

# COMPETENCY 1

## UNDERSTAND THE EFFECTIVE EXPRESSION OF INFORMATION AND IDEAS THROUGH ORAL AND VISUAL COMMUNICATION

### SKILL 1.1 Identify methods of organizing and presenting ideas, information, and feelings when speaking to diverse audiences and for various purposes

One way to organize information when speaking or writing is to make an outline. Outlines help you organize important information and ideas and help you see how these ideas are related to each other. Outlines give a quick visual summary of ideas that will be presented. Below is an example of what an outline might look like.

- I. First main idea
  - A. Detail supporting the first main idea
    - 1. Detail supporting point A
    - 2. Another detail supporting point A
      - a. Detail supporting point 2
      - b. Another detail supporting point 2
    - 3. Another detail supporting point A
- II. Second main idea

*Outlines give a quick visual summary of ideas that will be presented.*

Another way to organize information is in the reverse order of its importance. This organizational method ensures that listeners remember the most important part of your presentation because it is the last thing they hear. Placing the most important information at the conclusion of a presentation leaves the audience with a clear impression of the speaker's main ideas

The attitude in which information is presented is the **TONE**. Tone is passed on to an audience through the speaker's choice of words, body language, and mannerisms. For example, tone can be humorous, serious, sad, friendly, hostile or angry. The writer or speaker's purpose determines the tone.

**TONE:** the attitude in which information is presented

**SKILL 1.2 Recognize elements of nonverbal communication including their uses in different cultural contexts for specific audiences and/or purposes**

In public speaking, not all speeches require the same type of speaking style. For example, when making a humorous speech, it is important to utilize body language in order to accent humorous moments. However, when giving instructions, it is extremely important to speak clearly and slowly, carefully noting the mood of the audience, so that if the audience seems confused or lost, the speaker can go back and clarify as necessary.

In group discussions, it is important for speakers to ensure that they are listening to the other speakers carefully and tailoring their messages so that they fit into the general mood and topic of the discussion at hand. When giving an oral presentation, the mood should be both serious and friendly. The speaker should focus on ensuring that the content is covered, while also relating to audience members as much as possible.

*The steps of persuasive speaking should be explicitly taught to students.*

*They are:*

1. *Expressing an opinion*
2. *Staying focused on topic of discussion*
3. *Supporting opinions with detail*
4. *Using good speaking etiquette in discussions*

As students practice these skills, they can receive guidance and modeling from recordings of various types of speeches appropriate to the types they are giving themselves. Also, the various attributes of each type of oral speaking strategy should be covered with students so that they clearly hear the differences.

There is more to communication than just good and bad or effective and ineffective. We must take into consideration that we must adjust our communication styles for various audiences. While we should not stereotype audiences, we can still recognize that certain methods of communication are more appropriate with certain people than with others. Age is an easy factor to consider: Adults know that when they talk to children, they should come across as pleasant and nonthreatening and that they should use vocabulary that is simple for children to understand. On the other hand, teenagers realize that they should not speak to their grandmothers the way they speak with their peers. When dealing with communication between cultures and genders, people must be sensitive, considerate, and appropriate.

*Teachers must model unspoken rules of communication and have high expectations for students inside and outside of the classroom.*

Teachers must also consider these aspects as they deal with colleagues, parents, community members, and students. They must realize that all communication should be tailored so that it conveys appropriate messages and tones to listeners.

**SKILL 1.3 Recognize elements of visual language** (*e.g., symbols, shapes, colors*)

Learning to spell, like learning to speak, is a constructive developmental process. This writing process begins with the child's early efforts to form letters. Children pass through various stages of writing, from drawing symbols and creating shapes that indicate thoughts and words to random letters that stand for complete sentences.

Young children's writing is often made up of muddled strings of letters and numbers to represent words or a complete message. Children learn to analyze each letter into sections such as horizontal, vertical, and diagonal line segments.

One of the best methods to initiate letter learning is by using the letters in a child's name.

## Word Shapes

- Write a word on the board
- Have the students identify the "short," "tall," and "tail" letters
- Have the students write the "short," "tall," and "tail" letters

Explain to students that each word has a shape and that remembering the shape of the word can help them spell the word correctly.

