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**CHALIMBANA UNIVERSITY**

**DIRECTORATE OF DISTANCE EDUCATION**

**DTL 1501: COMMUNICATION AND STUDY SKILLS**

**FIRST EDITION 2020**

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First Edition

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**Acknowledgements**

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Kalirani J.K.

Her Royal Highness, Chieftainess Muwezu

**Study Skills**

As an adult learner, your approach to learning will be different to that of your school days: you will choose when you want to study, you will have professional and/or personal motivation for doing so and you will most likely be fitting your study activities around other professional or domestic responsibilities.

Essentially you will be taking control of your learning environment. As a consequence, you will need to consider performance issues related to time management, goal setting, stress management, etc. Perhaps you will also need to acquaint yourself with areas such as essay planning, searching for information, writing, coping with examinations and using the internet as a learning resource.

Your most significant considerations will be time and space i.e. the time you dedicate to your learning and the environment in which you engage in that learning.

It is recommended that you take time now —before starting your self-study— to familiarise yourself with these issues. There are a number of excellent resources on the web. A few suggested links are:

http://www.how-to-study.com/ the “How to study” website is dedicated to study skills resources. You will find links to study preparation (a list of nine essentials for a good study place), taking notes, strategies for reading text books, using reference sources, test anxiety. http://www.ucc.vt.edu/stdysk/stdyhlp.html This is the website of the Virginia Tech, Division of Student Affairs. You will find links to time scheduling (including a “where does time go?” link), a study skill checklist, basic concentration techniques, control of the study environment, note taking, how to read essays for analysis, memory skills (“remembering”).

**Time Frame**

You are expected to spend at least 8 weeks of study time on this module. In addition, there shall be arranged contact sessions with lecturers from the University during residential possibly in April, August and December. You are requested to spend your time judiciously so that you reap maximum benefit from the course.

**Need Help?**

In case you have difficulties during the duration of the course, please get in touch with your lecturer for routine enquiries during working days (Monday-Friday) from 09:00 to 16:00 hours on Cell: 0977617669, J.K. Kalirani tutor at CHAU for **Required Resources.** You are free to utilise the services of the University Library which opens from 07:00 hours to 20:00 hours every working day that provides an e library facility as well.

It will be important for you to carry your student identity card for you to access the library and let alone borrow books.

**Assessment**

**Continuous Assessment 50%**

1 assignment 20%

1 practical 20%

1 test 10%

**Examination 50%**

**Total 100%**

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**Background and rationale**

In any field of operation, communication is key to the success of the organisation, in this case, the chiefdom. There are various ways in which individuals and chiefdoms can communicate. The course will enable learners to gain skills that will enable them communicate clearly and appropriately with various stakeholders in the course of running the chiefdoms.

**Aim**

This course is designed to equip the learners with vital communication skills that are necessary in running chiefdoms and interact with other stakeholders

**UNIT 1.**

**Communication**

**Introduction**

This unit exposes you to the meaning of communication. You are advised to pay particular attention to what is being discussed in this unit. Once you have known what communication is, you will then be able to apply aspects of it in your day to day communication with your lecturer. More importantly, you will need communication skills for the execution of your duties in chiefdoms. In this unit and this course as a whole, you will be required to engage in communication as a student both in speech and writing.

**Learning outcomes**

Having successfully completed this unit, you will be expected to;

* discuss the concept of communication skills
* explain various communication processes
* discuss various types of communication
* describe tools used for communication
* interpret communication patterns
* explain communication channels
* discuss barriers to communication
* communicateeffectively

**Defining communication**

How would you define communication?

Well! The word ‘communication’ originates from a Latin word communis or communicare, which means ‘to share’ or ‘to make common’. According to Juliana (2016: 2) “communication is the act of conveying intended meaning to another person through the use of mutually understood signs and language”. Apart from that, Communication is the process of sending and receiving messages through verbal or nonverbal means, including speech, or oral communication; writing and graphical representations (such as infographics, maps, and charts); and signs, signals, and behaviour (Nordquist, 2019).

Communication is a powerful activity that comes to us naturally. With a little bit of awareness, our communication can be flawless suchthat the other person does not only receive our message but also understands.Garvey, W. D., & Griffith, B. C. (1971).

Can you reflect on each of the aspects of communication mentioned in the foregoing? How does each of these attribute to your work ethics? Whether as a chief or retainer or indeed as aheadperson.

Communication is a key element in human activity. Every profession and everyday human activity needs it. Professional communication is a learned skill. Have you wondered why certain people are acquitted when they are not supposed to and some people are punished when they are not supposed to? The way one communicates matters.

While most people are born with the physical ability to talk, not all can communicate well through normal speaking unless they make special efforts to develop and refine this communication skill. Very often, we take the ease with which we communicate with each other for granted, so much so that we sometimes forget how complex the communication process actually is. Communication takes place when we are, supposedly, at the same level of understanding and comprehension as other interlocutors. Communication is, therefore, not what is said (whether verbally or non-verbally) but what is understood. Let us pause a little bit and do the following activity:

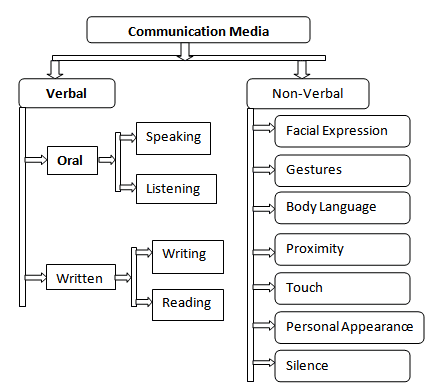
**Activity**

1. What do you understand by the term communication?
2. Now, think of what you would say about types of communication. Discuss with acolleague the different types that you are aware of.
3. Read through the following and see if you brought out any of the types presented here.

## 

## Types of communication

Study the diagram below and see if it makes sense to you. This diagram is a summary of theTypes of communication.



All forms of communication can be categorised as either verbal or nonverbal. Both verbal and nonverbal communication can be subdivided into either vocal or non-vocal. Verbal communication involves using speech to exchange information with others. We usually communicate verbally in face-to-face conversations such as; meetings, interviews, conferences, speeches, phone calls and many more. Much of the communication that takes place between people is both verbal and non-verbal; that is, it is based on language and gestures.

**Verbal Communication**

Verbal communication of the vocal category includes spoken language, while non-vocal verbal communication involves written communication as well as communication that is transmitted through sign language, finger spelling, Braille, or other similar alternatives to verbal language, as observed by Goteborg, Sweden & Erland Hjelmquist (2009) and Bradac, J. J. (1993)

**Formal Types of Communication Skills**

This type of communication is also referred to as “official communication” and covers a wide range of verbal expressions that address a formal need of any organisation as he discusses the types of communication in an organisation. (Fred C. Lunenburg 2010)

Formal communication is:

* conducted through a pre-determined channel. For instance, a large number of your interactions within the chiefdom, financial communication (from and to your bank, investors and government officials) and legal expressions are examples of formal communication.
* more time-consuming than non-formal communication, as it follows a particular communication protocol.
* often backed by written communication that can provide documentation evidence of the oral conversation (even in cases of oral expressions (in meetings, seminars, and so on.). This written communication could be as simple as a minutes of a meeting, to as complex as a detailed recording.
* considered a reliable source of information. (So when you receive a legal notice, you better take notice of it!)

Below, we provide you with simple tips to excel in your oral expression:

* Begin by clarifying the purpose of your communication.
* Whether you use oral or written expression, always follow a well-defined structure that can be easily understood by your audience.
* Keep your tone open, professional and friendly.
* End by re-iterating what you expect to achieve through this communication: clarification
* on your stance, answers to questions, a call to action, etc. Also clarify any constraints that
* apply to this communication (like confidentiality, time-limit for response, and so on.)
* Finally, thank your audience for their listening. (This works well for written communication too.)

**Informal Communication**

Informal communication is communication that is spontaneous, interactive and rich as indicated by Robert E. Kraut et al (2002) This is often by word-of-mouth information. In fact, it is this type of communication that opens you up to unofficial yet provocative information.

Informal communication is:

* spontaneous and free-flowing, without any formal protocol or structure. Hence this type of information is also less reliable or accurate.
* a communication channel that spreads like wildfire, as there are no formal rules to follow.
* mostly oral, with no documentation evidence. Due to this, many undermine the value of informal communication, terming it mere “gossip”.

## Activity

1. When would you use informal communication with your audience?
2. How can such communication facilitate for a formal communication?
3. Reflect and discuss on the various instances of your communication engagement and see if you have effectively used informal communication as basis for formal communication.

**Oral Communication (Distance)**

Distance (oral) communication has made the world a smaller and more accessible place. Mobile phones and video-conferencing and radio are some of the modern expansions of distance communication, taking its expression to the next subtle level. In this type of communication, your tone of voice and pace of delivery take priority over other expressions.

**Radio communication**

The dissemination of information in chiefdoms is critical. The communities may receive information either from mass media (ZNBC) or community radio stations via RADIOS as channels. In fact, information which is disseminated through radios is electronic and covers large masses or population at once. The information which may be communicated to the people in the chiefdoms via radios include the following:

* Personal call messages
* Disaster alerts such as floods, droughts, crop diseases and pests, livestock diseases.
* Health programmes on vaccinations and immunisations.
* Notices/announcements to the community regarding community meetings that are developmental in nature including dates for traditional ceremonies.
* Community awareness programmes such as child marriages, gender based violence, male circumcision, VCT, FISP, and crop marketing
* Promotion of indigenous music

However, although radios play a pivotal role in the dissemination of information in the chiefdoms, they are associated with the following challenges:

* The communication is usually one way denying the audience an opportunity to ask questions
* Some geographical areas are so remote such that there is transmission signal failure
* Language barrier in situations where the listeners fail to understand the message being disseminated
* Not all the community members may have radios and batteries
* There is a possibility of missing out the targeted audience as the information is being disseminated due to the fact that radios for the targeted groups may be off.

**Retainers**

The chiefs have a number of retainers to help them in their daily duties. Depending on status, paramount chiefs have four retainers assigned to their office, while senior chiefs have three and chiefs have two retainers assigned to their offices. These retainers are in essence civil servants working in the office of chiefs. Their duties among other things involve working as AIDES to their royal highnesses. The retainers can be assigned to apprehend any person in the village who is found disrupting the peace in the area. After the arrest of this person, the retainer can pass on this person to the police for further action depending on the misconduct. In evets where there are more people committing acts likely to breech the peace in the area, the retainer can call upon other members of the public to help him in effecting such arrests.They also provide security to the chief and protocol. They are also helpers to the chief and looks after the chiefs even when he/she is sick

**Communication through retainers or village headpersons**

Retainers have been used for communication purposes from time to time immemorial. This was

one way of disseminating information from village to village even to other chiefdoms. Even now

they are sent to different parts of the chiefdoms and elsewhere and to government offices on errands.

A long time ago it was mostly oral communication (word of mouth) but now they also deliver

written communication, messages on phones and calling intended people. they play a critical role to make sure whenever there is a meeting, all people involved get the message.

