the University of the West Indies, Mona

Activity 2
1. Make notes on all the language, stylistic and other features in extract 6 which are problematic.
2. Decide on the gaps in information which have to be filled, and the main ideas to be developed in separate paragraphs.
3. Rewrite extract 6, so that it becomes a model answer to the question.
4. Exchange and discuss your answers with your peers.

Did you know?

A philosopher, Grice, has formulated what he calls 'The Cooperative Principle' along with the accompanying maxims:

Quantity

1. Make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current purposes of the exchange).

2. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

Quality

Try to make your contribution one that is true.

1. Do not say what you believe to be false.

2. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

Relation: Be relevant
Manner

1. Be perspicuous

2. Avoid obscurity of expression

3. Avoid ambiguity

4. Be brief

5. Be orderly

Although these maxims were not meant for such a purpose, they should provide you with excellent guidance in developing your academic writing.

Learning outcomes:

- to identify some of the new functions that Creoles perform today
- to discuss how these new functions contribute to a positive Caribbean identity.

Traditionally, Creoles have functioned primarily as oral languages for private interaction. However, as you will discover in this section, in the last 50 years or so, we have been increasingly using them in public domains previously reserved for English, such as talk radio, the print media and literature. Linguists have also been providing us with evidence of their legitimacy as languages, and the grammatical, idiomatic and semantic differences which have to be addressed to facilitate students' mastery of formal, written English.

Activity 1

The extracts in this section are newspaper reports, letters and opinion columns, as well as literature, published from the 1970s to the present. Also included are verses from the Bible, translated into Creole.

Refer to archives on the Internet and those held at media houses in your territory, as well as the literature of the region, to develop your own data bank of letters, opinion columns, and literary excerpts of the same period. Then answer the following questions, with reference to specific examples from the given extracts and your own sources, suitably cited:

1. How would you describe the language(s) and register(s) of each extract?

2. In comparison with the examples you have found from each period, would you say the given extracts are typical of their time? Why/why not?

3. Compare the language and register of opinion columns and letters to the editor in the examples which you have collected. What reasons would you suggest for the differences, if any?

4. Are there any specific changes you have noticed in the use of language during the period? If so, what are they?

5. What benefits or disadvantages do the writing systems (orthography) of the given extracts pose?

6. Rewrite all of the given extracts in formal Caribbean Standard English. Discuss your answers with your peers and teacher.

Extract 1: Letter from Port of Spain (26-03-78)

Dear Boysie,

Well is Easta weeken again and between you and me Boysie while everybody and dey cousin nennen gorn or going by de sea is homebay for me. If is one ting I cyar take orn is de crowds an all de eatin and drinkin an people driving on de road as if dey gorn mad.

Too besides all dis talk I hearin bout African bee dat down de main and flying over de sea to come an sting we here have me well friten so I keeping far from de sea.

Boysie I read in de Guardian how dese bees cyar resist sweet people, so yuh know de furst person dem lookin for wen dey lan is you gurl Mamits. Well I decide I too smart for dat an dey go have to look well far because I take cover long time.

Uncle Charlie say he ent fraid no bees, African or Russian, an it ent have no bee dat keeping him from de beach dis big Easter weeken, so as usual he going on a lime by Los Iros. Well dat good I stopping home and takin it cool cool.

Mamits 26 March, 1978. 'Letter from Port of Spain'. Trinidad Sunday Guardian. p. 12
Reproduced in Winer, L. 1993. Trinidad and Tobago. John Benjamins:167

Extract 2: Action needed on street children

"There have been too many meetings and talk of what needs to be done, and little or no action. Lawd! Mi a talk bout it fi 10 years now! But a only when yuh hear the street boy bruk in a house and shoot an uptown lady that dem get attention," says the frustrated long-time advocate of street children, in reference to an incident in which police say they removed the leader of an organised armed gang of street boys called the 'In The Streets' gang."

Jamaica Gleaner. 29-02-2007

Extract 3: Eddie get run out

Mi do understand seh Maas Eddie woulda ha fi a put goat mout pon Bredda Bruce. After Maas Eddie have im in training fi so long, Bruce get tired a wait fi captain di team. Im can't linger linger fi Eddie mek im century. So im dis walk off di field. Im mash up di game an a force Maas Eddie fi get run out. Look how di whole JLP side a collapse. Dem naa score no runs. … If me was Maas Eddie me wouldna did mek tings get so bad. Me woulda did call Bruce one side long time an gi im a lickle prips.'

Cooper, C. 1995. '(W)uman Tong(ue)' Opinion column, Jamaica Observer.

Extract 4: A fighting chance

ME DEAR mam, de other day me deh a foreign an go buck up inna two foreign man a try a ting. Claim seh dem a fight. Tump. Two lilly more tump like smady weh a dead fe hungry. An den fight done. Dis in time fe police car buss de corner come roun an de coward gadda foot an gillup. Suh me seh to meself seh koo yah!

A wah kine a fight dis? Ova before it even start? An a wah kine a fight dis weh, while it a galang, people a go bout dem binnis said way? Suh, me dear mam, me begin laugh to meself an seh is a pity seh dem ya foreign man neva deh bout when me a pickney a grow a yard cause den is when dem woulda see de real kine a fight …'

Keane-Dawes, J. 2002. 'Dear Jamaica' Opinion Column, Jamaica Gleaner, May 2002

Extract 5: Tiefin razor blade

'It had a time when things was really brown in Trinidad and Razor Blade couldn't make a note nohow, no matter what he do, everywhere he turn, people telling him they ain't have work. It look like if work scarce like gold, and is six months now he ain't working.

Besides that, Razor Blade owe Chin parlor about five dollars, and the last time he went in for a sandwich and a sweet drink, Chin tell him no more trusting until he pay all he owe. Chin have his name in a copybook under the counter.

Was the rain what cause him to tief a pair of shoes from a shoemaker shop in Park Street. Is the first time he ever tief, and it take him a long time to make up his mind. He stand up there on the pavement by this shoemaker shop, and be thinking things like, Oh God, when I tell you I hungry, and all the shoes around the table, on the ground, some capsize, some old and some new, some getting halfsole and some getting new heel.'

Selvon, S. 1974. 'Calypsonian'. In Livingston, J. Caribbean Rhythms. Washington Square Press: pp. 86–87

Extract 6: Beccka

'Beccka tell him what she have in the bundle. Mr. O'Connor shock.

"What, no money?"

"Oooh!"

Beccka shame like anything for she never remember anything about money.

"Well you need money for running away you know. How else you going to pay for trains and planes and taxis and buy ice cream and pindar cake?"

Beccka didn't think about any of these things before she run away. But now she see that is sense Mr. O'Connor talking but she dont know what to do. So the two of them just stand up there for a while. They thinking hard.

"You know Beccka if I was you I wouldn't bother with the running away today. Maybe they don't find out you gone yet. So I would go back home and wait until I save enough money to run away properly next time."'

Senior, O. 1986. 'Do Angels wear brassieres?' In Summer Lightning and other stories. Longman Group Ltd: p.78

You will notice that extract 7 uses a different orthography from the others. It is the Cassidy-LePage Creole writing system used by linguists, and once explained, is simple to understand. Study the examples in the *Did You Know?* box. Can you recognise a pattern in the symbols?

Did you know?

The Cassidy-LePage Creole Orthography

Symbols	Creole	English
ii	sii	see, sea
uo	buot, huol	boat, hole/hold
aa	waanin, staam	warning, storm
ai	kain, sain	kind, sign
ie	liek, wiev	lake, wave
o	go, op	go, up
ou	hou, nou	how, now
uu	nyuu, tuu	new, two
k	kaam, kom	calm, come
kl	likl, sekl	little, settle
jr	jrap, jriep	drop, drape
ng	dong, grong	down, ground

Extract 7: Jiizas kaam dong di staam

(Maak 4.35-41; Luuk 8.22-25)

²³Den Jiizas go iina di buot an im falara dem fala baka im. ²⁴Widoutn waanin wan wikid wikid staam kom dong pan di liek so di wiev dem staat flod di buot. Bot Jiizas did a sliip. ²⁵So im falara dem kom wiek im op. Dem se, "Laad siev wi! A ded wi a go ded nou!"

²⁶Bot im se tu dem se, "Ou unu friedi-friedi so? Unu chos iina Gad likl bit iihn?" Den im get op an tel di briiz an di sii fi sekl demself. An evriting jos sekl bak dong.

²⁷An di man dem jaa jrap a grong, dem se, "Bot a wa kain-a man dis ya? Aal briiz an sii lisn im an du wa im se!"

Matthew 8, verses 23-27 Di Jamiekan Nyuu Testiment
Creole: Jamaica Bible - New Testament | Unicode gospelgo.com/n/creole_jamaica_nt.htm

You may have found some of these passages hard to read, although, hopefully, you have found the exercises interesting. A question you may well be asking, however, is what all of this has to do with identity? As we discussed in this unit, identities are fluid; we construct them by performing them, in our interaction with others, and through our language. The writers in the given extracts have done just that; they have expressed their local identities in public contexts in which such discourse would have been excluded, historically. Of significance is the increasing use of authors' voices going outside of simply quoting vernacular speakers, to being vernacular speakers themselves – not just for comedy, but for expressing opinions serious and important issues.

Consider the following:

- All the writers of the given extracts have been able to use their Creole voice legitimately in a public-formal domain traditionally reserved for English. They have capitalised on their right to perform their linguistic identities in the languages of their choice.

- They have also been able to exhibit their literacy skills in their Creole language, providing evidence for those in doubt that this can be done successfully.

- There is a lot of variation in the orthographies used. Those adapted from English share its inconsistencies; however, as they will be easier for an international audience to read than the Cassidy-LePage version, they will more readily facilitate worldwide interaction with Creole communities.

- On the other hand, the adoption of a specific orthography for Creoles will emphasise the fact that they are languages with their own conventions different from those of English.

Becoming aware of the viability of our Creole languages in contexts such as those explored here, we should be more confident about expressing and accepting our Creole identities. We should also be able to use the material here as support for acknowledging our Creoles as languages in their own right.

13.1 Comparing Creole grammars

- to explain the importance of grammar in defining a language
- to compare some of grammatical features shared by English Creoles and French Creoles
- to make a case, with reference to specific examples, for Creoles following their own grammatical rules.

Linguists maintain that Creoles are languages with grammatical rules that are different from those of their European parent languages, although similar to those of their West African parents. They compare the grammars of Creoles across Caribbean territories with different European parents, to substantiate this point. Many people who are not convinced by this argument ask these three questions:

- Why not accept that Creoles are dialects of their European parents, since they share much of the same vocabulary?
- So what if their grammars are different and have links to African languages?
- If this is so significant, why not call them varieties of African languages?

Christie provides the following explanation, in relation to Jamaican Creole, and generally applicable to Creoles:

Extract 1: The importance of grammar in identifying a language

'While words are an important component of any language, syntax (that is the relation between words in a sentence) is to be considered to be more basic than vocabulary when it comes to characterising a language in terms of structure. One would not get very far in a foreign country by using only isolated words in the language of that country. Most of the syntax of Creole is radically different from the syntax of English or French or Spanish, for example, and in many cases where such differences exist, significant similarities between the syntactic structure of Creole and the syntactic structure of West African languages have been identified. Creole is no more a form of English because the bulk of Creole vocabulary is derived from English, than French is a form of Latin, the source of most of its vocabulary. Nor is it being claimed here that Creole is an African language, despite the similarities mentioned. There are reasonable grounds for considering it a language in its own right along with others of similar socio-historical background and structure, despite undeniable relationships with both English and West African languages.'

Christie, P. 2003. Language in Jamaica Arawak Publications: p. 28

✓ *Exam tip*

Use these specific examples to substantiate the claim that Caribbean creoles with different vocabularies follow similar grammatical rules.

As you are now aware, some Caribbean territories with English as an official language have French Creole vernaculars, which are syntactically similar to English creoles. Let us examine Alleyne's comparison of some of these similarities

Extract 2: Grammatical similarities in Creoles differing in vocabulary

The remarkable fact about all these Caribbean languages is that in contrast with their lexical diversity they show a high degree of structural similarity. I cite here a few examples of structural similarities giving French-based Creole examples first and Jamaican Creole examples second:

1. Both verbs and adjectives are predicates, and they are used syntactically in the same way.

a. *mwē malad/mi sick* – "I'm ill"

b. *mwē kuri/mi run* – "I run"

c. *mwē va malad/mi wi sick* – "I'll be ill"

d. *mwē va kuri/mi wi run* – "I'll run"

e. *m'ap malad /mi a sick* – "I am getting ill"

f. *m'ap kuri/mi a run* – "I'm running"

2. Plurals are formed by placing the third personal plural pronoun after the noun.

   Nom yo/di man dem – "the men"

3. Verbs and adjectives can be emphasised by being placed at the beginning of a sentence and then repeated.

   se kuri li ap kuri/a run im a run – "He is really running"

4. Verbs can be strung together without any connecting words.

   a. *mwē pote yo ale/mi carry dem go* – "I took them away' (literally, "I took them go")

   b. *kuri ale lese li/run go lef im* – "Run away and leave him"

5. Particles are placed before the predicate to express tense and aspect.

   a. *m'ap kuri/mi a run* – "I am running"

   b. *mwē te kuri/mi en run* – "I ran"

   c. *mwē t'ap kuri/mi en a run* – "I was running"

Alleyne, M. 1985. A Linguistic Perspective on the Caribbean. Woodrow Wilson International Center for Scholars: USA: p. 9–10

Did you know?

Aspect refers to whether the situation to which the verb refers is going on or completed.

Particles add meaning to the phrase in which they are used; they are never inflected.

Activity 1

Refresh your memory about the features, which McArthur identifies as characterising Creole grammars.

1. What do Creole nouns and verbs have in common, which is different from those in their European parent languages?

2. What can you infer from his examples about similarities in English Creole grammars across Caribbean territories?

Activity 2

Find examples from the Creole vernacular of your territory that illustrate the grammatical features compared by Alleyne. They are available in sources such as local stories, popular songs, poems, newspapers, radio and Internet websites. For example, *Carry go bring come* is a 1963 Jamaican hit performed by Justin Hinds and the Dominoes.

Extract 3: The man of the house! (Guyana)

Harry had a rowdy wife. The woman could pelt mo' blows than a boxer wid ten hands, especially when she had a broom in she hand! One day she corner Harry unda the bed and blows flying all 'cross he head! Whaddax! Whaddax! She peltin' blows and she bawlin':

Wife: You call yourself a man? Come out here and tek your blows like a man!

Harry bobbin' and weavin' and tryin' to dodge, but he couldn't get away from the blows! So he start bawl for he neighbor Thomas.

Harry: Thomas! Thomas! Help me! Ah gettin' mi ass buss! Ow, man! Come help you drinkin' pardner, nuh!

Well, Thomas hear he pardner and he come runnin' over to Harry house to see what going on. When he see how the woman got Harry, he tell he:

Thomas: Man, Harry. What happen to you, man. You ent the man o' the house?

Harry: Yeah…

Thomas: Well, talk for yourself nuh.

Harry: Dammit, Thomas! You damn right! I is the man o' the house and whatever I say, goes. And I say I ent coming out from unda dis damn bed!

Laugh Story - Guyana Outpost: Wayne's Guyana Page
guyanaoutpost.com/laughs.shtml

Extract 4: Lazy Simon (Belize Kriol)

Once upon a time, (when time was time) neh mi gat wah bwai weh mi lazy bad. One day, ih pa giah wah gun suh ih gaan dah bush gaah huntin'. Wen ih get deh, ih decide fi tek wah lee liddung gence wah tree.

Wen ih look up, ih si wah big snake. Ih hurry jump up ah shoot di snake, den grab ih gun ah look fi staat pell-mell bak home.

But as ih staat aff, ih yer wah voice behine ah, ih hurry look 'roun but ih nuh si nobadi! Di only thing weh ih si dah di snake di liddung pan di goun'.

Ih naily pitch puppah-lik wen ih yer di snake seh 'koh pick mi up! koh pick mi up! You Saiman Dudu, you lazy pickney, koh pick mi up!'

Saiman neva mean fi stan up deh ah lissen to no snake, suh di snake jump pan ah ah wrap ihself roun' Saiman nek. Poh Saiman run home wid di snake fass'n pah ih nek.

Wen ih reach home, ih ma seh 'Bwai, weh you gwine wid dah big dead snake?' Saiman seh ,'ih nuh dead, ih cud talk!'.

Den di snake koh aff ah ih nek and staat seh 'Koh skin mi now! Koh skin mi now! Saiman Dudu, Koh skin mi now!... Suh ih skin di snake. Dat neva enuff, di snake staat seh 'Koh beri mi now! Koh beri mi now!

Well, wi all kno by now Saiman lazy bad, Anyway, ih mi kno weh wah wee-wi hole mi deh, suh ih kerr di snake and foce ah down di wee-wi hole, but as usual, lazy mek ih figgit fi bring di snake skin, Suh di snake staat wid ih 'Guh bring mi skin! Guh bring mi skin! Saiman Dudu you betta guh bring mi skin!'

Saiman Dudu had to gaan bak fi di skin beka ih fraid fi di snake no puss bak foot. Ih foce ah dung di wee-wi hole fi di snake.

Wen di snake get ih skin, ih tell Saiman 'Yu know why ah du yu dis? Da beka yu to lazy, di neks time wen yu puppa or mumma ask yu fi du sunthin, du am beka, if ah aftu koh bak ah wah du yu suntin plenty wussara dan dis.'

Suh Saiman run gaan home an fah datti day, ih laan ih less'n. Neva lazy nuh-mo…AND, if the pin neva ben, story neva enn.

(Belizean Creole narration by Ellie Gillett)
http://www.villageviewpost.com/2011/04/belizean-folklore-lazy-saiman.html

In the following extract, a mother in London chides her daughters.

Extract 5: Wash the dishes!

(Example 1)

Line 4	Valerie	(bet you) not washin' up the dishes
6	Laverne	nor me! I'm goin' over to the park anyway t-
7	Mother	unu better go wash up di dishes!

(Example 2)

1	Mother	Laverne, a your turn to wash up the dishes
2	Laverne	I said me na a do it (giggle)
3	Mother	you a joke man (pause) come on man (you no) finish
4		wi' what you doin' (there) an wash the dishes come on man …
32	Mother	me na say a word

Sebba, M. 1993. London Jamaican Longman: pp. 175–6

Activity 3
Identify the features that indicate the Mother in extract 5 is of Caribbean heritage.

Learning outcomes

To distinguish between formal CSE and Caribbean English Creoles, in terms of:

- local vocabulary
- word meanings
- compounding mechanisms
- new-word creation
- African survivals.

Activity 1

1. Write a list of six items in each of the following categories, and their formal CSE equivalents/translations:

   - everyday/slang words
   - words such as *ignorant* with different meanings
   - compound words such as *nose-hole*
   - local onomatopoeic words such as *banggarang*
   - local idiomatic expressions such as *kiss/hiss/suck teeth*
   - words such as *cry-cry*
   - local proverbs.

2. Read the extracts on this spread then substitute your examples from question 1 to ensure that you can discuss their content, with specific reference to your territory.

3. Discuss your answers with your classmates and teacher.

Extract 1: Local usage

' ... since [vocabulary] inevitably reflects the environment in which a language is used, there are several words in general use which represent local flora, fauna and culture. [Some] preserve dialectal usage in Britain, or reflect changes in the grammatical function or the meanings of the original input forms. ...Others are ... Caribbean innovations, some of which are partly traceable to African sources.

... the attraction of an external standard in writing has led to false semantic associations, as in the case of the pejorative Jamaican *facety* 'impudent, bold, rude, overbearing' being written as *feisty*, a form commonly used in the United States with positive connotation. (p 68)

Christie, P. (2014). 'English in Today's World'. In Robertson, I. and H. Simmons-McDonald (eds.) Education Issues in Creole and Creole-Influenced Vernacular Contexts. UWI Press: 63–77

Activity 2

Use the sources recommended for this module, or any others specific to your territory, to expand your list of local examples in the four categories mentioned in extract 1.

Extract 2: Compounding and reduplication

'... Combinations such as *man dog* 'male dog', *cry water* 'tears', *bush tea* 'traditional liquid herbal medicine' are examples of specialisation, whilst *hard ears* 'persistently disobedient', *sweet mouth* 'given to flattery', *big eye* 'avaricious', *hand to mouth* 'never having enough to put aside some for another day' are examples of abstraction. ... Combinations may be in fact simple repetitions (*little-little, holey-holey*) which give different shades of meaning, or there may be repetition of words of the same class – *bull-cow, boar-pig, ram-goat, rock-stone, glass-bottle* ('broken glass') – which give more precise information.

Roberts, P. West Indians & Their Language : Cambridge: 80, September 1990

Activity 3

1. Which examples in extract 2 reflect *reduplication*?
2. Find and note a linguistic definition of the term.

Extract 3: African survivals: compounding and calquing

... 'above all others it is sub-Saharan African 'talk' that emerges in this work as the sharpest, if so far unacknowledged or even rejected, influence on today's Caribbean English 'talk'. ...

Let the reader look at items like **cut-eye, hard-ears, suck-teeth**, etc. --- Caribbean compounds of English words as labels of Caribbean particularities of behaviour for which the etymological explanations are found in African languages. They are all folk-translations, in word and deed, of African cultural 'modes'. Everyday phrases, too,

such as **You do well!, let your hand drop, got to call somebody aunt/ uncle, pick up your foot/heels and run, run your mouth,** etc. are ways of putting things calqued or 'copy-translated' from one or another, sometimes several sub-Saharan African languages. These idioms reflect an African life-view and there are hundreds of them surviving in Caribbean English ...

Moreover, many aspects of Caribbean life – foods, festivals, ceremonies, beliefs, practices related to births, marriages, cures, burials, etc., have a massive vocabulary, which is sometimes suggestively African. ...

... in regard to Caribbean language in general, it can be demonstrated many times over that the structure and sense of a Caribbean Anglophone basilectal/mesolectal Creole idiom or proverb parallel those of a Francophone Caribbean Creole idiom or proverb. Thus for example –

koupé zié	[to] cut [your] eye [at somebody] ...
ou ni djèl-kabwit	you have goat-mouth ...
zòwèy-li wèd	his ears [are] hard

The significant point here is that neither are the French Creole structures modelled on Standard French idiomatic or other structures nor are the Anglophone Creole structures modelled on Standard English structures. Nor can they in fact have been modelled on each other. Their *identical* structure can only be accounted for by their having a common ancestor. ... an *African way of putting things* originating in African sub-Saharan language, the Niger-Congo family of languages.

Allsopp, R. (1996). Dictionary of Caribbean English Usage. Oxford: xxxii – xxxiv

---

Activity 4

Use Allsopp (1996) to identify examples from your territory of words and expressions that have been 'calqued' from Sub-Saharan African languages of extract 3.