**SKILL 1.4 Demonstrate knowledge of principles of active listening and of barriers to effective listening**

Oral speech can be very difficult to follow, because listeners typically have no written record in which to "reread" things they didn't hear or understand. In addition, oral speech can be much less structured than written language. At the same time, many of the skills and strategies that help students in reading comprehension can help them in listening comprehension. For example, as soon as students start listening to something new, they should tap into their prior knowledge in order to attach new information to what they already know. This will not only help in understanding, but it will also assist in remembering the material.

We can also look for transitions between ideas. Sometimes, in oral speech, these are fairly simple to find (such as when voice tone or body language change).

Although we don't have the luxury of looking at paragraphs in oral language, we do have the animation that comes along with live speech. Human beings have to try very hard to be completely nonexpressive in their speech. Listeners should take advantage of this and notice how the speaker changes character and voice to signal a transition of ideas.

*Listeners can better comprehend the underlying intent of a speaker by paying attention to nonverbal cues.*

Listeners can also better comprehend the underlying intent of a speaker when they notice nonverbal cues. For example, looking to see an expression on the face of a speaker that signals irony is often simpler than trying to extract irony from written words. Another good way to follow oral speech is to take notes, outlining the major points. Because oral speech can be more circular (as opposed to linear) than written text, it can be of great assistance to keep track of an author's message. Students can practice this strategy in many ways in the classroom, including taking notes during the teacher's oral messages as well as during other students' presentations and speeches.

Additional classroom methods can help students to learn good listening skills. For example, teachers can have students practice following complex directions. They can also have students orally retell stories or retell (in writing or in oral speech) oral presentations of stories or other materials. These activities give students direct practice in the very important skills of listening. They provide students with outlets in which they can slowly improve their abilities to comprehend oral language; they also allow students to take decisive action based on oral speech.

**SKILL 1.5 Demonstrate knowledge of structures of oral, visual, and multimedia presentations** (e.g., sequence, connections, transitions)

## Multimedia Teaching Model

### Step 1. Diagnose

- Figure out what students need to know
- Assess what students already know

### Step 2. Design

- Design tests of learning achievement
- Identify effective instructional strategies
- Select suitable media
- Sequence learning activities within program

- Plan introductory activities
- Plan follow-up activities

### Step 3. Procure

- Secure materials at hand
- Obtain new materials

### Step 4. Produce

- Modify existing materials
- Create new materials

### Step 5. Refine

- Conduct small-scale test of program
- Evaluate procedures and achievements
- Revise program accordingly
- Conduct classroom test of program
- Evaluate procedures and achievements
- Revise in anticipation of next school term

### Tips for using print media and visual aids

- Use pictures rather than words whenever possible
- Present one key point per visual
- Use no more than 3 to 4 colors per visual to avoid clutter and confusion
- Use contrasting colors such as dark blue and bright yellow
- Use a maximum of 25 to 35 numbers per visual aid
- Use bullets instead of paragraphs when possible
- Make sure it is student-centered, not media-centered; delivery is just as important as the media presented

### Tips for using film and television

- Study programs in advance
- Obtain supplementary materials such as printed transcripts of the narrative or study guides

- Provide your students with background information, explain unfamiliar concepts, and anticipate outcomes
- Assign outside readings based on the material
- Ask cuing questions
- Watch along with students
- Observe students' reactions
- Follow up viewing with discussions and related activities

**SKILL 1.6 Recognize the principles of using spoken and visual language for a variety of purposes** (*e.g., learning, enjoyment, persuasion, exchanging ideas*)

*See Skill 2.2*

## COMPETENCY 2

### UNDERSTAND THE EFFECTIVE EXPRESSION OF INFORMATION AND IDEAS THROUGH WRITING AND THE APPROPRIATE ELEMENTS AND CONVENTIONS OF STANDARD WRITTEN ENGLISH

**SKILL 2.1 Demonstrate knowledge of elements of the writing process** (*e.g., brainstorming, drafting, revising, publishing*) **and techniques for taking notes and developing drafts**

Writing is a recursive process. As students engage in the various stages of writing, they develop and improve not only their writing skills, but also their thinking skills. The stages of the writing process are as follows:

- **Prewriting:** Students gather ideas before writing. Prewriting may include clustering, listing, brainstorming, mapping, free writing, and charting. Providing many ways for students to develop ideas on a topic will increase their chances of success.