**Challenges**

* Distorted oral information
* Messages delivered to wrong people
* Difficult and dangerous terrains to cover
* No proper mode of transport to use

For effective oral communication over distance,

* Give priority to your listening. When you fail to listen, you will find that many people attempt to speak at the same time, undermining the value of this form of communication.
* Speak slightly slower than you would in face-to-face communication. This will make sure that you remain aware of the subtle nuances of your tone, and the receiver has time to grasp what you convey.
* Always re-iterate what you understand when you listen. This type of communication misses the non-verbal signals that you would receive in face-to-face communication (that can indicate subtle expressions like anger, friendliness, receptivity, sarcasm, etc.) So paraphrase what understand and confirm that this is indeed what the other party also meant to convey.
* Where appropriate, wear your friendly face with a smile on your lips and eyes. Feel this friendly face. Your tone will automatically convey your openness and receptiveness to the other person. (This may not be appropriate if you expect to convey a warning on the phone, so ensure that your face suits your message.)
* Finally, back this up with written communication where possible. The intent is to confirm the take-away from the communication so all the parties are on the same page. This makes sense even for an informal call with your friend – perhaps you can send a quick text message to re-iterate how pleasurable it was to speak to him, and then confirm the final call-for-action.

**Written Communication**

Written communication is a form of communication which involves writingand reading skills.

**Oral communication**

This type of communication is subtler, yet far more powerful. It includes the entire range of physical postures and gestures, tone and pace of voice, and the attitude with which you communicate. However, there will be times when the body language you are meant to adapt is in complete contrast with how you feel (like using a ‘friendly’ posture when you internally feel threatened or intimidated). Hence, non-verbal communication is most effective when these 3 facets are consistent in your communication.

**Barriers to effective communication**

You are now going to look at communication barriers. Like already stated, effective communication cannot be achieved unless the environment is made conducive for communication. Therefore, it is important for one to be aware of factors (barriers) that might hinder the process of effective communication. The following are some of the barriers to effective communication.

### Physiological Barriers

Physiological barriers may result from individuals' personal discomfort, caused, for example, by ill health, poor eye sight, or hearing difficulties. These may also affect one’s personality in many different and mostly negative ways. This can best be handled by working on developing a positive perception as certain physiological features contributing to barriers may not be curable.

**Physical Barriers**

Physical barriers include:

* Office doors, barrier screens, separate areas for people of different status
* Large working areas or working in one unit that is physically separate from others.
* Distance

Proximity in different cultures and disciplines is different and therefore needs to be taken in the right context.

### Cultural Barriers

Culture prescribes behaviour. Humans can adapt to different culture once we come to accept it and appreciate that cultures are different so that we can be recognized from others and that no specific connotations need to be attached to one culture or the other.

### Language Barriers

Language that describes what we want to say in our terms may present barriers to others who are not familiar with our expressions, buzz-words, and jargon. When we express our communication in such language, it is a way of excluding others. In a global setting, the greatest compliment we can pay another person is to talk in their language or use the language that seem to be common among them.

### Interpersonal Barriers

Withdrawal is an absence of interpersonal contact. It is both refusals to be in touch with others.

### Psychological Barriers

There are 3 types of psychological barriers that would be discussed here as they are the most common ones. These include Perceptual barriers, Emotional Barriers, and Experiential barriers.

#### Perceptual barriers

The problem with communicating with others is that we all see the world differently. A bad experience would perceptually block out unpleasant things. This could be in the shape of avoiding it and if that is not possible by altering the behaviours, that is, response types in different ways. Perceptual barriers can significantly alter our understanding and thus affect our communication. They are deep rooted and work in conjunction with our experiences.

#### Emotional barriers

One of the other chief barriers to open and free communication is the emotional barrier. It is comprised mainly of fear, mistrust, and suspicion. As mentioned earlier the roots of our emotional mistrust of others lie in our childhood and infancy when we were taught to be careful what we said to others.

#### Experiential barriers

Experiential barriers, on the other hand, become barriers by virtue of not having experienced them leading to altered interpretation and comprehension. Our experience shapes our view of the world. For example, when children experience trauma at the hands of trusted adults (especially family members) their emotional link with the adult world is severed, creating distrust. They are left with three companions: guilt, fear and feelings of inferiority.

### Stereotypes

Stereotypes are widely circulated ideas or assumptions about particular groups. Stereotypes are usually negative attitudes which people use to justify discrimination of conflict against others. According to Pennington (1986) “there are two characteristics of stereotypes.

People are categorized on the basis of very visible characteristics e.g. race, nationality, sex, dress and bodily appearance; all members of a particular group are assumed to have the same characteristics, and the effects of stereotyping are seen as gross over simplified and over generalized descriptions. They operate to overestimate differences existing between groups and under estimate differences within groups. Stereotypes distort reality since the over estimation between groups and under estimation within groups bear little relation to the truth. Stereotyping acts as a barrier to communication because people make preconceived judgment about people which are unfounded if their character does not relate to their appearance.

**Effective Communication**

Effective communication is defined as verbal speech or other methods of relaying information that get a point across. An example of effective communication is when the person who you are talking to listens actively, absorbs your point and understands it.

Effective communication is about more than just exchanging information. It's about understanding the emotion and intentions behind the information. As well as being able to clearly convey a message, you need to also listen in a way that gains the full meaning of what’s being said and makes the other person feel heard and understood.

Although we can all communicate, not all our communication acts are effective. We must all strive to be effective communicators.

This is the kind of communication which produces results. It is communication where the intended message is delivered clearly, and the desired feedback is achieved. It is communication that does not give room for misunderstanding. It is the best form of communication.

Communication can be effective or it can be misunderstood leading to ineffectiveness. Meaning communication must be effective. Ineffective communication is expensive to the participants because it blocks results. In other words, communication is a matter of effectiveness. Effectiveness is a measure of outcome. Effective communication, therefore, results in the form of desired outcome.

Effective Communication is communication that conveys information to another person efficiently and effectively and so achieves desired outcome. It is important to note that not all communication is effective. This course aims to help the learners to become effective communicators both at the university and later in their chiefdoms. Communication is a process that can be marked with error such as with messages muddled (i.e., mixed up by the sender, or misinterpreted by the recipient). Miscommunication is avoidable. However, if this is not detected, it can cause tremendous confusion, waste efforts and miss opportunities. In fact, communication is successful only when both the sender and the receiver reach a common understanding regarding the same information as a result of the communication process.

Effective communication is about receiving information from others with as little distortion as possible. Communication is a matter of effectiveness, which is dependent on the interlocutors’ (speakers’) communication competency. In other words, its effectiveness is dependent on one’s competency in communication. We can, therefore, say that communication involves intents and efforts from both the sender of the message and the receiver

**Effective Communication Skills**

For communication to be effective, there are skills that both the listener and the receiver must embrace. These include eye contact & visible mouth, Body language, Silence, checking for understanding, summarizing what has been said, Encouragement to continue and asking some questions.

**The 7 Cs of Communication**

The 7 Cs provide a checklist for making sure that your meetings, emails, conference calls, reports, and presentations are well constructed and clear so your audience gets your message. According to the 7Cs, communication needs to be:

**Clear**

When writing or speaking to someone, be clear about your goal or message. What is your purpose in communicating with this person? If you’re not sure, then your audience won’t be sure either. To be clear, try to minimize the number of ideas in each sentence. Make sure that it’s easy for your reader to understand your meaning. People shouldn’t have to “read between the lines” and make assumptions on their own to understand what you’re trying to say.

**Concise**

When you are concise in your communication, you stick to the point and keep it brief. Your audience doesn’t want to read six sentences when you could communicate your message in three.

**Concrete**

When your message is concrete, then your audience has a clear picture of what you’re telling them. There are details (but not too many!) and vivid facts. Your message is solid.

**Correct**

When your communication is correct, it fits your audience, and correct communication is error free.

**Coherent**

When your communication is coherent, it is logical. All points are connected and relevant to the main topic and the tone and flow of the text is consistent.

**Complete**

In a complete message, the audience has everything they need to be informed and, if applicable, take action. Does your message include a “call to action”, so that your audience clearly knows what you want them to do? Have you included all relevant information – contact names, dates, times, locations, and so on? Relate this to testifying.

**Courteous/consideration**

Courteous communication is friendly, open, and honest and does not illicit emotions. There are no hidden insults or passive aggressive tones. You keep your reader’s viewpoint in mind, and you are empathetic to their needs. You must always put yourself in the shoes of the person you are talking to and ask yourself how you would feel if you were to be addressed the way you are addressing your receiver. Consideration in communication creates a healthy work environment.

## Activity

1. Examine each of the Cs of communication and discuss with your colleague on this course the impact of each of these.
2. Why is it important for you to adjust with some of these Cs?

**Effective communication**

Effective communication can help to foster a good working relationship between you and your staff, which can, in turn, improve morale and efficiency.

More than just the words you use, effective communication combines a set of 4 skills:

* Engaged listening
* Nonverbal communication
* Managing stress in the moment
* Asserting yourself in a respectful way

While these are learned skills, communication is more effective when it becomes spontaneous rather than formulaic. A speech that is read, for example, rarely has the same impact as a speech that’s delivered (or appears to be delivered) spontaneously. Of course, it takes time and effort to develop these skills. The more effort and practice you put in, the more instinctive and effective your communication skills will become.

Channel of communication within a chiefdom

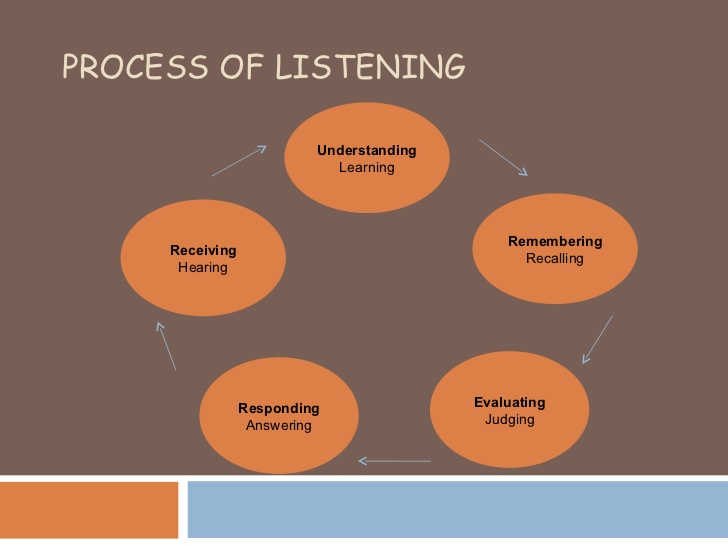
Retainer

**Listening**

This subsection introduces you to listening and speaking. We may ask you a question as to whether you know what listening is? It is the activity of paying attention to and trying to get meaning from something we hear. To listen successfully to spoken language, we need to be able to work out what the speaker means when they use particular words in particular ways on particular occasions and not simply understand the words themselves. Listening is a skill that many people find difficult even in the mother tongue. The amount of concentration one can bring to a listening activity depends on one’s attention span, and the stimulus given. Listening is not a passive skill. We cannot discuss listening in isolation from the other language skill of speaking for the two make up what is termed as oral communication.