Extract 4: Abstract thought and Creole proverbs

'Creole does not use abstract vocabulary to express abstract concepts, but it can express the basic concepts so expressed in other languages, using non-abstract terminology. Jamaican proverbs express a range of truths using Creole. For example. 'Kowad man kip soun buon' (Literally 'Coward man keeps sound bones') expresses the same idea as 'Discretion is the better part of valour' and 'Chrobl kech man mongki brichiz fit im' (literally 'Trouble catches man, monkeys' breeches fit him') has an English counterpart in 'Necessity is the mother of invention'. Riddles in Creole provide further evidence of people whose thought processes were more than adequate, even if they were presented in concrete language.

Christie, P. (2003). Language in Jamaica. Arawak Press: 29

Activity 5

Using your own knowledge or the Internet, list:

1. six Jamaican proverbs and their English equivalents
2. six local proverbs shared by other Caribbean territories you identify.

To explain challenges faced by Creole or Creole-influenced vernacular speakers in learning Caribbean Standard English in terms of:

- inadequate language awareness
- social and psychological barriers to learning
- fewer opportunities to practise formal English
- inconsistent models of English in traditional public-formal contexts.

Social, psychological and linguistic issues

Developing students' mastery of English, the language of international communication, is a major aim of schooling in the Caribbean. In the so-called 'English-speaking' territories, it is the official variety associated with government, educational institutions, the media, business establishments and financial institutions that is considered important. It is expected in job applications and interviews, essays, reports and proposals, appraisals, written and some aspects of spoken customer service, for instance.

- Why is it, therefore, that, even after years of schooling and being taught English as a subject, so many Creole speakers still have not mastered it?
- And what contribution do the following make: the wider social context; inadequate available opportunities for meaningful interaction in English; teachers' attitudes and classroom approaches; learners' motivation and their ability to recognise and produce the target?

Social prejudices as psychological disincentives to learning

One finding of psychologists is that speakers whose first language is socially and educationally stigmatised often lack the motivation to participate meaningfully in other languages. This is because a rejection of their home language translates to a threat, with its consequent negative repercussions, to their primary identity. As Creole/vernacular learners of English, therefore, we need to understand:

- the bases on which societies make comparative judgments about language;
- the historical foundations on which social prejudices against Creole languages have been developed and *disseminated*.

Interestingly, cultural stereotypes about masculinity being exhibited in non-standard language use are also promoted in many Western and Caribbean countries. This has left young males who aspire to be 'macho' little incentive to speak Standard English consistently, and has even led to their over-reporting of their use of the vernacular, when questioned about their language.

Activity 1

How, specifically, are the ingrained prejudices of Caribbean society against Creole vernaculars, as well as gender biases, contributing to the identity crises and the lack of motivation to master English, which many young people seem to be experiencing? Discuss with your classmates.

Activity 2

1. Under what conditions have you had to perform an English language identity and with what success?
2. How have the following specifically contributed to your motivation to speak and write English?
   - expectations of society
   - efforts of your teachers
   - attitudes of your peers.
3. What personal responsibility (with reasons) would you claim for your performance in English at school?
4. Review and critique examples you collect of non-standard usage in written or spoken public-formal communication.

Fewer opportunities for practice in the target language

Language learning must provide opportunities for us to practise, and therefore to reinforce and apply the linguistic skills we have acquired to various communicative tasks. For many Caribbean speakers, English is restricted to formal presentations in contexts associated with, for example, news reports, interviews, advisories and speechmaking in public domains.

As contemporary public life in our region has become generally more relaxed, educated communicators often choose a colloquial style for what would have been, traditionally, formal presentations, commentaries and media interviews in public domains. Delivering a speech or participating in a formal conversation, they may also opt to switch to Creole, for a number of reasons. This means that public oral presentations cannot be relied on as models of consistently formal Caribbean Standard English (CSE).

Here is an approach you may collaborate on with your peers, in order to create material and occasions for oral group-practice sessions in formal CSE:

- Engage in extensive reading and discussion of the resource material in your syllabus, study guides, text books, documentaries, newspaper editorials, opinion columns, published texts of speeches.

- With the advice of your teacher, develop a data base of model examples in CSE from different categories of formal oral and written texts.

- Make notes on the salient linguistic, organisational, stylistic and other discourse features which characterise each text; then assess the text's overall effectiveness, in relation to its context, target audience and purpose.

- Using these source texts as models, compose written-to-be-read formal presentations in various categories. Edit them thoroughly, then have your peers critique them.

- Practise, and then deliver oral presentations of your revised texts to groups of your classmates and teacher.

> **Activity 3**
> Prepare an opinion column on the following motion: Classrooms are becoming informal settings which facilitate students' participation, but ultimately limit their opportunities to practise formal English.

Basic target language awareness

In this module, we have been emphasising, through an analysis of extracts from Caribbean literature, that performing an authentic alternative language identity is hard work. We need awareness of the principles of both languages, and practice in applying them. So you have been identifying and translating into formal CSE the following linguistic and discourse features of colloquial Creole/vernacular usage:

- plural marking
- pronoun marking
- tense and time reference
- verb structures
- sentence structure
- word choice, meanings and compounding
- idiomatic expressions
- register differentiation and other discourse conventions.

Of course, we may decide to quote someone, or to switch register or code for specific contextual purposes. When we intend to produce formal CSE, however, we must make certain to adhere to the grammatical and discourse conventions of that variety. Only then will we demonstrate communicative competence as we perform an authentic CSE identity.

Other problems in formal English grammar

Below are other grammar and discourse features, which are considered to be diverging from accepted formal (especially written) Caribbean Standard English:

Extract 1: Four deviations from English norms

Category 1

A. Attraction of singular/plural modifiers preceding the verb

1. *Some members of staff at the United States Embassy *is* to return home. (radio news broadcast)
2. *Smoking ganja and other illegal drugs *are* not permitted. (public notice)

B. Use of whom for the subject of a clause

*The school's motto must reflect the core values of all *whom* pass through. (speech by government minister at a public function)

Both sets of examples illustrate usage, which is becoming increasingly frequent in formal spoken and written English in Jamaica. These same trends are evident to some extent in the United Kingdom and the United States as well … .

1. *A fleet of ambulances *were* waiting. (BBC News)
2. *The crew of three boats carrying forty-two cases of whisky included an eighty-four-year-old man *whom* Customs Officers suggested should have his pension docked. (report in the *Times of London*)
3. *… another man *whom* the police say should have been questioned. (news report on CBS programme, *48 Hours Mystery*)

Category 2

A. Hypercorrected forms

1. a. *[hiz] 'is'
   b. *[hevri] 'every'
2. a. *Pope *Threads* Carefully (newspaper headline)
   b. *Harmond* Barracks (notice in a newspaper)

Hypercorrection indicates that the user has a false idea of the relevant English norms. The cases illustrated here also indicate that the users were trying to avoid usage associated with the creole end of the continuum. Thus, in example, the users were conscious that English words with initial /h/ often have creole counterparts without the initial aspiration, so they overcompensated by producing it where the Standard English words in question begin with vowels. In the second set of examples, it is the spelling that is affected by the effort to avoid creole usage. …

B. Malapropisms

1. *Some of the island's leading money lenders are *barking* at government's proposal to tax the interest earned by Jamaicans who hold its global bonds. (newspaper report)
2. *The car travelled a *considerate* distance. (television news report)

Uncertainty as to the relevant Standard English norm also accounts for malapropisms. ... In the first example, the less familiar *balk* is confused with *bark*, and in the second, *considerate* is confused with *considerable*.

Other examples of Category 2 deviations ... include absence of inflection on past participles as well as on nouns with plural meaning as in, for example,

1. *His father was *rob* and *kill*.
2. *thousands of *insect*
3. *one of the *thing*

Hypercorrection occurs here too. It is most often manifested in:

1. Double marking (i.e. both the auxiliary and the main verb are inflected), as in
   *he did not *realised*
2. Inflection of the verb in complements of verbs of perception, as in:
   *I heard someone *called* out to me. (pp 73–75)

Christie, P. (2014). 'English in Today's world' In Robertson, I. and H. Simmons-McDonald (eds.) Education Issues in Creole and Creole-Influenced Vernacular Contexts. UWI Press: 63–77

Activity 4

1. What function does the asterisk serve in extract 1?

2. Use the newspapers to find, list and discuss with your teacher, examples of other deviations from formal, written CSE.

Discourse challenges

Extract 2: The indirect response

... In classrooms across the Caribbean teachers label it the 'irrelevant response' the 'rambling response', in any case the 'inaccurate response'. It is an elaborate response to a simple question and may or may not include the core of information specifically requested by the questioner. (p 87)

Example V11

Kingston Male

Q: So about how many people did it take to operate the mill?

R: We have a horse or a mule ... and YOU PUT IT IN ... and draw it go round and round ... and you have the part which is for the cane and squeeze out ... and the trash go one way and the liquor the other.

Q: So you all as children had to help him with this as well?

R: Yes. WE HELP AND CARRY THE CANE TO THE MILL ... tie it in bundle ... an carry it to the mill' (p 93)

Pollard, V. (1996). 'Cultural Connections'. In Christie, P. (ed.) Caribbean Language Issues Old and New. The Press UWI: 86–100

Activity 5

List and classify all sets of errors (including punctuation) in the example in extract 2, then rewrite the passage in formal, written CSE.

---

14 The process of communication

14.1   Elements in the process of communication

Did you know?

Symbols and artwork were the first methods of communication used by our ancestors.

Communication

Human interaction and socialisation are part of our daily lives. We communicate with our friends, teachers, co-workers, managers, in order to pass on information and share our thoughts, ideas, experiences or feelings. We communicate both verbally and non-verbally in order to do so. Without communication we would be cut off from the rest of the world and left out from many experiences.

The elements in the communicative process

If communication is successful, it facilitates positive results. If not, it can lead to delay and confusion. Effective communication involves a series of steps that must be done in a particular order, so as to achieve the goal of sending the desired message. The process of communication outlines those steps taken to successfully convey ideas, entertain, inspire or convince others of what we believe, in order to achieve the goal of communication. There are five key elements in the process of communication of a message:

- sender/encoder
- medium
- channel
- receiver/decoder
- feedback.
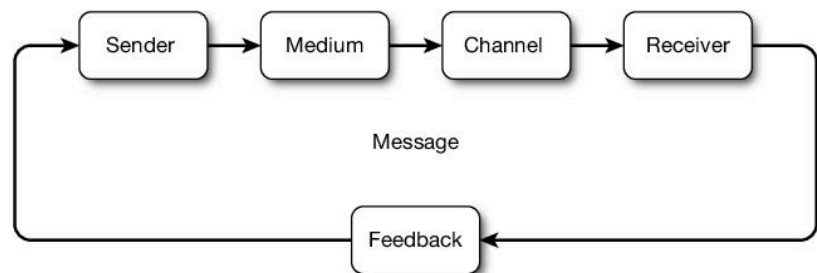
The message – The message is created by the sender in order to pass on desirable information. The message can take any form, for example a text message, email, memo, letter, a nod of the head (to suggest consent) etc. There are a number of aspects to keep in mind when designing the message:

- the message should be stated clearly and precisely based on the purpose intended
- the receiver/audience must be kept in mind (age, culture, background, profession)
- the vocabulary, choice of words, symbols, facial expressions must be considered when designing the message.

Activity 1

Place the medium and channels of communication from the box below into one of the categories of communication: written, verbal, non-verbal, social media.

Electronic bulletin, a dance, a speech, a report, an e-mail, a memo, a pantomime, a monologue, a blog, sign-language, a debate, a painting, a picture.

The sender/encoder – This refers to the individual or group who is responsible for sending the message to the receiver. At this point, the message is *conceptualised* (thought of) by the group or individual who becomes the source of the message. This can be, for example, a friend, a campaign manager, an employer, a political party, a school, a restaurant etc. At this point the sender:

■ decides on the objective of the message to be sent

■ chooses his/her code/ideas to be effectively transmitted – based on the objectives of the message

■ selects the most effective ways to transmit the message

■ keeps the receiver in mind based on the language, culture, levels of understanding and experiences of the receiver

■ decides on the most appropriate words and symbols to use

■ is conscious of his/her own behaviours – e.g. non-verbal gestures

■ pays attention to the different medium and channels of communication

■ is sensitive to the barriers in the communication process. (refer to section 16.6)

The medium – This refers to the ways in which communication takes place. It can be written (letter, memo, text message etc.) or it can be oral (a voicemail, telephone conversation or a discussion). It can be visual with the use of pictures and diagrams. It can also be non-verbal with the use of gestures and expressions or it can be virtual with the use of the social media such as a text messages or 'blogs'.

The channel – This is connected to the medium. It refers to devices or methods used to communicate the message. For example, the online mailing service provider is used to send an email; the postal service sends a letter; a telephone is used to send the oral message; and a billboard displays the picture advertisements.

The receiver – This refers to the individual or group of people who receive, interpret or decode the message. It is the target audience. The receiver also provides feedback to the sender. The receiver must have a similar language or cultural background if the message is to be communicated successfully. The receiver has several responsibilities in the communication process. The receiver must:

■ pay attention to the message

■ reduce any internal and external distractions around him

■ be conscious of personal bias – e.g. not judge sender based on appearance

■ use similar codes (language, vocabulary, cultural messages) to decipher the message

■ send the appropriate feedback, if necessary.

The feedback – This completes communication, and is a very important part of the communication process as it indicates whether communication has been successful or not. For example, if you sent out a letter of request and received a letter of approval, this is positive feedback. It indicates that the receiver/decoder understands or accepts your message. On the other hand, if you receive a 'mocking' response after a speech you have given, this is a negative feedback, indicating that the receiver has misunderstood or rejects your message.

Activity 2

Principal Gordon wants to get a message to the parents of Kashia Fletcher to come immediately to Alamanda Girls' High School in order to issue a suspension letter.

1. Conceptualise and compose the correspondence to be used.

2. Identify the medium and channel for the message to be effectively sent.

Activity 3

Read the advertisement below and answer the following:

1. Who is the sender of the advertisement?

2. Who is the receiver of the message?

3. What is the purpose of the advertisement?

4. What type of medium and channel can be used to communicate the information?

Ministry of Education of St. Kitts and Nevis

Home Work Centres: Let us help you to help your child

The Government has embarked on a project to assist parents and students after school with academic support.

One centre in every district.

EDUCATION IS ALL OF OUR BUSINESS

Learning outcomes

- to describe the communication process
- to explore the various aspects of the communication process
- to respond to questions based on the process of communication.

The communication process

As discussed, the communication process is a series of connected actions that work together to achieve the goal of conveying a message. The goal is not achieved until the intended message is correctly interpreted and the relevant actions follow. The initial stage involves the act of 'conceptualisation' and 'encoding' on behalf of the 'sender'. At this stage, the sender thinks of the best way to get the message across. This can be done through the written, verbal and non-verbal forms of communication and the social media. This stage is referred to as the 'medium' and 'channel' of communication (explored in 16.1). When we communicate, the message gets to the 'receiver'. At this stage it has to be 'decoded'. This involves the interpretation and understanding process. Finally 'feedback' is given when the message is received.

Let us explore each stage of the communication process:

Conceptualisation – The sender thinks about the purpose of the message and the type of information needed to convey it. Careful thought and consideration has to be given at this stage, as the information must capture the sender's intent.

Encoding – The sender decides on the most appropriate form of communication for sending a message. Consideration must be given to the receiver of the message and the purpose intended.

There are different types of communication, chosen according to the context/situation/environment of communication. (see diagram in margin).

Messages can be exchanged using two different forms of communication:

- verbal – oral and written form
- non-verbal – signs, symbols, pictures.

The form that you choose is determined by your specific purpose and situation. For example, if you have to relate a message to a hearing impaired person, you might use sign language.

Non-verbal communication does not include what is written or spoken and so it depends heavily on the use of the five senses. It refers to facial expressions, gestures, eye-contact, posture, body-movement and tone of voice. You can infer meaning from 'non-verbal behaviours' by interpreting the non-verbal cues accurately. Some behaviours are universal, for example, bending your head generally suggests you are uncomfortable with a situation.

☑ Exam tip

It is important to differentiate between the following:

- form of communication/type of communication
- feedback/response in the communicative process
- elements of communication/ process of communication
- non-verbal communication/non-verbal behaviours.

Some communicative behaviours are intentionally used in the communication process and as such, they are easy to interpret. At other times, the behaviours projected are unintentional and this can lead to a breakdown in the communication process (refer to section 16.6). It is worth remembering that non-verbal behaviours are sometimes cultural and one group of people may not be familiar with the behaviours of another, which can lead to breakdown in communication.

Decoding – The receiver interprets the message in order to understand the intended information. At this point, if the receiver decodes the message based on a narrow interpretation, or if the message has been encoded vaguely without taking into consideration the aim and the needs of the receiver, communication can break down and the message is lost.

Feedback – This is the receiver's response to the message and can be both positive and negative. It allows the sender to assess the message and determine whether the receiver has interpreted it in the desired way and allows the sender can assess the message and resend it if it is misunderstood.

Response – The responses are the actions that result from communication process. The sender looks for verbal or non-verbal responses to determine if the message has been understood or considered. Based on the receiver's response, the sender can adjust, continue or conclude the message.

Activity 4

Select the appropriate answer from the choices given.

1. Communication of a message takes place when:
   a. The receiver gets the message.
   b. It is communicated in front of an audience.
   c. It is understood by the receiver and produces the appropriate feedback.

2. What does the concept of 'encoding' mean in the communication process?
   a. A thought or idea that is translated and is sent from a sender to a receiver.
   b. A thought or idea that is processed by the receiver.
   c. Engaging in active communication with an audience.

3. Which is not a responsibility of the encoder?
   a. The language and culture of the receiver.
   b. The purpose of the message.
   c. The relationship between the sender and receiver.
   d. The nature of verbal messages.

4. What does the concept of 'decoding' means in the communication process?
   a. Receiving the sender's message.
   b. Interpreting the sender's message.
   c. Re-organising the sender's message.

5. What does feedback involve in the communication process?
   a. The way the receiver responds or does not respond to the message.
   b. The generation of ideas for the communication process.
   c. Only verbal communication.

Activity 1

The Minister of Health has visited an area that has been plagued with the Chikungunya virus caused by mosquitoes. She wants to address the members of the community on the hazards of the virus and the precautions necessary. As the communication specialist attached to her office, you are asked to compose an advertisement using a song for the local radio station.

1. State the three elements of the communication process that the communication specialist would need to consider before writing the advertisement.

2. Name two other forms of communication that the Minister of Health can use to deliver the message.

3. State one reason why the two forms of communication you identified in (b) might be more effective in delivering the message.

Activity 2

As the president of the drama club of your school, you are undertaking a project to put on a skit to alert the students at your school to the dangers of illegal drugs.

a. Suggest three mediums that could be used to convey the club's message effectively.

b. Select two of the mediums that you identified in (a) above and, for each, explain why it would be effective.

Activity 3

Mr. Josiah Picton, a technology lecturer at the University of the Caribbean, is preparing to speak to the teenagers at Morrison Secondary School about the dangers of the use of the Internet. List four aspects of the communication process that Mr. Picton must consider before making his speech to the students.

14.3 Communication channels and media

Learning outcomes

- to identify the most popular forms of channels for communication
- to select the most appropriate channel for the communication process
- to explore the use of different types of media in the communication process.

Activity 1

Organise the list of channels below in order of how 'rich' the form of communication is

Letters, emails, instant messages, phone-calls, teleconferencing, face-to-face meetings, video-conferencing, meeting, voicemail, fax.

Activity 2

Match the purposes of communication below with the relevant channel(s) from the following list.

1. get updates on a project
2. pass on simple information.
3. negotiate terms and agreement
4. conflict negotiation
5. large document for review
6. discussion on a new policy
7. urgent message
8. friendly discussion
9. delivery of personal document
10. message within an organisation
11. legal document
12. get update on progress

List of channels: radio, TV, cell phones, microphone, flyers, newspaper, voicemail, letters, video-conferencing, teleconferencing, Internet, symbols, signs, email, braille, fax.

Channel and messages

The channel of communication that you select is dependent on the message to be communicated. Different channels affect the message in different ways so it is advisable to think carefully about the type of message or the information that you have to communicate. Consider the following:

1. **Static communication** – delivery of a message that is not always dependent on feedback.
   - personal – e.g. voicemail
   - impersonal –e.g. letter, summary, report
2. **Interactive communication** – messages go back and forth.
   - personal – e.g. phone
   - impersonal – e.g. email, chat room
3. **Personal** – physical presence. This includes gestures, expressions, tone of voice, relationship building, and conflict resolution.
4. **Impersonal** – does not have to be face-to-face. This includes, for example, routine meetings, letters, fax messages and reports.

A 'rich' communication channel includes your physical presence and incorporates non-verbal cues such as facial expressions and body movement. Your presence provides the receiver with more information to interpret. This type of communication is used mainly for complicated messages. 'Lean' communication, in contrast, is simple and impersonal. It is useful for sending urgent messages, and includes, for example, emails and text messages.

It is useful to acknowledge the various senses when you decide which way your message should be conveyed. When you do this, you are conscious of the ways in which your audience processes information and this can contribute to the successful delivery of your message.

- visual – television, newspapers, magazines, flyers and brochures.
- auditory – radio, television, cell phone, telephone, microphone.
- touch – Braille.
- graphic – flyers, pamphlets.
- electrical/digital – microphone, television, radio, Internet, cell phone.

Also, an effective communication strategy considers:

- the receiver
- the most appropriate communication channel
- the length of the communication process and the time it takes
- whether the medium facilitates feedback and social exchange
- the cost

Different channels have different advantages and disadvantages. Let us explore some of the channels that are readily available for use as a communication strategy. (This list is not exhaustive).

Channel	Advantages	Disadvantages
Internet	Worldwide communication. Fast. Low cost. Networks and websites can be established for a particular audience. Global information.	Credibility of information. Not always accessible. Requires computer literacy.
Newspapers	Reaches large audience. Low cost. Communicates large amounts of information.	Reporter bias. No feedback. Literacy levels to be considered.
Radio	Reaches many people. Allows some room for feedback (call in programmes). Inexpensive.	Specific target audience. Audio only. Not always accessible due to radio frequency.
Billboards	Reaches large audience. Maintains reader's attention. Constant reminder of message.	Does not facilitate details, Vandalism can destroy it. Location is an issue. Limited information. Can be costly.
Cell phone	Source of instant message, both one-on-one and public communication. Facilitates both audio and visual. Feedback accommodated. Low cost. Popular.	Service can be an issue depending on provider. Laws and settings that prohibit its use in schools and vehicles. Geographical hindrances. Text messages are short. Costly. Limited to provider network.
Television	Reaches a large audience. Audio and visual. Instant news. Non-verbal cues incorporated with live images. Friendly to deaf and blind. Facilitates large amounts of information via programmes.	Geographic limitations. Reporter's bias. Limited by a budget. No room for interaction. Costly.

Activity 3

As the Human Resource Department in the Ministry of Health, Mr. Smith is asked to inform the community of a 'dengue prevention' spraying exercise to be conducted in a few days time. The public must be informed of certain precautionary measures.

