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**ACADEMIC WRITING FOR  
POSTGRADUATE STUDENTS**

**НАВЧАЛЬНИЙ ПОСІБНИК**

**Для здобувачів наукового ступеня  
доктор філософії за напрямом 01 - Освіта**



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У представленому навчальному посібнику «Academic Writing For Postgraduate Students» подано практичні завдання, спрямовані на вивчення англійського академічного письма як різновиду академічного спілкування. Практичні завдання містять проблемні питання, що передбачають розвиток навичок критичного читання та мислення, а також завдання, виконання яких допоможе майбутнім докторантам сформувати вміння та практичні навички комунікативного спілкування засобами мови для створення відповідних зразків академічного письма.

The handbook «Academic Writing For Postgraduate Students» has been prepared in the framework of the Erasmus + Jean Monnet Module project «Europeanization of Doctoral Studies in the Field of Education: Interdisciplinary and Inclusive Approaches» (2018-2021) at Sumy State Pedagogical University (<https://jmm.sspu.edu.ua/>). The handbook is intended for candidates for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the specialty 01 – Education

The presented handbook provides practical tasks aimed at studying English-language academic writing as a type of academic communication. Practical tasks include problematic issues involving the development of critical reading and thinking skills, as well as tasks, the implementation of which will help future doctoral students to form the abilities and practical skills of communication through language to create the appropriate samples of academic writing.

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## INTRODUCTION

The handbook «Academic Writing For Postgraduate Students» has been prepared in the framework of Erasmus+ Jean Monnet project Module «Europeanization of Doctoral Studies in the Field of Education: Interdisciplinary and Inclusive approaches» (2019-2021) at Sumy State Pedagogical University named after A. S. Makarenko. The handbook is intended for candidates for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the specialty 011 Educational, pedagogical sciences.

The handbook «Academic Writing For Postgraduate Students» presents practical tasks aimed at studying English-language academic writing as a type of academic communication. Practical tasks include problematic issues that involve the development of critical reading and thinking skills, as well as tasks, the implementation of which will help future doctoral students to form practical skills in communication by means of the language to create appropriate samples of academic writing.

### **The aim and objectives of the discipline**

The aim of the discipline is the formation of professionally-oriented communicative language competence, which will facilitate the research required to write a dissertation and present the results of research in a foreign language both orally and in writing.

The objectives of the discipline:

- Formation of professionally oriented communicative speech competence (linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic) to ensure effective communication in the academic environment;
- Formation of general competence (declarative knowledge, skills, ability to learn);
- Development of self-esteem and self-study skills that will allow postgraduate students to continue their studies in an academic and professional environment.

### **As a result of studying the discipline the postgraduate students must know:**

- basic terms used in the field of research;
- basic functional phrases for discussions and presentations, participation in scientific conferences, meetings and seminars, interviews;
- peculiarities of the format of different genres and types of academic printed literature and professional literature on electronic media;
- grammatical structures required for foreign language abstracting and annotation of professional literature;

- rules of English syntax, language forms inherent in the official and colloquial registers of academic written communication;
- intercultural differences between Ukraine and the countries of the world, in particular the countries whose language is studied;
- strategies for effective reading, listening, learning, searching for information in various sources of information, including Internet search;

**be able to:**

- to carry out a critical analysis and evaluation of modern scientific achievements in the field of own research in compliance with the norms of scientific ethics;
- generate new ideas in solving research problems, including in interdisciplinary fields;
- adequately respond to the main ideas and take an active part in discussions, conversations related to study, work and personal life;
- understand and produce personal correspondence (emails, messages, etc.);
- correctly fill in forms of various formats with information about yourself and the organization, to carry out direct oral and written communication in the academic and professional environment, taking into account the peculiarities of intercultural communication;
- understand the content of written scientific information and the level of relevance for their own research topic;
- organize information obtained from written sources in the form of abstracts and notes for further use;
- analyze and synthesize information presented in scientific sources, use it to write your own articles;
- produce coherent and consistent oral monologues based on the read professional literature;
- support the conversation and argue about the topics discussed during the discussions and seminars, present and justify their views on the topics of discussion, using the language forms inherent in the discussions;
- adequately respond to questions during the interview, know the basic elements and types of interviews and requirements;
- present their own opinions and analysis of the results of work during meetings, gatherings and seminars, conferences;

- distinguish between different genres of authentic texts related to the specialty, from textbooks, newspapers, popular and specialized magazines and Internet sources, and determine the position and views of the author;
- perform annotation and abstracting of sources of scientific information at the appropriate level of grammatical and academic correctness;
- analyze and synthesize information presented in scientific sources, use it to write your own articles;
- understand and describe graphs, tables, diagrams, etc., using language forms and grammatical structures inherent in describing visualization tools;
- write texts of academic and professional orientation, using typical for this style grammatical structures and functional patterns;
- compile business documentation (report, review, etc.) with a high level of grammatical correctness;
- compile an effective resume, cover letter and other documents required for employment;
- to express one's own point of view orally and in writing regarding one's own scientific research in compliance with the norms of scientific ethics.

### **Competencies that need to be formed or developed**

#### **Integral competencies**

- Ability to critically analyze, evaluate and synthesize new and complex ideas.
- Ability to communicate freely and competently in dialogue with the wider scientific community and the public in a particular field of scientific and/or professional activity.
- Ability to self-develop and self-improve throughout life in order to further conduct research in a relevant field of knowledge or professional activity.

#### **General competencies:**

- Possession of professional language and communication skills in Ukrainian and English with the general scientific community, in particular within the interdisciplinary and / or international expert community, in the process of presenting materials and research results in the form of scientific articles, reports, multimedia presentations in accordance with standards and professional community.
- Skills of operational processing of scientific texts of different genres of scientific style (abstracting, annotation, summarizing, editing, translation, etc.).

- Skills in modeling coherent scientific texts of different genres (create glossaries of key terms; prepare scientific articles, abstracts, reports, reports, speeches, scientific reports, manuals) according to the requirements of scientific style, including the use of information technology).

- Skills of application of modern information technologies in scientific activity.

- Skills in managing research projects and / or making proposals for research funding.

- Be able to understand the main ideas of the text on both specific and abstract topics, including discussions in the field.

- Be able to communicate freely with native speakers, show respect for the diversity and field of culture of dialogue / polylogue participants in the communication process.

- Be able to express clearly a wide range of topics, to express their views on a particular problem, giving a variety of arguments "for" and "against", to show in the process of communication understanding of the cultures and traditions of other countries and peoples.

- Ability to learn throughout life in the context of continuing professional development, to improve their intellectual and cultural level and to master modern knowledge.

- Ability to abstract thinking, analysis and synthesis; search, processing and analysis of information from various sources.

- Possession of modern means of information and computer technology for solving scientific and educational problems in professional and innovative activities;

- Ability to work individually and in a team, to show persistence and initiative in solving tasks in the professional and scientific spheres, to be responsible for the decisions made.

**Professional competencies:**

- Knowledge of professional and scientific ethics and readiness to adhere to it.

- Skills of critical analysis and interpretation of research in the field of domestic and foreign theory/history of education and pedagogy, synthesis of new ideas; to communicate on the subject of research within the interdisciplinary and/or international expert environment.

- Skills of objective assessment and scientifically competent formulation of prospects for further research in the relevant field of educational sciences.

- Communicative ability in the spheres of professional communication in oral and written forms, practical knowledge of a foreign language in various types of speech activity;

- Ability to use innovative learning technologies in the learning process;

- Ability to creatively solve problems of pedagogical activity;

- Ability to model coherent scientific texts of different genres (create glossaries of key terms; prepare scientific articles, abstracts, reports, reports, speeches, scientific reports, manuals) according to the requirements of scientific style, including the use of information technology;

- Ability to write, listen, read and speak English in accordance with the standards of the Association of Language Experts ALTE (The Association of Language Testers in Europe).

## UNIT 1. THE ACADEMIC WRITING PROCESS

### QUIZ «ACADEMIC WRITING»

How much do you know about academic writing? Find out by doing this quiz.

1. The main difference between academic writing and normal writing is that academic writing:
  - a) uses longer words
  - b) tries to be precise and unbiased
  - c) is harder to understand
2. The difference between a project and an essay is:
  - a) essays are longer
  - b) projects are longer
  - c) students choose projects' topics
3. Teachers complain most about students:
  - a) not answering the question given
  - b) not writing enough
  - c) not referencing properly
4. The best time to write an introduction is often:
  - a) first
  - b) last
  - c) after writing the main body
5. Plagiarism is:
  - a) a dangerous disease
  - b) an academic offence
  - c) an academic website
6. Making careful notes is essential for:
  - a) writing essays
  - b) revising for exams
  - c) all academic work
7. An in-text citation looks like:
  - a) (Manton, 2008)
  - b) (Richard Manton, 2008)
  - c) (Manton, R. 2008)

8. Paraphrasing a text means:
- a) making it shorter
  - b) changing a lot of the vocabulary
  - c) adding more detail
9. Paragraphs always contain:
- a) six or more sentences
  - b) an example
  - c) a topic sentence
10. The purpose of an introduction is:
- a) to give your aims and methods
  - b) to excite the reader
  - c) to summarise your ideas
11. Proof-reading means:
- a) getting a friend to check your work
  - b) checking for minor errors
  - c) rewriting
12. Teachers expect students to adopt a critical approach to their sources:
- a) sometimes
  - b) only for Master's work
  - c) always

## **PART 1. THE PURPOSE OF ACADEMIC WRITING**

Without no doubts that the most common reasons for writing include:

- to report on a piece of research the writer has conducted
- to answer a question the writer has been given or chosen
- to discuss a subject of common interest and give the writer's view
- to synthesise research done by others on a topic.