**The listening process**

What do you expect under this subsection? How have you engaged in a listening process? Have you realised that communication begins with listening? Look at the following diagram and study the process of listening. Where do we start from? Can you interpret the diagram?



[**https://www.google.com/search?q=listening+process**](https://www.google.com/search?q=listening+process) **(22.11.19).**

Well! The listening process begins with the listener receiving what he or she hears. I hope you can distinguish between listening and hearing. If the information is received accurately, the receiver will be able to understand what has been communicated. This is the stage where learning of the situation or phenomenon takes place. Next is the remembering stage where the listener is able to recall on the information received as he makes informed judgement in the evaluation stage. This will lead to a well formulated and meaningful answer, the responding stage.

Now, think about the messages you send to your audience through your retainers or headpersons, are they received and passed on accurately?

## Ineffective Listeners

Who is an effective listener? A person who is thinking about their own thoughts are ineffective listeners. S/he is focused on reacting, or contributing, or one-upping the person who is talking. An ineffective listener is not focused on the person talking, or on understanding. An ineffective listener is easily distracted and does little (or nothing) to reduce distractions. An ineffective listener gives only surface attention. An ineffective listener misses a lot in a communicative event. Such listeners do not identify barriers to listening.

**Barriers to Listening**

If you are an effective listener, you will be able to identify barriers to listening and hence be able to guard against such. As you read through the following list, identify some possible barriers to effective listening that may affect your chiefdom:

* Sources of noise
* Forming a judgment or evaluation before we understand what is being said.
* Hearing what we want to hear.
* Tuning out a point of view that differs from our own.
* Formulating and rehearsing our response.
* Being inattentive - thinking about something else entirely.
* Having a closed mind- you do not want to hear what the person has to say.
* Feeling anxious or self-conscious.
* Judging the person, either positively or negatively.
* Subjective biases based on ignorance or prejudice.
* Cultural issues, e.g. listening to the differences in pronunciation of different accent, rather than the content of the message.
* Excessive and incessant talking or interrupting.

It is important that such barriers to listening are recognized and dealt with. With developing awareness, we can have more control over those barriers that are internal to ourselves and can adopt and use more helpful listening behaviours.

**Barriers to Active Listening**

There are many barriers to active listening, including physical and cultural factors such as a noisy environment, a strong regional accent, or a difference in terms of reference. There are also barriers that you can create yourself if you are not careful. These include inappropriate nonverbal cues, taking the spotlight, stereotyped reactions, inappropriate responses, pretending understanding, over-reaching and under-reaching, and long-windedness, (Newton and Bristoll, 2019).

**Responding**

How do you respond to your clients’ responses? Do you consider the various features of communication as interrogate suspects? How do you deal with an individual who does not speak?

Response is a gate way to further communication. In a communicative act, participants can decide to prolong the interlocution or end it. During case investigation, the interviewee can close up for any information. If you are not tactful, you would not capture the information you need.

**UNIT 6.**

**Academic writing**

In this subsection, we are going to focus our attention to academic writing. As a learner, there are various instances when you will be required to communicate in writing to your lecturers. Needless to ask, you will need to write tests, presentations assignments and examination. Some written communication that you will be engaged in are writing memoranda (singular > memorandum), letters, E-mail messages, reports, minutes, speeches and notices, and filling in forms. All this require development of writing skills. We will draw you to the attention of writing techniques needed in academic writing but you will be required to acquaint yourself to the structure of each of these forms of written communication. Discuss them with your colleague on the course and bring to the attention of your lecturer what would seem a challenge.

## Writing techniques

Each type of written communication has the mode and style of writing. However, the techniques that you will be involved would not vary at all. For composition writing, for instance, develop a thesis statement. Then formulate the appropriate questions for it. This technique will provide you with the requirements of your purpose of writing.

For example:

Thesis Statement: Spoken English is a challenge for non-English speaking students.

Question to be asked: Why is “spoken English “a challenge for non-English speaking students?

* Sense of embarrassment
* Accent difficult to acquire
* Large vocabulary

Choice of words and developing and how to write a formal document will give you good skill in writing. Go through the next sections critically.

## Choosing the right words

Here are four tips for choosing the right words for your writing:

* Keep word and phrase choice appropriate to the context.
* Listen for what sounds right.
* The precise word isn't necessarily the right word.
* The most powerful words tend to be the shortest and, not coincidentally, the ones most

basic to the English language.

## Developing and writing reports

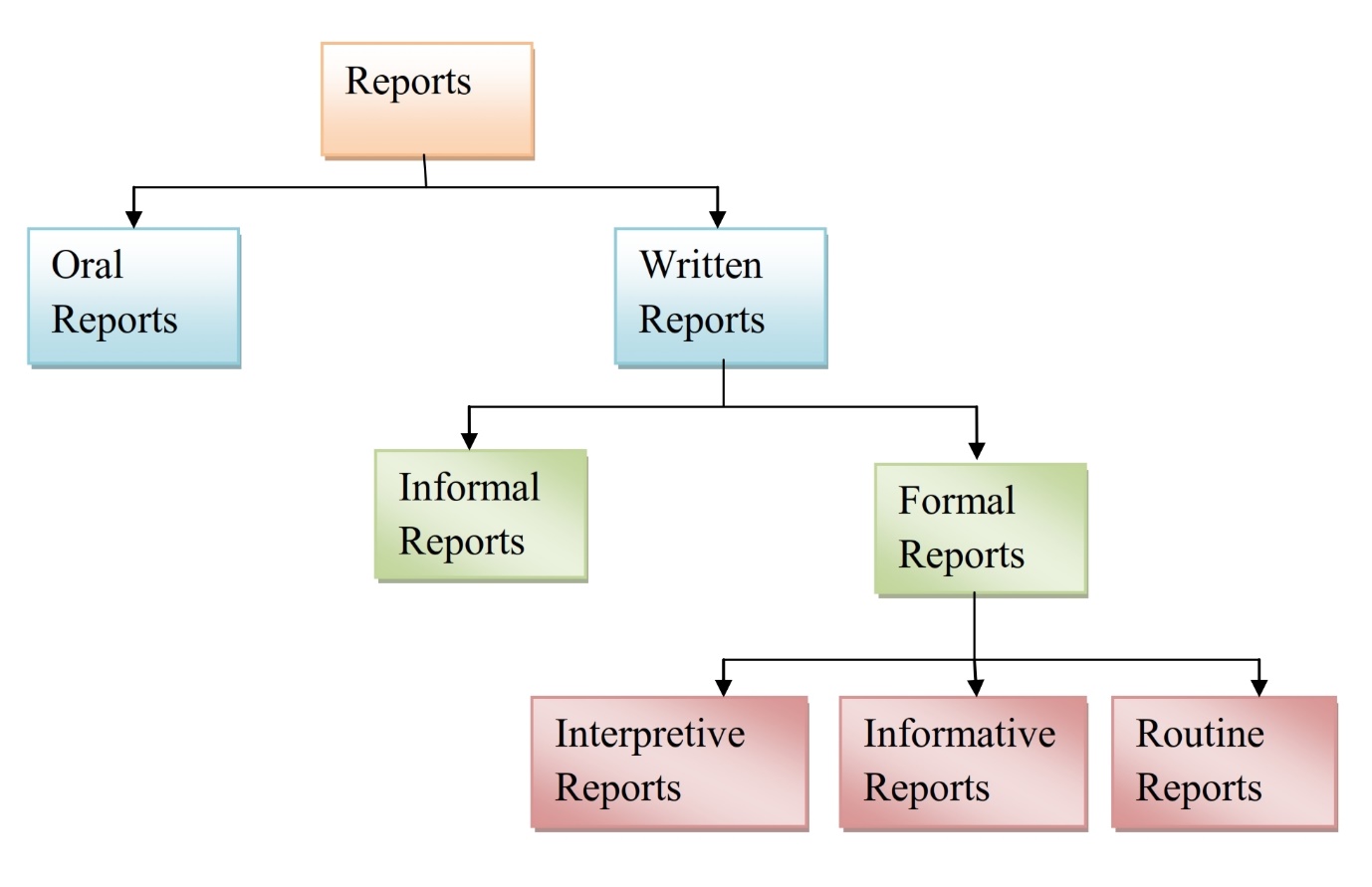
Consider the purpose of the report. Keep in mind that the purpose of a report in your field is to inform. Be sure you are clear on the information to give, what decision is to be made and the role the report plays in that decision. Consider who your readers are.

Have good understanding of what the readers already know, what they need to know, and how they will use this report. What are the report’s main messages? You will need to give enough information to satisfy all these potential readers. You will need to use headings carefully so that different readers can use the report in different ways, especially if the report feeds for another officer’s report. Bear in mind how the report will be structured. Use language that your readers will be able to understand.

Your report should have an introduction, the main body the conclusion and where necessary, recommendations.

## Types of reports

What are the types of reports that you have ever engaged in writing? When looking at types of reports we are going to include oral reports. However, more details will be on written ones. Examine this diagram and develop short notes on each of these report types.



Which of these do you use regularly?

## Texting

Texting massages from the mobile phone has become one of the modes of communication, as has already been alluded. How do you meaningfully use text messaging when on duty?

# **Writing memos**

A memo is a note to an individual or group of people in the same organisation, department or chiefdom to be circulated.

### Voice tone

A great deal of communication happens where you must look at and listen to people face to face. Unfortunately, many of us are out of practice when it comes to face-to-face communication because of the technology today. If you don’t know what others are really saying, you probably will misinterpret or even ignore the true message they are trying to communicate. Voice tone may change the meaning of what is said. If written, it may not convey the same meaning. Depending on where the tone is high in a sentence, the meaning changes. It is important that you understand this fact in order to interpret the meaning of what has been said by your subjects.

It is true that the sound of people’s voices can tell you much about them. The pitch, loudness or softness, speed at which they speak, choppiness or ﬂuidity, whether they attack their sounds with sudden bursts or trail off at the end of sentences, whether they speak in a monotone or variety of tones, or sound gravelly or sugar sweet tells you a tremendous amount about their personality.

Whether you are male or female, a high-pitched voice is associated with being immature, uncertain, weak, or insecure.

Why should you know all about this? Discuss the relevance with a colleague.

**Speaking**

We all know that speaking is the action of conveying information or expressing one's feelings in speech. We all speak (if our anatomy and physiology is perfect) but not all are good public speakers. Even a read speech requires skill.

**Speeches**

You have ever listened to a number of speeches and probably have given one. What is a speech presentation? Compare your response to the one below.

*A speech presentation is publicly speaking to an audience with intent to inform, demonstrate, explain or persuade.*

The presentation is normally written, then performed and includes an introduction, a body consisting of main focal points and a conclusion. The subject matter, choice of words and delivery all depend on the audience. Visual aids are often incorporated into the presentation, if meaningful and relevant. Nearly all types of speeches fall into four main categories – informative, persuasive, ceremonial, and motivational. Can you explain each of these before you progress?