1. Suggest two channels or forms of media that Mr Smith can use to inform the community members.

2. State the advantages and disadvantages of each.

3. Write the message to be delivered to the public.

Activity 4

Select the best choice of communication for each scenario listed below.

a. The manager of the Caribbean Chicken House franchise wants his employees' input on how to improve the quality of customer service.

b. The Prime Minister of Trinidad and Tobago is abroad on a conference. She wants to convey some important information to her Cabinet Ministers with immediate effect. At the same time she wants the Cabinet Ministers to provide her with copies of reports for the projects they have been overseeing in the country in her absence.

c. Jennifer, a clerk in the Ministry of Health, is unsure about a project she has to engage in with her co-workers. She needs clarification on her role as opposed to theirs.

d. Malaika, a student at St Clemens Girls School, made a mistake at school which negatively affected another student. Malaika wants to make amends with her.

Activity 5

A Caribbean youth talent competition is being hosted in your country to promote cultural integration and appreciation. Support is needed for the positions of stage maintenance crew and a marketing team.

1. How would your knowledge of the process of communication allow you to plan a successful promotion of the event?

2. Identify the media/channel that can be used to reach the main target groups.

- to trace the development of technology in print, electronic and digital media
- to identify the major forms of technology used in the communication process
- to select the form of technology that serves as an effective medium and channel.

Did you know?

It is important to recognise the difficulties we put ourselves in when we do not exercise discrimination in our use of social media. We may not only endanger ourselves, but also damage our future, by posting information that exposes us in an unfavourable light to prospective educational institutions, employers or influential people.

Introduction

There is no doubt about the many improvements in technology in contemporary life, which have facilitated efficient development and delivery of services such as health and education, and contributed to productivity in business, industry, financial and accounting management and so on. With 'intelligent' machines, we no long have to stand in long lines at a bank, and we can now take advantage of renewable energy technological solutions to lower the cost of consumption of utilities. At school, access to the Internet immediately facilitates a wealth of information at our fingertips.

Our communication has also been enhanced greatly by current and developing technologies. Thanks to developments in telecommunication and the Internet, we can transfer information around the world in seconds. This can be done via emails, text messages and social websites. While these developments have facilitated more diverse communication strategies and the opportunity for more strategic planning in the conceptualisation stage of the communication process, the sender has to be conscious of accessibility and the relevance of the medium used. We need to be mindful that not everyone has access to all forms of media and technology. Furthermore, not every culture relates to the same type of media and technology in the same way. Can you imagine a loudspeaker microphone in the heart of New York City? Certainly in all of the noise that the city generates, the message might not be heard!

Developments in technology

Print:
The printing press was first developed by Johannes Gutenberg in 1440, and made it possible to print much more than had previously been possible. With the further development of the printing press and the availability of paper, in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, letter-writing and print communication became more popular and information became more widespread through books, journals and newspapers.

Electronic:
Interactions have since become greater with the development of the telephone in 1876, followed by the radio and television, personal computers and the Internet in the nineteenth century. Language barriers have been broken down and messages have now become instant. As a result, every aspect of society can function more efficiently. However, there are limitations to the use and reliability of such channels of communication.

Activity 1

Place the following print and electronic communication channels, in order, from the earliest to the latest developments. Then identify whether each communication form is written, oral or visual. You can place this in a table:

radio, television, personal computer, SOS, telegram, telegraph, telecommunications, billboards, typewriter, fax machines, laptop, tape recorder, compact disc player, Mp3s, record-player, newspapers, printer, scanner, photocopier, multi-media projector, video-recordings, web-cams, stone-carvings, audio-tape, smart phones, digital voice recorder, letters, memorandums, cell phones, charts, pictures, films, teleconferencing, microphones.

Media and technology to improve communication

Media and technology in communication refers to the tools, materials, machines, techniques and processes used to send and receive messages. Social, business, academic, entertainment and political entities use the various types of technology to deliver their messages. With the use of new technology, methods of communication have become faster, easier, more efficient and more accessible. However, in order for a message to be communicated effectively, the appropriate medium and channel of communication must be considered.

The personal computer
A computer is a device that responds to and executes instruction. In today's world, the personal computer has made it possible to access any form of information, at the touch of a button. Letters, advertisements and memorandums can now be typed and edited (via spell and grammar check), and printed or made available via the World Wide Web. Software can also perform many operations such as translating different types of languages. The greatest advantage of the computer is that nothing is final.

The Internet
The Internet is a network used to receive and send data via, for example, emails, blogs or through social media such as Twitter. In this way, the sender and receiver can access information and responde quickly. With the use of 'search engines', information on any subject can be easily accessed. Additionally, the web-cam means that non-verbal cues can now be made available to the process of communication. The Internet transcends social, cultural and language barriers since it is affordable and easy to use.

Social media
Social media is facilitated by a portal (transmitter) such as Facebook, Twitter, electronic bulletins or blogs. It goes beyond the use of words only, as it facilitates the sharing of pictures and images. It helps us to stay in touch with friends and the rest of the world. It is both synchronous and asynchronous (refer to section 16.5).

Cell phone
A cell phone is a handheld device attached to a wireless network system, which is affordable and easy to use. People can now talk, text or send visual images to each other within seconds. With the use of Bluetooth, the cell phone can transfer information from one phone to another. In this way it serves as a sender, transmitter and receiver.

Did you know?

Colossus was one of the first computers designed to assist British code-breakers, to read German messages during World War II.

Activity 3
1. State two technological devices that can be used to educate teenagers about the dangers of smoking.
2. Explain how you would you use each device.

Activity 4
Your class teacher has been mandated by the principal to use methods of teaching that involve the use of technological aids and media.
1. Suggest two examples of forms of technology that can be used.
2. State the purpose of each example mentioned.

Activity 2
From each scenario below, identify the most appropriate technological medium and channel to be used and come up with a list of advantages and disadvantages for each.

a. A coach wants immediate feedback from his team regarding a game planned in 24 hours.

b. The prime minister wants to inform the people of her country of an impending, threatening hurricane.

c. A businessman in Miami wants to be part of the weekly meeting taking place in his company in Barbados. He wants to be seen and heard.

d. A student is delivering a presentation on alcoholism to a group which includes some people with hearing impairment.

e. The secretary of a non-profit organisation wants to win the support of people the world over, by sending out an advertisement at a low cost.

Interesting 'new' and developing technologies

Many new or developing technologies are advances on related antecedents. So, for example, computers have replaced typewriters and mechanical calculators. Cable networks are proving a threat to – and in some cases, displacing – cinemas. Let us now focus on some developing technologies, and their contribution to contemporary communication.

■ **Virtual reality, avatars and androids**

Virtual reality creations are made with the use of a computer using 3D images. In this way, the person becomes `virtual' and can be accessed across the constraints of time and place.

Avatars are graphic representations of yourself, a character you created and that you would like to be. Since every aspect of an avatar can be manipulated, the graphic can easily come to life and bodily gestures can be adapted to match those of a human. Avatars and robots are used on the other side of a phone lines and emails. One of the leading uses of avatars is the translation of audio into text, and then into sign language input the audio, which translates into text and then into sign language. In this way the hearing impaired can be assisted in the communication process.

Android technology is technology that you can manipulate directly, to affect a response as for example, with touch-screen phones.

Here are some forms of technology used in communication for business, academic, public, governmental and entertainment purposes.

Hardware: cell and landline phones – caller ID, voicemail, desktop, laptop, tablet, printer, scanner, photocopier, electrical billboards, fax machines, digital camera, digital voice recorder, microphone, web-camera, video-camera, CD/DVD and MP3 players.

Software/applications: presentation software, video and teleconferencing, Portable Document Files (PDF's), computer graphics for film and cartoon, word processing, computer publishing, PowerPoint.

Internet: video-conferencing, web-portals, electronic bulletin boards, electronic mailing lists, intranet movies, videos.

Social media: email, Twitter, YouTube, Instant Messaging, Skype, Facebook, websites, weblog.

■ **Biometric scanning**

We are all accustomed to the use of print for identification, in birth certificates, passports, drivers' licenses and election cards, and perhaps smartcards for public transportation. A *photocopier* traditionally facilitated the distribution of hard copies; as an alternative in current times, a *scanner* allows for the electronic transmission of documents, as an attachment to an email message.

Scanners are not only used for copying documents, however. *Biometrics scanning* serves multiple purposes, including detection of diseases such as diabetes, through *retina scanning* and confirmation of identity through *fingerprint scanning*. More recently, *iris scanning* has been accepted as possibly **the** foolproof means of communicating and authenticating identity, especially in high-security contexts.

■ **Voice/speech recognition technology**

In years gone by, *tape recorders* of various kinds, sizes and efficiency allowed us to record speeches and other performances for transmission, for example, through media. *Voice / speech recognition technology*, transforming speech to text, is increasingly becoming available as a smartphone application, and thereby easily accessible to a wider public. A wireless connection facilitates the presentation of the transcription on line. Voice recognition technology is currently being included on motor cars, as also on television sets.

■ **Virtual collaboration**

Audio and *videoconferencing* have facilitated meetings of diverse groups, across time zones and geographical boundaries. *Skype* and other *VoIP (Voice over IP)* apps enabling peer-to-peer or cloud-based audio and video collaboration allow us to make free or cheap phone calls across the world. Such facilities enhance business, educational and private collaboration, and are all readily available on mobile, handheld devices.

■ **Global Positioning System (GPS)**

GPS is space-based, and used for navigating purposes, such as pinpointing locations. GPS also provides tracking services, therefore performing security functions.

■ **New technologies in education**

Education all over the world has been enhanced by new technologies which benefit both teachers and students in sourcing and evaluating information, as also in preparing and delivering multimodal presentations – both on site and virtually. Changing interactional patterns, discourse styles and participant roles and responsibilities in classrooms require constant renegotiation, as a consequence.

Activity 1

Note your specific responses to the following questions then discuss them with your classmates and teacher.

1. Which of the following are regular tools of your everyday communication, and for what purposes?
   - printed material
   - radio and television
   - smart phones
   - digital audio and video technology
   - Internet browsers and search engines
   - social media networking sites

2. Do older members of your family use any of the above? For what purposes?

3. Are there limitations in communication which these seniors experience? Why/not, and in what contexts?

4. How have the technologies you use affected your communication positively?

5. Why and in what contexts do you experience disadvantages from using specific technologies you identify?

Activity 2

1. Are social media sites technological advances? Why/not? What are their antecedents?

2. Make notes on any advantages and/or drawbacks to a) biometrics scanning, b) voice recognition technology.

3. How does virtual collaboration work?

4. Provide three scenarios each in which GPS would be useful for a) navigating and b) tracking purposes.

5. Note, with examples, other communicative functions which the technologies discussed above can serve, and the possible advantages/ drawbacks to each.

6. List, with their antecedents (if any) the current technologies/ applications which a) you or your teachers use for specific educational purposes you identify and b) the benefits (with reasons) you derive from each.

Did you know?

Reality news is fast becoming a form of social media. This is where people involved in the incident verbally report the news from their points of view, uncut and unrehearsed.

What is mass media?

Mass media reaches a large number of people every day, connecting the world and providing information which is informed and up-to-date. Mass media is used to communicate issues in entertainment, business, education, public announcements and government. When we speak of mass media, we refer to print and electronic, outdoor media and public speaking:

- Print media – newspaper, reports, memos, business letters, billboards, posters, brochures
- Electronic media:

  Analog – television, radio, loudspeakers

  Digital – cell phones, film, audio, video games, broadcast, computer-mediated communication (instant-messages, email, chat rooms, podcast, blogs, Skype, Facebook).

- Outdoor media – billboards (print and electronic), flying (planes), signs, posters, and placards
- Public speaking – in front of an audience (virtual or one-on-one) with the use of audio and video enhancements.

Mass media in the communication process

The medium and channel used in the communication process should be aligned to the purpose of the message and the intended audience. Therefore, it must take into consideration the needs of receiver, and the nature of the message to be conveyed. When communicating with others via mass media, it is important to ask yourself the following:

- Who is the recipient or receiver of the message?
- How can the message be conveyed?
- Where is communication taking place?
- Is communication with an individual or group?
- Is it best to use a verbal or non-verbal medium of communication?
- What media can I effectively use to get the message across?
- What technology, if any, should I use to enhance the message?

Medium and channel in mass media

The medium and the channel provide the means to convey a message. Presently, written, oral and visual channels are used in mass media to convey messages. Written channels include: emails, text messages, reports, faxes. Oral channels include: voicemails, public speeches, cell phones, telephones. Visual channels include: television and the Internet (such as Skype and podcasts).

Communication is most effective when you select the appropriate channel and media in the 'conceptualising' process of sending a message. The following factors should be considered:

- The urgency of the feedback required. Text messages, cell phones, Skype, and face-to-face meetings can be used for urgent messages.

- The number of people involved – e.g. if it involves a group, then a group text message, Skype, face-to-face meetings, television, radio or a podcast can be considered.

- The density of the information – if there is a lot of information to communicate or a small amount. For example, a text message is appropriate for short messages but if it is a report (based on long-term research), then a fax or email would be more appropriate. If it is a one-to-one meeting then Skype, or a face-to-face meeting can to be used.

- The nature of the message – if the message is made up of symbols or signs, then visual or print media would have to be used, for example, television or books

- Whether the message is verbal or non-verbal. If the message is verbal, then the radio or voicemail can be used, for example. If it is non-verbal and involves gestures and expressions, then visual media or face-to-face interactions are more appropriate.

Activity 1

Read the scenario below and answer the questions that follow:

Members of the National Environmental Club embarked on a venture to educate the students of the nation on ways to protect the environment. The club members chose different forms of media to educate the students at the various levels of education. In particular, a television cartoon was used for kindergarten students showing the effects of littering on the environment. It involved bright and vivid images, popular characters and comic dialogue.

a. What form of media is used to get the message across to kindergarten students?

b. What is the medium and channel used in that particular communication process?

c. Why is this media an effective one?

d. What other form of media could have been used to effectively send the message to that target group?

Activity 2

Read the scenario below and answer the following questions:

a. Your country is preparing for severe flooding in the rainy season and the government is embarking on an advisory project.

- Identify two forms of media that can serve the purpose.

- List the effectiveness of each form of media identified.

b. Your country has been hit by a severe hurricane and all of the electrical poles, satellite dishes and telecommunication companies have been destroyed. The government wants to pass on important information to the people concerning their safety.

- Identify one form of media that can be used to reach the people.

- Outline the channel of communication to be used.

- Say why the form of media that you selected is effective.

- to recognise the barriers that affect the communication process
- to explore the barriers of communication in the communication process
- to select appropriate methods of communication that facilitate the communication process.

When the communication process is carefully conceptualised, the sender's message can be effectively decoded and understood. The process of selecting the appropriate medium, channel and technology is very important.

Conceptu-alisation → Sender encodes → Context → Medium, channel → Purpose of message & audience → Receiver
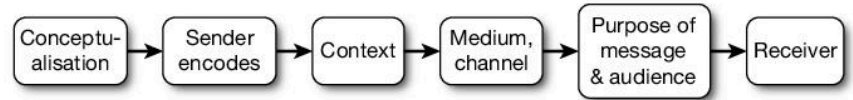
Barriers to the communication process

The **barriers** to communication are the difficulties involved in the process of communication which prohibit the message from being properly understood by the receiver. A barrier can develop at any point in the communication process. Have you ever delivered instructions to a friend and they were unable to give you the appropriate response or feedback? This was likely due to a break in communication. At what point in the communication process is it likely to have occurred? What could you (as the sender) or your friend (as the receiver) have done to facilitate a more effective communication process?

You could ensure that your message is appropriately conceptualised with the audience in mind and be conscious of the potential barriers in the communication process.

There are many barriers that pose difficulties in the communication process. When this occurs, it often leads to misunderstanding, confusion and sometimes conflict. Let us explore some of the barriers to communication.

Sender → Message → Receiver

organisational

ethical   physical   cultural

information overload   inaccessible channel

psychological   **Barriers**   no feedback

ambiguous messaage   semantic/language

social   personal   inappropriate medium

linguistic   political

1. **Physical barriers:** noise, time, distance, bad network
2. **Psychological barriers:** emotions, mood swings, confidence, lack of credibility of the sender, selective perceptions (we facilitate only what we want to hear and experience).
3. **Language and semantic barrier:** miscommunication, use of different registers and jargon, poor vocabulary, unfamiliar word selection, social context etc.
4. **Social barriers** poor communication, generation gap, literacy, conflict.

Activity 1

Consider the following scenario:

Charlene, a real-estate agent, had to leave the country due to an emergency concerning her mother. Charlene informs of her absence at work her manager with the use of a letter.

1. How else could Charlene have informed her manager about the situation?
2. Suggest why the medium that you selected would be more effective.

5. **Cultural barriers:** language, customs and interpretation of meaning based on different backgrounds.

6. **Political barrier:** individuals with political affiliations might selectively listen.

7. **Personal barriers:** lack of confidence, stereotyping, arrogance, mixed signals, broken relationships and poor listening skills.

8. **Organisational barriers:** ambiguous messages, inappropriate medium and channel, inaccessible channel, wrong choice of media, information overload, delays in messaging and no feedback.

Methods of overcoming barriers to communication

Overcoming the barriers to communication requires thinking about the encoding process. It is advisable to make a list of all of the potential or anticipated barriers in the communication process, to help address them early on. Let us look at some strategies to overcome the barriers to communication:

1. Acknowledge the receiver/audience – size, age, gender, language, culture, race, religion, literacy level, social background emotions.

2. Pay attention to the phrasing of the message. This should be based on the receiver's goals, attitudes and needs.

3. Think carefully about the delivery of the message – channel, medium, and media.

4. Think about the use of visual aids in the encoding process.

5. Be aware of your attitude towards the subject. Ensure that your ideas and values do not offend the receiver.

6. Use multiple channels of communication if practical.

7. Encourage feedback and asking questions. This will include the receiver and ensure that the message is understood.

Activity 3

Before his trip to Africa, Caleb's grandfather left him the following secret message in Morse Code. Unfortunately Caleb cannot interpret it.

-/ - - -/ - ./ ./ - . - -

. . ./ . . _/ . - ./ . ./ . / - . .

. . - / - ./ - . ./ . / - - . –

-/ . - ./ ./ .

1. What are the two barriers to communication in this scenario?

2. Suggest a way that Caleb's grandfather could have better facilitated the communication.

3. Suggest a form of communication (verbal or non-verbal) by which Caleb could express a lack of understanding?

Activity 1

Interpret the following diagrams and suggest what is responsible for the breakdown in communication.

✅ *Exam tip*

When asked to identify barriers to the communication process in your examinations, identify specific barriers to the scenario rather than general categories such as 'physical' or 'psychological'.

Activity 2

In order to include the new Venezuelan students in the meeting of your environmental club, you put up a notice on the school's bulletin board written in Spanish. On the day of the meeting, all of the local club members are absent.

1. Give a reason for the local members not turning up.

2. At which point does the communication break down?

3. Suggest one thing that you should have done to ensure a full representation of the club members.

Listening skills play an important role in comprehension and understanding. In the communication process, it determines how we interpret messages. Generally, effective listening skills assist the communication process.

Learning outcomes

- to become **sensitised** to several strategies for effective listening
- to explore the role of listening in the communication process.

Effective listening

Before you become an effective speaker, you need to become an effective listener and real listening requires comprehension, not just hearing. Effective listening means that you actively integrate what the speaker or sender is conveying to you. This means that as a listener, you must acknowledge the ideas of others without compromising your own opinions on the subject matter. In this way, the communication process is respectful and satisfies both the sender and the receiver of the message.[1]

The goal of effective listening is to show that you are listening, that you are interested and that you understand. This is necessary so that you can provide the relevant feedback to the sender. The diagram identifies the benefits of effective listening skills.

Here are some good habits of listening:

- Remove the barriers to communication (refer to section 16.6)
- Be attentive and avoid distractions.
- Keep an open mind.
- Face the speaker and make eye contact – for personal communication.
- Pay attention to the emotions of the speaker.
- Do not attempt to finish the speaker's sentences; only ask questions to clarify understanding and not to oppose.
- Restate the speaker's points in your head.
- Control your emotions.
- Picture the words in your head.
- Pay attention to your attitude towards the speaker – be accommodating.
- Avoid being judgmental – do not jump to conclusions without analysing what the speaker is saying.

Listen for the following techniques:

- the speaker purpose.
- the speaker point of view.
- the facts as opposed to opinions.
- major points and supporting details.
- the use of emotional language.
- the use of metaphoric language.
- the speaker's tone of voice – tonal modulations highlighting important aspects.
- Pay attention to non-verbal cues such as eye-contact.
- Take notes and summarise ideas in your head.

☑ *Exam tip*

Listening skills are very important for your CAPE Communication Studies examination.

---

[1] Hybel, S. and Weaver, R. (1989) Communicating effectively. Random House: London.

Activity 1

Look at the following scenario and answer the questions that follow.

a. Suggest two reasons why the principal told the students that his question was not addressed?

b. What purpose does the principal's feedback serve in the communication process for the students involved.

c. Suggest two goals in the listening process that have been overlooked by the students.

Activity 2

Ask a peer or family member to read the poem below for you, and then respond to the following questions. You can read the questions before the reading begins. Try not to read the poem by yourself.

This is the dark time, my love,

All round the land brown beetles crawl about

The shining sun is hidden in the sky

Red flowers bend their heads in awful sorrow

This is the dark time, my love,

It is the season of oppression, dark metal, and tears.

It is the festival of guns, the carnival of misery

Everywhere the faces of men are strained and anxious

Who comes walking in the dark night time?

Whose boot of steel tramps down the slender grass

It is the man of death, my love, the stranger invader

Watching you sleep and aiming at your dream.

This is the dark time, my love

Martin Carter

1. What is the main idea in the poem?

2. List two details that allowed you to select the main idea.

3. What is the writer's point of view?

4. Identify one sentence from the extract that suggests this.

5. Identify two literary devices from the passage.

6. Comment on the effectiveness of each one.

7. What is the poet's mood?

8. Identify a word or phrase to support your answer.

Exam tip

For the aural comprehension, it is important not just to identify the literary device (by selecting details from the passage), but also to discuss its effectiveness.

15.1 Verbal communication: spoken and written words

Learning outcomes

- to identify the main forms of communication
- to identify the characteristics of verbal and non-verbal forms of communication
- to understand the importance of making the appropriate decision when communicating with verbal forms of communication.

In the last few sections you explored the communication process and the barriers to communication. Now you will examine the different forms of communication.

For a message to be effective, the form of communication is crucial. Thus, it is important to choose the most effective form for the particular communication scenario. The two main forms of communication are verbal and non-verbal communication. Verbal communication consists of speech and writing, and non-verbal communication relates to the aspects of communication other than speech and writing. Both verbal and non-verbal communication are important to the communication process and there are times when both forms of communication are useful to reinforce each other and further facilitate the communication process. For example, to express disappointment with a student, a teacher might give a lecture (verbal communication) but s/he might also look at the student sternly and shake her finger (non-verbal communication).