- **Writing:** Students compose the first draft.
- **Revising:** Students examine their work and make changes in sentences, wording, details, and ideas. Revise comes from the Latin word *revidere*, meaning “to see again.”
- **Editing:** Students proofread the draft for punctuation and mechanical errors.
- **Publishing:** Students may have their work displayed on a bulletin board, read aloud in class, or printed in a literary magazine or school anthology. It is important to realize that these steps are recursive; as students engage in each aspect of the writing process, they may begin with prewriting and then writing, revising, writing, revising, editing, and publishing. Students do not engage in this process in a lockstep manner; it is more circular.

## Teaching Composition

### Prewriting activities

1. Class discussion of the topic
2. Map out ideas, questions, and graphic organizers on the chalkboard
3. Break into small groups to discuss different ways of approaching the topic, develop an organizational plan, and create a thesis statement
4. Research the topic if necessary

### Drafting and revising

1. Students write a first draft in class or at home
2. Students engage in peer response and class discussion
3. Using checklists or a rubric, students critique each other’s writing and make suggestions for revising the writing
4. Students revise the writing

### Editing and proofreading

1. Students, working in pairs, analyze sentences for variety
2. Students work in groups to review papers for punctuation and mechanics
3. Students perform final edit

**SKILL 2.2 Describe characteristics of and purposes for different writing forms** (e.g., essays, stories, reports) and modes (e.g., narrative, imaginative, expository, persuasive)

## Different Types of Writing

Most nonfiction writing falls into one of four different forms:

1. Narrative
2. Descriptive
3. Expository
4. Persuasive

### Persuasive writing

**PERSUASION** is a piece of writing, the purpose of which is to change the minds of the readers or listeners or to get them to do something. This is achieved in a variety of ways:

1. The credibility of the writer/speaker might lead the listeners/readers to a change of mind or a recommended action.
2. Reasoning is important in persuasive discourse. Reasoning that is persuasive uses logic to convince an audience.
3. The third and most powerful force that leads to acceptance or action is emotional appeal. Even if audience members have been logically persuaded that they should believe the writer or speaker, they are unlikely to act unless moved emotionally. A person with resources might be convinced that people suffered in New Orleans after Katrina, but he or she will not be likely to do anything about it until he or she feels a deeper emotional connection to the disaster.

### Expository writing

In contrast to persuasion, the purpose of **exposition** is to inform. **EXPOSITORY WRITING** is not interested in changing anyone's mind or getting anyone to take a certain action. It exists to give information. Some examples include directions to a particular place or the directions for putting together a toy that arrives unassembled. In these instances, the writer only wants to be sure you have the information in case you do decide to use it.

### Narrative writing

**NARRATION** is discourse that is arranged chronologically—something happened, and then something else happened, and then something else happened. A story is

**PERSUASION:** a piece of writing, the purpose of which is to change the minds of the audience members or to get them to do something

**EXPOSITORY WRITING:** a form of writing where the purpose is to inform

**NARRATION:** discourse that is arranged chronologically

an example of narration. News reports are often narrative in nature, as are records of trips or experiences.

## Descriptive writing

**DESCRIPTIVE WRITING** makes an experience available through one of the five senses—seeing, smelling, hearing, feeling (as with the fingers), and tasting. Descriptive words are used to make it possible for readers to “see” with their mind’s eye, “hear” through their mind’s ear, “smell” through their mind’s nose, “taste” with their mind’s tongue, and “feel” with their mind’s fingers. This is how language moves people. Only by experiencing an event can the emotions become involved. Poets are experts in descriptive language. Descriptive writing is typically used to make sure the point is established emotionally.

Persuasive writing often uses all forms of discourse. The introduction may be a history or background of the idea being presented—exposition. Details supporting some of the points may be stories—narrations. Descriptive writing will be used to make sure the point is established emotionally.