An informative speech is based on factual information, so it’s presented in an objective way to increase awareness and understanding of a particular subject. A range of credible sources are needed to substantiate the data provided in your speech presentation. For example, many representatives from health-related organizations give informative speech presentations to spread public awareness of various diseases and how to prevent them.

A persuasive speech presentation in given to influence the audience in such as way as to convince them to think or believe the way you think or believe. It can be based on factual information or an opinion. The goal is to prompt the audience to take action in some way, whether it is to purchase a product, sign a petition or to donate money to a cause. For instance, politicians give speeches to persuade citizens to vote for them in an election and sales people deliver speeches to encourage consumers to buy their products.

**Motivational**

Motivational speeches are highly emotional and given in all types of settings. Speakers seek to arouse, encourage and stimulate an audience to enrich their personal or professional lives. Corporations often hire motivational speakers to motivate employees to work harder, sell more or perhaps take greater pride in their employer and job. They provide steps for the audience to take to achieve a certain goal, such as career development or better health, as well as examples of how to achieve those goals.

Delivery

One of the most important aspects of a speech presentation is the delivery. Successful speakers make good eye contact with listeners; it conveys confidence and allows the audience to connect with them. The use of voice inflection and facial expressions allow the speaker to naturally reflect what she is talking about. It is good to move around some when speaking and use hand gestures occasionally to emphasize a point, but don’t overdo it.

## Oral presentation

The content is the most obvious component of any oral presentation — after all, if you are talking, you had better have something worthwhile to say. But a presentation is only as effective as its delivery.

Planning the Content

1. Determine your goals.

2. Prepare your material.

3. Study a model.

4. Arrange with your strongest points first.

5. Practice, practice, practice.

Planning the Content

Determine your goals as a speaker

* Why are you delivering this oral presentation?
* Be honest with yourself. If your answer is “for a grade” or “my boss told me,” your audience will certainly figure it out soon enough. What do you want to accomplish?
* If this is a class assignment, look very carefully at the assignment instructions. If your instructor wants you to analyse, do not fill time summarizing. If you’ll be evaluated according to how much evidence you present, do not fill time sharing your personal opinion.
* If this is a work assignment, what is at stake, and what resources are available? Are you assessing work you did over the past year or proposing a project for next year? Are you justifying a decision you made or giving background information to assist a decision-maker? Who gave this presentation

## Organising a presentation

Prepare your material. Plan your speech. Good speakers usually aim to look like they are speaking effortlessly, tossing off words as they come to mind. What you don’t see is the preparation that paved the way for the polished performance. It’s all an act! You can do it too if you plan ahead.

Once you know what your goal is, and you know what your audience wants, you can start strategizing. There is no single strategy that will guarantee success. How you plan depends on many variables.

How many minutes long is your speech? About how many words do you speak per minute?

Will your audience be lost if you use jargon? Will they feel talked down to if you spend time defining terms they already know?

Do you expect that your audience will disagree with you? (If so, you might need to give more examples and more evidence and spend more time addressing reasonable objections in order to sound convincing, which may mean talking a little faster.)

Do you expect your audience already agrees with the position you will take? (If so, they may check out if your speech simply rehashes arguments they already accept without question. What can you say to an audience that already agrees with you? Why would you listen to a speaker who is restating things you already accept as the truth?)

Delivering the Content

* Make eye contact with your audience.
* Engage actively with the audience.
* A slide show is not a speech.
* Watch the time!
* Take questions in the middle, not the end?

General Model

Successful oral presentations typically share some basic characteristics, owing to the nature of the spoken word.

Tell them what you’re going to tell them.

Tell them.

Tell them what you told them.

Note that the speech communication process has 7 elements: the speaker (s), message, channel, listener, feedback, interference, and situation.

## Summary

This section discussed what communication is. Types and barriers to communication have also been discussed. It is hoped that you have seen that there are so many factors that can hinder communication whether in the classroom as a student or as an officer as you execute your duties. It is important, therefore, for you as student and officer to know how you can overcome these barriers to achieve effective communication. Oral communication, it has been realised, has various aspects that need skill. Speeches, for example, require skill.

**UNIT 5**

**STUDY SKILLS**

**Introduction**

This unit is designed to help you get acquainted with various study skills and the concept of study, study tips, reading and reading strategies, strategies for improving comprehension, note taking and note making.

**Learning Outcomes**

As you study and work through this unit, you are expected to;

* explain the concept of study.
* mention different sources of information.
* outline different reading strategies.
* state the difference between note making and note taking.
* explicate styles of writing.
* follow the guidelines in academic writing.

**The concept of study**

Do you exactly what the concept of study is? The concept of study is the devotion of time and attention to gaining knowledge of an academic subject, especially by means of books.

**Study Tips**

Do you know any study tips at all? Write the down any study tips you are aware of on a piece of paper. Below are some of the study tips that you may use:

**Give yourself enough time to study**

Don't leave it until the last minute. While some students do seem to thrive on last-minute cramming, it's widely accepted that (for most of us) this is not the best way to approach an exam. To help sort out your [time management](https://www.topuniversities.com/blog/7-time-management-tips-students), set up a timetable for your study. Write down how many exams you have and the days on which you have to sit them. Then organize your study accordingly. You may want to give some exams more study time than others, so find a balance that you feel comfortable with.

**Organize your study space**

Make sure you organize enough space to spread you text books and notes out. Have enough light and a comfortable chair. No playing any computer/cell phone games. Get rid of all distractions and make sure you feel comfortable and be able to focus as possible. For some people, this may mean almost complete silence, for others, [background music helps](https://www.topuniversities.com/blog/whats-best-music-studying). Some of us need everything completely tidy and organized in order to concentrate, while others thrive in a more cluttered environment. Think about what works for you, and take the time to get it right.

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Make sure you have enough space to spread your textbooks and notes out. Have you got enough light? Is your chair comfortable? Are your computer games out of sight?

**Practice on old exams**

One of the most effective ways to prepare for exams is to practice taking past versions. This helps you get used to the format of the questions, and - if you time yourself - can also be good practice for making sure you spend the right amount of time on each section.

**Explain your answers to others**

Parents and little brothers and sisters don't have to be annoying around exam time. Use them to your advantage. Explain an answer to a question to them. That will help you to get it clear in your head, and also to highlight any areas where you need more work.

**Organize study groups with friends**

Get together with friends for a [study session](https://www.topuniversities.com/blog/university-study-groups-benefits). You may have questions that they have the answers to and vice versa. As long as you make sure you stay focused on the topic for an agreed amount of time, this can be one of the most effective ways to challenge yourself.

**Take regular breaks**

While you may think it's best to study for as many hours as possible, this can actually be counterproductive. If you were [training for a marathon](https://www.topuniversities.com/blog/why-being-student-bit-being-olympic-athlete), you wouldn't try and run 24 hours a day. Likewise, studies have shown that for long-term retention of knowledge, [taking regular breaks](https://www.topuniversities.com/blog/how-have-productive-study-break) really helps.

Everyone's different, so develop a study routine that works for you. If you study better in the morning, start early before taking a break at lunchtime. Or, if you're more productive at nighttime, take a larger break earlier on so you're ready to settle down come evening.

Try not to feel guilty about being out enjoying the sunshine instead of hunched over your textbooks. Remember Vitamin D is important for a healthy brain.

**Eat enough food**

You may feel like you deserve an eat, or that you don't have time to cook, but what you eat can really have an impact on energy levels and focus, so keep away from junk food. Keep your body and brain well-fueled by choosing [nutritious foods](https://www.topuniversities.com/blog/brain-food-what-eat-when-revising) that have been proven to aid concentration and memory, such as fish, nuts, seeds, yogurt and blueberries. The same applies on exam day - eat a good meal before the test, based on foods that will provide a slow release of energy throughout. Sugar may seem appealing, but your energy levels will crash an hour later.

**Plan your examination day**

Make sure you get everything ready well in advance of the exam - don't leave it to the day before to suddenly realize you don't know the way, or what you're supposed to bring. Check all the rules and requirements, and plan your route and journey time. If possible, do a test run of the trip. If not, write down clear directions. Work out how long it will take to get there - then add on some extra time. You really don't want to arrive having had to run halfway or feeling frazzled from losing your way. You could also make plans to travel to the exam with friends or classmates, as long as you know they're likely to be punctual.

**Drink plenty of water**

As a final tip, remember that being well hydrated is essential for your brain to work at its best. Make sure you keep drinking plenty of water throughout your revision, and also on the exam day.

**Sources of information**

These are materials that are used as resources of information for reference, research, study and recreation. Information resources are found in form of books, newspapers, computer disks/ tapes, listening (radio), viewing (TV), and speaking (oral).

**Books**

UNESCO defines a book as a non-periodical literary publication consisting of 49 or more pages, covers not included. A collection of leaves of paper or other material, written of printed, fastened together in some manner with a cover. In the USA for a publication to be called a book, it must consist of 24 or more pages.

**Newspapers**

These are serial publications usually printed on newsprint and issues daily, semi-weekly or weekly containing news, editorial opinion, regular columns, letters to the editor, cartoons, advertisements and other items of current, often local interest to a general readership.

**Periodicals**

These are publications with distinctive titles containing articles, stories or other short works usually written by different contributors, issued in soft cover more than once, usually at stated intervals. Periodicals are published by scholarly societies, University presses, government agencies, commercial publishing houses, private corporations, trade and professional associations and other organizations.

**Journals**

These are periodicals devoted to disseminating current research and commentary on developments within a specific discipline sub discipline or field of study usually published in quarterly or bimonthly issues which Libraries bind into continuously paginated volumes. Most journal articles are longer than five pages and include a bibliography or a list of works cited at the end. Journal articles in science and social sciences usually include an abstract preceding the text, which summarizes the content.

**Magazines**

These are popular periodicals containing articles on various topics written by different authors. Most magazine are heavily illustrated containing advertisements and are printed on glossy paper. Articles are usually short (less than five pages) un signed and do not include a bibliography or list of references. Most magazines are issued monthly of weekly.

**Abstracts**

An abstract is a short statement of essential content of a book, article, speech, report and dissertation. It gives the main points in the same order as the original work.

**Index**

An index is a list of terminologies arranged alphabetically in the last pages of a book. It has page numbers which direct the reader to the specific page of a text on which the desired information can be found.

**Archival Sources**

This is an organized collection of noncurrent records of an institution, government, organization or corporate body. Archival sources are managed and maintained by a librarian with special training known as an archivist.

**Serial Publications**

A publication in any format issued in successively numbered or dated parts or issues, appearing at regular or irregular intervals and intended to be continued indefinitely. In our library, the serial or periodical catalogue is known as a Kardex.

**Patents**

A patent is an official document issued by the government in response to a formal application process in which the applicant (usually the inventor) is granted the exclusive right to manufacture, use, and sell an invention for a specified number of years the document is assigned a patent number by the patent office for future reference.