Let us look at the forms of communication based on the communication channel:

- Verbal (speech and writing)
- Non-verbal including:
  - Body language – gestures, movement, posture, facial expression
  - Use of space/proxemics
  - Para-linguistics – tone of voice, loudness, pitch, inflection
  - use of object
  - Appearance – dress, hairstyle
  - Graphics – charts, tables, diagrams, computer graphics.
  - Integrating forms for specific purposes and situations – practise cases, role play and simulations
  - Haptics – communicating via touch, for example, a handshake, kiss, stroke of the shoulder, pat on the head

Verbal communication

Verbal communication consists of both oral and the written language. In this form of communication, messages can be transmitted verbally, with the use of spoken words or writing. The aim of both forms of communication is to ensure that the sender and the receiver of the message interpret the message/s similarly. Reading writing, listening and speaking all form part of the verbal communication process. While it is important to express ourselves effectively through writing and speaking, it is also necessary to be able to read and listen carefully.

Did you know?

It is important to be conscious of our non-verbal behaviours in the communication process; sometimes we may send non-verbal messages that we are not aware of and it can contradict what we are saying. Effective communication should have complementary verbal and non-verbal cues.

Oral communication

With this type of communication, spoken or recorded words are to transfer messages verbally. This includes: face-to-face conversations (formal or informal), discussions, public-speeches, video-conferencing, teleconferencing, telephone conversations, mobile conversations, briefings, meetings, presentations and conferences – the list is not exhaustive.

Oral communication has several advantages and disadvantages:

Advantages:	Disadvantages:
▪ takes less time ▪ facilitates urgent messages ▪ useful for confidential information ▪ provides instant feedback ▪ cheap ▪ adaptable ▪ allows personal contact ▪ provides opportunities for personal and bargaining power ▪ useful for all types of audience ▪ provides a forum for explanation	▪ provides no records ▪ easily forgotten ▪ noise interference ▪ miscommunication from distorted words etc ▪ opportunities for misunderstanding ▪ immediate feedback prohibits informed response ▪ misunderstanding due to conflicting non-verbal gestures ▪ lack of privacy

Written communication

Written communication involves letters and symbols. These can be typed, printed, handwritten or deciphered using voice translated messages (using voice application software on phones and tablets to translate spoken words to written). When using the written form of communication, it is also important to pay attention to the receiver's needs. The use of language, vocabulary, grammar, spelling, punctuation and style of writing is crucial to effective written communication. Written communication messages are often conveyed through mediums such as letters, memos, emails, Internet websites, advertisement, fax messages, or reports.

Here are some advantages and disadvantages to the written form of communication:

Advantages:	Disadvantages:
▪ easy to edit and revise messages ▪ the message is permanent ▪ receiver can re-read the message for greater understanding ▪ reliable ▪ good for mass dissemination ▪ can more easily be used to present complex messages ▪ less chance of distortion or misunderstanding ▪ includes facts and necessary information	▪ time-consuming ▪ less flexibility to amend once the message has been dispatched ▪ feedback can be delayed ▪ improper use of vocabulary, grammar and punctuation can hamper the communication process ▪ does not cater to all audiences – e.g. illiterates, language barriers and the blind ▪ expensive ▪ lacks the personal touch ▪ lacks confidentiality ▪ problems with storage and filing

Activity 1

A new student arrived in your class today. When asked by his teacher to tell the class about himself, he begins to stutter and mixes up his words. Instead of saying that his name is Jossiah David, he says his name is David Jossiah. When asked to write his name on the white-board, he writes: 'Jossiah Daved Sir'.

1. State two observations about the student's speech and writing that tell you that he is nervous.

2. State two types of verbal communication that the class members could have used to make the new student feel welcome and comfortable.

3. State the advantages and disadvantages of the two verbal forms of communication that you selected.

15.2 Non-verbal communication: communicating without words

Learning outcomes

- identify the characteristics of the non-verbal form of communication
- understand the importance of making the appropriate decision when communicating with non-verbal forms of communication.

Did you know?

Gestures are relative to different cultures. For example, in the Arab culture, a 'thumbs-up' is a rude sign; in the Western world it is a positive sign that says, 'everything is good'. In the Caribbean, children are not supposed to make eye contact when they are being disciplined; in the Western world, it would be rude not to do so.

Activity 1

Read the following scenarios and suggest the meaning(s) that the non-verbal forms of communication convey.

a. She wore a bright red dress and a large red hat to attend the funeral.

b. A statue of the Lieutenant General was erected in the town square upon his death.

c. Adrianne waited by the telephone, pacing up and down.

d. The girl jumped up and down after receiving the text message.

e. Janet did not make eye contact with the teacher when asked about her homework.

Non-verbal communication means sending and receiving messages without using words. It requires the use of visual appearance, body language and vocals to help the receiver to interpret a message. Sometimes, non-verbal communication can better reflect a sender's message, feelings, and intentions than verbal communication. A sender therefore needs to be conscious of his non-verbal cues to ensure that it does not contradict his verbal message and distort the real meaning.

Non-verbal communication includes:

- Appearance – the messenger's clothing, accessories, hairstyle. A neat appearance can increase credibility.

- Kinesics and body language – facial expression, gestures such as waving and pointing, hand movements, position and posture. For example, in speech-making, hand gestures can be helpful to reinforce points and ideas.

- Vocalics/para-linguistics – related to sound. Includes the tone of voice, volume, speech pace, pitch, intonation. For example, when an upbeat tone of voice is used to begin a speech, it creates interest for the audience.

- Eye contact or gaze – looking at someone or something intently suggests an interest or deep concentration. Avoiding making eye contact often suggests insecurity, unfriendliness and hesitation. Eye contact is important to hold audience attention.

- Proxemics or space – a form of non-verbal communication that defines your space. It emphasises room size, lighting, furnishings and the space between people when they are having a conversation. For example, standing very close to someone when you are having a conversation usually means that you are familiar with them.

- Haptics – involves communicating through touch. For example, if you stroke someone gently on the shoulder while communicating with them, it emphasises understanding and empathy.

- Use of the five senses – involves our connection with someone based on the sense of smell, sight, taste, sound or touch. For example, our olfactory senses can actually repel or attract us to someone with an interesting smell.

- Objects and graphics – the use of items, diagrams, sketches or symbols can be used to reinforce meaning. For example in a play, the stage set may include drums and steel-pan to reflect an upbeat environment. A diagram can also represent a procedure to follow.

- Artefacts – objects such as the car we drive or the jewellery we wear can define our image and send a message to others about our lifestyle, taste and choices.

- Chronemics – the way we use time can send a message to others. For example if we are late for an appointment without good reason, it can show that we do not respect the person or people we have to meet.

Advantages and disadvantages of non-verbal communication

Advantages:	Disadvantages:
▪ complements verbal presentations – e.g. shaking someone's hand while saying 'I am sorry' can help to gain forgiveness. ▪ helps the disadvantaged – the mentally, physically and literacy challenged can be included in the communication process e.g. you can give someone directions by pointing a finger. ▪ reinforces verbal messages – e.g. the nod of your head for agreement. ▪ makes for more appealing presentations with, for example, the use of graphics and pictures. ▪ a good substitute for verbal messages when there are barriers to communication e.g. noise or different language. ▪ messages can be sent quickly –e.g. pointing a finger can indicate your selection.	▪ culture specific – a positive gesture in one culture can be negative in another. ▪ can distort information – your eye contact, gestures or tone of voice may convey a message that may not resonate with the receiver. ▪ can be difficult to understand – not everyone will have the ability to interpret non-verbal cues effectively. People may also have different interpretations. ▪ requires a lot of repetition to understand. ▪ can be costly – signs, pictures and billboards are more costly than other forms of communication. ▪ lacks formality.

Activity 2

A head prefect was newly appointed by the deans at your school. Soon after the induction ceremony, there were reports of him walking around the school like a soldier, stopping students on the corridors and staring at them intently. Other reports showed that he would approach students and point his finger in their faces, with a sneer on his face. He would then turn around and proceed on his way as if nothing had happened.

1. Suggest a probable interpretation of the non-verbal communication behaviours of the new prefect.
2. State two types of non-verbal communication that the students of the school can use to show their lack of support for the prefect's actions.
3. Note the differences between the non-verbal communication forms and behaviours.

Activity 3

1. As a leading costume designer with a drama academy, identify three types of non-verbal communication, other than costumes, that you would consider to enhance your performance on stage.
2. Describe one form of costuming that you would emphasise in your performance.
3. Give one reason why you would use costuming in this way.

Activity 4

Your younger brother is entering school for the first day.

1. State two non-verbal forms of communication that her teacher may observe that suggest that he is nervous.
2. State two examples of non-communicative behaviour that the teacher could use to make your brother feel more comfortable.

In every situation, you have to choose from two communication types based on your style of presentation, the purpose of your message and the situation that you are communicating in. These are:

- formal communication
- informal communication

Formal communication

Formal communication is verbal or written information presented in formal and official settings. It is characterised by communication material that is organised and managed before it is shared. Formal communication is predominantly used at public meetings, formal occasions (retirement speeches, school assembly presentations), conferences, lectures, workplaces (to transfer information from the management to the employees), professional settings, and in formal written communication including letters and electronic mail.

There are certain conventions or patterns that are used for formal communication:

- standard language
- complete sentence structures
- complex sentence structures
- logically expressed and coherently laid out
- *slang* and foul language is avoided
- correct pronunciation is used
- feedback is not always necessary
- lines of authority are followed – e.g. in formal letter writing, the receiver's position is acknowledged.

Formal communication is very advantageous in the business and professional world. You also use formal communication to liaise with your teacher and submit official documents to your school. Here are a few reasons for formal communication:

- reliable
- follows conventions of writing
- can be edited and revised for coherence and understanding
- the sender is liable for sending the wrong message.

Informal communication

Informal communication involves casual conversations. It is predominantly based on the social and emotional needs of individuals using face-to-face discussions. Unlike formal communication, this type of communication is not based on any established method of communicating. It is often not planned and spread verbally. In this respect, you are free to express yourself without any restrictions but you must be mindful of the words you choose in order to be socially and ethically appropriate. Informal conversations are predominantly used with your friends, family members, colleagues or peers at school.

Here are some features of informal communication:

- oral
- incorporates gestures
- often imprecise
- topics of conversation can be specific or general
- takes place in a relaxed atmosphere – can be carefree with words
- casual and spontaneous – within the confines of ethical conventions of discourse proceedings; you are given some freedom to speak as you think
- uses a conversational tone
- emotional expressions are common
- incomplete sentences are used
- interruptions are allowed
- ideas can be illogical and disjointed
- can use dialect, slang and colloquialisms. Code-switching is allowed.

Informal communication can have several advantages.

- facilitates communication and integration – this assists the communication process by bringing people together.
- a source of information - when the communication channels (top-down), are not disseminating information on a timely basis.
- gives you the option to prepare your thoughts, ideas and opinions to facilitate responses when formal information is presented to you.

Despite the advantages of informal communication, you have to use your judgement to ensure that the information passed on to you is reliable. It is better to be cautious until a reliable source of authority or the right channel presents it to you. Rumours can destroy relationships, lead to premature decision-making or even destroy an organisation.

Despite the differences in our purpose, style, and situation, formal and informal communication are based on the following criteria:

- They are expressed verbally and non-verbally by words, symbols, tone of voice, gestures.
- The communication channel can be different for both types of communication. Formal communication channels include television, radio and public meetings. Informal communication channels include face-to-face discussions and Internet chat rooms.
- For written formal and informal communication, it is wise to confirm the information before sending it.

Activity 1

Here are two examples of formal communication. Read them both carefully and then discuss with your peers how many of the conventions are adhered to.

Sample 1

The School Supervisor, the Principal, members of the Parent Teacher Association, students, ladies and gentlemen. It gives me great pleasure to stand before you, in order to recognise 'World Achievement Day'....

Sample 2

Mr. Mike Meyers,
The General Manager,
King's Brokers limited,
Shark View,
Louville.

Dear Staff:

I take this opportunity to introduce you to our latest employee. Mr Martin Jones has accepted our offer as sales manager. His first day is on December 21st, 2015. Please join us in the conference room for refreshments at 2.00 p.m. to welcome him to the company on that day.

Respectfully submitted,

Mike Meyers

....

General Manager.

Activity 2

Upon arriving at the church for the funeral, Miss Melda went to offer her condolences to the bereaved and was immediately asked to leave because she was dressed inappropriately. Miss Melda went to the funeral wearing a short, bright red T-shirt with the logo, 'Live and let die'. Her face was painted in pink, purple and green make-up and she wore a pair of rubber slippers on her feet.

1. Suggest two other occasions in which Miss Melda's attire would have been appropriate.

2. Give two other examples of formal communication contexts.

3. State two examples of non-communicative behaviours that Miss Melda could have used to show respect to the bereaved.

Activity 3

Separate the formal and informal medium and channels of communication from the list using two separate columns. Some will be placed in both columns:

Memo, employee handbook, telephone conversation, flyer, social networks, business letter, company newsletter, instant messaging, voice messaging, formal meeting, fax, graffiti, water-cooler conversations, e-mail, all-employee e-mails, rumour e-mails.

16 Contexts of communication

16.1 Exploring the context of communication

Learning outcomes

- to understand the context of communication
- to identify the various contexts of communication
- to analyse the appropriateness of a communication act to its particular context.

In this section you will explore the relation between the different forms of communication and the context in which they are used. The context of communication refers to the circumstances surrounding the process of communication and consideration must be given whether to choose verbal or non-verbal and formal or informal forms of communication, depending on the context. For example, a rock star performing at a concert would wear a fashionable outfit. If s/he is going to a music awards ceremony, s/he is more likely to wear a suit and tie or a ball gown. Also, the Principal of a school would use Standard English to address the assembly. He would not use the dialect form of his language; he may only do this privately with a student. From these examples, we can infer that the communication context involves matching the message to the appropriate setting. Thus a good equation for the communication context is:

communication context = what is appropriate + how messages are interpreted.

The following criteria must be considered when deciding upon the form of communication to use for the particular context. In this way you can evaluate the appropriateness of the communication act:

1. Identify the person, group or organisation that you are communicating with.
2. Identify the characteristics of the audience.
3. Identify the place or forum for the act of communication.

There are several communication contexts. These are referred to as communication settings or environments. Let us identify the major ones:

Intrapersonal communication	Communication with self when you think, strategise and solve problems in your mind.
Interpersonal communication	Communication with other people.
Small group	Communication with a few people with a common purpose.
Public communication	One person talks to several others in a public setting
Organisational communication	Communication in a business context
Mass media communication	Involves messages, news or broadcasts often using electronic means.
Academic communication	Communication in an educational context.
Intercultural communication	Communication among different cultures (cross-cultural)
Intracultural communication	Communication with your own racial, religious or ethical group
Health communication	Communication within the healthcare system that involves doctor-patient and patient-to-patient conversations about illnesses. It also includes healthcare campaigns.
Gender communication	Communication issues between sexes and issues of women.

Computer-mediated communication	Communication through the use of electronic devices.
Business communication	Communication between the management and staff of a business.
Government communication	Communication that connects the government to the people of a country – to inform, persuade.
Family communication	Use of common verbal and non-verbal forms of communication between family members that breeds familiarity
Intimate communication	Communication that fosters physical bonds between individuals and facilitates understanding and acceptance
Legal communication	Communication that involves discussions and proceedings of legal matters
Communication and the elderly	Communication that adapts to the needs of the aging population e.g. Hearing impaired, differently-abled.
Communication and children	Communication that involves techniques to effectively meet the needs of children
Communication campaigns	Communication that takes into consideration the needs of a campaign to reach the targeted audience

Activity 1

Read the scenarios below and identify the most appropriate form of communication to effectively communicate the information presented in each one. Pay attention to the forms of communication (verbal and non-verbal), the formal or informal nature of the communication act, and the context of communication.

a. The Police Commissioner of your country wants to explain to the population why his Ministry has introduced the new policy on 'cell phones and driving'.

b. The Principal of a school wants to remind the students to follow the examination procedures for the upcoming end of term test.

c. A teacher wants to remind her class to bring their literature textbooks to class on particular days of the week.

d. A school-crossing guard wants to enlighten kindergarten students on the importance of using the roads safely.

e. The basketball coach wants to inform his team that he has had to cancel practise this afternoon.

f. Mr. Singh wants to send out some tips for the upcoming mathematics examination to his class who is away from school on an examination break.

g. Marilyn has to present a report to her manager on the destruction of the natural habitat after the oil spill.

Activity 2

As the President of the Animal Rights Group in your country, you are asked to enlighten the population on the importance of spaying female dogs to reduce the incidence of unwanted stray pets in various communities.

a. Create a presentation to communicate the scenario above.

b. Indicate the necessary adjustments to your presentation paying attention to the seven different contexts of communication from listed below. Focus on the medium/channel and formal/informal nature of communication:

1. to members of the public, in the district park

2. to a panel of 'Animal rights Activists' in an open-forum meeting

3. on the radio

4. on a national television

5. using electronic mail

6. using an electronic billboard

7. a newspaper advertisement

Learning outcomes

- to understand the function of the communication context
- to describe the types of communication context that involve individuals and speciality groups
- to explore the context of communication using various scenarios.

Activity 1

What are the advantages and disadvantages of the interpersonal, intrapersonal, group, public and government communication contexts?

Activity 2

View the illustration below and answer the following questions

1. What communication context is illustrated in this scenario?
2. What is the attitude of the employer to the employee?
3. What non-verbal cues tells us that the employee is affected by the employer's behaviour?
4. Which other communication context is represented in the illustration?
5. What two reasons might account for the employer's attitude?

In the previous section, we identified the various contexts of communication. In this section, we will continue to explore the different context in greater detail. Keep in mind that when you are studying the various communication contexts, the environment in which communication takes place is an important element in the process. Also, if the communication context is carefully considered in the early stages of the communication process, the sender will be better able to anticipate how the message will be interpreted by the receiver. This guarantees greater success in the communication process.

You can better understand communication events by your awareness of the different kinds of communication context.

The major communication contexts that we are involved with on a daily basis are:

- intrapersonal communication
- interpersonal communication
- small groups
- public communication
- business communication
- government communication
- academic communication

Let's now look at each of these in more detail.

The communication process

Sender → Message → Channel → Receiver → Context → Feedback → Sender

Intrapersonal communication

Interpersonal communication involves internal communication using self-dialogue or reflective thought. When you communicate with yourself, you engage in activities which include: planning, day-dreaming, contemplating, evaluating, strategising or problem-solving. Interpersonal communication helps you to prepare for communication with others as you engage in conceptualising your message in the communication process.

Here are some examples of interpersonal communication:

- You are engaged in a reflection of a funny memory, you begin to laugh out loud (verbal).
- You are analysing a problem for homework mentally; upon thinking of the answer, you nod your head and smile to yourself (non-verbal).

Interpersonal communication

This refers to communication between two or more people that involve direct contact such as face-to-face communication or communication with the use of aids such as the telephone, or the Internet. It includes
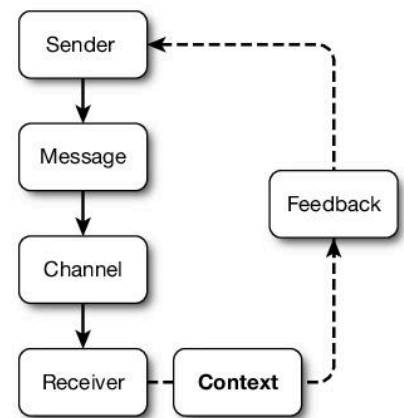
intimate conversations, interviews and Skype, and can be personal to impersonal, formal to informal. For example:

- You have a conversation with your mother about how you will be spending your weekend (informal and intimate).
- You have a brief conversation with your teacher on the way out of the classroom when she asks you how you plan to spend your weekend (formal and intimate).

Small group

Group communication takes place when three or more people come together on a continuous basis and within a given time frame to achieve a common goal. The interaction is normally face-to-face with direct or mediated forms of communication (telephone, Skype). Groups can be defined by factors such as age, education, gender, purpose, common goals. Some examples of small groups include families, workgroups, youth group, business groups, church groups. A small group has many benefits: it offers the members an opportunity to share information and exchange ideas it gives them a chance to utilise their talents, motivate each other, share resources and work together for the completion of a desired goal.

Public communication

In this type of communication, one person talks to several people in a public setting. The speaker sends the message by reading, speaking or using visual presentations. Sometimes, the speaker facilitates discussion or feedback and asks questions to incorporate the audience. In order to hold the attention of the audience, the speaker can use engagement strategies to make the message relevant to the audience, such as: using the jargon of the audience, non-verbal cues, audio-visual aids, positive debate etc.

Business communication

This type of communication is between the management of a business and the staff. Communication can be linear, involving information or messages from the management to the staff; or two-way, requiring feedback from the staff. Formal business communication includes: staff briefings, staff meetings, interviews, business letters, reports, memos, telephone communication, face-to-face discussions and informal communication includes instant messaging and discussions among the staff.

Government communication

Government communication is the messages that the government sends out to the public in order to inform, persuade and keep the citizens of a country connected to the decision-making process and policies to be implemented. This type of communication is normally formal, but can take the form of propaganda in open-forum contexts. The government keeps the public informed via public meetings, media briefings, public announcements through loudspeakers, posters, brochures, websites, letters etc.

Academic communication

Academic communication targets a particular audience that shares the speciality or academic field and related concerns. It is based on academic writing, evidence and research material. This type of writing is formal and is normally expository or argumentative in nature. Academic communication is used to inform, educate and critically analyse a subject of study.

Did you know?

There are no boundaries in the communication context. For example, interpersonal communication forms part of group communication.

Activity 3

Read the following advertisement and answer the questions below.

Email communication between the Government of St. Lucia and its citizens

The electronic mailing system and the World Wide Web will be used to improve communication between the Government and the people of St. Lucia. This will ensure:

The rapid spread of information

An accessible source of information.

The issues of security, privacy and integrity will be guaranteed by the technology to support communication.

Our Government, keeping in touch with its people!

1. What is the communication context in the following advertisement?

2. Who is the sender of the message?

3. Who is the receiver of the message?

4. What is the nature of the communication? Informative or persuasive?

5. What medium/channel of communication can be used to effectively send this message to the public?

6. Discuss the effectiveness of the form of media that you identified in meeting the objectives of the communication.

16.3 Communication contexts: intercultural to children

Learning outcomes

- to understand the relational types of communication in the communication process
- to explore how differences affect the communication process.

Before you begin to encode a message, you need to think about the needs of the receiver so as to facilitate effective communication. Some groups require particular consideration in the communication process, and we will now consider the communication context of those of different cultures, gender, the elderly and children.