The term «academic writing» refers to the forms of expository and argumentative prose used by university students, faculty, and researchers to convey a body of information about a particular subject. Generally, academic writing is expected to be precise, semi-formal, impersonal and objective.

So, the skill of writing is required throughout our life for various purposes. Academic writing is the writing you have to do for your university courses. Thus, academic writing skill is of utmost importance as it enables the students to communicate their ideas well in an organized and structured manner.

Academic writing is a formal type of writing and it's usage throughout the academic career also makes it easy for the students to cater to professional writing environment after completing their degrees. Academic writing differs in nature than the personal form of writing. Within the realm of personal writing, no rules and defined structure is followed. People use slangs and abbreviations in personal writing. Also, you are open to point out and refer to your own experiences like in writing a personal diary.

On the other hand, academic writing is totally opposite as it follows a strict set of rules and structured practices. You are also not allowed to depict any personal experiences. Use of slangs is strictly forbidden. In academic writing, ideas are presented through taking reference from already published data and reports. The theories presented should be supported through properly citing the author and their published literature. The writer also needs to adhere to the defined rules of grammar, spelling and punctuation. All academic writings own a particular tone that caters to the style related to a particular discipline. The academic tone wants writers to depict ideas objectively, concisely and in a formal way.

Academic writing does not only aim to be presented to the lecturer. It also aims to inform the target audience or the readers about the topic in a way which has a solid backing and proper argument for enhancing their knowledge. Readers will easily understand writing that involves clarity and avoids ambiguity at all levels.

Academic writing skills are important to be learned and developed due to their on-going need in an academic environment. Regardless of your study discipline and

the field of subjects, you will get to complete the assignments and the final reports as a course requirement.

These assignments and reports are basically marked upon the understanding of the topic or issue and how the topic is being handled by the students. Following are the main reasons to develop the good writing skills.

The written assignments can only be best represented to the course instructor/marker through good writing and communication skills.

Good communication skills are required to persuade the audience about your argument to be an objective one that is based on the ideas gathered from different literature and have solid formation.

Development of listening skills as well as research skills is the key of attaining the good grades in academic environment.

Through writing, you have more opportunities to get exposed to the underlying facts and exploring them will enhance your knowledge as well as thinking sphere.

Your instructors may have different names for academic writing assignments (essay, paper, research paper, term paper, argumentative paper/essay, analysis paper/essay, informative essay, dissertation), but all of these assignments have the same goal and principles.

Academic writing differs from other types of writing such as journalistic or creative writing. In most forms of academic writing a detached and objective approach is required. An academic argument appeals to logic and provides evidence in support of an intellectual position. It is important to present your arguments in logical order and to arrive at conclusions. However, academic writing can take many forms. You may be asked to write an essay, a report, a review or a reflective article. Different styles adhere to each of these types of academic writing, so always check with your lecturer. In academic writing, writers always interact with the texts of each other and so there will be frequent references to the ideas, thinking or research of other authors writing in this field. You must give credit to those with whom you are interacting and there are structured guidelines for referencing and citation.

## **PART 2. THE MAIN PECULIARITIES OF ACADEMIC WRITING**

To start with, academic writing in English is linear, which means it has one central point or theme with every part contributing to the main line of argument, without digressions or repetitions. Its objective is to inform rather than entertain. As well as this it is in the standard written form of the language. There are eight main

peculiarities of academic writing that are often discussed. Academic writing is to some extent: complex, formal, objective, explicit, hedged, and responsible. It uses language precisely and accurately.

### **Complexity**

Written language is relatively more complex than spoken language. Written language has longer words, it is lexically more dense 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.

### **Precision**

In academic writing, facts and figures are given precisely.

### **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**

Academic writing uses vocabulary accurately. Most subjects have words with narrow specific meanings. Linguistics distinguishes clearly between «phonetics» and «phonemics»; general English does not.

### **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.

## TASK 1. Recognising the levels of formality

Study Table 1.1, which identifies two quite different levels of formality and then complete the table that follows.

**Table 1.1.**

**Different levels of formality**

	<b>Academic</b>	<b>Non-academic</b>
<b>Reader</b>	academics	family and friends
<b>Content</b>	serious thought	conversational
<b>Style</b>	complex sentences showing considerable variety in construction	mostly simple and compound sentences joined by conjunctions such as and or but
<b>Organisation</b>	clear and well planned	less likely to be as clear and as organised
<b>Grammar</b>	likely to be error free	may not always use complete sentences
<b>Vocabulary</b>	technical and academic language used accurately	use of short forms, idioms and slang

## TASK 2.

Read the sentences and tick (✓) either F (formal) or I (informal) after each sentence. Make notes on which features helped you reach your decision.

<b>Sentences</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>I</b>	<b>Notes</b>
I couldn't finish the interviews on time.			
The initial tests were completed and the results analysed by June 2020.			
I'd like to start by drawing your attention to previous research in this area.			
In the XXI-st century, some researchers started to point out the problems with this theory.			
He agreed with me that this procedure didn't make much sense.			
We'll repeat the test sometime next year.			

While it is still too early to draw firm conclusions from the data, preliminary analysis suggests the following trends are present.			
In addition, the research attempts to answer two further related questions.			

**TASK 3.**

**Distinguishing between the levels of formality.**

*Put the following texts in order by giving 1 to the most academic and 4 to the least academic. To help you think about: Who is this text intended for? Why would readers pick up this text and read it? What resources did the writer of the text have available?*

**A**

What makes a good paragraph? It's difficult to say. Anyway, I'll try to give you an answer. A good paragraph starts with a main idea of some kind. The rest of the paragraph goes on to develop the main idea by explaining it, or by supporting it with evidence.

**B**

The reciprocal relationship between reading and writing has become a focal point of L1 and L2 literacy research. Empirical findings have led researchers to recognize that reading and composing (i.e. writing) both involve the construction of meaning, development and application of complex cognitive and linguistic skills, activation of existing knowledge and past experience, and the ability to solve problems.

**C**

The difference between a paper and an online presentation is that in print your document forms a whole and the reader is focused on the entire set of information, whereas on the Web you need to split each document into multiple hyperlinked pages since users are not willing to read long pages.

**D**

The University of Aizu was established in April 1993 with the goal of educating and graduating students who would become Japan's leading professionals in computer science and engineering (Kunii, 1994). With this in mind, the University's curriculum

has been planned to include courses that will provide its graduates with the ability to effectively communicate in English, the international computer science language. The capability to document scholarly and research activities in a form that can be readily disseminated to the international computer science community is considered to be essential for all scientists and engineers. Effective writing is a necessary skill for technical professionals, and it has been claimed that scientists and engineers spend 25% of their professional time on writing a variety of technically oriented documents (15% informal, and 10% formal) (Huckin, 1991). To prepare our students for these endeavours, a two-term English Technical Writing course has been included in the required curriculum of all University of Aizu students.

#### **TASK 4.**

##### **Explaining features of formality.**

*Using the features shown in Table 1.1, try to explain why you have put the extracts (in Task 3) in the order you chose. Make some notes to share with a group of classmates or with the teacher.*

#### **Language Focus**

A distinctive feature for academic style is choosing the more formal alternative when selecting a verb, noun, or another part of speech. In general, words of **Latin** and **French** origin suggest formality; shorter, often **Germanic**, words and **phrasal verbs** are more informal: demonstrate/show; surrender/give in; dehydrated/dry; interval/gap.

#### **TASK 5.**

*Which of the words in italics would be more suitable for an academic paper?*

1. The government has made *good/considerable* progress in solving environmental problems.
2. We *got/obtained* encouraging results.
3. The results of *a lot of/numerous* different projects have been pretty *good/encouraging*.
4. A loss of jobs is one of the things that *will happen/consequences* if the process is automated.

### **TASK 6.**

Choose a verb from the list that reduces the informality of each sentence. Note that you may need to add tense to the verb from the list.

- a) assist b) raise c) reduce d) establish e) create f) increase g) investigate h) determine  
i) eliminate j) fluctuate

1. Expert Systems can *help out* the user in the diagnosis of problems.
2. This program was *set up* to improve access to medical care.
3. Research expenditures have *gone up* to nearly \$3,500 million.
4. Researchers have *found out* that this drug has serious side effects.
5. Building a nuclear power plant will not *get rid of* the energy problem completely.
6. Researchers have been *looking into* this problem for 15 years now.
7. This issue was *brought up* during the investigation.
8. The emission levels have been *going up and down*.