**Standards**

Standards are any criteria established by law, agreement, or custom, according to which values, quantities, procedure performance, etc. are measured or evaluated and to which manufacturers, practitioners, researchers etc. seek to conform in order to ensure quality and uniformity of results.

**Audio- Visual Materials**

This is a term used to describe non print materials such as films, film strips, slides, video recordings, audio recordings, CD-ROMS, machine readable data files and computer soft ware.

**Computerized Sources**

CD-ROM Compact Disk Read Only Memory.

It is a small plastics optical disk 4.72 inches or 12 centimetres in diameter similar to an audio compact disk. It is used for storing information in digital format. Once information is stored it can be searched and displayed on a computer screen. Information stored in a CD-ROM cannot be changed or erased.

Online information resources

These are information resources accessed through the internet. In libraries, we have the Online Public Access Catalogue. It consists of bibliographic records in machine readable format. These records can be accessed from different computers through the library website.

The Internet

This is a network which inter connects computers of all types throughout the world. It enables users to communicate via email, transfer of data and program files. The internet also enables users to find information on the World Wide Web and access computer systems such as catalogues and electronic databases.

**Note-taking and note-making**

When you attend lectures, your instructors will provide you with a lot of information some of which is essential and the other non-essential. Sorting out these two types of information becomes an important part of note taking. The lecturer might write notes on the blackboard or give out handouts but these two things do not substitute what you get from the lecture through note taking. What you write down constitutes what you understand. Note taking also involves writing notes from books. Not everything said should be written down. What you require is to capture salient points in the lecture. But how do you distinguish salient from irrelevant points? Salient points are shown by emphasis.

Some lecturers approach their lectures with a degree of prejudice or bias, which may colour what they say while others are emotionally involved in their subjects or lectures. It is important for you to recognize salient points from highlights of subsidiary points.

You should also be familiar with the concepts that are being used in the lectures. Often the lecturer will write down the main concepts being covered. Main concepts are also given emphasis through the time devoted to them, through repetition and through change in pace of delivery. Usually, the lecturer will slow down in pace to indicate the most important points. Other lecturers speak more loudly in order to indicate the most important points. They may even change their intonation (rise and fall of voice) to denote important points. Pauses and change in breath may indicate personal attitudes and intentions of the speakers. Cues of what is important may be given through gestures and eye movements. Taking notes in a lecture and processing/annotating/rewriting these notes effectively requires:

* recognizing the main ideas
* identifying what information is relevant to your task
* having a system of note taking that works for you
* reducing the information to note and diagram format
* where possible, putting the information in your own words
* recording the source of the information

Note making, on the other hand, is taking notes from reading in some systematic way. This involves reviewing your lecture notes. Do the following on a daily basis.

* Read through or review your lecture notes
* Underline headings and subheading
* Correct spelling mistakes and rewrite illegible portions
* Fill in any gaps
* Underline or highlight important sentences or paragraphs
* Make sure you understand the concepts

**Reflection**

Think of other ways in which you can improve your study skills apart from those you have studied in the module.

What would you say is the difference between note taking and note making? Discuss your response with your colleagues.

**Styles of writing**

The *style* in *writing* can be defined as the way a *writer* writes. It is the technique that an individual author uses in his *writing*. It varies from author to author and depends upon one's syntax, word choice, and tone. It can also be described as a “voice” that readers listen to when they read the work of a *writer*.

Have you ever wondered what your instructors mean when they write “wordy” or “awk” in the margins of your paper? Do you sometimes sense that your sentences could be stronger, clearer, shorter, or more effective? Do you often feel that you know what you mean but do not know how to say it? If you sometimes get feedback from your lecturers that you need to “tighten your prose” or “look at your word choice,” you may need to work on your writing style. That is, the way you put together a sentence or group of sentences.

Part of the problem with style is that it’s subjective. Different readers have different ideas about what constitutes good writing style, and so do different lecturers and different academic departments. For example, passive voice is generally more acceptable in the sciences than in the humanities. You may have a lecturer who keeps circling items in your paper and noting “word choice” or “awkward” and another who comments only on content. Worse yet, some of what readers identify as writing problems may technically be grammatically correct. A sentence can be wordy and still pass all the rules in the grammar handbooks. This fact may make it harder for you to see what’s wrong, and it may make you more likely to think that the instructor is picky or out to get you when you read her comments. In fact, the instructor probably just cares about your development as a writer. She wants you to see what she thinks interferes with your argument and learn to express your ideas more directly, elegantly, and persuasively.

**Say what you mean**

First, remember that your goal in academic writing is, not to sound intelligent, but to get your intelligent point across. You may be reading complicated textbooks and articles, and even when they don’t make sense to you, they all sound smart. So when you have to write a paper, you may try to imitate this type of writing. Sometimes when you imitate the style, you miss the most important goal - communicating and being understood. Your lecturer can’t read your mind - she can only read your paper. And if she can’t understand what you are saying, she’s going to have trouble giving you credit for it. Remember that the most important goal in every paper is to get your point across as straightforwardly as possible.

**Say it in the appropriate tone**

Beware too of the opposite problem: writing exactly like you speak to your friends over lunch. We’ve written this module in a chatty, friendly style, hoping that you’ll read it and think, “This isn’t such a painful way to learn about style.” Ours may not be the appropriate style for an academic paper. This is a module. Some instructors may think it’s okay to say “capitalism is so lame” or “the awesome thing about the Hindus is…,” but most won’t. When in doubt, be conservative, and don’t think that because a discipline is “artsy” or “out there” that instructors in that discipline want you to write like that.

This caution doesn’t mean you should write all your sentences in a choppy, obvious, “see Jane run” style. It just means that you should make sure that your instructor isn’t distracted from what you are trying to say by how you are saying it.

How to improve

If you learn how to recognize matters of style in your writing, you will have more control over your writing—the way someone reads your paper will be a result of choices you have made. If those choices are deliberate, you’ll have more control over how the reader reacts to your argument. So let’s look at what instructors often perceive as the biggest style “crimes.” You probably don’t have trouble with all of these, so focus your attention on those issues most relevant to your own writing. First, we’ll explain some common, style-related writing problems, then we’ll show you some handy tips for finding them, and finally, we will work on correcting them in your revision process. (That’s right: at first, you may have to include a revision devoted entirely to style in your writing process, at least until you get used to recognizing and correcting

these issues as you write.)

Wordiness

This term is used to cover a couple of style problems that involve using more words than you absolutely need to say something. Especially when we talk, we use a lot of little “filler” words that don’t actually have anything to add to the meaning of our sentences. (The previous sentence has several examples—see if you can take five words out of it without losing any of its meaning.) In writing, these filler words and phrases become more obvious and act as delays in getting the reader to your point. If you have enough delays in your sentence, your readers might get frustrated. They might even start skimming your paper, which seems a shame after all of your efforts to communicate with them.

Your wordiness may derive from a problem unrelated to your writing style: uncertainty about your topic, lack of a developed argument, or lack of evidence. If you’re not sure what you want or have to say, you may have trouble saying it. As you struggle to find what you mean or play with a vague idea or concept, you may write garbled or rambling sentences. If this happens to you, it doesn’t mean that you are a “bad” writer or that you have a “bad” writing style or “bad” ideas. It simply indicates that you are using writing as a way to think—to discover your point. It’s okay to let yourself think on the page and write to discover precisely what you mean. Taking thirty minutes (or more) to let yourself write and clarify your point for yourself may save you lots of time later. Write to yourself until you can quickly explain to a friend what you are writing about, why you believe it, and what evidence supports your position. Then, sit down to write your paper with your reader in mind.

Note: Some writers, in an effort to make a page limit, will be wordy on purpose, this tactic will be obvious to the reader, and most instructors will be less than impressed. If you find yourself struggling to meet length requirements, see our handout on how to read an assignment for some tips. If you are still way off on page length and our handout hasn’t helped you, you may want to talk to your instructor, <https://writingcenter.unc.edu/tips-and-tools/style/>, (23.11.19).

Wordy constructions such as clichés, qualifiers, and redundant pairs are easy to fix once you recognize your tendency to use them. Note that the following documents will need different styles of writing:

* letters (formal and informal)
* minutes for meetings
* stories
* notices and announcements
* forms and applications
* a diary
* reports
* summaries
* play writing
* writing poems
* giving instructions

You can now look at each of them in detail. You may wish to discuss with a colleague on this course.

**Activity**

Read several of your old papers and see if you can locate any of these tendencies or consider whether they have become a habit for you in your writing:

**Writing an academic essay**

Having looked at various methods of organisations, we are sure you now know which method is appropriate to adopt in any academic essay you intend to write. Note that academic writing is always a form of evaluation that asks you to demonstrate knowledge and show proficiency with certain disciplinary skills of thinking, interpreting, and presenting. Writing the paper is never “just” the writing part. To be successful in this kind of writing, you must be completely aware of what your lecturer expects you to do and accomplish with that particular writing task.

But then, what do you understand by the term academic writing? If you do not understand the term, probably you will understand the definition provided below.

A broad definition of academic writing is any writing done to fulfill a requirement of a college or university. Academic writing is also used for publications that are read by teachers and researchers or presented at conferences. A very broad definition of academic writing could include any writing assignment given in an academic setting. Students, professors and researchers in every discipline use academic writing to convey ideas, make arguments, and engage in scholarly conversation. Note that academic writing is characterised by evidence-based arguments, precise word choice, logical organisation and an impersonal tone. Though sometimes thought of as long-winded or inaccessible, strong academic writing is quite the opposite: it informs, analyses, and persuades in a straightforward manner and enables the reader to engage critically in scholarly dialogue.

The following are the components of competent academic writing: clear structure, fluent writing, accuracy in terms of spelling, grammar and punctuation and appropriate use of source readings or reference material. This is called referencing and each instance is called a citation. There are different models of referencing. We shall discuss referencing later in the module.

**Characteristics of Academic Writing**

Academic writing is well organised and planned type of writing. You do not need to write the way you speak. Below are some of the characteristics:

**Complexity**

You must know by now that written language is relatively more complex than spoken language. Written language has longer words, it is lexically denser and it has a more varied vocabulary. It uses more noun-based phrases than verb-based phrases. Written texts are shorter and the language has more grammatical complexity, including more subordinate clauses and more passives.

**Formality**

Academic writing is relatively formal. In general, this means that in an essay you should avoid colloquial words and expressions. Phrasal verbs need to be avoided because they are characteristic of colloquial or informal language.

**Precision**

Academic writing uses words that convey exact meanings rather than using vague terms which could be interpreted in many different ways. So, there is need to provide evidence for every assertion one advances. In academic writing, therefore, facts and figures are given clearly and precisely as evidence.

**Objectivity**

Written language is in general objective rather than personal. It, therefore, has fewer words that refer to the writer or the reader. This means that the main emphasis should be on the information that you want to give and the arguments you want to make, rather than you. For that reason, academic writing tends to use nouns (and adjectives), rather than verbs (and adverbs).

**Explicitness**

Academic writing is explicit about the relationships in the text. Furthermore, it is the responsibility of the writer in English to make it clear to the reader how the various parts of the text are related. These connections can be made explicit by the use of different signaling words.