**PARAPHRASE** is a rewording of a piece of writing. The result will not necessarily be shorter than the original. It will use different vocabulary and possibly a different arrangement of details. Paraphrases are sometimes written to clarify a complex piece of writing. Sometimes, material is paraphrased because it cannot be borrowed verbatim due to copyright restraints.

**SUMMARY** is a distillation of the elements of a piece of writing or speech. It will be much shorter than the original. To write a good summary, the writer must determine what the “bones” of the original piece are. What is its structure? What is the thesis and what are the subpoints? A summary does not make judgments about the original; it simply reports the original in condensed form.

**LETTERS** are often expository in nature; their purpose is to give information. However, letters are also often persuasive—the writer wants to persuade or get the recipient to do something. They are also sometimes descriptive or narrative—the writer will share an experience or tell about an event.

**RESEARCH REPORTS** are a special kind of expository writing. A topic is researched—explored by some appropriate means such as searching literature, interviewing experts, or even conducting experiments—and the findings written up in such a way that a particular audience may know what was discovered. They can be very simple, such as delving into the history of an event, or very complex, such as a report on a scientific phenomenon that requires complicated testing and reasoning to explain. A research report often reports possible conclusions but puts forth one as the best answer to the question that inspired the research in the first place this is the thesis of the report.

### **DESCRIPTIVE WRITING:**

an experience available through one of the five senses—seeing, smelling, hearing, feeling (as with the fingers), and tasting

**PARAPHRASE:** a rewording of a piece of writing

**SUMMARY:** a distilling of the elements of a piece of writing or speech

**LETTERS:** expository in nature, intended to give information or to persuade

**RESEARCH REPORTS:** the written product of a literature search, interview or an experiment

**SKILL 2.3 Recognize elements of sentence and paragraph structure and formatting**

### Sentence Completeness

Avoid fragments and run-on sentences. Recognition of sentence elements necessary to make a complete thought, proper use of independent and dependent clauses, and proper punctuation will correct such errors.

### Sentence Structure

Recognize simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences. Use dependent (subordinate) and independent clauses correctly to create these sentence structures.

<b>Simple</b>	Joyce wrote a letter.
<b>Compound</b>	Joyce wrote a letter, and Dot drew a picture.
<b>Complex</b>	While Joyce wrote a letter, Dot drew a picture.
<b>Compound/Complex</b>	When Mother asked the girls to demonstrate their new-found skills, Joyce wrote a letter, and Dot drew a picture.

**Note:** Do not confuse compound sentence elements with compound sentences.

<b>Simple sentence with compound subject</b>	Joyce and Dot wrote letters. The girl in row three and the boy next to her were passing notes across the aisle.
<b>Simple sentence with compound predicate</b>	Joyce wrote letters and drew pictures. The captain of the high school debate team graduated with honors and studied broadcast journalism in college.
<b>Simple sentence with compound object of preposition</b>	Colleen graded the students' essays for style and mechanical accuracy.

### Parallelism

Recognize parallel structures using phrases (prepositional, gerund, participial, and infinitive) and omissions from sentences that create the lack of parallelism.

### Prepositional Phrase/Single Modifier

**Incorrect:** *Colleen ate the ice cream with enthusiasm and hurriedly.*

**Correct:** *Colleen ate the ice cream with enthusiasm and in a hurry.*

**Correct:** *Colleen ate the ice cream enthusiastically and hurriedly.*

### Participial Phrase/Infinitive Phrase

**Incorrect:** *After hiking for hours and to sweat profusely, Joe sat down to rest and drinking water.*

**Correct:** *After hiking for hours and sweating profusely, Joe sat down to rest and drink water.*

## Recognition of Dangling Modifiers

Dangling phrases are attached to sentence parts in such a way they create ambiguity and potentially incorrect meanings.