### **TASK 7.**

Supply a more academic word or phrase for the one in italics.

1. The reaction of the officials was *sort of* negative.
2. The economic outlook is *mighty nice*.
3. The future of Federal funding is *up in the air*.
4. America's major automakers are planning to *get together* on the research needed for more fuel efficient cars.
5. The implementation of computer-integrated-manufacturing (CIM) has *brought about* serious problems.
6. The process should be *done over* until the desired results are achieved.
7. Plans are being made to *come up with* a database containing detailed environmental information for the region.
8. Subtle changes in the earth's crust were *picked up* by these new devices.
9. Proposals to construct new nuclear reactors have *met with* great resistance from environmentalists.

### TASK 8.

Match the verbs on the left with a more formal alternative. Then match each pair of verbs with a phrase on the right to make a complete expression. The first example has been done for you.

**WE REALLY NEED TO set up/establish a sister company in Hamburg.**

1. <b>set up</b> 2. carry out 3. strengthen 4. look into	a. conduct b. investigate c. <b>establish</b> d. consolidate	1. the problem of distribution. 2. <b>a sister company in Hamburg.</b> 3. our position in South America. 4. more research in this area
5. buy 6. think about 7. move 8. combine	e. re-locate f. purchase g. amalgamate h. explore	5. the possibility of selling direct. 6. our headquarters to Lyon. 7. our raw materials at source. 8. the two departments
9. show 10. work out 11. speed up 12. break into	i. penetrate j. accelerate k. calculate l. demonstrate	9. the development of new product. 10. the importance of the project 11. new markets in Eastern Europe. 12. exactly what our margins are.
13. pay 14. send 15. work together 16. make use of	m. collaborate n. exploit o. remunerate p. dispatch	13. the goods within the month. 14. staff according to performance. 15. our cross-cultural expertise. 16. on the design of the product.
17. use 18. build in 19. think up 20. take an advantage of	q. formulate r. capitalize on s. incorporate t. utilize	17. all our resources. 18. several new product features. 19. new opportunities in the CIS countries. 20. an immediate plan of action.

### TASK 9.

*Writing about thinking.*

Write a 300-word essay that you think fits the expectations of «Academic Writing» on the following topic:

Do languages help mould the way we think? If we all spoke the same language, would we think in the same way? Discuss the issue using examples, details and your personal experiences of the English and your native language.

## LANGUAGE FOCUS: FORMAL GRAMMAR AND STYLE

The following are some grammar recommendations for maintaining a formal (academic) style in writing.

1. Avoid contractions and shortenings:

won't → will not

didn't → did not

can't → cannot

plane → airplane

2. Use the more appropriate formal negative one-word forms:

*not ... any* → *no*

(The analysis didn't yield any new results. → The analysis yielded no new results.)

*not ... much* → *little*

(The government didn't allocate much funding for the program → The government allocated little funding for the program)

*not ... many* → *few*

(This program doesn't have many viable solutions. → This problem has few viable solutions.)

3. Limit the use of «run on» expressions, such as «*and so forth*» and «*etc.*»:

These semiconductors can be used in robots, CD players, etc. → These semiconductors can be used in robots, CD players, and other electronic devices.

4. Avoid addressing the reader as «*you*»:

You can see the results in Table 1 → The results can be seen in Table 1.

5. Limit the use of direct questions:

What can be done to lower costs? → We now need to consider what can be done to lower costs, or We now need to consider how costs may be lowered.

6. Place adverbs within the verb (in mid-position):

(It is characteristic of informal English to place adverbs at the beginning or end of sentences.)

Then the solution can be discarded → The solution can *then* be discarded.

The inflation rate decreased slowly → The inflation rate *slowly* decreased.

7. Avoid overusing exaggerative and emphatic adjectives (*e.g. unbelievably, strongly, amazingly, etc.*)

8. Do not drop the object pronoun in relative clauses:

The man I saw told me to come today → The man *whom* (*who/that*) I saw told me to come today.

9. Use the Passive Voice:

They tested each component to destruction. → Each component *was tested* to destruction.

**TASK 10.**

*Reduce the informality of each sentence.*

1. If you fail the exam, you can't enter the university.
2. OK, what are the causes of deformation? Many possibilities exist.
3. You can clearly see the difference between these two processes.
4. A small bit of ammonium dichromate is added to the gelatin solution gradually.
5. These special tax laws have been enacted in six states: Illinois, Iowa, Ohio, etc.
6. The subjects didn't have much difficulty with the task.
7. We do not expect anyone to find a cure for the common cold.
8. The workers he employs are dissatisfied.

**TASK 11.**

*Using the words given, make these presentation extracts more informal:*

1. It is a well-known fact that the Internet is the information channel of the future.  
(Everybody) ...
2. It is been proved that direct mailing gees a less than 1% response rate.  
(They) ...
3. It is being suggested that the so-called smart drugs can actually increase intelligence.  
(They) ...
4. It is generally agreed that the number of new cases of AIDS is falling.  
(Almost everyone) ...
5. It is widely believed that Thailand and Malaysia will continue to outgrow Taiwan.  
(A lot/us) ...
6. It is not known whether a mile-high building is technically possible.  
(We /not know) ...
7. It is a little-known fact that more people die of tuberculosis every year than were killed in both world wars.  
(A lot / people / nor realize) ...
8. It is a popular misconception that Total Quality originated in Japan.  
(People often / mistake / thinking) ...
9. It is debatable whether such an ambitious objective can be achieved in two years.  
(We can't /sure / we) ... .

## UNIT 2. SENTENCE STRUCTURE.

### Part 1. SENTENCE TYPES

So, sentence combining calls on you to experiment with different ways of building sentences and organizing paragraphs. Regular practice in sentence combining should help you to develop a writing style that is both correct and effective.

There are four types of sentence.

1. Simple
2. Compound
3. Complex
4. Compound-Complex

#### 1. Simple Sentences.

A simple sentence is one clause with **a subject** and **verb**.

**Computers are** important in the modern world.

However, it can have more than one subject and verb:

a) 2 subjects:

**Computers and other technological devices are** important in the modern world.

b) 2 Verbs:

**I search** for information and **play** games on my computer.

c) 2 subject and 2 verbs:

**My brother and I search** for information and play games on our computers.

#### 2. Compound Sentences.

A compound sentence consists of 2 or 3 clauses. It is when simple sentences are joined together. In this sentence structure, the clauses are joined with the following **coordinating conjunctions**:

*F =for; A =and; N =nor; B =but; O =or; Y =yet; S =so*

The word «fanboys» is an easy way to remember the different conjunctions that make up compound sentences. Obviously the most common are «and», «but», «or» and «so».

Here are some examples of compound sentence structure:

**Computers are** important, **but they can be** dangerous too. Computers are important, but they can be dangerous too, **so we must be** careful.

Avoid writing too many clauses as the sentence may get difficult to follow and you **cannot** use each one **more than once** in a sentence to join clauses.

This is **wrong**:

Computers are used widely in most countries now, **and** they are a sign of progress, **and** we must ensure everyone has access to them.

Two possible corrected versions:

Computers are used widely in most countries now, and they are a sign of progress. We must ensure everyone has access to them.

Computers are used widely in most countries now, **and** they are a sign of progress, so must ensure everyone has access to them.

**Using semicolons.**

There is an instance when you can have a compound sentence structure without a coordinating conjunction, and this is when you join two clauses with a semicolon. It is used when two ideas are related.

*For example:*

Computers are used widely in most countries; they are a sign of progress.

### **3. Complex Sentences.**

Complex sentences are more complicated (which is maybe why they are called «complex»).

There are different types of complex sentences and these will be looked at in more detail later, so here you are just provided with the basics. Complex sentences are two (or more) clauses joined together, but they are not joined by «fanboys» (coordinating conjunctions). They are joined by subordinating conjunctions.

These are subordinating conjunctions:

After	although	as	as if	as long as	as much as	as soon as	as
though	because	before	even	if	even though	if	in order to
in	case	once	since	so	that	that	though
unless	until	when	whenever	whereas	where	wherever	while

*For example:*

People take natural health supplements **even though** they may not have been tested.

Our children may not be properly educated **if** we don't spend more on schools.

I went to bed **as soon as** he left **because** I was tired.

These are all **adverbial clauses**. In these types of complex sentence, the second clause can be used to start the sentence. In this case, a comma is needed in the middle. Even though they may not have been tested, people take natural health supplements.

**If** we don't spend more on schools, our children may not be properly educated.

**As soon as** he left, I went to bed **because** I was tired.

**Noun clauses and relative clauses** are also a type of complex sentence structure, but these will be looked at later.

#### **4. Compound-Complex Sentences.**

Compound-complex sentences are the same as complex sentences but they also have a simple (or compound) sentence before or after the «complex» part.