**Accuracy**

There must be exactness and correctness in academic writing. Owing to this, academic writing uses vocabulary accurately. Most subjects have words with narrow specific meanings.

**Hedging**

In academic writing, it is prudent to be cautious in one’s statements so as to distinguish between facts and claims. This is commonly known as hedging. Hedging is the use of linguistic devices to express hesitation or uncertainty as well as to demonstrate politeness and indirectness. People use hedged language for several different purposes but perhaps the most fundamental are the following:

* To minimize the possibility of another academic opposing the claims that are being made.
* To conform to the currently accepted style of academic writing.
* To enable the author to devise a politeness strategy where they are able to acknowledge that there may be flaws in their claims.

In any kind of academic writing you do, it is necessary to make decisions about your stance on a particular subject, or the strength of the claims you are making. Different subjects prefer to do this in different ways. Hedging, in short, is the type of language use which protects your claims as a writer.

**Responsibility**

In academic writing, you must be responsible for and must be able to provide evidence and justification for, any claims you make. You are also responsible for demonstrating an understanding of any source texts you use.

**Organisation**

Academic writing is well organised. It flows easily from one section to the next in a logical fashion. A good place to start is the genre of your text. Once you have decided on the genre, the structure is easily determined.

**Planning**

Academic writing is well planned. It usually takes place after research and evaluation, according to a specific purpose and plan. Planning an essay involves arranging ideas logically, which help you stay on track during the writing process. Your plan should state how you are going to prove your arguments, including the evidence you are going to use. Planning an essay involves analysing the question. Analysing the question must be done before you even begin to select material for your essay. In your analysis of the question, you will understand the requirement of the question and this will help you to focus on the right material for your essay.

**Structure of Academic Writing**

**Logical Organization*.***

Academic writing follows a standard organizational pattern. For academic essays and papers, there is an introduction, body, and conclusion. Each paragraph logically leads to the next one. So, ensure that you have transitional sentences at the end of each paragraph that should lead you smoothly to the next paragraph.

**The introductory paragraph**

Note that every academic paper needs to have a well-crafted introductory paragraph. Because the first paragraph acts as the entrance to your essay, it must be captivating and strongly built. It must be that which catches the readers’ attention, provide background information, and let the reader know what to expect. Not only that, the introductory paragraph must also have the thesis statement and should introduce the reader to the topic of your essay. It should create interest in the essay, outline the writer’s main ideas, and suggest how these ideas will be presented within the body of the essay. Your introduction should, therefore, consist of three main elements: a **hook**, **building sentences**, and a **thesis statement**.

**Hook**

The first sentence (or sentences) of your essay should be constructed in such a way that it catches your reader’s attention. It introduces the topic of the essay in an interesting way. Generally, the whole of your introduction should grab the reader’s attention, set the issue, and lead in to your thesis. Your introduction is merely a build-up of the issue, a stage of bringing your reader into the essay’s argument. You need to note that the title and the first paragraph are probably the most important in your essay. Remember, in the first paragraph you either hook the reader’s interest or lose it.

**Building Sentences**

After the hook, the following sentences should provide background information to give readers some context about the topic. They should “build” towards the thesis statement.

**Thesis statement**

The thesis statement comes at the end of the introduction. It is the most important sentence in the entire essay because it presents the essay topic and the writer’s position on that topic. It also indicates the main ideas that will be discussed in the body paragraphs.

**The body paragraphs**

The body of an essay consists of three paragraphs. Each body paragraph explains in detail one of the main ideas expressed in the thesis statement. There are three parts to each body paragraph: ***a topic sentence, supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence***. Of course, this has been explained earlier at the beginning of the unit. Expressed simply, body paragraphs support the thesis statement. Each body paragraph has one main point to support the thesis, which is named in a topic sentence. Each point is then supported in the paragraph with logical reasoning and evidence. Each sentence connects to the one before and after it. The readers do not have to work to find the connection between ideas.

**Concluding Paragraph**

The concluding paragraph ends the essay by reviewing the main ideas from each body paragraph and leaving the reader with a final thought. The conclusion consists of three elements: a **restated thesis**, a **summary of main ideas**, and a **final thought**.

**Restated thesis:**

At the start of the conclusion, you need to restate the thesis in words different from those you used in the introduction.

**Summary of main ideas:**

Here you need to summarise the main ideas from each of the body paragraphs as a reminder to the reader.

**Final thought:**

The conclusion summarizes the paper’s thesis and main points and shows the reader the significance of the paper’s findings. It is an opportunity to show the extent to which you have been able to deal with the issues involved in your thesis. Make sure that your conclusion refers back to what you outlined in your introduction and to your thesis. So, as the writer, you are to end your essay by presenting your final thought on the topic – for example, you can state an opinion, a solution, or a prediction. The final thought should leave a strong impression and encourage the reader to think further about the topic.

**UNIT 6**

# **Referencing and Citation**

## Introduction

We now turn to the more technical matter of how to incorporate source material into your own writing and how to document the material you include. And so this unit is designed to show you how to cite and make references when you are writing an academic paper.

# **Learning Outcomes**

As you read through this unit you are expected to**:**

* explain the concepts of citation and referencing.
* clearly cite and make reference in an academic paper.
* show different styles of referencing.
* indicate when and where to cite.
* state the importance of citation.

## Documentation

What are documentation styles?

A documentation style is a standard approach to the citation of sources that the author of a paper has consulted, abstracted, or quoted from. It prescribes methods for citing references within the text, providing a list of works cited at the end of the paper, and even formatting headings and margins. Using sources in your research paper is an important part of building and supporting your argument.

It is important for you as a student to learn the skill of citing and that of writing references in your academic life because your academic writing will have a backing to support your work. For your work to gain local and international recognition your readers should have proof that is backing your work. Otherwise, they will regard it as plagiarized work. When you incorporate material into work, you can do so through direct quotation or through summary or paraphrase; you basically document material by naming the writer and providing full publication details of the source (Crusius & Channell, 2003). When you include sources of your information in your work, you are actually referencing.

## Referencing

Referencing is a way of acknowledging the sources of information that you use to research your assignments. You need to provide a reference whenever you draw on someone else's words, ideas or research.

You should also provide references for any graphic information you use. Films, television programs, personal communications and online sources also need to be referenced. Not referencing other people's work can constitute plagiarism.

## Plagiarism

Plagiarism is presenting someone else’s work or ideas as your own, with or without their consent, or by incorporating it into your work without full acknowledgement. All published and unpublished material, whether in manuscript, printed or electronic form, is covered under this definition. Plagiarism may be intentional or reckless, or unintentional. Under the regulations for examinations, intentional or reckless plagiarism is a disciplinary offence.

Different academic disciplines use different documentation styles. It is important to note that different disciplines use different documentation styles. However, the most commonly used documentation style by most universities is called the American Psychological Association (APA) The mechanics of citing are complicated, and vary in each format. Amoud University uses APA but does not restrict its usage to disciplines where APA is not applicable. Chalimbana University expects you to use the APA system for all your academic work.

* American Psychological Association (APA)
* University of Chicago Press (Chicago Manual of Style)
* Modern Language Association (MLA)
* Council of Science Editors (CSE)
* American Chemical Society (ACS)

## What is Citation

**Citation** is a [reference](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Reference) to a [published](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Publishing) or unpublished source. More precisely, a citation is an abbreviated alphanumeric expression embedded in the body of an intellectual work that denotes an entry in the bibliographic references section of the work for the purpose of acknowledging the relevance of the works of others to the topic of discussion at the spot where the citation appears. Generally, the combination of both the in-body citation and the bibliographic entry constitutes what is commonly thought of as a citation.

Citation is both a sign post and an acknowledgement. As a signpost, it signals the location of your source (Source is the book or internet site or journal you have gotten your information from). As an acknowledgement, citing reveals that you are indebted to that source.

A citation can appear in different formats: within the text (in-text citation) at the bottom of the page (footnotes), or at the end of the paper (endnotes).

## Importance Citation

Citation is important because it is the basis of academics, that is, the pursuit of knowledge. In the academic endeavour, individuals look at evidence and reason about that evidence in their own individual ways. That is, taking what is already known, established, or thought, they use their reasoning power to create new knowledge. In creating this knowledge, they must cite their sources accurately for three main reasons: To show your reader you have done proper research by listing sources you used to get your information; to be a responsible scholar by giving credit to other researchers and acknowledging their ideas.

**Reason One:** Because ideas are the currency of academia. Citing sources is important because the core of academia is ideas. Citing enables us to credit other writers for their contributions. When a writer cites ideas, that writer honours those who initiated the ideas.

**Reason Two:** Because failing to cite is considered as plagiarism (Academic stealing)

Using someone else’s idea without giving credit, violates that person’s ownership of the idea. To understand this violation, envision the following scenario: You and your friend are discussing some ideas from class during lunch one day, and you make what you consider to be a particularly insightful observation. During class discussion that afternoon, your friend brings up your observation but neglects to point out that it is yours, not his. The professor compliments your friend on his clear and insightful thinking.

You are likely to feel that there’s something unfair about your friend’s claim that your idea was his or her own. That sense of violation you feel, the sense that something valuable has been stolen from you, suggests why failure to cite sources hurts another person.

**Reason Three:** Because academics need to be able to trace the genealogy of ideas.

**Other reasons for citation**

1. **Attribution serves as a fact-checking tool**.

Accuracy is all important in any writing, especially when we write about science. The very act of looking up a reference for verification serves as an accuracy check, e.g., to double check a direct quote, to ensure the fidelity of a passage that you paraphrased, or to cite another study that is related to your study.

1. **Citation makes you a better researcher**.

Some of the hallmarks of good research include attention to detail and the ability to discern patterns and make connections. Good citation practices can help with both. The proper attribution of sources entails many details, such as correct page numbers, the spelling of author names, and of course, the accuracy of facts that you are presenting in your own article or other work.

1. Becoming detail-oriented in one aspect automatically instils good habits across the board in your research. As for the ability to spot trends and patterns, preparing a good bibliography trains you for this task (which is crucial in scientific analysis) because of the vast amount of information it condenses into a short space.

## *Good citation practices make you a better writer*.

All of us aspire towards that elegant paper in which the prose is as compelling as the content and good attribution habits build a strong foundation towards that goal. Citing specific sources for the various facts that we present removes the hallmarks of intellectual laziness, vague thinking, and sloppy writing as generalizations, clichés, and outright false claims, e.g., as when the phrases, “everyone knows” or “they say,” are replaced with specific sources.

When you cite sources properly, you leave no question in your readers’ minds regarding your point. Furthermore, by citing, you can easily use active language and avoid raising the dreaded red flag of passivity to journal editors and reviewers. Cite well, and you may forever expunge the phrase “It is said” from your academic paper.

## A good bibliography shows off your scientific knowledge.

A bibliography is simply the compilation of the various sources that you have read and cited in your own manuscript, dissertation, book, etc. Thus, an extensive bibliography is naturally a hallmark of a widely read and well-informed scientist.