Intercultural communication

Intercultural communication is a form of communication between people of different cultural backgrounds. It involves the sharing of information between different cultures despite our differences. It acknowledges that in schools, workplaces and local or international communities, there will be individuals from different religious, social, historical, ethnic, technological and educational backgrounds. For instance, in the Caribbean, we shake hands, kiss or hug as a greeting; on the other hand, in India they clasp their hands and slightly bend their heads to greet each other. In America, eye contact is a sign of honesty, in the Caribbean it is a sign of disrespect. No one form of communication can serve the diverse needs of everyone. The receiver can use his own culture to decode a message, which can starkly contrast with the meaning that the sender wants to convey. As a result, intercultural communication takes into consideration the most appropriate way to:

- encode a message
- select the medium and channel to be used, and
- accommodate the feedback by the receiver.

The need for intercultural communication arises from several factors including globalisation, tourism, travel, the needs of a diverse workforce (based on migration and technology mediated devices) and global sporting activities. It is important for intercultural communication to be considered in the communication process, so as to reach a diverse audience, without stereotyping, segregating, or alienating others. The following should be considered:

- cultural sensitivity when encoding a message
- using words, pictures or images if possible
- avoiding slang, colloquialisms and idioms
- giving attention to forms of non-verbal communication to reach a wider audience – body movement, gestures, eye-contact, proxemics (space)
- getting feedback to ensure that communication takes place.

Intracultural communication

Intracultural communication describes communication between two people from the same culture, but different sub-cultures. In this respect they are culturally different in significant ways. For example, if a Jamaican national talks to a Haitian national, although they are both Caribbean people, with a similar history, there would still be hurdles in the communication process, because of the differences in the sub-cultures.

Gender communication

Gender communication recognises both men and women in the communication process. It ensures that the communication process is not biased towards any particular one gender. It recognises the fact that there are differences in the communication styles of men and women, which include: variations in speech skills, varied roles in the communication process, the purpose of communication and the context of communication. Here are some significant differences that are considered:

- Information processing – men are less likely to verbalise what they think when compared to women.
- Communication style – women tend to use more non-verbal forms of communication than men. For example, they often talk using a lot of hand movement and make more eye contact.
- Relationships – women tend to build relationships in order to communicate effectively, while men are more goal-oriented.

Communication for the elderly

Communication for the elderly gives consideration to older people who are in physical decline. It acknowledges their reduced social roles because of their removal from the work place and family interaction. Older people tend to battle with hearing, vision, tactile and socialisation challenges. For example, persons who are experiencing hearing loss would need to sit closer to the speaker, interrupt for more clarifications and depend on non-verbal cues to assist them in the communication process.

Communication for children

Communication for children requires communication styles that match the physical and psychological development of the child. For example, younger children, who have not fully developed their speech capacities, depend more on non-verbal cues. Adolescent communicate frequently with the use of technological mediated devices.

Did you know?

The term 'genderlect' comes from the term 'dialect' and refers to the language that is associated with the speaker's gender. Linguists have developed communication techniques that take into consideration gender style differences. For example, women tend to ask more questions and use shorter responses such as 'yeah' or 'oh' in conversation.

Activity 1

Look at the cartoon below:

1. Give one reason that might account for the Chinese man's reaction to his Caribbean helper.
2. State why the Caribbean man looks confused in the cartoon.
3. Identify the barrier to communication using this scenario.
4. Suggest a non-verbal form of communication that the Caribbean man could have used to ensure that the appropriate form of communication was used.

Activity 2

Rhianna wants to use the Internet to promote the culture of her country and foster cultural appreciation for the local cuisine, music, language and heritage. Assist Rhianna to design a campaign to do so.

1. Identify a technological channel or medium that she can use to promote her country.
2. Identify the issues in the communication process that she may have to consider to effectively send out her message.
3. Design a campaign for promotion using an appropriate form of technology to reach a wide and diverse audience.

Communication campaigns

Communication campaigns are strategies (using media and other forms of messages) that impact on the knowledge, attitude and behaviours of people. Communication campaigns are quite influential in the world today and are used in every aspect of a society to improve results in the social, political, business or cultural fields. Like other forms of communication, communication campaigns are used to shape people's behaviours for a desired outcome. The following outcomes can be considered:

- to inform the public
- to persuade others
- to motivate people
- to change behaviours

Communication campaigns can be formal or informal and normally cater to a wide audience within a specific time-frame. They are normally interpersonal and involve two or more people, using face-to-face contact or the use of an electronic aid. For example, if a game industry wanted to promote a new game on the market, they can use formal, interpersonal communication, with the aid of electronic media to persuade others to purchase the product. Let us look at the basic functions of communication campaigns.

Individual	Public
to change an individual's behaviour, to solve problem or improve life	to mobilise support from large masses, to raise social awareness and understanding of issues of public interest e.g. a bill
social marketing	to mobilise action masses

The communication campaign process

Communication campaigns need to be effectively planned before they begin. This is necessary to achieve the targeted goals of the campaign. With this in mind, Public Relations Officers, Human Resource Personnel and Campaign Managers need to consider the purpose of the campaign; they must decide whether it is to inform, persuade or encourage. The second stage is to create an appropriate message that takes into consideration the characteristics of the target group (context of communication included) and the relevant channels to be used. The timeframe also has to be considered in order to meet targets. Finally, an assessment of the campaign should be considered in order to get feedback based on the results and strategies used.

Communication campaign →	Input →	Output →	Outcome
	use of media	event	behavioural change
	public speeches	media coverage	public support
	world wide web	e.g. websites	social media support
	e.g. public advocacy campaigns		public awareness
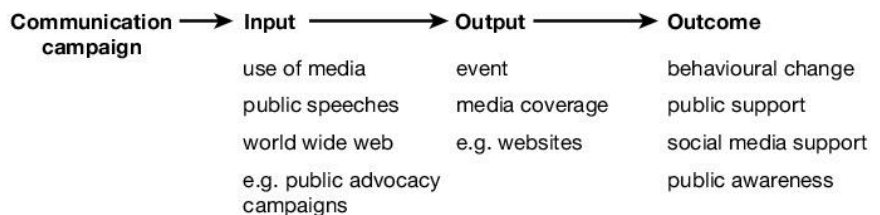
Designing a communication campaign

The following objectives can be considered when designing a communication campaign:

- Outline your communication goal and objective.
- Ensure that the message is tailored to suit the characteristics of the audience (intercultural, governmental, health).
- Address the needs of marginalised groups in the campaign e.g. language and cultural differences.
- Identify the communication channel to be used e.g. a Government Official from the Ministry of Health may use a face-to-face (interpersonal communication) to deliver an educational campaign on the 'spread of dengue' to the people of a country.
- Identify the communication tool to be used e.g. social network and live forums.

Activity 2

View the illustration below and then answer the questions that follow.

1. Give two reasons why the message illustrated may successfully reach the public.

2. Identify two other communication channels that can successfully reach the audience.

3. Design a communication campaign that can be successfully used in your country to create an awareness of overpopulation.

   Think about

   Goal:

   Target audience/s:

   Objectives:

   Channels of Communication:

   Message:

   Timing:

   Resources/Technological aids:

   Feedback:

Activity 1

The government of your country has embarked on a communication campaign to create parental awareness for the protection of children who die from 'heatstroke deaths' due to acts of negligence by parents.

1. Who is the target audience?
2. Identify two objectives of the campaign.
3. Identify two communication channels that can be effectively used from the list:

   Print, television, radio, World Wide Web.
4. Design a communication campaign to effectively reach the target audience. Include each stage and the strategies utilised.

🔗 Link

The UN Women website has a useful link on how to create an effective communication campaign. The full link is provided on the CD.

Mass media

Mass media has become a very powerful communication tool for us over the last century, and in your day-to-day lives you are constantly bombarded by messages from a number of sources. The greatest advantage of the use of the mass media, is that people who are anonymous and heterogeneous (different culture, language) can be reached. Messages sent via the mass media should be impersonal and formal so as to cater to the needs of a wide, unfamiliar audience. The diagram reflects the communication process with the mass media:

The channels that are used to connect the sender to the receiver include the following:

Print: newspapers, mail, magazines, brochures, newsletters, books, comics

Outdoor media: signs, flyers, billboards, placards, signs on tow (airplanes), blimps and skywriting.

Electrical: radio, television, electronic billboards.

Electronic/new age media/digital: cell phones, computers and the Internet. Internet media includes emails, websites, podcasts, e-forums, e-books, blogs, Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, photographs, Instagram.

The mass media and communication

With the use of the print and electrical mechanisms, there is usually a delay with the feedback and sometimes no feedback at all. However, modern technology such as the Internet had reduced the time involved so that a message can get from the sender to the receiver promptly and provide more opportunity for responses as, for example, in talk shows that offer 'call- in', 'text', 'Tweet' or 'email' responses. Despite this, all of these methods have their limitations. The extent to which feedback is facilitated is dictated by the talk show host or programme announcer and there can be delays in accessing mails via the Internet. Also if a message is not tailored to meet the needs of an audience, many can be left out. These include the deaf and blind with the use of television and radio.

The table below highlights some of the advantages and disadvantages of the mass media.

Advantages	Disadvantages
overall awareness	difficult to distinguish between fact and opinion
fast spread of news and information	information overload
affects social values, the way we think, and social control	influences unhealthy lifestyle and glamorises vices

Computer-mediated communication

Computer-mediated communication occurs through the use of electronic devices. It includes emails, instant-messaging, text messages, Twitter, blogs, Facebook, chat-rooms and Skype. It can be used for both formal and informal messages. There are two modes of computer-based communication: synchronous and asynchronous.

Synchronous → All participants online at the same time.

Asynchronous → Not occurring at the same time.
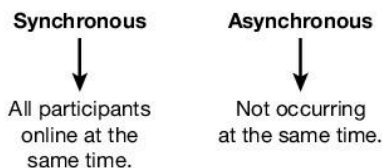
The use of computer-mediated communication facilitates interpersonal communication and some level of intimacy via instant messages and Skype. While there is a social presence, non-verbal communication is reduced as visual and audio contact with the receiver of the message can be distorted, in addition to the absence of a physical presence. Nevertheless, this mode of communication has a great social influence in the communication context because of its convenience. Here are some advantages of computer-mediated communication:

- saves time and money by accommodating all communication systems
- can be recorded
- synchronised
- supports relationship on social networks
- identifies the sender

Did you know?

Tim Berners-Lee came up with the idea of World Wide Web in the year 1990; by the year 2004 the Internet was widely used in America. Today more than two billion people use the Internet to connect with others the world over.

Activity 1

From the various scenarios below, identify the context that each one is related to e.g. social, entertainment, government, politics, business or marketing.

a. A popular department store sends out mass emails to let everyone know about the upcoming sale.

b. A new product is launched and the company uses the television to run a segment showing the benefits of the product.

c. A political party wants their members to rally for a worthy cause. They send out messages through the social networks to their followers to join them.

d. The production studio sent out electronic advertisements on music websites to advertise the new reggae band 'The Screamers'.

e. Ayesha wants everyone to be informed about her trip to St. Kitts by updating her Facebook site.

Activity 2

Read the advertisement below generated by the government for the public and answer the questions that follow:

Conserve Water

Restrictions apply to days and times that you can water your lawn, fill your pools and wash your cars in the dry season.

Day	Time
Monday	12.00 p.m – 6.00 p.m
Wednesday	2.00 p.m. – 6.00 p.m.
Friday	7.00 a.m. – 4.00 p.m.

Save water, save the earth!

1. What form of mass media could be used for this advertisement?

2. What are the advantages of the form of mass media that you selected?

3. What other forms of mass media could the government have used to inform the public of its water policy?

4. Design an advertising campaign for the government, using one form of mass media to educate the public on water conservation.

- to explore the features relevant to speech and communication
- to identify the different methods used in the delivery of speech.

Did you know?

Aspects of conversation include:

supporting details; classifying, elaborating, clarifying ideas; questioning and offering contrasting opinions.

Speech and conversation

We use speech and conversations in our everyday lives to communicate our ideas, present our opinions, address an issue, or give feedback. Speech forms part of the communication context of interpersonal communication, i.e. communication between two or more people. Speech is also the first form of communication that we use to convey our thoughts, and often miscommunication and conflict arise because of spontaneous responses that give no regard to the person at the receiving end of the message. It is recommended that before we speak, we reflect on the following:

- What is my role in the communication process?
- What is the nature of the message that I have to convey?
- What are the needs and characteristics of my audience?
- What knowledge, information and evidence do I have to contribute to a conversation?
- Do I have a formal or informal speech forum?
- Does my speech or conversation facilitate critical thinking?
- How much time do I have to convey my ideas?

It is important to decipher your role in the speech process. If you are listening to a lecture, it is wise that you give the speaker your full attention and then save your questions or responses for the end of the presentation. In this scenario, you are not expected to have an overt role that would interrupt the flow of information. On the other hand, if a conversation requires feedback from the listener or receiver, then the communication can go both ways at random in order to exchange thoughts and ideas. This is an informal process of communication.

Similarly, if you are speaking to a group in order to communicate a message, you have to ensure that you relate to your audience and that your ideas are logical and coherent to facilitate understanding. The speaker must give focus to the importance of his points in order to achieve his purpose and avoid speaking around the topic (we refer to this as 'speaking in circles').

It is necessary to consider the type of audience and their needs before you encode your message. If you are extending greetings to a person who is learning to speak English, you will have to speak slowly, when compared with a person who is fluent in English. In this case, you are conscious of the language variations and adjust your pace in the speech process to adapt to the needs of the receiver. Similarly, if you are explaining an aspect of communication studies to your subject teacher, you can fully incorporate the jargon of the subject. On the other hand, if you had to do so to your younger sibling, you would be conscious of the words that you use and incorporate more examples in your speech (refer back to section 1.4).

It is also important to consider the knowledge and information that you have about a topic before you make a formal presentation or engage in an informal conversation. It is advisable that if you have to

speak spontaneously, you should present ideas that you are sure about and then propose to get back to the person if you have to confirm or research further information. Examples and references can be useful in informal conversation; and while formal speech also requires this type of supporting details (when sharing information with a larger audience), it is more useful to have evidence from sources of authority and statistics. When you incorporate these techniques in your speech and conversations, it adds to the credibility of your responses.

Let us consider the different types of speeches.

Spontaneous speech – this is a speech where you are 'put on the spot'. You are forced to think quickly about what you have to say. This type of speech is used in our day-to-day conversations, and, in a more formal setting also works well for people who have experience and confidence to stand before an audience and speak unrehearsed.

Speech that is read (using notes from paper or technological devices) – with this form of speech, you can research your topic carefully and make an informed presentation. However, it limits the non-verbal forms of communication that can be effective to convey meaning, such as eye contact and body movement.

Speech that is partly memorised – this type of speech is very effective. As a speaker you would have to memorise your speech and only make reference to the main points to drive your conversations. It facilitates greater interaction with the audience, as the speaker has the researched information in his head and the ability to make quick reference to his notes, while making more eye contact with the audience.

Critical thinking is quite helpful in speech and conversations. It is a challenge and very often a difficult skill to manage. However, it is crucial to formal speeches since an organised speech is characterised by logical ideas with main ideas being supported by subsidiary points. This allows the listener/audience to be able to understand and process what is said, so as to give informed feedback that is also well thought out.

Time is also a crucial factor in speech and conversation. In an informal conversation, time may be of no consequence but if on the other hand, you were involved in a debate and you had ten minutes to make a rebuttal speech, you would have to be very strategic in your selection of ideas.

Activity 1

Think of a situation in your own life when you might use each of the different types of speeches: spontaneous, read and partly memorised. For each one, decide who the audience is, what the role of your speech is, and whether it will be formal or informal.

✔️ *Exam tip*

In the oral presentation in defence of your expository piece, pay attention to the following:

a. relate to your audience

b. use a polite and courteous tone of voice

c. speak to the question that you are exploring

d. facilitate responses at the end of your presentation

Activity 2

This diagram demonstrates the act of speech making in the communication process. Study it and discuss the relevance to the communication process.

Sender	Message and channel	Receiver
Voice	Nature of message	Gets information
Dress	Word choice	Changes attitude
	Phatic	Is entertained
	Metalinguistic codes	
	Emotional overtones	
	Rhetorical questions	
	Interaction	
	Gestures	
	Microphone	
	Social media networks	
	Visual aids	
	Musical accompaniment	
	Responds	
	Applause	
	Gives feedback	
	Demonstrates change	
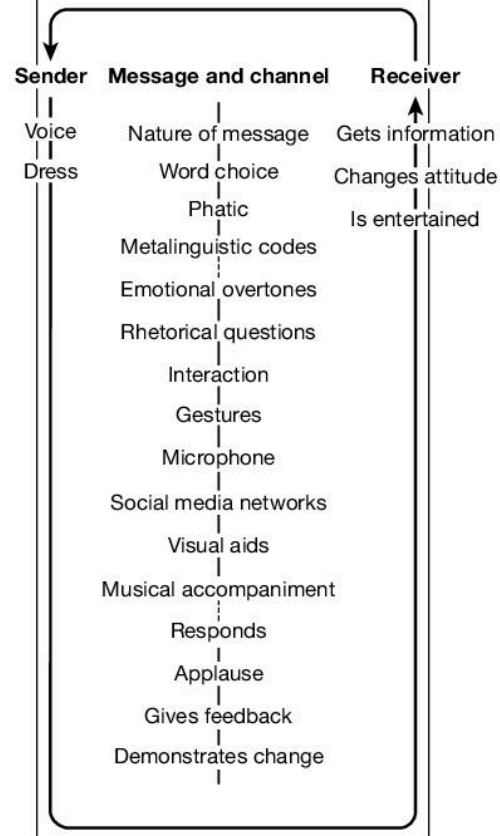
- to understand the function of speeches
- to identify the different types of speeches
- to explore the characteristics of the different speech types.

Speech making has become part of our everyday lives. We do it at home, at school and in the work environment. It is very important to identify the purpose and function of you speech before you begin to write it. This puts your speech into focus and determines the type of speech to be used. Before you begin, ask yourselves the following questions:

- Is my speech to persuade?
- Is it to provide entertainment?
- Is it to express my feelings?
- Is it to inspire others?
- Is it to share information?
- Is it to give directions?
- Is it to demonstrate something?
- Should it be phatic? (convey feelings rather than information)
- Is there metalinguistic awareness? (to reflect on how language is used)

The table below looks at some of the functions of different types of speech:

Function of speech	Explanation of function
persuasive	to convince others to accept your point of view and change their behaviour e.g. marketing and advertising strategies
entertaining	to provide amusement e.g. a comedian's monologue
to express feelings	to relate how you feel by expressing emotional thoughts and ideas e.g. 'I feel overwhelmed to be your valedictorian today'
to share information	to inform and share knowledge on a particular topic
inspiring	to motivate others or assist them to establish goals e.g. motivation speeches and goal-setting speeches
to give directions	to relate how to do something e.g. use a new exercise plan. Speech can be accompanied by visual aids
demonstrative	to show how to do something and talk through the process e.g. the television or social network can be used to facilitate talk and procedure at the same time with 'cooking shows' or 'how to apply makeup'
special occasions	to express greetings e.g. weddings, anniversaries
invitational	engages dialogue and feedback from the audience – facilitates the exchange of information with the receiver
phatic	incorporates language of solidarity for recognition and inclusion in speech e.g. 'my family' 'my brothers and sisters'
embodies metalinguistic awareness	to transfer linguistic knowledge across languages so that people are not alienated. E.g. it can cause confusion in public speaking if we say: 'I watch the television show, 'Sam and Cat'. Is Cat an animal or a girl? Here, Cat is not an animal but it is used as a girl's name is both used as a common and proper noun. Awareness of the communication context is important.

Types of speeches

There are many types of speeches for different occasions and the objective or goal must match the type of speech selected. There are four major types of speeches:

- informative/expository – e.g. the Minister of Security gives a televised speech to inform citizens of the increasing deaths amongst youth by gang members.

- persuasive/argumentative – e.g. a campaign is launched by the government to persuade the public of the effectiveness of the death penalty as a strategy to reduce crime.

- demonstrative – e.g. the government uses social media to show the citizens of a country how to conserve water in the dry season.

- special occasions – e.g. the government gives a speech to commemorate the independence of the nation

Informative speeches:

This type of speech is used to communicate information and is factual in nature. It can be presented both formally or informally. It gives detailed information on a topic, event, concept, object or process. The main function of this type of speech is to inform, explain, report, describe, demonstrate, instruct or clarify. Look at the following title for types of informative speeches:

- Is methanol an alternative source of fuel? (object)

- What brought Christopher Columbus to the new world? (event)

- How to write an informative speech (process)

- What is 'Gender Bias'? (concept)

- The Death Penalty (topic)

Persuasive speech:

This type of speech aims to convince an audience to change their thoughts or behaviours. It incorporates the speaker's opinions, provides supporting details and uses effective language strategies. It can also include visual aids to enhance presentations. Persuasive speeches explore issues dealing with facts, value systems and policies. Consider the following examples:

- How to live longer by eating healthy and exercising regularly. (fact)

- The Internet has a negative impact on the social skills of children. (value)

- Should corporal punishment be reinstated in school? (policy)

Demonstrative speech:

This type of speech places emphasis on how something works or demonstrates how to do something. For example, 'how to bake a cake' or 'how to set up Skype'. Demonstrative speeches often involve live shows or the use of social networks.

Special occasions:

There are many special occasions in our lives. These include birthdays, anniversaries, weddings, and graduation ceremonies. Whatever the occasion, you can be called upon to deliver a speech and you need to be prepared. Here are some ideas to consider:

- The speech must match the occasion, formal or informal

- Use strategies such as 'ice-breakers' to get the attention of the audience.

- Manage your time.

Activity 1

Identify the type of speech from among the following:

a. A salesman is trying to sell you the latest cell phone.

b. The computer engineer is showing a group of students how to construct a new tablet.

c. The English teacher is telling the class about how to write a speech.

d. An environmentalist is telling the public how to conserve the forest.

Organising a speech

You may know someone, who when called upon to give a speech, can do so 'off the cuff'. Unfortunately, not all of us are able to do so. Realistically, organising a speech requires preparation. It must be researched, planned, constructed (using a layout) and edited before the oral preparation. So while a speech belongs to the oral mode, it is certainly not devoid of writing, as this is the initial stage of planning. The process of writing notes, a plan, or the final speech, allows us to communicate our ideas effectively, using a structure that is coherent. This is necessary to facilitate greater understanding and appreciation among the listeners.

Selecting a topic

You may be called upon to give a speech for an event such as birthday celebration for which you are not involved in selecting a topic. However, for the purpose of your portfolio for communication studies, you will be given the privilege of choosing a topic. You should do so with the following considerations in mind: a topic of interest, a clear purpose of your study, and a system to access the information to inform the oral presentation for your portfolio. When you have chosen your topic, you can brainstorm ideas that inform your topic. For example: if 'Stress and examination preparation' is your topic, you may consider the following points: deadlines, amount of work to cover, teacher pressure, parental pressures, and time-management.