*For example:*

I ate a lot **when** I got home, **but** I was still hungry.

The part that is underlined is the complex sentence. As you can see, it also has a simple sentence connected to it. It can also have a full compound sentence attached to it:

I ate a lot **when** I got home, **but** I was still hungry, **so** I went shopping to buy some more food.

#### **Practical Tasks.**

*Exercise 1. Identify what type of sentence each is.*

1. I was late for work.

Simple

Compound

Complex

Compound-complex

2. He failed the test because he did not study hard enough.

Simple

Compound

Complex

Compound-Complex

3. Even though pollution is widespread, people are doing little to prevent it.

Simple

Compound

Complex

Compound-Complex

4. Animals should not be killed for their fur, but this is still occurring, so action must be taken.

Simple

Compound

Complex

Compound-Complex

5. I came to study in the UK because I wanted to improve my English, so I talk to as many English people as possible.

Simple

Compound

Complex

Compound-Complex

## Part 2. Punctuation

**Punctuation** is «the use of spacing, conventional signs, and certain typographical devices as aids to the understanding and the correct reading, both silently and aloud, of handwritten and printed texts». Another description is: «The practice, action, or system of inserting points or other small marks into texts, in order to aid interpretation; division of text into sentences, clauses by means of such marks».

In written English, punctuation is vital to disambiguate the meaning of sentences. For example: «woman, without her man, is nothing» (emphasizing the importance of men), and «woman: without her, man is nothing» (emphasizing the importance of women) have very different meanings; as do «eats shoots and leaves» (which means the subject consumes plant growths) and «eats, shoots, and leaves» (which means the subject eats first, then fires a weapon, and then leaves the scene). The sharp differences in meaning are produced by the simple differences in punctuation within the example pairs, especially the latter.

The rules of punctuation vary with language, location, register and time and are constantly evolving. Certain aspects of punctuation are stylistic and are thus the author's (or editor's) choice. Tachygraphic language forms, such as those used in online chat and text messages.

The author should use punctuation in your writing because it helps your reader to understand your message easily. When you speak, you frequently pause, your voice rises or drops and often your face and hands add non-verbal information

through «body language»; all this assists in communicating your message clearly. In writing you have to remember that the readers have only what is on the paper or screen in order to understand your message. Punctuation basically helps to indicate the pauses, rises and falls etc. which are important for understanding.

Different punctuation marks are used in different situations but all help with conveying your message with clarity. It is therefore essential, in academic writing in particular, to use punctuation accurately. Your tutors will expect this and you will lose marks for not doing so. On the other hand, correctly used punctuation can help to strengthen your arguments and improve marks. The alphabetic list below will introduce the main punctuation marks used in writing in general, not just academic writing. (There is more detailed information in the Table 2.)

**Table 1.2.**

**Punctuation marks**

Punctuation mark	When to use it	For example
<b>Apostrophe</b> '	1) to show that something belongs to someone or something (possession) 2) to show letters are missing in words (omission)	The boy's book. This is Alec's pen. The students' names. The children's toys. That means you use 's for singular and s' for plural unless the plural does not end in an s, as in the case of «children». <b>Note:</b> There is no apostrophe used with ours, yours, hers, his, whose, its (meaning belonging to us, you, her, him, who, or it) you're = you are; I'm = I am; it's = it is; who's = who is; don't = do not <b>BUT remember that you don't use short forms like «don't» in academic writing.</b> Always use the full forms such as do not, who is, it is etc.

<p><b>Brackets ( )</b></p>	<p>Used in pairs around groups of words introducing an extra idea e.g. an explanation or afterthought to be kept separate from the rest of the sentence.</p> <p>A sentence should still make complete sense without the words in brackets.</p>	<p>He always hands in his work on time (he is a well organized student) after carefully checking it.</p>
<p><b>Capital letter A</b></p>	<p>1) at the beginning of a sentence 2) for names</p>	<p>Snow continued to fall. Finally a decision was taken to shut the campus.</p> <p>Alice Smith; Hull; The Bible; The Thames; The Midwifery Council</p>
<p><b>Colon:</b> (see below for more details)</p>	<p>1) to introduce something that is to follow, which may be a list 2) to introduce the second half of a sentence when it explains or expands on the first half</p>	<p>Students are expected to carry out a range of activities: attend lectures, take part in tutorials, produce written work, meet deadlines for assignments and sit examinations.</p> <p>Mediterranean cookery is considered healthy: it uses olive oil, fresh vegetables and fish.</p>
<p><b>Comma ,</b> (see below for more details)</p>	<p>1) to mark a brief pause within a sentence, such as where you would naturally pause if you were speaking 2) to separate words in a list in a sentence (but do not put a comma before «and» or «or»)</p>	<p>We cannot help him, unless he comes to see us.</p> <p>The picnic included sandwiches, salad, crisps, cakes and fruit.</p>

<b>Dash _</b>	<p>1) to create a pause for dramatic effect, introducing something surprising or unexpected</p> <p>2) used in pairs in a similar way to brackets</p>	<p>I looked at the mark for my last essay and it was – a first.</p> <p>I hear she’s a good pianist – I myself have never heard her – but she’s shy about playing in public</p>
<b>Exclamation Mark !</b>	<p>at the end of an exclamation – an expression of emotion such as surprise, anger, delight etc.</p>	<p>It’s just amazing! Hurry up!</p> <p>BUT since academic writing should be impersonal and objective, not emotional, you will not be likely to use exclamation marks in your academic work</p>
<b>Full stop .</b>	<p>1) at the end of a sentence</p> <p>2) to show an abbreviation (shortening)</p>	<p>She finally found the correct book. etc. e.g. Mr. B.B.C.</p>
<b>Hyphen -</b>	<p>to join two words together to make a compound word</p>	<p>Take-away, full-time</p>
<b>Question mark ?</b>	<p>at the end of a sentence which asks a direct question</p>	<p>How did this happen? Where is the Language Learning Centre?</p>
<b>Quotation marks (also called speech marks or inverted commas) « » or ‘ ’</b>	<p>1) to show that you are using someone else’s words</p> <p>2) around words actually spoken</p> <p>3) around titles of books, films etc.</p>	<p>Brown (2009) says «This indicates that the data should not be trusted».</p> <p>«Hello», she said.</p> <p>«The Tempest» is a play by William Shakespeare.</p>
<b>Semi-colon ;</b> (see below for more details)	<p>1) to link two sentences and turn them into a single sentence when a full stop would be too abrupt</p>	<p>He never took any exercise; consequently he became very unfit.</p> <p>The door burst open; a stranger walked in.</p>

## Commas

As a rough guide for checking your punctuation, if you read your work aloud, where you make a major pause to draw breath (and possibly hear your voice go down in tone) you need to use a full stop, not a comma. This marks the end of a sentence. (Some sentences can be very short, even in academic writing.) Where you pause briefly, use a comma. However, this is only an indication of where to use commas; there is often disagreement about how many should be used. It may be a matter of personal taste. In some cases, though, the use – or lack of use - can be important.

### *For example,*

«The man who was in bed 5 has been discharged» let's the reader know which particular man was discharged – the one who was in bed **5**. It «defines» the man and no commas should be used. (Writing «The man has been discharged» would probably prompt the question «Which man?») In contrast, in the following sentence commas are needed to indicate additional details which are not used to identify the person: «The lady in bed 3, whose grandson visited this morning, needs to have a fresh jug of water». Here, you can leave out the words between the brackets and you still know exactly who needs the water.

There is, though, a possible problem with commas. They can be used incorrectly. It is a very common error to use a comma where a full-stop, conjunction, («joining word») or semi-colon is required, for example,

*Nursing Studies students spend time on campus, they also have regular work-placements.*

The problem here is something called a «comma splice» but this is not a term you need to remember. What you do need to remember is that if both parts of the sentence can be used on their own, (they are «independent clauses»), it is wrong to connect them with a comma. Instead you can write two shorter sentences, as follows.

1) *Nursing Studies students spend time on campus. **They** also have regular work-placements.*

Alternatively you can join the two parts with a suitable conjunction («joining word»).

2) *Nursing Studies students spend time on campus **but** they also have regular work-placements.*

The third possibility is to use a semi-colon, which is explained more fully in a section below.

3) *Nursing Studies students spend time on **campus**; they also have regular work-placements.*

If you read through your work you find that you have a sentence with a comma in the middle, it is worth stopping to think whether the two parts of the sentence make sense on their own. If they do, you need to change the punctuation, using one of the three methods shown above.

**Exercise 2.** *Add commas wherever necessary. Name the function of each comma.*

### **Advertising**

1. Advertising is the collective term for public announcements designed to promote the sale of specific commodities or services.

2. Advertising is a form of mass selling and it is employed when the use of direct person-to-person selling is impractical impossible or simply inefficient.

3. It is to be distinguished from other activities intended to persuade the public such as propaganda publicity and public relations.