## Careful citation practices will build your credibility as a scientist or scholar.

This point is a simple corollary of the previous one. Indeed, showing off scholarship is simply the icing on the cake of what a well-cited article has to offer. A deeper, more meaningful role that a good bibliography plays for researchers is to establish a writer‘s credibility among peers in their field. The better documented your research and arguments; the more credible you are to your scientific colleagues.

## Citation enables better verification of your work.

Any piece of academic writing gets vetted several times over before it finally makes it into print or onto a website. Whether one is a peer reviewer, editor, or editorial assistant whose job is simply to track down sources in the bibliography and make sure that the citations are accurate, life is simply easier when there is less busy work. So, your paper is much more likely to be passed through these multiple rounds of editing with minimal criticism and positive feedback if you have already taken the trouble to attribute your information correctly and cite all your sources.

## Instructions for using the APA documentation style

In parentheses at the end of the directly or indirectly quoted material, place the author’s last name, the date of publication and the exact page number (s) where the material appears. If the author’s name appears in the sentence, the date of publication should follow the name directly, in parentheses; the date of publication still comes in parentheses at the end of the sentence. Unlike MLA, the APA style uses commas between the parts of the citation and ‘p’ or ‘pp’ before the page numbers. e.g.

A San Jose State University professor argues that affirmative action “does not teach skills, or educate, or instil motivation” (Steele, 1990, p. 121). Or

Steele (1990), a black professor of English at San Jose State University, argues that the disadvantages of affirmative action for blacks are greater than the advantages (p. 171).

In a reference list at the end of the paper, provide complete bibliographical information in APA style as your lecturer will have explained.

### Direct Quotations

Crusius & Channell (2003) argue that direct quotations are exact words taken from the source. The simplest direct quotations are whole sentences worked into your text, as illustrated in the following excerpt from a student’s essay. *Katrine (1991) argues that most of us have some choices in how we live and how we conduct our lives.*

### Indirect Quotation

Indirect quotations are paraphrases or summaries of material, either fact or opinion taken from a source. Here is how you would incorporate an indirect quotation into your paper. When you paraphrase someone else, you are putting someone else’s work in your own words. To make that happen, you need to select only the most important information and do one or both of the following: Completely change the order of the ideas and words. It is important to paraphrase because it shows your readers that you can extract an author’s ideas into a tight, compact sentence. While it does require more effort than directly quoting an author, it is an important skill that you have to demonstrate when you are writing an academic paper. To signal to your reader that you have paraphrased an author, you need to indicate the author and the year that the article/ chapter/book/website was published.

**Example:**

One cannot help but agree with pioneer heart-transplant surgeon Christian Barnard (1980) that death should involve dignity and that society may have to conceptualise the practice of euthanasia as a means to death with dignity (p. 8).

The entry in the reference list would appear as follows:

Barnard, C. (1980). *Good life, good death*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentince-Hall.

### How to use direct quotation

* Use active voice, the use of the personal pronoun “I” instead of “this researcher” is acceptable. The use of “he” or “she” when presenting the work of other authors is discouraged.
* Block quotations should be single spaced, not double spaced, and should be indented on the left (only) by 1/2 inch.
* When you directly quote someone else, you need to keep all or almost all of the original wording intact. Directly quoting others’ work is effective, especially when the original wording is powerful or when there is no way for you to reasonably paraphrase the original wording.
* To signal to your reader that you have directly quoted someone, you need to use quotation marks around the quoted words and you need to indicate the author, the year that the article/chapter/book/website was published, and the page number or where the quotation can be found.

#### Using Block Quotations

If a quoted passage runs to four lines of the text in your essay, indent it to one inch (or ten spaces if typewritten) from the left margin, double-space it as with the rest of the text, and omit quotation marks. In block quotations, a period is placed at the end of the final sentence, followed by one space and the parenthetical citation.

The idea of death as release from suffering was expressed by Seneca, a Stoic philosopher of Rome, who lived during the first century C.E.:

Against all the injuries of life, I have the refuge of death. If I can choose between a death of torture and one that is simple and easy, why should I not select the latter? As I choose the ship in which I sail and the house which I inhabit, so will I choose the death by which I leave life. […] Why should I endure the agonies of disease […] when I can emancipate myself from all my torments? (quoted in Wennberg 42 - 43)

## Citation Guide: APA Style

The American Psychological Association (APA) developed APA style for use in its own publications. APA is now the standard editorial style in many social science and health-related fields, including psychology, sociology, economics, business, criminology, social work, and nursing.

This citation guide offers a brief introduction to APA style, and it illustrates proper citation format for a number of commonly used research sources. The list of Print Sources includes resources typically found in a library, such as books, journals, magazines, and newspapers. The list of Electronic Sources includes resources found online or published on DVD or CD-ROM, including encyclopaedias, journals, magazines, newspapers, and government documents. The information in this guide is based on the fifth edition of the APA Publication Manual (2001). For more complete information, consult the APA Publication Manual or the official APA Web site.

APA is one of several commonly used styles for citing references. Your school, or your instructor, may require a different citation style, such as MLA style, developed by the Modern Language Association, or Chicago style, developed by the University of Chicago Press and described in the Chicago Manual of Style. When in doubt about which style to use, ask your lecturer.

## How to cite

According to APA style, there are two ways to communicate to your reader that you’ve used others’ work:

* In your text, you need to show that you’ve paraphrased or directly quoted someone else.
* At the very end of your paper, you need to provide a list of all the articles, chapters, books, and websites that you’ve used within the body of your text.

## When to Cite

When writing an academic essay, you can cite when you;

* Use an in-text citation: within the text
* Paraphrase someone else’s work.

## Further APA guidelines

* Page margins are to be one inch for the top, bottom, and right side. The left margin is 1.5 cm in your thesis.
* Start page numbering on the first page of text (not the title page), with it and each subsequent page (including the reference list) numbered at the top right margin;
* Any tables or figures should be inserted into text, close to the place cited (but where they are not broken by a page break) if possible.
* Reference lists should be single spaced, with double spacing between citations and arranged alphabetically.

## List of References

The list of References, sometimes labelled Works Cited or Bibliography in other citation styles, is an alphabetized list of citations at the end of a research paper. The list is double-spaced, and each item is formatted with a hanging indent; that is, the second and subsequent lines are indented more than the first line. For example:

Bailey, G., & Peoples, J. (1999). Introduction to cultural anthropology. Belmont,

CA: Thomson Wadsworth.

## In-Text Citations

References that appear within the body of a paper are called in-text citations. The first time a source is mentioned, it should be cited as part of the text. The citation, including the year of publication, is enclosed in parentheses. For example:

By the end of the 1980s, Gorbachev was losing patience with the…

Lithuanian independence movement (Serrill, 1990). …

The citation can also be written into a sentence, with the year of publication enclosed in parentheses:

According to Serrill (1990), by the end of the 1980s, Gorbachev

was losing patience with the Lithuanian independence movement. …

## Quick Tips on APA Style

Certain features distinguish APA from other citation styles.

When you keenly look at the APA documentation style, you notice how different it is from the others. You will notice the following:

* Only the first word of a title or subtitle, and proper nouns, are capitalized in book, magazine, journal, and article titles. In the list of References, all author names are written in last-first order, e.g., Doe, J.
* If there is more than one author, names are separated by commas; an ampersand (&) precedes the final name, e.g., Doe, J., Roe, J., & Roe, R.
* First and middle names of authors are represented by initials only, indicated in this guide as “**F**. **M**.” for ***First Middle***.
* The year of publication is always included, in both the list of references and in-text citations.
* Citations of online sources include the date on which the source was retrieved from the Web.
* If referring to a particular section of a work, page numbers for that section are included in the list of References, but not in the in-text citation. With the exception of journal articles and printable documents, electronic sources do not usually display page numbers; if page numbers cannot be found; there is no need to include them.

## Format and Examples

At this point, you are being exposed to the actual appearance of citations. And so, for each type of research source, a format “formula” is provided, followed by an example drawn from an existing published work. Each citation is shown in two forms: first, as it would appear in the list of References, then as it would appear as an in-text citation.

## 

## Print Sources

**1. Book with one author**

Author, F. M. (Year published). Book title (pp. start page-end page of specific reference {or p. page number if referencing a single page}). City {include state, province, or country if city is not well known}: Publisher. or

Author, F. M. (Year published). Book title. City {include state, province, or country if city is not well known}: Publisher.

In text: (Author, year published).

Example:

Salinger, J. D. (1951). *The catcher in the rye* (pp. 106-107). Boston: Little, Brown and Company. or

Salinger, J. D. (1951). *The catcher in the rye*. Boston: Little, Brown and Company.

In text: (Salinger, 1951).

**2. Book with two authors**

Author, F. M., & Author2, F. M. (Year published). Book title (pp. start page-end page of specific reference {or p. page number if referencing a single page}). City {include state, province, or country if city is not well known}: Publisher. or

Author, F. M., & Author2, F. M. (Year published). Book title. City {include state, province, or country if city is not well known}: Publisher.

In text: (Author & Author2, year published).

Example:

Bailey, G., & Peoples, J. (1999). *Introduction to cultural anthropology* (pp. 96-99). Belmont, CA: Thomson Wadsworth. or

Bailey, G., & Peoples, J. (1999). *Introduction to cultural anthropology*. Belmont, CA: Thomson Wadsworth.

In text: (Bailey & Peoples, 1999).

**3. Book with three authors**

Author, F. M., Author2, F. M., & Author3, F. M. (Year published). Book title (pp. start page- end page of specific reference {or p. page number if referencing a single page}). City {include state, province, or country if city is not well known}: Publisher. or

Author, F. M., Author2, F. M., & Author3, F. M. (Year published). Book title. City {include state, province, or country if city is not well known}: Publisher.

In text: (Author, Author2, & Author3, year published)

Example:

Sebranek, P., Meyer, V., & Kemper, D. (2004). *Write for college* (p. 231). Wilmington, MA: Great Source Education Group. or

Sebranek, P., Meyer, V., & Kemper, D. (2004). *Write for college*. Wilmington, MA: Great Source Education Group.

In text: (Sebranek, Meyer, & Kemper, 2004).

**4. Second or other edition of a book**

(Two authors in this example)

Author, F. M., & Author 2, F. M. (Year published). Book title (xth ed.) (pp. start page-end page of specific reference {or p. page number if referencing a single page}). City {include state, province, or country if city is not well known}: Publisher.

*or*

Author, F. M., & Author 2, F. M. (Year published). Book title (xth ed.). City {include state,

province, or country if city is not well known}: Publisher.

In text: (Author & Author 2, year published).

Example:

Mertler, C. A., & Charles, C. M. (2005). *Introduction to educational research* (5th ed.) (p. 321). Boston: Pearson Allyn & Bacon. or

Mertler, C. A., & Charles, C. M. (2005). *Introduction to educational research* (5th ed.). Boston: Pearson Allyn & Bacon.

In text: (Mertler & Charles, 2005).