The elements of a speech

It is important for you to ensure that your speech or essay is logical by carefully organising the various parts which include the introduction, main body (with supporting details) and the conclusion.

The introduction:
The introduction of your speech is crucial to the success of your presentation. At the opening of your speech it is necessary to get the attention of your audience by establishing the tone mood. We refer to this as the 'audience appeal'. The introduction also establishes the topic so as to prepare the audience for what to expect in the rest of the speech. Here you can let the audience know why the topic is relevant to them. Furthermore, the introduction should give a quick insight into the body of your speech by identifying the main ideas or points to be discussed. Most of all, it is important to project a credible image as you show interest and knowledge of the topic.

The introduction also contains your thesis statement. The thesis statement is the main idea or purpose of the speech. Everything you say in the entire speech is centered on the thesis statement. Despite the importance of the statement, it should not be the opening of your speech. For example, *"Today my speech is on the topic of underprivileged women in Africa"*. This does not make for a very creative introduction. The audience can be made aware of the topic indirectly.

For example, *"Only when Somalian women can serve on a board of directors, manage businesses, and pursue their educational goals, can they say that they are truly liberated. Too often in society there are structures that prohibit women from excelling and having equal opportunities to assert themselves in society. It is time for African women to have equal rights."*

Checklist for introduction:

- attention grabber
- thesis statement or main idea
- importance of topic
- significance to audience

Audience Awareness:
To assist you in planning, it makes sense to know the characteristics of your audience, and to identify their needs in order:

Age – vocabulary and the explanations and examples you use to support your ideas.

Gender – avoid language that is offensive to a particular sex.

Educational background – language must match the educational background of the audience.

Job or skill expertise – if the audience has the same expertise the speaker can use technical terms associated with the subject of interest. However, if the audience is diverse, the speaker would have to speak more generally.

Language – an audience can consist of people with varied language backgrounds and the speaker needs to be conscious of this (meta-linguistics).

Cultural and religious background – a speaker needs to be careful when using aspects of language that does not represent the background of the audience as this could be deemed offensive.

Socio-economic status – the language of the speaker should match the language of the audience. It is important not to alienate the audience.

Attention Grabbers:
It is important to win the confidence of your audience and hold their attention. The following can assist you to do so:

- a popular saying
- an outline or a definition of your topic
- the historical background of your topic
- startling details or trivia about the topic
- use of statistics or data
- a rhetorical question
- a joke or humorous opening
- an anecdote or story
- a relevant scenario that you have experienced or may be aware of
- an analogy e.g. social deprivation and gang warfare are linked
- a catchy phrase – 'speechless speeches'
- a catchy topic for title – 'special speeches'
- use of quotes – 'speak the speech, I pray you, as I pronounced it to you, tripling on your tongue....' (Shakespeare)

Activity 1
Read the opening of a speech below and identify the strategies used by the speaker to effectively introduce his topic.

Incidence of child abuse is on the rise in our communities and the nation at large. In a large number of homes, schools and public places, children are being physically, psychologically and sexually abused by uneducated, frustrated and incompetent guardians. The Social Welfare Division reported a rise in child abuse incidence in 2014 by 25% and this is not exclusive to poverty-stricken homes. Videos of child abuse are now being posted on YouTube by the parents, guardians, and other caregivers themselves. Who therefore is left to protect our children?

Activity 2
Write an effective introduction to a speech for one of the following. Be sure to include some attention grabbers.

- The advantages and disadvantages of cell-phones vs. face-to-face communication.
- The abuse of communication devices in the 21st century.
- Tourism and the development of the Caribbean.
- Gang violence among youth.

The main body

The main body is the heart of a speech, and will require the most time and planning. It includes the main ideas or main points of arguments in the speech. The main body has several uses:

- to give explanations
- to provide clarification
- to illustrate
- to gives example
- to incorporate supporting details
- to offer an opposing view in order to reinforce the proposed argument.

Supporting details

Supporting details are used in the body of the speech in order to validate your points. You should use a variety of supporting details in order to enhance your presentation. Supporting details include: examples, statistics, illustrations, anecdotes, quotations, important sayings, research, sources of authority, song, plays and poetry, visual aids, pictures, charts.

It is useful to brainstorm on ideas and make an outline of your point before you begin to write your speech. The outline ensures that your speech is logical and coherent. The speech should move from a general idea to sub-divisions of that idea. The sub-divisions make up the supporting ideas.

Let us look at the use of the supporting details for the following: *an example, statistics, illustration* and *research*

Example:
Social media can be abused if no laws are in place to regulate its use. For example, one Facebook posting depicted a husband and wife having an argument at a party. The embarrassment it caused was great and the couple had to seek counselling as a result.

Statistics:
Social media is used by many students to communicate with each other for both social and academic purposes; as such, parents should encourage its use. In 2013, 65% of the student population in Mr Climber Higher School used the Internet and school webpage to share information and prepare for examinations.

Illustration/anecdote:
There is no doubt that using cell phones while driving causes road fatalities and accidents. A cell phone used by Rupert Thorgrave was responsible for killing baby Memory and her mother, Endrina. In the early morning of December 21 2013, Endrina and her two month old baby were going to visit their relative in Maoo Bay, when Rupert Thorgrave slammed into their car in a head-on collision. The police report confirmed that he was texting his wife whilst driving, to remind her to thaw out the Christmas turkey.

Research:
Cell phones are now responsible for a large number of road fatalities. A survey was recently completed in March 2014 by the Ministry of Transportation on the use of cell-phones while driving. The survey acknowledged that while many accidents are caused by defective vehicles, more road fatalities are now caused by distractions due to texting whilst driving.

Organising the main points

Without a pattern, it is difficult to make sense of the information presented in a speech. Thus, the purpose of each style of organisation is to facilitate logic, retention and understanding. The main points in a speech can be organised using five different methods. These methods depend on the topic chosen and the purpose or intention of the writer:

Chronological order – This method organises a speech according to the sequence of time. Here the points appear in the order that they occur and include a procedure, process or historical record. For example, if your topic is the Internet, you might start by explaining how it was discovered, then how it is presently used and lastly, how it will be used in the future.

Topical order – This method arranges sub-topics into larger topics. For example, a speech on the human body may discuss the function of the brain, the skeleton, muscles etc.

Cause and effect – This shows the different causes and the effects on a situation or circumstance. It is used predominantly for persuasive writing. The speaker can choose to write about all of the causes and then the effects or a cause followed by an effect simultaneously. Sometimes authors choose to talk about the effect and then the cause. For example, Dubai is one of the most developed countries in the world (effect). It's production of oil and high prices of oil are the major source of its development (cause).

Problem and solution – This method analyses the causes of problems and then proposes a solution. It is used in persuasive speeches. For example, a speech on the problem of traffic congestion would describe all of the problems associated with it, which include: reduced work performance, reduced productivity levels, unpunctuality, fatigue and stress. Then the solutions would be recommended: the expansion of the road system, the development of major highways, the development of the public transportation system and the promotion of car-pooling.

Spatial patterns – This method organises a speech according to the structure, layout and directions. It plays close attention to how things fit in relation to one another. For example, a tree has several parts: its roots, trunk, branches and leaves. You can then take each major structure and talk about its relation and function to the life of a tree.

> ### Activity 3
> You are asked to make a televised presentation on the erosion of the coastline due to the rise in sea levels.
>
> 1. What factors will you consider about the viewing audience before planning your presentation?
>
> 2. Write an outline of the speech identifying your main points, and providing at least one supporting detail for each one.

Conclusion

The conclusion in speech writing is just as significant as any other part. It brings closure to the speech and satisfies the audience. A conclusion achieves the following:

- summarises the topic
- reviews the main idea
- includes attention grabber 'phrases'.

- to identify the function of persuasive writing and speeches
- to explore the layout of persuasive writing
- to identify the techniques in persuasive writing
- to recognise the use of connecting words in linking ideas
- to write and present a persuasive speech
- to revise and edit your speech.

Did you know?

The Greek philosopher Aristotle informed three ways of analyzing persuasive speeches which he referred to as 'proofs'. They are ethos, pathos and logos. Ethos represents the speaker's credibility; pathos refers to the speaker's ability to tap into a listener's feelings; and logos refers to logical arguments and reasoning, based on the facts and supporting details presented by the speaker.

Goals of persuasive speeches and writing

Section 2.3 explored the nature of **persuasive writing**. In this section we will focus on this type of speech in more detail in reference to your portfolio. Persuasive speeches and messages are geared to changing the ideas, attitudes, behaviours, values, beliefs or opinions of an audience about a topic, issue, argument or policy. When you engage in persuasive writing you would have one of the following goals in mind:

- to convince the audience of your point of view
- to change someone's attitude towards something
- to change a behaviour.

Persuasive speech writing consists of both logic and emotion. Logic refers to clearly stated facts and opinions, based on concrete evidence, that you would present in order to convince the reader of the truth. Emotion, on the other hand, deals with the connection that the speaker makes with the audience. Short stories, analogies and illustrations are some of the strategies that are used to connect the message to an emotional response. For example, if you are writing a speech on preserving wildlife, you can tell a story or show a visual presentation about animals that have lost their homes due to deforestation. There are several types of persuasive speeches:

- **Inspirational speeches** are designed to motivate the audience with the use of logic and emotional appeal. Speeches of this nature include sermons, political and graduation speeches.
- **Informative speeches** are geared to give information on a topic or issue. There is an appeal to logic, backed with supporting details and credibility.
- **Convincing speeches** are focused on changing the opinions of the audience. These appeal to logic and emotion.

Developing persuasive speeches

When writing speeches, several formats can be used. The most common is the problem/solution speech which is based on logic and outlines first the problem and then the proposed solution to that problem. The following format can be used for general speeches:

Introduction:
- introduce the main points
- establish your point of view
- use attention grabbers.

Body:
- explain points and describe problems
- use supporting material to show significance
- use supporting materials to appeal to audience needs
- use logical arguments
- incorporate visual aids to enhance the presentation if applicable.

Conclusion:
- summarise and conclude

Edit, revise and practise:
- rehearse in front of a mirror or an audience of friends and family.

Techniques in writing persuasive speeches

We use several strategies in persuasive speech in order to convince the audience of our points of view and alter their attitudes and behaviours. Let us explore some of them.

- **Rhetorical questions** – a question that is posed to the audience but does not require an answer. This type of question allows the audience to think and a shape their opinions. It can be used at any point in the persuasive speech. For example, a gradutation ceremony inspirational speech might ask: 'Would you like to leave this graduating class and carve your place in this world?'

- **Repetition** – repeated use of words or phrases to remain in the audience's mind. For example: 'It is my desire to be great; it is my desire to do great things…'

- **Sources of authority** – refer to a credible source of information, to support the speaker's main ideas. For example, 'The Caribbean Medical Association reports that the leading cause of diabetes among children under the age of ten is due to a high consumption of sugary beverages and very little exercise.'

- **Facts and statistics** – grounded in qualified data that is proven. For example, 'the quality of life of the people of Talbaron has increased over the years, with an average income of $30,000 per annum per person.'

- **Cause and effect** – shows the relationship between an event happens and it's impact. For example, 'if 70% of the students at Mt. High Secondary are overweight, it means only 30% are healthy'.

- **Analogy** – comparisons of places, people and ideas are made in order to strengthen an argument. The comparisons do not always have to be similar. For example, 'social media is the eye of the world.'

- **Contrast** – These are two opposing ideas that aim to show logic and reasoning. 'We have to be dissatisfied in order to find satisfaction.'

- **Compare and contrast** – shows similarities and differences between ideas and situations. Words like *although, on the other hand, similarly* can be used to show the relationships between ideas.

- **Overstatements** – grasps the audience attention and helps to make the information more appealing. For example, 'Using the Brain-GO product will produce wonders for your mental health.'

- **Non-verbal cues and paralanguage (non-verbal aspects of speech)** – the use of gestures, eye contact, the articulation of words, volume and pitch enhance persuasive speeches.

- **Audio and visual aids** – the use of CD players, projectors, songs, music, visual images allows the audience to further engage their senses into the experience of the presentation.

- **Emotional words** – words uses to elicit feelings of emotion such as guilt, anger, sadness, sympathy. For example, 'When we abuse the environment ever day, we rape Mother Nature of her ability to sustain us.'

- **Pronouns** – The use of 'you', 'our', 'my' and 'your' help to make the audience identify with the issues in persuasive speeches.

- **Adjectives** – Describing words that help to create a vivid image of things. This is good for emotional appeal.

- **Present tense** – The use of this tense makes topics new, current and urgent. This also makes persuasive speeches more inspirational.

Activity 1

You are the Campaign Manager for Mr. Joe Packman who represents the ruling political party. You have to write a speech for him to present on the use of tablets to improve educational opportunities at secondary school.

1. Identify the target audience.

2. State which presentation aids you would you use.

3. Write and edit the speech for presentation.

Make sure you include:

- an introduction using attention grabbers

- logical ideas in body

- an informed conclusion

- use of supporting evidence, and

- use of transition and linking words.

Learning outcomes

- to understand the goals of arguments
- to explore the features of arguments
- to identify the techniques used in arguments.

The goal of both persuasive speech and persuasive writing is to encourage an audience to change their views, attitudes and beliefs towards a subject and, ultimately, to bring about changes in behaviour. As an aspect of persuasive writing, arguments involve both the oral and written modes of communication and use logic and reason to change the attitude and point of view of the reader/audience. The distinctive feature of arguments is that they encourage you to take a position on a debatable topic. In this regard, argumentative writing seeks to endorse the various points put forward and make them convincing by using well thought out arguments, supported by several forms of evidence (refer to section 2.3). Argumentative writing is used for speeches (political), editorials, sermons, letters, debates and advertisements. Let us look at the major features of persuasive and argumentative speech and writing.

Persuasive writing	Argumentative writing
The aim is to win the reader over to your side.	This encourages the audience to take a position – to agree or disagree.
Only one side of an issue is presented, although the other side is mentioned.	Evidence is used both for your argument and the counter argument, in order to refute it.

Beginning your argument

You may choose to write an argument as one of your portfolio pieces, or use an argument to justify your choice of topic for your oral presentation. The initial steps are important:

- Find a topic that interests you.
- Take a side.
- Research both sides of the topic, giving emphasis to your point of view.
- Find supporting evidence to support your points.
- Analyse your audience, asking yourself whether they are likely to be for, against or neutral in relation to your topic.

The structure of an argument

Arguments have a particular structure. This helps to put your speech or essay in focus. The introduction attempts to brief the audience on the topic while the body uses well-supported points of view to persuade the reader to take a side of the argument. Generally, the conclusion reinforces the major points or summarises the arguments used.

Introduction
1. Explain the topic
2. Write a thesis statement or point of view
3. Summarise the main arguments or form a generalisation about the topic.

Main body

- Option 1 – Present both sides of the issue, state your point of view, argue your points and use supporting evidence to validate them.
- Option 2 – Explain the reason for your choice of argument, support it using evidence. Acknowledge the other side of the argument and refute it using a counterargument.
- Option 3 – Present a topic sentence, explain the topic sentence. State the evidence to support your topic sentence and explain how the evidence proves the point.

Conclusion

The conclusion can take the following forms:

1. Summarise the main points.
2. Restate your point of view or argument.
3. Use a strong analytical point that was not mentioned before.
4. Use a line that stays with the readers/audience.
5. Introduce new information that amazes the reader/audience.
6. Use a memorable quote, saying or proverb.
7. Introduce a new point that can stand on its own.

When revising and editing your speech, check that:

- Points of view are clearly stated.
- Argument is logically developed.
- No harsh language.
- Use of supporting evidence to support arguments.
- Information and arguments are relevant.
- Separate paragraphs for each point argued.
- Use of introduction, body and conclusion.
- Knowledge of other side of argument.
- Powerful concluding statements.
- Suitable vocabulary for audience.
- Use of relevant transition words.
- Appropriate spelling, punctuation and grammar.

The following techniques may be used effectively in argumentative speeches:

- fact and opinion
- sources of authority
- point and counter-point
- examples
- experiences
- anecdotes
- statistics
- proverbs, quotations, colloquial sayings
- testimonies
- history
- emphasis on words
- emotional language
- devices such as imagery, alliteration, assonance, rhyme

- to explain the concept of expository writing
- to explain the stages of the oral exposition
- to explore aspects of expository speeches
- to write an expository speech for oral presentation.

Expository speech and writing

Exposition forms part of the oral and written discourse modes along with arguments, descriptions and narratives. Exposition is predominantly used to give information on a subject or topic and to explain ideas. Thus, expositions can be used to: describe, inform, clarify, classify, illustrate and analyse information in order to facilitate understanding and clarify meaning. Let us look at the expository mode of discourse. It provides information to the audience using several techniques or styles. These include:

- compare and contrast
- cause and effect
- problem and solution
- categorisation
- use of descriptions
- use of explanations
- reports
- extended definitions
- instructions/directions
- sequencing of ideas.

Oral exposition

In section 2.4, we explored the general functions and types of expository writing. In this section, we will focus on its function for academic purposes, in relation to the oral presentations for your Internal Assessment Portfolio.

The main purpose of expository speech is to explain a topic or idea. When you are selecting a topic, it is wise to ensure that it is current, interesting and appealing to your audience. The topic must also serve the needs and take into consideration the background of the audience that you are presenting to. In addition, it is necessary for you to have access to the relevant research material so as to qualify and clarify the information that you are presenting. In this regard, you are an expert on the topic and if you asked a question, you will be prepared to respond.

Most speeches of exposition begin with a definition, explanation, historical reference and supporting materials. Visual and auditory aids such as music, charts, illustrations, diagrams, stories, pictures and movies can also be used to enhance presentations. For example, if you wanted to explore the 'impact of slavery on work ethics in the classroom', you may begin the presentation by giving an historical account of Africans in the Caribbean. After this, you may show some statistics of the academic performance of African students in school. You may then choose to give an anecdote of the work ethic of an African student in the class comparing it to his rate of academic success.

This topic also shows the importance of exploring relationships in expositions. For example, you might want to explore the possible relationship between slavery and work ethics in the classroom. When conducting this type of research, it is advisable to keep the scope of your study narrow for manageability and time- constraint issues.

Research material is also important to the oral presentation. Primary and secondary research material such as surveys, interviews, observations, experiments, government, personal records, electrical database and the Internet, will go a long way to validate your topic and enhance your presentation. It is also a good idea to explore the obstacles in obtaining the data for the research, as this makes your experiences more reliable. You would also be required to critique your sources of data based on the following criteria: context, medium, reliability, validity.

When you critique the source of your data, you are evaluating it based on the context, medium, authority, reliability and validity. The context refers to the forum that is used to share your ideas, such as, for example, a play, magazine or newspaper, assembly, or radio broadcast. The medium is the type of literary genre that you choose to highlight the theme of your exposition (for example, poetry or a song). The sources of authority are the experts who have the knowledge and experience on your topic of study. Your citations can qualify your relevant sources. You research must also be reliable. When it is reliable, it means that you can conduct the same research on a group of individuals over a period of time and it will have the same results. For a research to be reliable, it also needs to be valid. Validity has to do with sound reasoning that is logical.

It is important to consider the language needs of your audience when making your expository speech. Since the oral presentation for your portfolio takes place in a formal setting, Standard English must be used with the appropriate vocabulary. You must also be conscious of your pronunciation, as well as the volume, pace and fluency of your speech. It is important to avoid slangs, colloquial sayings and clichés in order to make your speech more comprehensive. Moreover, since expository speeches are geared to inform and facilitate understanding, the persuasive style of writing that incorporates biases, opinions and subjective views should be avoided.

The last part of the expository speech process is to practise your oral presentation. You can do a rehearsal in front of a sample group of students in your class or with your teacher. Be sure to entertain constructive comments only, as it is necessary to boost your confidence at this point. Also, it is better to become familiar with most of your speech. Cue cards can help you: jot down the main points of discussion and use short points to remind you of the supporting details.

To further enhance your presentation, you can use a PowerPoint presentation or other technological aid. If you choose to use a PowerPoint presentation, make sure that it goes beyond just repeating the words of your speech. The use of technological aids should enhance and not repeat what you have already said. At this point you are on your way to a successful presentation.

Oral presentation checklist:

- Give a brief introduction to your topic.
- Say why you chose to study this topic.
- Disclose your findings using your supporting data.
- Identify your two sources of data.
- Say how each source contributed to your findings.
- Critique each source of data making reference to the context, medium, reliability and validity.
- Summarise the main points that you have explored.

Exam tip

For your oral presentation, it is important to analyse the sources of data that you used in your research according to the context, medium, reliability and validity. You can make reference to the research material in order to do so. This makes your research transparent.

Key points

Literary genres include: poetry, song, diary and journal entries, skits, monologue, short stories, letters, argumentative, descriptive and narrative essays.

18 Types of writing

- to understand the goals of reflective writing
- to explore the role of reflective writing for academic purposes
- to understand the general structure of reflective writing
- to explore the different aspects of reflective writing for the School Based Assessment Project.

Did you know?

It is worth recognising the differences between the theme and topic for purposes of your portfolio. The theme is broad, for example 'education'. The topic comes out of the theme and explores a specific aspect of it for example, 'the social development of the people of a community with a practical education background'.

☑ *Exam tip*

If you are using a piece of artwork to capture your theme, remember that this must be accompanied by a complementary written exploration of the piece of work.

Reflective writing

Reflective writing is a personal expression of experiences, situations and events. It is embedded in both the narrative and descriptive modes of writing and expressed through the literary genres of diaries, journals, poetry, prose, song or drama. It is the most personal of all the modes of writing. It expresses your innermost thoughts and ideas. You may be used to reflecting about every day events and experiences in a journal or diary. However, for academic purposes such as your portfolio's 'reflective piece', you are required to reflect in more depth on what you produced, how you engaged in the process of writing, and how useful it was to you. Generally, reflective writing gives you the opportunity to think carefully about your composition and make your work more meaningful.

For your portfolio project it is worth reflecting on the following:

- The inspiration for your choice of theme and topic.
- The exploration of the title and issues that come out of the theme and topic.
- How to approach the research.
- How to write up your project using the various subheadings – the preface, the reflective piece, the analytical essay.
- What was both inspiring and challenging about the research.

The structure of reflective writing

Reflections are often an unstructured way of thinking, and if you are writing in a personal diary or journal it can be done in this way. However, for academic purposes, there is the need for structure. Let us look at two models of reflective writing that can be used:

Model 1:
1. Write a description about the creative piece being explored.
2. Interpret the creative piece and explore what is interesting about it.
3. Explore the outcome of the creative piece and assess whether it achieved its purpose in contributing to the theme and topic.

Model 2:
1. Select the parts of the creative piece that you want to reflect on – language, structure, meaning.
2. Explain the creative piece.
3. Identify the advantages or shortcomings of the creative piece as it facilitates the needs of exploring your theme and topic.

Reflective writing for your portfolio

The portfolio requires you to create a reflective piece that captures your theme. It involves the use of some level of creativity, using language to express your views on the theme and topic (refer to section 2.6).