4. Advertising techniques range in complexity from the publishing of straightforward notices in the classified-advertising columns of newspapers to the concerted use of newspapers magazines television radio direct mail and other communications media in the course of a single advertising campaign.

5. From its unsophisticated beginnings in ancient times advertising has burgeoned into a worldwide industry.

6. In the U.S. alone in the late 1980s approximately \$120 billion was spent in a single year on advertising to influence the purchase of commodities and services.

7. American advertising leads the world not only in volume of business but in the complexity of its organization and of its procedures.

8. For these reasons this article deals primarily with advertising in the U.S.

9. Modern advertising is an integral segment of urban industrial civilization mirroring contemporary life in its best and worst aspects.

10. Having proven its force in the movement of economic goods and services advertising since the early 1960s has been directed in increasing quantity toward matters of social concern.

## Colons

Colons can easily be misused but if used properly can be very helpful in your writing. They have a range of uses; the two main ones are explained below.

*a) To introduce a list (as mentioned in the table above).* The problem is that not all lists need to be introduced by a colon. What you need to remember is that the clause (group of words containing a verb) that comes before the colon **must make sense on its own**.

*Compare the two sentences below.*

1. *Students are expected to carry out a range of activities: attend lectures, take part in tutorials, produce written work, meet deadlines for assignments and sit examinations.*

2. *Students are expected to arrive on time for classes and lectures, to work independently, to keep appointments, to be considerate to others and to the environment.*

In the first sentence «Students are expected to carry out a range of activities» makes perfect sense. It is therefore correct to use a colon before the list. In the second one, «Students are expected to» does not make sense. Something is clearly missing. This means that no colon is needed and it would be incorrect to use one before the list. So if you have a list, remember you only use a colon before it if the list follows a clause that could be used on its own.

*b) To introduce the second half of a sentence when it explains or expands on the first half*

It can be seen as an invitation for the reader to continue reading about an idea. In the sentence below, the main idea is that the British diet is often not as healthy as it should be. After the colon, the reader finds an explanation of why this is the case.

*The average British diet is often considered unhealthy: it tends to contain too many fried foods, too many ready prepared foods with a high salt content and not enough fresh vegetables.*

As in the case of the list (usage a), the words before the colon make sense on their own. What follows the colon is additional information. If the first part of the sentence cannot be used alone, do not use a colon. One minor complication is the question of whether or not to use a capital letter to start the word following the colon. If the explanation after the colon contains more than a single sentence you should use a capital.

***For example:***

*Mediterranean cookery is considered healthy: It uses olive oil, fresh vegetables and fish. It often also includes a moderate amount of wine and avoids the use of butter.*

If the words following the colon are a quotation, again a capital letter needs to be used for the first word after the colon.

***For example:***

*The advice given by the Skills team on research proposals aims to be reassuring: «Writing a research proposal is like any other form of writing».*

In other cases, the best advice is probably to be consistent. Either always use a capital or always use a lower case letter after the colon. If in doubt, you could perhaps check whether your tutor has a strong preference and be guided accordingly.

**Exercise 3.** *In this exercise you will be given a sentence without a colon. Use a colon to improve the sentence's style by making it more forceful. You can move the feedback to compare it with your answer. Look at the example below.*

*The only thing mankind has left is hope. Mankind has only one thing left: hope.*

1. I really can't stand cold rice pudding.
2. The one country I would really love to visit is Mexico.
3. You have no choice but to accept the referee's decision.
4. The two things the company's success was founded on were service and value for money.
5. Climate change is the most serious threat to mankind's survival.

**Semi-colons**

Some lists are complicated and using semi-colons makes them much easier for the reader to understand. (Always remembering *to help your reader* is so important). Generally you need use only a comma to separate items in a list but in lists like the one below, a), commas are not enough.

*a) When she conducted her research she travelled to Selby, Yorkshire, Peterborough, Lincolnshire, Newcastle, Northumbria, Carlisle, Cumbria and Buxton, Derbyshire.*

Adding semi-colons makes the following sentence, b), much easier to read and understand.

b) *When she conducted her research she travelled to Selby, Yorkshire; Peterborough, Lincolnshire; Newcastle, Northumbria; Carlisle, Cumbria and Buxton, Derbyshire.*

Semicolons are also used **to link two closely-related clauses** (groups of words with a verb) which could stand on their own. For example,

c) *I always park in the Salmon Grove car-park. It's not far from my office.*

In this case there are two, separate sentences. The two separate sentences could be separated by a semi-colon as there is a very close link between them.

d) *I always park in the Salmon Grove car-park; it's not far from my office.*

It would also be possible to link the two sentences with a conjunction or «joining-word». In this case, there is **no semi-colon**.

e) *I always park in the Salmon Grove car-park because it's not far from my office*  
**OR** *I always park in the Salmon Grove car-park since it's not far from my office.*

When using a semicolon to connect two clauses, remember that each clause has to make sense on its own! If it does not, you cannot use a semicolon.

**Exercise 4. You will have to decide which pairs of clauses can be connected with a semi-colon.**

1. *Which can/should be connected with a semi-colon?*

- a) I hate rice pudding \_\_\_\_\_ dairy products don't agree with me.
- b) Spain is lovely \_\_\_\_\_ hot weather and friendly people.
- c) Spain \_\_\_\_\_ lovely beaches, endless blue sea and great weather.
- d) Spain is a lovely country \_\_\_\_\_ the beaches are endless and the weather.

2. *Which can/should be connected with a semi-colon?*

- a) Paris is a beautiful city \_\_\_\_\_ wide streets and sunshine.
- b) Havana is a lovely city \_\_\_\_\_ rice pudding is one of my favourite foods.
- c) I would love to go to France \_\_\_\_\_ Paris is a lovely city.
- d) I would love to go to Greece \_\_\_\_\_ I love ancient history.

3. *Which can/should be connected with a semi-colon?*

- a) Gran hates going to bed early \_\_\_\_\_ there is too much on the tel.
- b) Gran hates doing DIY \_\_\_\_\_ too much like hard work.
- c) Gran hates going to bed early \_\_\_\_\_ the wallpaper in her house is peeling.
- d) Gran hates doing DIY \_\_\_\_\_ the wallpaper in her house is peeling.

4. *Which can/should be connected with a semi-colon?*

- a) Understanding grammar is very important \_\_\_\_\_ despite its complexity.

b) Understanding grammar is very important \_\_\_\_\_ clear communication is an essential skill.

c) Understanding grammar is very important \_\_\_\_\_ most high level jobs require good writing skills.

d) Understanding grammar is very important \_\_\_\_\_ although it is not always the most fascinating subject on the planet.

5. Which can/should be connected with a semi-colon?

a) The stock exchange fell sharply \_\_\_\_\_ investor confidence is very low.

b) The stock exchange fell sharply \_\_\_\_\_ many investors decided to sell their shares.

c) The stock exchange fell sharply \_\_\_\_\_ a difficult day for everybody.

d) The stock exchange fell sharply \_\_\_\_\_ I would wait before selling your shares.

### PART 3. LINKING IDEAS USING LINKING WORDS

«Linking Words» is used as a term to denote a class of English words which are employed to link or connect parts of speech or even whole sentences. They are also called connecting words. There are two categories of Linking Words (or Connecting Words): **conjunctions and transition words**.

The most common linking words are the conjunctions «**and**», «**but**», «**or**» and «**if**». However, adverbs (like «**however**») are also very important for linking thoughts and making smooth transitions between them. Both make it easier to understand what the writer or speaker is saying, so they are very important to good writing. It's better to use more common words in your own writing, at least until you have read them often enough to be sure how to use them. Linking words will help you make sense of important ideas and arguments. They are used in speeches and debates as well as essays.

Although linking words like **despite**, **nevertheless**, or **likewise** are not common in everyday speech, they are common enough in essays, textbooks, and speeches to be on the Academic Word List. That means they occur frequently in many types of academic writing, and can be essential to understanding the author's point.

*Despite their fins, whales are mammals. Dolphins are likewise mammals. Both need to surface to breathe, whereas fish can get oxygen while underwater.*

#### **Linking words showing contrast.**

**Contrast words** indicate a different perspective, a modification, or even disagreement with what was stated before: but, **however**, **on the other hand**.

**Some contrast words** warn the reader that what follows is not the whole story, but an exception: **although, even though, despite, even if, even though, in spite of, though, while.**

These words are often used to admit that an opposing argument has some truth before going on to show that other factors are more important. Most of these words mean the same thing, though they fill different places in the sentence.

Prepositions like «**despite**», «**in spite of**» and «**regardless of**» are used before a noun phrase. Adverbs like «**although**» precede a clause (with both subject and verb).

However, «**even if**» has a different meaning. It does not concede that something is true, but states that what follows applies whether or not the «**if**» clause is true.