### Participial phrase

**Incorrect:** *Hanging from her skirt, Dot tugged at a loose thread.*

**Correct:** *Dot tugged at a loose thread hanging from her skirt.*

**Incorrect:** *Relaxing in the bathtub, the telephone rang.*

**Correct:** *While I was relaxing in the bathtub, the telephone rang.*

### Infinitive phrase

**Incorrect:** *To improve his behavior, the dean warned Fred.*

**Correct:** *The dean warned Fred to improve his behavior.*

### Prepositional phrase

**Incorrect:** *On the floor, Father saw the dog eating table scraps.*

**Correct:** *Father saw the dog eating table scraps on the floor.*

## Recognition of Syntactical Redundancy or Omission

These errors occur when superfluous words are added to a sentence or key words are omitted from a sentence.

## Redundancy

**Incorrect:** *Joyce made sure that when her plane arrived that she retrieved all of her luggage.*

**Correct:** *Joyce made sure that when her plane arrived she retrieved all of her luggage.*

**Incorrect:** *He was a mere skeleton of his former self.*

**Correct:** *He was a skeleton of his former self*

## Omission

**Incorrect:** *Sue opened her book, recited her textbook, and answered the teacher's subsequent question.*

**Correct:** *Sue opened her book, recited from the textbook, and answered the teacher's subsequent question.*

## Avoidance of Double Negatives

This error occurs from positioning two negatives that, in fact, cancel each other in meaning.

**Incorrect:** *Harold couldn't care less whether he passes this class.*

**Correct:** *Harold could care less whether he passes this class.*

**Incorrect:** *Dot didn't have no double negatives in her paper.*

**Correct:** *Dot didn't have any double negatives in her paper.*

## Correct Use of Coordination and Subordination

Connect independent clauses with the coordinating conjunctions—*and*, *but*, *or*, *for*, or *nor*—when their content is of equal importance. Use subordinating conjunctions—*although*, *because*, *before*, *if*, *since*, *though*, *until*, *when*, *whenever*, *where*—and relative pronouns—*that*, *who*, *whom*, *which*—to introduce clauses that express ideas that are subordinate to main ideas expressed in independent clauses. Be sure to place the conjunctions so that they express the proper relationship between ideas (cause/effect, condition, time, space).

**Incorrect:** *Because mother scolded me, I was late.*

**Correct:** *Mother scolded me because I was late.*

**Incorrect:** *The sun rose after the fog lifted.*

**Correct:** *The fog lifted after the sun rose.*

Notice that placement of the conjunction can completely change the meaning of the sentence. Main emphasis is shifted by the change.

*Although Jenny was pleased, the teacher was disappointed. Although the teacher was disappointed, Jenny was pleased.*

*The boys who wrote the essay won the contest. The boys who won the contest wrote the essay.*

**Note:** While not syntactically incorrect, the second sentence makes it appear that the boys won the contest for something else before they wrote the essay.

## SKILL 2.4 Demonstrate knowledge of the use of introductions, main ideas, transitions, conclusions, and other forms of text organization in writing

If the concepts are not too complex, reading an essay should not require extensive re-reading. The ideas should be clear and straightforward. Anyone who has tried to write an essay knows that this sounds much easier than it really is! How do teachers help students to become proficient at writing multi-paragraph essays in ways that allow them to clearly communicate their ideas? The trick is to help them understand that various conventions of writing make comprehension easier for their readers. Those conventions include good paragraphing; transitions between paragraphs, ideas, and sentences; topic sentences; concluding sentences; appropriate vocabulary; and sufficient context.

Good paragraphing entails dividing up ideas into easily processed chunks. A good paragraph typically includes a topic sentence that explains the content of the paragraph. A good paragraph also includes sufficient explanation of that topic sentence. For example, if a topic sentence suggests that the paragraph will be about the causes of the Civil War, the rest of the paragraph should explain specific causes of the Civil War.

*If the concepts are not too complex, reading an essay should not require extensive re-reading.*

As writers transition from one paragraph to another—or from one sentence to another—they will usually provide transitional phrases that give signposts to readers about what is coming next. Words like “however,” “furthermore,” “although,” and “likewise” are good ways of communicating intention to readers. When ideas are thrown together on a page, it is hard to tell what the writer is actually doing with those ideas. Therefore, students need to become familiar with using transitional phrases.

Concluding sentences often are unnecessary, but when done right, they provide a nice closing to a piece of writing. Students do not always need to use concluding sentences in paragraphs; however, they should be alerted to their potential benefits.