The preface

The preface focuses on the creative piece that you chose to write on. It also explores the theme and purpose for the creative piece. The target audience must be mentioned here and consideration must be given to the characteristics of the audience (for example, age and culture.) At this point, the context and medium must be considered. The context makes mention of how your creative piece may be effectively used to reach your audience. For example, if you used a play to highlight the dangers of child abuse, it could be presented at a Parent-Teacher Association meeting at your school. The medium used would be your play because it has to serve the purpose of delivering the message to the audience of parents.

The reflective piece

The types of reflective piece that you consider for your portfolio should be creative. Some of the literary genres such as persuasive, argumentative, narrative and expository writing were discussed in section 2. The next section will explore some additional literary genres to assist you with your selection. In addition, the reflective piece must capture or embody the essence of the theme that you are attempting to highlight. This brings your study into perspective. Most importantly, the reflective piece must contain sufficient linguistic features to be discussed in your analytical essay which include register, dialectal variations, attitude to language and communicative behaviours.

The analysis

In your portfolio, the analytical essay should be approximately 350 words in length, and must include an introduction, development and conclusion. The introduction should refer to the two linguistic features that you intend to discuss (two out of the four used in the reflective piece). In the body, you should analyse the two chosen linguistic features of the reflective piece, using examples of the features, rather than definitions of them. The body must also contain: how the linguistic features are used, why they are used and how they reflect the theme of the reflective piece. Be sure to include suitable transition words for coherence in your essay. When writing your conclusion, try to capture and reiterate the substance of the essay. With this endeavour, you should have a successful analysis.

> ☑ *Exam tip*
>
> Here are some context types that you may consider when discussing the forum for your creative piece:
>
> PowerPoint, CD/DVD player, school assembly, class presentation, television, radio, letters to the editor, You Tube, blog.

Activity 1

Read the preface below and discuss the use of the medium and context in this part of the reflective section.

The purpose of writing this play is to create an awareness of child abuse in our community and to highlight the harmful effects it has on the physical and psychological development of our children. The play is used to recreate a realistic scenario that took place in our community one year ago where a twelve-year-old girl was burnt by her mother because she forgot to wash the dishes. It is hoped that this play will arouse feelings of anger and sympathy among the care givers and community leaders so that they can rise against this negative practice that is taking over our society. The context used to reach the parents and care givers is the forum of a Parent-Teacher Association meeting at our school compound. The first step begins with us. The play will be taped and later placed on You Tube to reach a wider audience and begin our campaign for the protection of our young ones.

- to explore the features of journal and diary writing
- to explore the content of journal writing
- to read a journal entry and examine the structure of it.

The genres of journals, diaries, poetry, prose, song and drama are predominantly used in the reflective writing section of your portfolio. You will have to choose one of literary genres for your portfolio project. It is important to note that the reflective piece that you choose should capture the theme of your portfolio and the characteristics of the target audience.

In the last section, we explored the purpose and structure of reflective writing, and looked at the fact that reflective writing explores your thoughts and emotions. When you embark on your reflective or creative pieces, you should be conscious of this.

Journals and diary writing

Journal and diary writing are often deemed 'a mirror of the self'. A diary can sometimes be used to refer to a journal, because both genres of writing relate to life's experiences and events. They generally consider the writer's emotions and experiences, draw conclusions and contain lessons and answers to many questions. There are subtle differences between journal and diary writing. Diary writing is a record of personal experiences, thoughts, feelings and themes that are recorded on a daily basis. Journal writing is an examination of one's life experiences via self-reflection, insights, inspirations, goals and achievements. The difference is that the journal entries are less frequent and rigid when compared to diary writing. In our age of technology, journal and diary entries can be made through electronic formats such as blogs and journal websites.

Here are some features of journal and diary writing:

- captures life stories and experiences
- incorporates the truth
- conversational – dialogue with self
- facilitates goal setting – allows you to plan and record achievements
- good for record keeping
- historical documentation
- facilitates discovery
- traces development
- can include pictures, recordings, and book references
- incorporates reflections, feelings and emotions
- explores thoughts and feelings
- incorporates visuals, such as photographs or video (such as a short film), and auditory such as recordings of interviews.

Content of journal writing

Journal writing can include aspects of the following:

- provides descriptions – describes situations, events, experiences and emotions. Use your five senses for this (sight, smell, taste, touch and hearing)
- presents information – records information you may have discovered
- reflection – explores your inner thoughts and feelings

Did you know?

The word diary comes from the Latin word 'diarium', meaning daily part. The first attempt at diary writing was recorded in 1605. Between 1998 and 1999, the Internet diaries and live journals became popular with online publishing and privacy agreements.

- self-evaluation – captures your personality and private thoughts
- evaluation – explains what you have observed
- action plan and outcome of event – determines the next stage of the action that you will take based on your reflections, conclusions and findings and incorporates learning experiences

---

Activity 1

Here is a sample of an excerpt from a journal entry based on a student's perspective on the topic 'examination stress and underperformance'.

Read the extract and see what aspects of the structure outlined here are incorporated.

> 25th May, 2014.
>
> Journal entry #5
>
> *I wish I never had to write exams. Last night I stayed up till approximately 2.00a.m. I memorised all of the material from my biology notes. I also practised some questions from the past papers that the teacher had given us. I went to bed about 2.20.a.m. All I can recall is the biology notes spinning around in my head like a Loupgareau in the night. When the clock chanted 6.00a.m., I knew I had had no sleep. I got up to my mother's warm cocoa tea and salt fish bake. As much as I loved that meal, I had no appetite. The drive to school did not make me feel any better. I felt gassy bubbles in my stomach and I felt like vomiting. My mother dropped me off and gave me a good-luck kiss.*
>
> *At school my best friend's greeting slid over me like 'water over a duck's back'. When I finally sat down for the exam, I started to feel dizzy as if all planktons, carbon monoxide and predators were tied up in knots in my head. My hands could not stop sweating and my throat went dry as the rivers in the dry season. The exam was over before I could recollect my thoughts. Did I do all of the questions! The answer to that question has me dotish.*
>
> *I have not discussed this with anyone yet. Only Mrs Smith has a clue. I want to discuss this with my guidance Counsellor first and then I will tell my parents. I know that they will be disappointed with me, but I cannot go on like this.*

Activity 2

Using what you have learned about reflective writing, choose a form of reflective writing and write a creative piece, including the features outlined in this section.

Learning outcomes

- to understand the different types of letter writing
- to explore the forms and structure of letters for different purposes
- to recognise the purpose and intention of letter writing
- to write a letter adhering to the organisational pattern, mechanics and use of grammar.

Letter writing can take many forms including a note, a diary entry, a report or a complaint. Emails, texts, blogs and tweets are also now used quite frequently in the place of letters, and they are referred to as computer mediated communication. When you are writing a letter, it is important to keep in mind your purpose or intention. Is your purpose to express your feelings? Is it to persuade or convince someone? Is it to inform and provide information on a subject? (refer back to section 1.4).

It is important to note that the purpose of writing a letter informs the the content and structure. For instance, the greetings and salutation, the form, the sequencing of ideas and the content material will depend on the purpose of the letter.

There are two broad types of letter writing:

1. Formal, such as business letter
2. Informal letter, such a letter to a friend

The formal letter includes:

- applications
- professional
- information
- complaints
- reports
- requests
- apologies
- character-references
- congratulatory
- complementary

The informal letter includes:

- thank-you notes
- invitations
- love letters
- condolences
- farewells

Letter writing also takes different structures:

1. block form: the text is left aligned on the page.
2. indented form: the sender's address, date and signature appear of the right-hand side of the page.

   Both are correct, although the block form is used more frequently for formal (usually typed) letters, and the indented format for informal (and often handwritten) letters.

When writing a letter it is important to keep the following objectives in mind:

- Identify and address your audience.
- Communicate your ideas clearly.
- Get to the point as concisely as possible.
- For a formal letter, use a formal tone. Even if it is a letter of complaint, keep it courteous and respectful.
- Make recommendations at the end if necessary.

Here is an outline of a formal letter, using the block form:

> Return Address
> Date [month, day, year]
>
> Mr./Mrs./Ms. [name of recipient]
> Title of recipient
> Company name
> Recipient's address.
>
> Dear Mr./Mrs./Ms., [salutation]
> Subject: ....
> Paragraph 1 – greetings and purpose
> Paragraph 2
> Paragraph3
> Closing remarks
> Respectfully submitted,
>
> ....
> Signature of sender
> Name of sender
> Title of sender

Here is an example of an informal letter using the indented form:

>   Sender's street address
>   Date [month, day, and year].
>
> Dear ([irst name],
> Paragraph 1 – Greetings and purpose for writing.
> Paragraph 2
> Paragraph 3
>
> Closure – friendly remarks.
>
>   Yours sincerely,
>   First name of sender

Activity 1

Career Fair time is here and the Student Council body of your school has been asked to host the event to introduce the students to future careers and showcase the businesses in the community. As a member of the Student Council, you have been asked to devise a promotional campaign to promote the fair among students and parents.

Write a letter to the principal of your school outlining the proposals for the promotional campaign.

- to identify the similarities and differences between song and poetry
- to explore the various aspects of song
- to analyse two genres of song for structure, content and purpose.
- to explore the elements of poetry
- to preview the main types of poetry
- to identify the rhyme scheme of a poem.

Song and poetry share certain similarities, but they are used for different purposes. They both include themes, imagery, descriptions, literary devices, rhyme and rhythm and they aim to capture the audience's emotions and imagination.

Poetry can be used as lyrics and vice versa as for example with Bob Marley's, 'Get up, Stand up.' However, songs have a unique purpose. Unlike poetry which is recited, songs are sung and require instrumental accompaniment and melodious notes to capture the audience.

In terms of the structure, songs also tend to be more ordered with a repetitive chorus and refrain, while the structure of poetry varies: it can be rhymed or unrhymed and there are different types of poetry including sonnets and odes. In addition, lyrics can be more abstract with the use of ambiguous words. This is done to allow the listener to attach his own meaning to the lyrics. Poetry on the other hand, is more precise and clear – whether it is literal or metaphoric. This is done so as to allow you to experience the poet's world. Whether you choose to write a song or a poem for your reflective piece, your aim must be to capture the attention of the audience.

Songs

Songs consists of lyrics and musical accompaniment. Both aspects of songs are used to evoke emotions and highlight issues such as the songwriter's pain, pleas for change or happiness. There are many different song genres including reggae, rap, calypso, hip-hop, electronic, pop, rock, classical, jazz, blues, country, Latin, folk. Each genre has its own structure.

Despite the different types of songs, they all follow the basic structure of an introduction, theme, verse, bridge, chorus and break:

The introduction: This is the opening of the song. It contains a melody, as rhythm, musical notes, chant or line, that serves as the backbone of the song. It is used to build the listener's anticipation for what is to follow.

The theme: This captures the main idea or essence of the song. It can be about, for example, human suffering, trials or love.

The verse: This gives structure to the song by maintaining a similar melody for all the verses. It also connects the song by exploring the theme or main issues in its lyrics. No two verses are the same, as it offers lyrical dimensions to the song.

The bridge: This is used between the verse and chorus to connect one part of the song to the next. An instrumental piece can be used for this purpose. One of the main purposes of this aspect of the song is to allow the listener to reflect on the lyrics.

The chorus: This repeats the main lines of the song so that the listener can remember it. It captures the theme of the song and remains the same, unlike the verses.

The break: This part offers a new dimension to the song by using an instrumental or chanting accompaniment. This normally comes just before the last chorus of the song. The purpose of this aspect of song is to grab the attention or build the anticipation of the listener for the chorus or verse.

Activity 1

Search for the following songs on YouTube and listen to each one. Identify the different elements of the structure for each one. Then discuss the various aspects of the songs with your peers in class to compare your findings. You can also search for the lyrics of the songs to assist you with the task.

- 'Candle in the Wind' by Sir Elton John
- 'Get up, Stand Up' by Bob Marley
- 'Beautiful Day' by U2
- 'Unbreak My Heart' by Toni Braxton
- 'The Wind Beneath My Wings' by Bette Midler.

Activity 2

Find the lyrics for Katy Perry's song `Firework', and answer the following questions:

1. Identify the literary devices used and suggest how they support the title.
2. State how the song's theme is reinforced by its lyrics.
3. Identify the song's target audience and suggest how the message is relevant to them.

Poems

You have all been poets at some time in your lives – whether you wrote a stanza or a poem for your loved ones. Poetry is one of the most creative genres that uses words with economy, and yet explores the imagination to the fullest. T.S. Eliot described poetry as, 'the logic of the imagination'. There is no doubt that while poetry is organised and concise, it is also extensive. Poetry involves emotions such as happiness, anger, fear, prohibitions, serenity, sadness and pain; and as these emotions are being explored, you are allowed to empathise with the feelings being conveyed by the poet. Moreover, poetry uses lines and spacing that allow it to be rhythmic and enthralling to the reader. If you decide to use poetry for your reflective piece, it offers you the opportunity to explore the depth of sensitive issues or your personal thoughts alongside the reader's feelings. As with all other forms of communication, be conscious of the characteristics of your audience as they need to be able to relate to the poem for it to be effective.

Form and structure of a poem

Poems have different structures and styles. Each form helps you, the writer, to achieve your purpose. It is important to be able to explain your choice of poetry in the analysis of your reflective piece. You may choose to write a poem with stanzas that take one of the following forms:

- **rhyming couplets** – the last two words of each line rhyme using the pattern aa/bb/cc
- **quatrains** – a four line stanza that rhymes with the pattern a/b/a/b/ c/d/c/d.

- **free verse** – no set rhyme scheme in the structure of the stanzas. It may contain internal rhymes with the use of assonance and alliteration.
- **blank verse** – the stanzas have no rhyme scheme. It may be deemed unrhymed. The lines consist of a stressed syllable followed by an unstressed syllable, which is referred to as 'iambic pentameter'.

Here are some of the more popular types of poetry:

Narrative: This type of poem tells a story and unfolds the events as it goes along. It is also descriptive. For example, 'The Pied Piper of Hamelin' by Robert Browning.

Sonnet: A poem with fourteen lines using any of a number of formal rhyme schemes typically having ten syllables per line, for example, 'Sonnets Composed upon Westminster Bridge' by William Wordsworth. There are two main types of sonnets, the 'Petrarchan' and 'Shakespearean' sonnet. The Petrarchan sonnet consists of two main parts called the octave and sestet. The octave normally poses a question or dilemma and the sestet provides the answer or reasoning for it. The Shakespearean sonnet consists of altering rhymes and a rhyming couplet.

Rap: This type of poem is quite popular among the youth, it incorporates rhyme, word play and rhythm. Songwriters like Usher and the late Tupac Shakur employed this style of music.

Elegy: This type of poem mourns the death of a person. It describes sorrowful thoughts. For example, 'Elegy written in a country churchyard' by Thomas Grey.

Lyric: A lyric expresses feelings and emotions without narrating an event. Lyrics are usually put to music.

Ode: A lyric poem, typically one in the form of an address to a particular subject, written in varied or irregular metre.

Themes in poetry

The theme of a poem is the main idea or subject of the poem. It is reflected in the entire poem and you must read carefully in order to identify it. As a reader, you can get clues about the theme of a poem from the title, the narrative voice, the imagery and the subject matter. Some ideas for themes include love, death, hope, prejudice, betrayal.

The persona: The character that speaks in a poem. This is often referred to as 'the voice' in poetry. The poet can speak for himself, or use the voice of a character to speak on his behalf. The voice can also represent the poet's 'private voice' or the poet's 'public voice' (as he speaks on behalf of others). In this scenario, the voice can take the form of the first person narrator using 'I' or 'we'. Additionally, 'the voice' also determines who is being spoken to. For example, in dramatic monologues, one person speaks to another. Generally, the effect of this is to explore the poet's thoughts and feelings.

Mood and tone: The choice of words or diction that a poet uses contribute to the mood and tone of a poem. The mood can be, for example, happy, sad, reflective, nostalgic, angry. The tone of a poem is the poet's attitude towards the subject that he is writing about. The tone can be formal or informal, sarcastic, ironical, serious, humorous, agreeable, tense.

Literary devices: The devices explore the five senses in order to engage the reader or listener. The devices often include similes, metaphors, personifications, onomatopoeias, symbols, alliteration, assonance and imagery, repetitions, contrasts. You can refer to section 1.6 for a review of these devices.

Rhyme scheme: A rhyme scheme follows the end word pattern in a stanza. Some of these were identified in the section with form and structure. If the first and third, and second and fourth lines rhyme, alternatively – we refer to this as quatrains. If the first and the second lines rhyme and the third and the fourth lines rhyme, this is referred to as rhyming couplets. Types of rhyme schemes that you can use to create your reflective pieces.

> 🔗 **Link**
>
> For further reading on the rhyme schemes and the form and structure of poems, see the 'Useful links' page on the CD.

Activity 3

Read the poem below and identify the details that contribute to the theme of dreams in the poem.

> Hold fast to dreams
> For if dreams die
> Life is a broken-winged bird
> That cannot fly.
> Hold fast to dreams
> For when they go
> Life is a barren field
> Frozen without snow.
>
> 'Dreams' by Langston Hughes

Activity 4

What is the rhyme scheme in the following popular verse?

> *Roses are red*
> *Violets are blue*
> *Wanting to say*
> *I love you.*

If you wish to convey a theme or express your thoughts and opinion on an issue, drama and script-writing can be used as one of your reflective pieces. This makes you a 'playwright' or composer of a play. Drama or plays involve stories that are presented in the form of dialogue, in front of an audience, whether live or recorded. As characters are made to interact with each other in a play, we get an insight into the lives of others, and relate it to our own experiences. Plays have their own structure which includes dialogue, situations of conflict, climax and resolution, and the ending can be comic or tragic.

The elements or context of drama

In order for a play to be interesting and fulfil its purpose, it must incorporate some of the following elements.

- **The setting**: This consists of the time and place that the play is set in. It is found in the opening act or scene, and is used to set the play in perspective.
- **The plot:** This forms part of the acts and scenes of the play. It unfolds as the play progresses in order of events or scenes. Plots are made interesting with conflicts, suspense, irony, dramatic irony or comic relief. The sub-plots are connected to the main plot of a play using different characters and events. A good example of this is Shakespeare's *Twelfth Night*.
- **Theme:** All the action in a play is normally centered on a theme. Themes come from man's conflict with himself and society. Some major themes often used in plays are love, loyalty, power, dishonour greed and prejudice.
- **Character development:** Characters can have major or minor roles. They can be protagonists (good guys), such as Othello from Shakespeare's *Othello* or antagonists (bad guys), such as the character Iago from the same play. Sometimes a character has to deal with an inner conflict and can be deemed both good and bad, such as Shakespeare's *Macbeth* from the play withe same title. Characters are made credible when they are developed physically, morally and socially.
- **Dialogue:** The dialogue propels the plot of a play as the characters unveil their experiences and, indirectly, the events of the play. The dialogue also reveals character traits, establishes relationships and creates conflict in the play. There are different types of dialogue in plays. An *aside* is given by a single person and meant only for the audience to hear. A *soliloquy* is where a character thinks aloud to him/herself. It gives the audience an insight into the character's thoughts. A *monologue* is where a single character talks at length and addresses another character or the audience.
- **Stage directions:** This involves the movement of the performers on stage to help create dramatic effect. The stage includes downstage which is closest to the audience; centre stage, in the middle; and upstage that is further back.
- **Stage conventions:** This includes the costuming, lighting, sound effects that contribute to the dramatic effect of the play.

Parts of a play

Plays are separated into several parts. The parts serve the role of enhancing the meaning and dramatic effect of the play. Let us take a look at each part.

The exposition: This includes the details needed for the audience to best interpret the play. It introduces the setting, the various contexts of the play (social, cultural, historical, religious), the crisis and the past actions of characters.

The middle or rising action: This aspect of the play forms the major part. It keeps the audience in suspense, anticipating the events that will unfold due to the crisis in the play.

The climax: This is the peak or high-point of the play that evokes the audience's strongest interest. All events preceding the climax lead up to this part, as it unfolds the plot.

The denouement. This is the outcome of the play where the conflict can be resolved for the protagonist. In a comedy, the major issues are resolved, the answers are rendered to questions. In a tragedy, the protagonist faces disappointment and sometimes death.

Genres of a play

The type of play that you choose to create for your reflective piece is important so as to effectively convey the theme of your study and highlight the issue or problem that you wish to convey. You can choose from the following major types:

- **Tragedy** – deals with the destruction of a major character in a play and explores deep issues. For example, Macbeth and Lady Macbeth in Shakespeare's *Macbeth*.

- **Comedy** – geared to amuse and entertain the audience. It does not explore deep issues like a tragedy, but allows the protagonist to rise above a difficult situation and find love and happiness.

- **Melodrama** – consists of a quick succession of events. The events unfold by chance without the involvement and intervention of the characters. Fate determines the outcome of their lives.

- **History** – based on events that are taken from history. For example, Shakespeare's *Richard III*.

- **Farce** – involves ridiculous situations and makes fun of the characters involved. For example, *The Pink Panther*.

Activity 1

Choose a play of your choice. It may be one you have studied in school, or that you have read in your own time. Then attempt the following tasks. Then, identify:

1. the genre of the play
2. the main theme of the play
3. the protagonist of the play
4. the climax of the play.

Learning outcomes

- to recognise the importance of producing clear and effective writing
- to observe writing as a process
- to select the mode of writing that suits your study
- to recognise the importance of researching and documenting a topic.

Aspects of academic writing

'The reason one writes is not the fact that he wants to say something. He writes because he has something to say'.

Scott Fitzgerald

Writing represents your thoughts and ideas. In the previous sections you studied the importance of interpreting information and the transfer of messages from one source to the next. Very often, your writing represents your ideas when you cannot be physically present to express them orally. For your portfolio study, you will not be present when your teacher and external marker interprets your 'reflection' and 'creative piece'. Likewise, in the future, you will not be present when your job application is being read by a potential employer. It is for these reasons that you must make the effort to be clear and effective when you write. In this section you will focus on the process that involves selecting the topic, planning and writing a draft.

The process of writing an essay

Writing an essay for your research paper is not a haphazard process. It involves several stages before it is successfully completed. A couple of the stages may not even involve writing as an actual process. It is important to give yourself ample time to begin the preparation for your essay. This will allow you to be fully engaged in the process and give your teacher or mentor sufficient time to assist you with the various segments. Consider the following stages in the writing process for your Internal Assessment Projects or your Paper 02 essays:

- Decide on a topic of interest or analyse the topic/question given to you. For your Internal Assessment Projects you can choose a topic that is current or one that affects you and people you know.
- Brainstorm for ideas and jot them down. You can do so using a graphic organiser, such as a mind map or a table, or simply writing in prose.
- Conduct the necessary research and ask the relevant questions. The forms and types of research methods are discussed in units 4 and 5. You can use the Internet or your local library for support. Remember that the validity and reliability of your research is assured when your arguments are based on sound reasoning and credible sources of information (refer to section 5.4).
- Write relevant notes and develop a database of information.
- Plan the structure of your essay with a clear introduction, body and conclusion. Consider your point of discussion, arguments and supporting details if necessary.
- Write a draft.
- Edit and revise.