**For examples:**

*Even though she was tired after work, Mary always cooked dinner for her family. (She was always tired, but she cooked anyway).*

*Even if she was tired after work, Mary always cooked dinner for her family. (Sometimes she was tired and sometimes she wasn't, but in either case she cooked).*

Less common contrast words: **albeit, despite, nevertheless, nonetheless, notwithstanding, and whereas** all show a contrast. They are similar in meaning to the more common transition words «**but**», «**although**», and «**however**». They are often used to concede (admit) that the opposing side in a discussion has a valid point, BUT that the opponents' point is not strong enough to reverse the writer's argument. These words all mean basically «**in spite of that**» or «**anyway**». However, the way they are used differs considerably, so that they cannot be interchanged (except for **neverand** **nonetheless**).

**Albeit** is a conjunction like «**but**». (So it does not have to be followed by a clause, as «**although**» does.) It comes from «**although it be**», and is similar in meaning to «**although it is**» or «**even if they are**».

**Despite** is a preposition. It is used when a whole statement (clause) is not needed. It must be followed by a noun or noun phrase.

**Nevertheless and nonetheless** are often followed directly by a pause (a comma). They tell the reader that the writer is returning to his point after acknowledging the arguments against it (or the way things could have been different.) «**It is true that coffee can help a person stay alert. Nevertheless, water is a healthier drink**».

**Notwithstanding** can be a preposition, a conjunction, or an adjective. Its meaning can be similar to «**despite**» or to «**anyway**». It can be used before a phrase or

a clause, or even after a clause: «Cinderella enjoyed the ball, her midnight deadline notwithstanding».

**Whereas** is a conjunction that means «as compared to» or «on the contrary». An example using it:

«Americans have simplified the spelling of many words (color, labor, honor) whereas the British have kept the old spellings (colour, labour, honour)».

### **Linking Words that Move the Discussion Along**

**Additive words** show a continuation or extension of the author's point: **also, and, for example, furthermore, in addition, likewise, moreover, hence, thereby.**

**Furthermore** (like «**in addition**» or «**moreover**») signals an addition to the previous thought.

**Hence** (much like «**therefore**») tells the reader that the point just made leads directly to the conclusion coming up: «Hence a young man is not a proper hearer of lectures on political science; for he is inexperienced in the actions that occur in life...» -- Aristotle. (Hence can also mean «from now» or «from here»).

**Likewise** indicates another example is coming, or that something else is «like» (similar to) the preceding statement.

**Thereby** (by that specific means) and **whereby** (by what means) show how the example given contributes to the writer or speaker's point.

**Sequencing words** show the order of events: **first, second, third (etc.), before, after, after that, later, next, last, finally.**

**Cause and effect words** show causal relationships: **as a result, because (of), consequently, it follows that, since, so, therefore, thus.**

**Via and somewhat.** Via is a preposition that means «by way of».

*In New York, many people travel via subway.*

*Good scientists reach conclusions via careful observation and experimentation.* **Somewhat** means «in a limited way» or «to some extent» as compared to «fully» or «completely».

*The young man was somewhat tired after working in the field all day, but his father was exhausted.*

**Table 1.3**

**General list of linking words and their meanings**

<p><b>Personal opinion:</b></p>	<p><b>In my opinion/view</b>  <b>To my mind</b>  <b>To my way of thinking</b>  <b>I am convinced that</b>  <b>It strikes me that</b>  <b>It is my firm belief that</b>  <b>I am inclined to believe that</b> <b>It seems to me that</b>  <b>As far as I am concerned,</b> I think that the economic recession of the previous decade was foreseeable.</p>
<p><b>To list advantages and disadvantages:</b></p>	<p><b>One advantage of</b>  <b>Another advantage of</b>  <b>One other advantage of</b> <b>A further advantage of</b>  <b>The main advantage of</b>  <b>The greatest advantage of</b>  <b>The first advantage of riding</b> a motorbike in a large metropolis is that of not getting caught in major congestion.</p>
<p><b>To list points:</b></p>	<p><b>Firstly</b>  <b>First of all</b>  <b>In the first place</b>  <b>Secondly</b>  <b>Thirdly</b>  <b>Finally.</b>  <b>To start/begin with,</b> we have to address the inadequacies within the education system before we can tackle unemployment fully.</p>
<p><b>To add more points to the same topic:</b></p>	<p><b>What is more</b>  <b>Furthermore</b>  <b>Apart from this/that</b>  <b>In addition (to this)</b>  <b>Moreover</b>  <b>Besides (this)</b>          ... not to mention the fact that your choice of career is a fundamental decision which will influence the rest of your life. Not only is your choice of career a fundamental decision, but it is also one that will influence the rest of your life. Your choice of career is both a fundamental decision and something that will influence the rest of your life.</p>
<p><b>To refer to other sources:</b></p>	<p><b>With reference to,</b>  <b>According to.</b>          According to the latest scientific research, the use of mobile phones can be damaging to one's health in the long run.</p>

<b>To emphasise a point:</b>	<b>Indeed, Naturally, Clearly, Obviously, Of course, Needless to say</b> Needless to say, the scheme was found to fail due to insufficient funds.
<b>To give examples:</b>	<b>For instance</b> <b>For example</b> For example, by establishing day-care centres across the country, working mothers can be encouraged to resume their careers. By providing incentives such as, like day-care centres working mothers are encouraged to resume their careers. If working mothers are to resume their careers then the provision of incentives particularly, in particular, especially day-care centres is essential.
<b>To state other people's opinion:</b>	<b>It is popularly believed that</b> <b>People often claim that</b> <b>It is often alleged that</b> <b>Some people argue that</b> <b>Many argue that</b> <b>Most people feel that</b> Some people point out that wealth will bring happiness. Contrary to popular belief, wealth does not necessarily bring happiness.
<b>To conclude:</b>	<b>Finally</b> <b>Lastly</b> <b>All in all</b> <b>Taking everything into account/consideration</b> <b>On the whole</b> <b>All things considered</b> <b>In conclusion</b> <b>On balance</b> <b>For the above mentioned reasons</b> <b>To sum up</b> <b>Therefore I feel that</b> To sum up, it is unlikely that there will be peace in all the countries of the world concurrently.
<b>Summarising:</b>	<b>In short</b> <b>Briefly</b> To put it briefly, his performance on stage was fantastic!

**Exercise 1. Use the words below to complete the gaps. Remember to capitalize the first word in each sentence, and check your spelling.**

Albeit furthermore hence nevertheless notwithstanding via whereas whereby

Although dolphins and whales appear to be fish, they are actually mammals, more closely related to people than to sharks. Fish have scales and lay eggs, \_\_\_\_\_ whales have skin, and bear and nurse live young. Whales cannot get oxygen from water as fishes do. Instead, they breathe air \_\_\_\_\_ their blowholes, \_\_\_\_\_ they can endure underwater without surfacing for much longer than land mammals can. Different kinds of whales and dolphins make various sounds including songs, whistles, and clicks \_\_\_\_\_ they can communicate with each other over long distances through the water. Some whales have even attempted to imitate human sounds they hear. Their anatomy and ways of making sounds are very different, \_\_\_\_\_ such efforts imply an interest in communicating with people as well.

Dolphins are some of the most intelligent creatures scientists have studied. Scientists currently have more questions than answers about how dolphins think and communicate with each other. \_\_\_\_\_, they have made some very interesting discoveries in the last few years. They have observed how dolphins socialize, play, and resolve conflicts with each other. \_\_\_\_\_, they have found ways to invite dolphins to play a few games with them, and to enable dolphins to communicate back. (The dolphins can push buttons on a large underwater board to indicate interest in several toys like a ball or rope.) \_\_\_\_\_ their watery life, whales and dolphins are fellow mammals- notso-distant relatives. Ongoing research (such as that discussed in this TED talk) is exploring the possibilities of learning to communicate with them.

**Exercise 2. Fill the gaps with time connectors given below.**

**A: as soon as, at last, immediately, meanwhile, then, when, while**

The aeroplane had only been in the air for about twenty minutes 1) ... suddenly it began to dive towards the ground. 2) ... the passengers began to panic. 3) ... the flight attendants realised what was happening, they did their best to calm everyone down, 4) ... the plane continued to lose altitude. 5) ... , in the cockpit, the pilot was struggling to control the plane. 6) ... it righted itself and he sighed with relief. The flight 7) ... continued without any further problems.

**B: after, before, finally, since, then, when**

There had never been a storm like it 1) ... - at least not 2) ... the great flood in 1962. Kevin was trying to steer his car through the pouring rain 3) ... all of a sudden his car stopped. The engine continued to run for a few seconds, 4) ... coughed twice and fell silent. Reluctantly, Kevin got out of his car and watched it sink slowly into

the mud at the side of the road. 5) ... staring at his useless car for a few minutes, he 6) ... stuck his hands into his pockets, bent his head and began the long walk home.