When writers use appropriate vocabulary, they are sensitive to the audience for and purpose of what they are writing. For example, if a professor writes an essay on a scientific concept for a group of nonscientists, he will not use specialized vocabulary to explain concepts. However, if he were writing for a group of scientists, specialized vocabulary would be appropriate, and even expected. Therefore, students need to learn early on that all writing has a purpose, and that because of that purpose, good writers will make conscious decisions about how to arrange their texts, which words to use, and which examples and metaphors to include.

Finally, when writers provide sufficient context, they ensure that readers do not have to extensively question the text to figure out what is going on. Again, this is related to the audience. Using the scientific concept example from above, the professor would need to provide more context if the audience were a group of nonscientists than he would if the audience were scientists. In other words, he would have to provide more background so that the nonscientists could understand the concepts.

**SKILL 2.5 Apply elements of appropriate grammar and usage** (e.g., noun-pronoun agreement, subject-verb agreement, consistent verb tense)

### Subject-Verb Agreement

A verb should always agree in number with its subject. Making them agree relies on the ability to properly identify the subject of a sentence.

*One of the boys was playing too rough.*

*No one in the class, not the teacher nor the students, was listening to the message from the intercom.*

*The candidates, including a grandmother and a teenager, are debating some controversial issues.*

If two singular subjects are connected by *and*, the verb must be plural.

*A man and his dog were jogging on the beach.*

If two singular subjects are connected by *or* or *nor*, a singular verb is required.

*Neither Dot nor Joyce has missed a day of school this year.*

*Either Fran or Paul is missing.*

If one singular subject and one plural subject are connected by *or* or *nor*, the verb agrees with the subject nearest to the verb.

*Neither the coach nor the players were able to sleep on the bus.*

If the subject is a collective noun, its sense of number in the sentence determines the verb: it is singular if the noun represents a group or unit, and plural if the noun represents individuals.

*The House of Representatives has adjourned for the holidays.*

*The House of Representatives have failed to reach agreement on the subject of adjournment.*

## Verbs (Tense)

Present tense is used to express that which is currently happening or is always true.

*Randy is playing the piano.*

*Randy plays the piano like a pro.*

Past tense is used to express action that occurred in a past time.

*Randy learned to play the piano when he was six years old.*

Future tense is used to express action or a condition of future time.

*Randy will probably earn a music scholarship.*

Present perfect tense is used to express action or a condition that started in the past and is continued to or completed in the present.

*Randy has practiced piano every day for the last ten years.*

*Randy has never been bored with practice.*

Past perfect tense expresses action or a condition that occurred as a precedent to some other action or condition.

*Randy had considered playing clarinet before he discovered the piano.*

Future perfect tense expresses action that started in the past or the present and will conclude at some time in the future.

*By the time he goes to college, Randy will have been an accomplished pianist for more than half of his life.*

## Verbs (Mood)

Indicative mood is used to make unconditional statements; subjunctive mood is used for conditional clauses or wish statements that pose untrue conditions. Verbs in subjunctive mood are plural with both singular and plural subjects.

*If I were a bird, I would fly.*

*I wish I were as rich as Donald Trump.*

## Conjugation of verbs

The conjugation of verbs follows the patterns used in the discussion of tense above. However, the most frequent problems in verb use stem from the improper formation of past and past participial forms.

Regular verb: *believe, believed, (have) believed*

Irregular verbs: *run, ran, run; sit, sat, sat; teach, taught, taught*

Other problems stem from the use of verbs that are the same in some tenses but have different forms and different meanings in other tenses.

*I lie on the ground. I lay on the ground yesterday. I have lain down.*

*I lay the blanket on the bed. I laid the blanket there yesterday. I have laid the blanket on the bed every night.*

*The sun rises. The sun rose. The sun has risen. He raises the flag. He raised the flag. He had raised the flag.*

*I sit on the porch. I sat on the porch. I have sat in the porch swing.*

*I set the plate on the table. I set the plate there yesterday. I had set the table before dinner.*

*The most frequent problems in verb use stem from the improper formation of past and past participial forms.*