When writing an essay based on a question, you must be conscious of your readers' needs and their level of knowledge. It is a good idea to write with the premise that your reader knows nothing about the topic. It is also advisable to address all issues of a question.

Selecting a mode of writing to suit your purpose

In section 1.4, we looked at the different purposes for writing. For your portfolio, it is important to match the purpose of your study to the different modes of writing to be used in your reflective piece. It is also wise to keep your theme in mind and think carefully about the most appropriate mode of writing to convey your ideas or represent your intention as a writer. It is also a good idea to keep your audience in mind as well as the mode of writing that you are most comfortable with. You can look at the following examples that fall under the major modes of writing – informative, persuasive and expressive.

Example of topic and theme	Suggestions of mode for reflective piece
The choice of music and its influence on fashion	journal writing, drama, expository essay, song etc.
Body augmentation and self-esteem	expository writing, short-story, journal, descriptive writing etc.
Drugs and academic performance	drama, journal, short-story, poetry, argumentative essay etc.

The importance of research to your study

Choosing a research topic does not make you an expert in the area. You may know a lot of facts about the topic and have a keen interest in it, but you still have to logically argue your points and support them with evidence from your sources of data. This kind of data will also be useful for your oral presentation or exposition. You can review the sections in Module 1 to reacquaint yourself with the various primary and secondary sources of data and the reliability and validity of the sources. It is also wise to consider the sources of authority that you choose to refer to. The author, website, news agency, or individual, must be experts in the topic. Experts are people who have dedicated a lot of time to the study of a particular topic or may be very experienced in the field. Look for academic sources which include established books, journals, magazines, university websites and established organisation websites, such as the government and United Nations. Your school or local library will be able to assist you with this. You may have noted that the argument is made credible with the use of a source, illustrations, quotations etc.

Activity 1

Read the following excerpt from an argument based on the hypothesis 'the Internet can serve as an important educational tool in the classroom' and analyse the credibility of the data.

> One of the greatest benefits of the Internet in the field of education among high school students is the increased levels of productivity. With a world of information at their fingertips, students can now access information for a subject area and be better prepared to engage in activities with the teacher, in the given timeframe designated for the subject. Debra Hyppolite, a sixth-form teacher at Mt. Bethany High, stated that she saves time and gets through a lot more work since the students now have access to the reading material in the classroom at the touch of a button. She said, "I am now able to take my students to the next level of learning and produce better results with the help of the Internet."

- to identify the characteristics of good writing skills
- to identify and explore linking words in the organisation of ideas
- to write a paragraph using linking words.

The characteristics of good writing skills

At school and in the workplace, you are often told to use good writing skills to complete your assignments. This simply means that you should be conscious of how you express your ideas so that others will be able to interpret them effortlessly. Let us look at some of the characteristics of good writing:

- State your purpose and intention. This can be useful in the section of your portfolio where you write the preface to your reflective piece.
- Ensure that your theme is easy to identify. This is useful for your reflective pieces. No matter what you choose to write about, make sure that it is reflected throughout your literary piece.
- You must state your ideas with clarity. To do so you must adhere to the theme or main issue throughout your essay and make sure that the reader can follow your ideas.
- Coherence is important when writing. Use linking words and phrases appropriately to connect sentences and paragraphs, to facilitate understanding (refer to the section below).
- Organise your paragraphs logically or in sequence.
- Pay attention to your choice of words. You must use an appropriate vocabulary that is appropriate to your audience.
- Use the appropriate register for your audience. Your writing should be formal and free of colloquial words, slang and jargon. This does not pertain to your literary pieces in your reflection.
- Develop your points with supporting evidence or explanations.
- Use appropriate grammar and spelling.
- Avoid repeating the same points twice or in different ways. An essay plan can help avoid this problem.
- Be objective in your approach to writing the introduction to your reflective piece and the analysis of the reflective piece. Your creativity and opinions can be channelled into your creative piece in your reflection.
- Use a variety of sentences to create an interesting style in your writing. You can use a mixture of simple, compound and complex sentences. Look at the examples of the three types of sentences:
  a. Simple – Marcus conducted the interview.
  b. Compound – Marcus conducted the interview and Jill-Marie and transferred it to the computer database.
  c. Complex – After the interview was conducted, the data was transferred to a notebook and then successfully stored using a special computer software.
- Your writing must be thought-provoking. This means that it must stimulate the mind of the reader and evoke new ideas.

Linking words such as connectives and transitions

Linking words and phrases are useful to connect sentences and paragraphs together so as to convey the writer's thoughts and ideas logically. In other words they show the relationship between sentences and paragraphs, and carefully link or 'weave' the essay together. Linking

words consist of connective words and transitions. Connective words are words such as 'and', 'but', 'or', 'nor', 'to', 'thereafter', 'on', 'above', 'behind', 'like', 'hence', 'ultimately', 'although', 'because', or 'after'. Similarly, transition words or phrases move the writer's thoughts and ideas from one section of the essay to the next, serving to unify the essay and guide the reading process. Here is a list of transition words and phrases categorised by the purpose it serves.

Function	Transition words and phrases
time/sequence	firstly, secondly, thirdly, finally, next etc.
advantages/disadvantages	one advantage of, a further disadvantage of, an additional advantage of, the most important disadvantage of etc.
relationship	like, either, as well as, in addition to, also, similarly, just as, similar to, likewise etc.
cause and effect	therefore, as a result of, consequently, because etc.
contradict	conversely, on the other hand, nevertheless, despite, while, whereas, although, however, but, yet, in contrast, on the contrary, in spite of etc.
to build on ideas	to begin with, in the first place, moreover, furthermore, also, besides, in addition to, furthermore, finally, similarly etc.
to show examples	for example, like, such as, this is demonstrated by etc.
to show results	so, as a result, therefore, since, consequently, hence despite this, due to etc.
to conclude	generally, in conclusion, on the whole, lastly, to summarise, finally etc.

Activity 2

1. Read the following paragraph below and identify the transition words.
2. Write a paragraph on the advantages of cell phones using connective and transition words to link the sentences.

The Advantage of Using Cell Phones

The main advantage of using cell phones is that it makes you accessible. You can be reached at any time and in any place. *Additionally,* cell phones are lightweight and adaptable to the needs of the user. This makes it convenient to use and easy to carry. *Furthermore,* cell phones are cheaper to maintain than a landline, since the rates are cheaper and the option of text-messaging is available.

Activity 1

Fill in the gaps with the appropriate link word.

1. Your portfolio must be handed in by the deadline .... will not be marked.
   a. otherwise
   b. likewise
   c. as a result

2. .... to the numerous problems students experience on a daily basis is the problem of bullying.
   a. Compared to
   b. After
   c. In addition

3. .... students love the novel *The Humming Bird Tree,* parents sometimes find it too explicit to be used in the classroom.
   a. However
   b. Indeed
   c. Although

4. One reason students use their cell phones at school is the convenience; .... is the freedom it offers them.
   a. once
   b. frequently
   c. another

5. .... every study on global warming shows an increase in ocean levels the world over.
   a. Unfortunately
   b. Moreover
   c. For example

🔗 Link

You can find some helpful links to assist you with your use transition words and phrases on the CD.

- to understand the importance of reviewing your essay in order to make the necessary amendments
- to explore skills necessary to evaluate an essay objectively, in order to make the necessary amendments
- to review the criteria necessary to edit your draft essay.

A well-written paper is not only easy to read and understand, it is also appealing and gives you additional points for organisation skills. Learning how to review and edit an essay is a good skill to develop, as you will use it throughout your academic and professional lives. Moreover, developing self-editing skills makes you responsible for your own work and less dependent on your teacher or mentor. While the previous section dealt with the development of the essay, this section will explore the formatting and editing process.

Reviewing, revising and redrafting

In order to produce a successful essay for your teacher, for examination purposes or for your portfolio, you will have to engage in a process which can be referred to as the three 'R's': reviewing, revising and redrafting. The process requires you to reread and edit your essay to ensure that it is effectively communicating the ideas that you intend to convey. At this stage, you may find that you left out some major points, that they are not clearly developed, that your essay is disorganised, or that it lacks general elements of expression. After you have reviewed your essay by re-reading for these shortcomings, you can begin to revise and redraft. You can do so in whichever way you are comfortable: manually editing with a pencil, or digitally via your computer. Consider the following checklist when re-reading your essay:

- the essay answers the question
- all of the points for the essay are included
- all of the points are carefully supported and explained
- the introduction is interesting
- the topic sentence relates to theme of the essay
- paragraphs are clearly linked
- vivid verbs are used e.g. 'this point demonstrates that....'
- each paragraph expresses only one main idea at a time
- sentences are not too long (so as not to lose the reader).
- writing is concise (not too wordy)
- the active voice is used e.g. 'only one-third of the school population is aware of the dangers of texting and driving.'
- Standard English is used
- relevant quotations and references are used
- there is a relevant conclusion
- the word limit is adhered to
- referencing is included
- layout of work includes: separate title page (title of paper, student name, course, date, school), double spaced paper, twelve font size, one inch margin, and Times New Roman font. Referencing must come at the end of the paper.

Editing

Now that you have been in reviewing and redrafting your essay, you need to begin the editing process. This involves a careful analysis of your choice of words and sentences. At this stage you have to pay attention to your spelling, punctuation, word choice and grammar. Remember that punctuation was explored in section 1.5.

Choice of words:

Word choices are important to successfully convey your message. If you choose the wrong words, the meaning can be distorted and misinterpreted. Here are some tips for choosing the correct words:

- Use formal language – instead of 'a group of people have said that', say 'scientists have proven that…'.
- Read for redundancies and repetitions.
- Use appropriate transition words.
- Use positive words.
- Be precise with your choice of words.
- Use simple and clear words instead of impressive vocabulary and technical terms.
- Avoid clichés or catchy phrases. Instead of 'take out', say 'eliminate'.
- Avoid contractions and abbreviations – instead of 'don't', use 'do not'.
- Do not overuse words. Instead of 'I am of the avid opinion that', say 'I think that'.
- Do not use profane and explicit words.
- Do not use bias, slang and sexist language.
- Pay attention to your tone – formal/informal, serious/humorous.

Spelling:

The biggest problem with spelling comes with homophones. These are words that sound alike, but have different meanings and spelling. For example, *complement* and *compliment*. Other problem words include: embarrassment, independent, definitely, attendance, manageable. It takes time to conquer this skill. However, you can also use your spell-check to assist you.

🔗 **Link**

Oxford University Press has made a list of some commonly confused words and common misspellings. See the 'Useful links' on the CD for details.

Grammar:

Grammar poses difficulty for even the most experience writers. If you are unsure of the rules the best thing for you to do is to reacquaint yourself with them. The major issues with grammar include tenses and subject-verb agreement. It is important to keep your tenses consistent when writing.

Activity 1

Rewrite and edit the following preface for a 'reflective piece' about breast cancer.

The reflective piece entitled 'Living each day for another' will be published in the 'Women's Day Magazine' on November 30th. It will give the women of the country the opportunity to understand the plight of those who struggle with cancer and demonstrate that there is hope if they were to find themselves in a similar situation.

The target group considers women from eighteen years upwards. It is found that women are developing different types of cancer from their late teen years. An educational awakening is never too early.

I chose to write a short story for my portfolio because it allowed me to capture the plight and restoration of my aunt's health. She battled with cancer at the age of 75 and still lives to tell her story. It deals with the trauma, fears and moments of hope that restored her to wellness. I also want to tell the world that even in the darkest hours of the disease, you can channel your energies into positive thought for restoration and extended life.

I want to share this story with the women of this country because we should not give up hope in our health care system and our vision as Caribbean women, to create a healthier world for our family members.

🔗 **Link**

For a review of grammar rules, see the link on the 'Useful links' page on the CD.

- to compare the differences between a theme and topic
- to explore the components of the Student Portfolio.

Aspects of the portfolio

As part of the examination requirements, students of Communication Studies are required to create a portfolio of written and oral work, which will put into practice the skills learned here. It consists of both an oral and a written part.

The written part of the portfolio consists of the following:

- a general introduction
- a preface to the reflective piece
- a reflective piece based on one literary *genre*
- an analysis based on the reflective piece

In addition to the written pieces, you will also be asked to give an oral exposition of your work as part of the portfolio.

This component is assessed internally by your teacher and forms 20 per cent of your total marks.

The theme and topic

As students of Communication Studies, you have to select a theme and topic for your portfolio and it is important to understand the difference. A 'topic' is a clear subject matter and a 'theme' is the main idea that encompasses the subject matter. The theme is explored in every aspect of your writing or oral work and it is central to the subject matter. For example while you can use 'global warming' as an overall theme, you might focus on the topics of 'pollution and the ozone layer' or 'rising sea levels and the impact on tourism in our community beaches'.

Topic	Theme
specific	general
stated clearly	implicit
deals with a subject matter	central idea the speaker/writer wants to convey
	intertwined – parts interrelated to explore theme and bring the message together

The written assignment

1. **The introduction**
   - State the theme that you are going to explore.
   - State the purpose of the theme and topic that you have chosen. This rationale must include your academic, career and personal interests.
   - Link the three sections of the portfolio (Exposition, Reflection and Analysis) with the theme and topic that you wish to explore. You need to show how each section will develop the theme or topic and achieve the purpose intended.
   - This section is approximately 200 words.

2. **Exposition**
   - This is a 10 minute oral presentation to explain how the theme is developed and how each section achieves the purpose of study.

✓ *Exam tip*

It is important to ensure that your theme is explored throughout the various parts of the portfolio. Students often forget to include the theme in the introduction to the portfolio. The theme and purpose of the study are important here.

✓ *Exam tip*

The criteria for marking the reflective piece includes:

Creativity – the originality of your idea based on the genre chosen

Expression – grammar and mechanics, register chosen for genre.

Organisation – well developed and coherence of parts.

3. **Preface to reflective piece**
   - Think about the theme explored in the specific genre chosen.
   - Consider the purpose of writing the reflective piece.
   - Choose an intended audience – age, social and cultural background, gender.
   - Be sure of the context of the piece so you reach the target audience e.g. the mass **media**, websites, stage performance.
   - You will need to write approximately 200 words.

4. **Reflection**
   - This must include a sample of original work. e.g. poem, song, drama script, journal entry, letter to the editor, eulogy, diary entry, monologue, short story, argumentative essay.
   - You must be creative in this section.
   - As you write, keep in mind the elements to be explored in the analytical essay including dialectical variations, attitudes to language, writer's tone, registers and non-verbal behaviours.
   - You will need to write approximately 800 words.

5. **Analysis**
   - This will be informed by the reflective piece.
   - Mention the elements that you have chosen to explore (select two from reflective piece). These might include:
     - registers – formal or informal language,
     - variations – mesolect, basolect, acrolet (refer to module 2),
     - dialectal attitudes to language – tone of the writer
     - communicative behaviours – e.g. non-verbal behaviours such as eye-contact.
   - Analyse the chosen features from your reflective piece. These might include:
     - Use examples from the reflective piece to analyse the features of the writing.
     - Pay attention to grammar and mechanics, vocabulary and cohesion in writing.
     - Make general conclusions from your analysis.
   - Analyse the linguistic features of your literary pieces, and make sure not explore literary features at the expense of linguistic features.
   - Use examples of the linguistic features to be discussed in your analysis.

6. **Conclusion**
   - Summarise your ideas as they relate to your theme and topic.
   - Restate your intention of study.
   - Highlight the challenges that you encountered while doing your study.
   - Mention the appropriateness of the reflective piece in exploring the study.
   - Make recommendations based on your findings or express opinions generated from your study.

7. **Bibliography**
   - Include a complete list of references such as the books, online magazines and journals, interviews, and newspaper reports that you used.

☑ *Exam tip*

Oral presentation checklist

Consider the following:

- use of cue-cards to refer to main points
- use of standard English
- use of non-verbal behaviours – eye-contact, hand movement etc.
- knowledge of issues around the topic
- fluency of speech
- use of suitable pronunciation, tone, pace and volume
- use of space and movement
- use of presentation aids – e.g. pictures, PowerPoint.

☑ *Exam tip*

The conclusion and bibliography are not marked, but they are important to creating a complete portfolio so make sure you don't forget these.

Glossary

advocacy approach – A combination of approaches, techniques and messages by which the researcher seeks to achieve the goals and objectives.

aural – relating to the ear or the sense of hearing (not to be confused with oral)

barriers – An obstacle that prevents communication or progress.

body language – the conscious and unconscious movements and postures by which attitudes and feelings are communicated.

Caribbean Creole – A language with a lexical base primarily from a European language but with a grammar that is non-European in many respects. Caribbean English Creoles (CEC) therefore have English as their lexical base. An example of a Creole with a French lexical base is St. Lucian Kwéyòl. The grammars of these Creoles are in some respects patterned on their West African sources. An example is the predicative use of adjectives, as in 'mi siki' 'mwen malad'.

Caribbean Standard English (CSE) – An accepted standard of English developed in the Caribbean. It is as much a Standard English as is British Standard English, American Standard English, Australian Standard English and Nigerian Standard English.

channel/medium – The form of the message or the vehicle for sending it (televised, podcast, tele/video-conferencing, e-books, e-readers); also referred to as medium.

Creole – A native language which has its beginnings in situations of contact where groups of people who did not share a common language were forced to communicate with each other.

Creole-influenced vernacular – A form of social communication that is in routine, widespread use in certain communities, for example, Barbados, and that is influenced by some features of a Creole.

code-switching – Moving between varieties of language within a single utterance or in a conversation for example, *I went late to the market and mi no get no food*. In this instance, the speaker moves from Standard English *I went* to Creole *mi no get no food*.

communicative competence – Grammatical knowledge and social knowledge about how and when to use utterances appropriately.

conceptualised – To form an idea or concept.

culture – A way of life characteristic of a group of people. It includes their language, food, dress, and lifestyles. It is socially acquired and evolves slowly across generations.

data – Information that is used as a basis for calculating, reasoning or making decisions.

database – A collection of information (data) that is organised in, for example, a computer to enable rapid search and retrieval.

data collection methods – Tools we use to collect facts and figures which, when processed or analyzed, become information. Just as there are primary and secondary/tertiary sources, so there are primary and secondary data, defined by whether you are gathering original data or using already available data.

disseminated – To have spread something widely.

exposition – A discourse type in which we clarify, classify, illustrate and analyze information.

fallacy – An error in reasoning or logic. More than a dozen common logical fallacies can readily be identified. A well-known fallacy is the 'bandwagon appeal', as in: *Dedicated professional people all use product X, so shouldn't you do so too?*

genre – A category of literature or art.

grammatical similarities – the similarities between different languages and words.

idiomatic expression – An idiomatic expression is a saying or phrase with a figurative rather than a literal meaning, which cannot be worked out from the meaning of the component words.

Examples of idiomatic expressions in English are, *rain cats and dogs*, *kick the bucket*, *not my cup of tea*. Idiomatic expressions in Caribbean Creole include to *kiss/suck teeth*, *to cut your eye* (at someone).

language – A systematic way of communicating feelings or idea in words and signs. A language subsumes dialects and idiolects (personal ways of speaking a dialect) and may be designated as international, official, national. It may also be placed in a linguistic family or group. For example, French, Italian and Spanish belong to the Romance family of languages.

media – For example, press, print, radio, TV and Internet news, entertainment sources. Also referred to as mass media.

mixed method approach – Investigating communication methods in relation to both the frequency of occurrence and the contexts and purposes for which they are used.

mode – A general way of categorising. For example, communication can be considered to have five modes: listening, speaking, reading, writing and visually representing.

official language – A language used in official situations for legal, educational, government, and other formal communication purposes. Some countries recognise two or more official languages. For example, Canada recognises English and French, India recognises English and Hindi, and Haiti Haitian Creole and French.

oral – spoken rather than written; verbal

persuasive writing – to present written reasons and/ or opinions to influence actions or thoughts.

primary source – An article or other document written by the actual researcher of a study or creator of a theory. Journals are great sources of articles that are primary sources. Historical documents, literary works, letters and reports are also examples of primary sources.

quantitative research approach – Research via empirical investigations such as statistical, mathematical or computational techniques.

qualitative research approach – Research via exploratory investigations used to gain an understanding of underlying reasons, opinions, and motivations.

register – The range of types of language choices from highly formal and stylised, to intimate, available for use.

reliability – The level to which an experiment, test or procedure gives the same results when done again and again.

research – investigation into materials and sources in order to establish facts.

resource – A physical, human or virtual tool. In research, reliable websites can be considered resources, just as journals, compact discs, reports, encyclopedias and audio tapes are considered resources. Typically, a resource is a source of information.

search engine – A tool that assists in sifting through databases to identify sources that fit specific criteria. For example, Google and Yahoo are popular search engines; the user may be directed to either full articles or to databases that contain information but that require a password or fee.

secondary source – An article, book or other document written by someone who did not actually do the research or formulate the opinions or theories but who has pulled together relevant sources. Encyclopedias and textbooks are common examples.

sensitised – To have caused something to respond to a certain stimuli.

slang – An informal type of language consisting of words and phrases.

standard language – The dialect of a language that is generally used for education and other formal or official purposes. It is generally held to be the most prestigious of the dialects of a language.

style – A person's distinctive way of speaking or writing that arises from factors such as pronunciation, word choice and sentence structure.

synonym – A word or phrase that means exactly the same, or nearly the same, as another word or phrase.

tertiary sources – A consolidation of primary and secondary sources.

validity – The extent to which a test, experiment or procedure measures what it aims to measure.

vernacular – The language variety of a community or country that is in routine widespread use in social interaction.

virtual reality – The computer-generated simulation of a 3D image or environment that can be interacted with in a seemingly real or physical way by a person using special electronic equipment, such as a helmet with a screen inside or gloves fitted with sensors.

Index

Communication Studies
for CAPE® 2nd edition

A Caribbean Examinations Council® Study Guide

Developed exclusively with the Caribbean Examinations Council®, this study guide will provide candidates with additional support to maximise their performance in CAPE® Communication Studies.

Written by an experienced team comprising teachers and experts in the CAPE® Communication Studies syllabus and examination, this study guide covers the elements of the syllabus that you must know in an easy-to-use double-page format. Each topic begins with the key learning outcomes from the syllabus and contains a range of features designed to enhance your study of the subject, such as:

- Examination tips with essential advice on succeeding in your assessments
- Did You Know? boxes to expand your knowledge and encourage further study

This comprehensive self-study package includes a fully interactive CD, incorporating multiple-choice questions and sample examination answers with accompanying examiner feedback, to build skills and confidence in preparation for the CAPE® Communication Studies examination.

The Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC®) has worked exclusively with Nelson Thornes to produce a series of Study Guides across a wide range of subjects at CCSLC®, CSEC® and CAPE®.