**Exercise 3.** *Below is a list of some widespread logical connectors. As far as possible, group them into their functions according to Table 1. Several connectors may have more than one meaning, so they may need to go in more than one of the cells. Use a dictionary if you need to check the meaning of a connector. Each cell contains one connector provided as an example for you.*

### Box 1. Logical Connectors

accordingly	consequently	likewise	overall
although	hence	meanwhile	regarding
as	conversely	moreover	similarly
		nevertheless	since
			that is
			(i.e.)
despite	however		
	in addition		
	in brief		
as a matter of fact due			
to			
as a result	even though in		
as far as	conclusion		
as long as	nonetheless		
as to			
finally	in contrast	notwithstanding	
firstly	in fact	therefore	
on the contrary	thus		
for example			
in other words			

on the other hand  
 whereas  
 at the same time      in spite of      on the whole      while  
 for instance      otherwise  
 because of      Furthermore  
    in this case

Table 1.

### Functions of Logical Connectors

<b>Function</b>	<b>Connectors</b>
<i>Addition</i>	furthermore,
<i>Cause and effect</i>	because of,
<i>Comparison</i>	likewise,
<i>Concession</i>	nevertheless,
<i>Conclusion</i>	therefore,
<i>Contrast</i>	on the other hand,
<i>Enumeration</i>	firstly,
<i>Illustration</i>	for example,
<i>Intensification</i>	as a matter of fact,
<i>Reformulation</i>	in other words,
<i>Relation</i>	regarding,
<i>Summation</i>	overall,
<i>Time</i>	meanwhile.

**Exercise 4.** Choose the most suitable logical connector out of the two given in each sentence.

Writing is a difficult skill for native speakers and nonnative speakers (*alike/ accordingly*), (*thus/because*) writers must balance multiple issues such as content, organization, purpose, audience, vocabulary, punctuation, spelling, and mechanics such as capitalization. Writing is especially difficult for nonnative speakers (*because/even though*) they are expected to create written products that demonstrate mastery of all the above elements in a new language. (*In contrast/in addition*), writing has been taught for many years as a product rather than a process. (*Therefore/moreover*), teachers emphasize grammar and punctuation rather than decisions about the content and organization of ideas.

**Exercise 5.** *Fill in the blanks with the logical connectors given before the text.*

in other words; for example; therefore however; even though in fact; that is why; then

1. \_\_\_\_\_ computers are clever machines, they cannot understand ordinary spoken English or any other natural language. 2. \_\_\_\_\_, the only language they can understand directly is machine code: central processors operate on codes, which consist of a series of binary digits. 3. The instructions are \_\_\_\_\_ said to be in machine code. 4 \_\_\_\_\_, machine code as a means of communication is very difficult to write. 5. \_\_\_\_\_ we use symbolic languages that are easier to understand. 6. \_\_\_\_\_, by using a special program, these languages can be translated into machine code. 7. \_\_\_\_\_, the so-called «assembly languages» use abbreviations such as ADD, SUB, MPY to represent instructions. 8. \_\_\_\_\_, they are labels, which can be easily associated with the items they refer to.

**Check yourself.**

- 1) What is academic writing?
- 2) What are the main peculiarities of academic writing?
- 3) How many types of sentence do you know? Characterize each of them.
- 4) Give the definition for punctuation.
- 5) Name the basic punctuation marks.
- 6) Which categories of linking words do you know?

## **UNIT 3. WRITING A PARAGRAPH**

### **PART 1. Characteristic of a paragraph**

A **paragraph** is a collection of related sentences dealing with a single topic. Learning to write good paragraphs will help you as a writer stay on track during your drafting and revision stages. Good paragraphing also greatly assists your readers in following a piece of writing. You can have fantastic ideas, but if those ideas aren't presented in an organized fashion, you will lose your readers (and fail to achieve your goals in writing).

The manner in which you present your material is vital. As you know, an essay (or any academic text) is built up around paragraphs. They help the reader understand the organization of your essay and grasp its main points.

A paragraph is a series of sentences that are organized and coherent, and are all related to a single topic. Paragraphs are units of thought with one adequately developed idea.

Listed here are some **RULES OF THUMB** to use when paragraphing. As your writing improves, you'll be able to break these "rules" to meet your own needs. Until then, these suggestions can be helpful. Put only one main idea per paragraph. The basic rule of thumb with paragraphing is to keep one idea to one paragraph. If you begin to transition into a new idea, it belongs in a new paragraph. There are some simple ways to tell if you are on the same topic or a new one. You can have one idea

and several bits of supporting evidence within a single paragraph. You can also have several points in a single paragraph as long as they relate to the overall topic of the paragraph. If the single points start to get long, then perhaps elaborating on each of them and placing them in their own paragraphs is the route to go.

Each paragraph should contain one new point in your overall thesis. The reason why paragraphs should be “headlined” with reference to the overall argument is to keep that argument in the reader’s mind, thereby making it easier for them to see the relevance of the rest of the paragraph. This way, the reader doesn’t lose track, and neither do you. Let the thesis decide how your arguments should be organized, not chronology! Each paragraph should be able to stand on its own and have its own internal structure.

The length of a paragraph largely depends on the purpose of the paragraph, and what you have set out to talk about in your topic sentence. Aim for three to five or more sentences per paragraph. A paragraph that is too long makes it difficult for your audience to follow. A paragraph that is too short won’t develop the main idea. If you have a few very short paragraphs, think about whether they are really parts of a larger paragraph – and can be combined – or whether you can add details to support each point and thus make each into a more fully developed paragraph.

Avoid a one-sentence paragraph. Each paragraph should state its purpose early on, in the form of a topic sentence, followed by sentences of elaboration and explanation (supporting sentences). Include on each page about two handwritten or three typed paragraphs.

Think of a paragraph as a brick. A well-organised piece of writing is like laying a brick neatly on top of one another; a disorganised one is like a heap of bricks thrown on the ground. You can check on whether your paragraphs are balanced by looking at your paper. Be conscious of how your paragraphs work together to communicate your information and understanding to your audience. Make your paragraphs proportional to your paper. Since paragraphs do less work in short papers, have short paragraphs for short papers and longer paragraphs for longer papers. Paragraphs should be visually separated by either line shift or indents. Not both.

## **PART 2. PARAGRAPH STRUCTURE**

Each paragraph consists of one main point, and is made up of a number of

sentences: a topic sentence, supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence. The typical three-part structure of a paragraph is as follows:

**1.Introduction:** including a topic sentence and transition words. The introduction of an academic paper is usually 1-2 paragraphs long – longer for longer papers with more background information. In general, your introduction should do the following things:

**a) Gain the immediate attention of the audience**

Here are some (but not all) of the ways to start an interesting and relevant introduction:

- Short anecdote that leads to your topic or Surprising statement/fact that relates to your topic.
- Quotation from a famous person or expert that introduces your topic.
- Brief and interesting historical review of your topic Statement which stresses the importance of your topic.
- Contradiction – someone else’s opinion (opposite of yours) about your topic.
- Do NOT be boring! Use the first sentence (often called the «hook sentence») to hook the readers’ interest.
- Do NOT be too general! Immediately dive into your specific topic; don’t waste space with a general introduction of the entire subject area. Remember that your audience is familiar with the subject area. And never start with the origins of humankind: «*Since the beginning of history*»! Do NOT begin with your thesis idea! Use the introduction to build up to your thesis statement, so it comes with a little tension.

**b) Provide any necessary background information or definition of any terms**

- Give only the history, facts, or definitions that readers will need to understand your topic and thesis. Keep in mind what the audience already knows.
- Use facts/statistics to show the problem if necessary.
- Avoid dictionary and encyclopedia definitions if possible and explain in your own words what the important concepts in your paper mean.
- Use source information to provide background information, but not to answer the research question or give your opinion.
- Make sure that the readers now know enough to follow your paper, but not too much that they have lost the focus of your paper.

**c) Briefly introduce the main points (sections) of the paper**

In academic writing, the writer lets the reader know what to expect. Provide a brief overview of your paper's main points.

- Do NOT support or try to prove these points.
- Do not go into depth. Do NOT just write a one-sentence list of your points.

You can't summarize a great idea in one word.

**d) Have a thesis statement (often the last sentence).**

This guide has covered the thesis statement already, but because it's the most important sentence of your paper, we'll go over it again. In the thesis,

- Answer the research question in a clear, straightforward statement. Or make sure the purpose and point of view of your paper are clear.
- Do NOT write a long, wordy, confusing thesis statement (especially do not try to include all of your main points).
- Do NOT announce your intentions. Avoid "This paper will prove..." or "I'm going to write about..." Don't tell the audience what you are going to do; just do it.

**2. Body (supporting sentences):** discussing, elaborating and explaining the main thesis, using various forms of evidence. Body paragraphs can be written in many ways, depending on your purpose. However, each paragraph should have ONE point which supports the thesis statement. Most body paragraphs will have:

**Topic Sentence.**

Usually, but not always, the first sentence of the paragraph. If it's not the first sentence, it should be very clear which sentence is the topic sentence.

It introduces the paragraph's main idea, makes your point about this idea, and relates to the thesis statement.

The topic sentence connects to the previous paragraph. The topic sentence is NOT a fact. It has a point of view. The topic sentence is NOT something from a source. It is your idea. Every sentence in the paragraph will support this topic sentence.