**5. Journal Article**

(Two authors in this example)

Author, F. M., & Author2, F. M. (Year published). Article title. Journal title, volume (issue), start page-end page of specific reference {start page+ if pages are discontinuous}. or

Author, F. M., & Author2, F. M. (Year published). Article title. Journal title, volume (issue), start page-end page of entire article {start page+ if pages are discontinuous}.

In text: (Author & Author2, year published).

Example:

O’Connell, J. F., & Perkins, G. M. (2003). The economics of private liberal arts colleges.

*Journal of Business*, 76(3), 501. or (underline the name of the journal and not the title for APA)

O’Connell, J. F., & Perkins, G. M. (2003). The economics of private liberal arts colleges.

*Journal of Business*, 76(3), 499-514.

In text: (O’Connell & Perkins, 2003).

**6. Magazine Article**

(One author in this example)

Author, F. M. (Year, Month Day {publication date}). Article title. Magazine title, volume, start page- end page of specific reference {start page+ if pages are discontinuous}. or

Author, F. M. (Year, Month Day {publication date}). Article title. Magazine title, volume, start page- end page of entire article {start page+ if pages are discontinuous}.

In text: (Author, year published)

Example:

Serrill, M. S. (1990, April 2). *Soviet Union war of nerves*. Time, 135, 29. or

Serrill, M. S. (1990, April 2). *Soviet Union war of nerves*. Time, 135, 26-30.

In text: (Serrill, 1990).

**7. Newspaper Article**

(One author in this example)

Author, F. M. (Year, Month Day {publication date}). Article title. Newspaper Title, pp. start page- end page of specific reference {pp. start page+ if pages are discontinuous or p. page number if referencing a single page}. or

Author, F. M. (Year, Month Day {publication date}). Article title. Newspaper Title, pp. start page- end page of entire article {pp. start page+ if pages are discontinuous or p. page number if a one-page article}.

In text: (Author, year published).

Example:

Rood, L. (2005, December 31). *The steep costs of driving drunk.* Des Moines Register, p. A12. or

Rood, L. (2005, December 31). *The steep costs of driving drunk*. Des Moines Register, p. A12-A13.

In text: (Rood, 2005).

**8. Newspaper Article, No Author**

Article title. (Year, Month Day {publication date}). Newspaper title, pp. start page-end page of specific reference {pp. start page+ if pages are discontinuous or p. page number if a one-page article}. or

Article title. (Year, Month Day {publication date}). Newspaper title, pp. start page-end page of entire article {pp. start page+ if pages are discontinuous or p. page number if.a one-page article}.

In text: (“Article Title {can be shortened},” year published)

Example:

Gas prices: Pollution rules may be eased. (2006, April 26). *The Seattle Times*, p. A5. or

Gas prices: Pollution rules may be eased. (2006, April 26). *The Seattle Times*, pp. A1+.

In text: (“Gas Prices,” 2006).

**Electronic Sources**

1. **Online Encyclopaedia Article**

(One author in this example)

Author, F. M. (Year published). Article title. Title of Reference Work. Retrieved Month day, year {date retrieved from Web}, from URL

In text: (Author, year published).

Example:

Hart, J. (2006). Water pollution. Microsoft Encarta Online Encyclopedia 2006. Retrieved April19, 2006, from http://encarta.msn.com/encyclopedia761572857/Water\_Pollution.html

In text: (Hart, 2006).

**2. Online Encyclopaedia Article, No Author**

Article title. (Year published). Title of reference work. Retrieved Month day, year {date retrieved from Web}, from URL

In text: (“Article Title,” year published).

Example:

Common cold. (2006). Microsoft Encarta Online Encyclopaedia 2006. Retrieved November 10, 2006, from http://encarta.msn.com/encyclopedia\_761578766/Common\_Cold.html

In text: (“Common Cold,” 2006).

**3. Article in DVD or CD ROM Encyclopaedia**

(One author in this example)

Author, F. M. (Year published). Article title. Title of reference work [DVD {or CD-ROM}]. City {include state, province, or country if city is not well known}: Publisher.

In text: (Author, year published).

Example:

Hart, J. (2006). Water pollution. Microsoft Student 2007 [DVD]. Redmond, WA: Microsoft Corporation.

In text: (Hart, 2006).

**4. Article in DVD or CD-ROM Encyclopaedia, No Author**

Article title. (Year published). Title of reference work [DVD {or CD-ROM}]. City {include state, province, or country if city is not well known}: Publisher.

In text: (“Article Title,” year published).

Example:

Common cold. (2006). Microsoft Student 2007 [DVD]. Redmond, WA: Microsoft Corporation.

In text: (“Common Cold,” 2006).

**5. Online Journal Article**

(Five authors in this example)

Author, F. M., Author2, F. M., Author3, F. M., Author4, F. M., & Author5, F. M. (Year published). Article title. *Journal title*, volume (issue), start page-end page of specific reference {if available}. Retrieved Month day, year {date retrieved from Web}, from URL or

Author, F. M., Author2, F. M., Author3, F. M., Author4, F. M., & Author5, F. M. (Year published). Article title. *Journal title*, volume (issue), start page-end page of entire article {if available}. Retrieved Month day, year {date retrieved from Web}, from URL

In text: (Author, Author2, Author3, Author4, & Author5, year published).For in text citation of five authors, the first time use you include all of their names in full.

Subsequent use you only pick the first author with an abbreviation of other authors as et.al. For

example: Kalirani, et.al (2019).

Example:

Muntner, P., He, J., Cutler, J. A., Wildman, R. P., & Whelton, P. K. (2004). Trends in blood pressure among children and adolescents. *Journal of the American Medical Association* (JAMA), 291(17), 2110-2111. Retrieved May 22, 2007, from http://jama.ama-assn.org/cgi/content/abstract/291/17/2107 or

Muntner, P., He, J., Cutler, J. A., Wildman, R. P., & Whelton, P. K. (2004). Trends in blood pressure among children and adolescents. *Journal of the American Medical Association* (JAMA), 291(17), 2107-2113. Retrieved May 22, 2007, from http://jama.ama-assn.org/cgi/content/abstract/291/17/2107

In text: (Muntner, He, Cutler, Wildman, & Whelton, 2004).

**6. Online Magazine Article**

(One author in this example)

Author, F. M. (Year, Month Day {publication date}). Article title. Magazine title, volume. Retrieved Month day, year {date retrieved from Web}, from URL

In text: (Author, year published).

Example:

Nash, J. M. (2006, February 20). Where the waters are rising. Time, 165. Retrieved April 25, 2006, from http://www.time.com/time/magazine/0,9263,7601050425,00.html

In text: (Nash, 2005).

**7. Online Newspaper Article**

(One author in this example)

Author, F. M. (Year, Month Day {publication date}). Article title. Newspaper title. Retrieved Month day, year {date retrieved from Web}, from URL

In text: (Author, year published).

Example:

Waxman, S. (2005, April 19). Hollywood welcomes new crop of moguls. The New York Times. Retrieved January 2, 2007, from <http://select.nytimes.com/gst/abstract.html>? res=F70F16FC345A0C7A8DDDAD0894DD404482

In text: (Waxman, 2005).

**8. Online Government Document, No Author**

Government Agency. (Year published). Title of publication (pp. start page-end page of specific reference {or p. page number if referencing a single page}). City {include state, province, or country if city is not well known}: Publisher {if available}. Retrieved Month day, year {date retrieved from Web}, from URL or

Government Agency. (Year published). Title of publication. City {include state, province, or country if city is not well known}: Publisher {if available}. Retrieved Month day, year {date retrieved from Web}, from URL

In text: (Government Agency, year published).

Example:

U.S. Department of Education, Office of Innovation and Improvement. (2004). Innovations in Education: Alternative Routes to Teacher Certification (pp. 2-3). Washington, D.C.: Education Publications Center. Retrieved April 20, 2006, from <http://www.ed.gov/admins/tchrqual/recruit/altroutes/report>. html or

U.S. Department of Education, Office of Innovation and Improvement. (2004). Innovations in Education: Alternative Routes to Teacher Certification. Washington, D.C.: Education Publications Center. Retrieved April 20, 2006, from http://www.ed.gov/admins/tchrqual/recruit/altroutes/report.html

In text: (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Innovation and Improvement, 2004).

## 4.8 Reflection

Think of the many things involved in writing and reflect on their significance to making your writing meet the standards. Think also of what would become of academic writing without these guidelines.

## Activity

Below is a list of jumbled references. Rearrange the references correctly following the reference style of the American Psychological Association (APA), and place them in alphabetical order (i.e. surname first, first name second) under the following categories: 1. Authored book 2. Journal article 3. Magazine Article.

i. Penina Muhando Mlama. Creating in the Mother-tongue: The Challenge to the African Writer today.

ii. Daniel Mulaisho, Fountain Publicatios1989. Chimanimani: A voyage around Essay. Kabwe

iii. Kaloi Kasukwe Muunda.30(5). Research in African Literatures. The Zimbwean Novel in Shona. 21-40 1996.

## Summary

This section has discussed the necessary academic skills any University student should have, particularly, how to use other peoples’ materials in a more professional way. Academicians are expected to share knowledge. I hope you too will one day contribute to the body of knowledge through research and sharing your findings on platforms that can be accessed by others.

**Method of teaching**

Teaching strategies that focus on learner centeredness will be used in order to ensure effective transfer of knowledge, skills and positive attitudes to the trainees. Such methodologies will include the following:

* Group and pair work
* Field trips
* Presentation
* Observation
* Inquiry
* Problem solving
* Role play
* Modelling
* Demonstration

**Method of teaching**

2 lecture hours per week.

1 Tutorial per week

1 Practical

**Assessment**

Continuous Assessment **70%**

Presentations 20

Case studies 30

Test 20

Final Examination **30%**

Total **100**

# References

Bovee, C. L. and Thill, J. V. (2014) *Business Communication Today* 12th Edition. London: Prentice Hall

Bradac, J. J. (1993). Language and language behaviors, Vol. 3. Power in language: Verbal communication and social influence. Sage Publications, Inc.

Claire, M. B. & Gordon, M. S. (2015) *Effective Writing: A Handbook for Accountants,* 10th Edition*.*

Cody, S. (2010) *The Art of Writing and Speaking English Language, word-study and Composition and*

*Rhetoric*. Seattle: Amazon Publishing.

Ehrenhaft, G. (2012) *English Language and Composition*. Seattle: Amazon Publishing.

Fred C. L. (2010). *FOCUS ON COLLEGES, UNIVERSITIES, AND SCHOOLS* VOL. 4, 1. Formal

Communication Channels: Upward, Downward, Horizontal, and External: London: Prentice Hall.

Garvey, W. D., & Griffith, B. C. (1971). Scientific communication: Its role in the conduct of research and creation of knowledge. American Psychologist, 26(4), 349–362. [https://doi.org/10.1037/h0032059](https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/h0032059)

Robert E. Kraut Robert S. Fish Robert W. R & Barbara L. Chalfonte (2002). Informal Communication

in Organizations: Form, Function, and Technology: Bellcore Morristown.

UNESCO

Nordquist, R. (2019). Retrieved from <https://www.thoughtco.com/what-is-communication-1689877> on date/day/2020