**Explanation of topic sentence**

The sentence(s) after the topic sentence often further describe the main idea of the paragraph.

**Support**

The topic sentence is supported by supporting points, details, and explanations, often presented in sandwiches. A body paragraph could have one to several sandwiches, depending on how long and in-depth the detail is.

Supporting points are the ideas that support the main point of the paragraph. These can be written in your own words and then supported by details.

Specific details are very important to show the readers that your ideas are valid.

When using facts, examples, studies, experts' opinions, etc. be as specific as possible. Use the expert's names and professions. Use names, places, dates and other specific information about examples. Include numbers and dates. For scientific studies, explain a little about how the study was done. Use vivid descriptions to make the details clear to the readers.

Make sure the details are relevant to your point. A common mistake is including misunderstood source information that does not actually support the student's point.

Remember that one example does not prove something. Use more than one example or source in a paragraph.

Check with your instructor if you can also include your own personal experience as a detail.

Clear and complete explanations are very important because the readers are expecting you to explain everything to them. The readers do not expect to have to think too hard. So explain why/how the details support the topic sentence, and thus the thesis.

Your explanation should not just repeat the source material, but rather interpret and analyze it.

Your explanation should not simply repeat your thesis or topic sentence, but rather explain how the source material supports those ideas. Do NOT rely on sources too much. It's YOUR paragraph, so it should contain your ideas about the topic as well.

Make sure all your support has a logical order and good connections.

### **Concluding sentence.**

The last sentence should review the body paragraph, emphasize the point and/or thesis again, or prepare the reader for the next body paragraph.

Do NOT end the paragraph with a source citation. End with your own idea.

### ***A final, important guideline about body paragraphs:***

#### **No long body paragraphs!**

It is difficult for readers to stay focused on long blocks of text.  $\frac{3}{4}$  of a page is generally as long as a paragraph should be. If your paragraph is much longer, find a logical way to divide it into two body paragraphs.

### **3. Conclusion (concluding sentence):** commenting and drawing connections.

The conclusion may be the shortest paragraph, but it's also the most important because this is what the reader will remember. A conclusion usually does these things:

#### **a) Connect to the last sentence of the previous paragraph**

Use an advanced style. In conclusion, to summarize, at the end are rather boring and typical although they will work. Try to be more sophisticated by repeating or connecting ideas in another way.

#### **b) Summarize the findings of your paper. Remind the readers of the paper's main ideas and wrap up your argument.**

Restate the thesis in different words/phrases.

Briefly summarize the main points of your paper. Again, say these in a different way, so readers are not bored by repetition of the same sentences and phrases.

Use your own thoughts, not your sources'. The place for source support was in the body paragraphs, not the conclusion.

Do NOT write any new information, points, or support in the conclusion.

#### **c) Show the significance of your findings**

Explain why your paper is important – What does it mean? What does it solve? What does it say about your topic? What does it show about the future of your topic? What should the readers take away from your paper?

#### **d) End with a strong, memorable concluding statement(s).**

Also known as the "Wow statement," the last sentence(s) of your paper should make your readers say, "I'm glad I read this paper." There are several ways to do this:

- End with the significance of your paper, as described above.
- Relate your conclusion to the hook sentence(s) from your introduction. This can be a very effective way of wrapping up your paper.
- End with an idea for the reader to think about – a prediction or recommendation perhaps.
- Do NOT ask a question that leaves the reader uncertain. The purpose of academic writing is not to confuse the reader, but to enlighten the reader.
- Do NOT be too general. Stay focused on your specific topic.
- DO NOT be too shocking, unbelievable, sweet, or obvious. How to connect paragraphs?

### **Cohesion within paragraphs.**

No doubts that academic papers should have a clear organizational structure, throughout your paper, you need to show the readers how your ideas are connected between paragraphs and between sentences. Often this happens naturally as you write; however, sometimes you will need to make the connection clearer to the reader. Order your paragraphs so that each one follows logically on from the previous one. Text cohesion is the way the writing holds together, to make sense. Each sentence should relate to the other sentences in the paragraph. Here are a number of cohesive devices which assist in creating text cohesion:

- **transitions** which are usually one or several sentences that «transition» from one idea to the next. Transitions can be used at the end of most paragraphs to help the paragraphs flow one into the next.

- **transition words.** These words clearly state the relationship between two sentences. Here are some transitions; if you are not sure what a word means, look it up in a dictionary:

- to start – first, first of all, to begin with
- to add another idea – in addition, furthermore, also, moreover, what’s more to add a more important idea – more importantly, what’s worse, what’s more
- to add your last idea – finally, most of all, most importantly to contrast with the previous idea – however, nevertheless, on the other hand
- to show the result of the previous idea – therefore, thus, consequently, as a result
- to emphasize an idea – in fact, in particular to give an example of the previous idea – for instance, for example, to illustrate
- to show a time relationship between ideas – first, second, then, next, finally.

While they are very helpful, there are two big problems with using these words:

➤ Students overuse them. Too many transition words at the beginning of sentences can be annoying. Do NOT use a lot of transition words. One or two in a paragraph is enough.

➤ Students often use them incorrectly. Please see the box below about proper use of these words.

## USING TRANSITIONS

**Sentence. Transition, sentence. OR Sentence; transition, sentence.**  
**Transitions usually connect two sentences. Therefore, they will usually appear at the beginning of a complete sentence – after a period or semi colon.**

*The law does not stop teenagers from drinking therefore it is ineffective.*

WRONG

*The law does not stop teenagers from drinking, therefore it is ineffective.*

WRONG

*The law does not stop teenagers from drinking; therefore, it is ineffective.*

RIGHT!

*The law does not stop teenagers from drinking. Therefore, it is ineffective.*

RIGHT!

**Transitions must also be followed by a comma and a complete sentence!**

*Many organizations use English, for example, the UN, the EU, and NATO.*

WRONG

*Many organizations use English. For example, the UN, the EU, and NATO.*

WRONG

*Many organizations use English. For example, it is one of the official languages of the UN, the EU, and NATO.*

RIGHT!

### Cohesion across paragraphs.

There should also be cohesive links between the paragraphs. These alert the reader to the relationships between the points you present. The following series of paragraphs uses a basic list structure (a writing equivalent of 1, 2, 3...) This structure is very useful for grouping sections of text that develop a set of points. These paragraphs may then be set off against other sections of text (as in comparison).

#### **Billing** bytes received does have some flaws.

First, many network protocols send acknowledgments from the destination to the source, resulting in users who offer services to the network receiving bytes of data from the network that they did not request. Fortunately, acknowledgment packets are usually quite small. These bytes could be ignored, however, by network

#### **Topic sentences inbold**

##### Problem 1 (flaws)

*Text markers and reference words are in italics. These words orient the reader*

devices that can compute the total number of acknowledgments seen. Also, the organization that computes the bills can recognize the users who offer services to the network and possibly offer then a discount on their bills.

**Another problem with billing based on bytes received is that unsolicited network data, such as electronic mail, adds to the user's bill. This flaw can perhaps be overlooked because many users send and receive mail on the same order of magnitude. This might not be the case, however, when a user is on the mailing list and receives many mail messages. In this situation, the user is on the mailing list for a reason and their bill should reflect the receipt of this data as a result of this network service.**

**Still another possible imperfection in this billing method arises from each user receiving data from the network as the organization monitors it for management reasons, as illustrated in Fig. 6.5. ...**

*However, ...*

*through the text, clarifying the topic focus at each stage*

Problem 2(problem)

The subject repeated in a full but slightly altered form is in a box

Problem 3(imperfection)

The subject repeated but with a general word 'method' is in a box

### PART 3. ELEMENTS OF A PARAGRAPH

To be as effective as possible, a paragraph should contain each of the following:

*1) Unity*

*2) Coherence*

*3) A Topic Sentence*

*4) Adequate Development*

As you will see, all of these traits overlap. Using and adapting them to your individual purposes will help you construct effective paragraphs.

#### Unity

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

in a topic sentence, often the first sentence. The paragraph should have a logical structure so that all the sentences are connected and flow from the central theme. There are many types of paragraph structure. This is problem-solution.

### ***Coherence***

Coherence is the trait that makes the paragraph easily understandable to a reader. You can help create coherence in your paragraphs by creating *logical bridges* and *verbal bridges*.

#### ***Logical bridges***

- The same idea of a topic is carried over from sentence to sentence
- Successive sentences can be constructed in parallel form

#### ***Verbal bridges***

- Key words can be repeated in several sentences  
Synonymous words can be repeated in several sentences
- Pronouns can refer to nouns in previous sentences
- Transition words can be used to link ideas from different sentences

### ***A topic sentence***

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

### ***Adequate development***

The topic (which is introduced by the topic sentence) should be discussed fully and adequately. Again, this varies from paragraph to paragraph, depending on the

author's purpose, but writers should be wary of paragraphs that only have two or three sentences. It's a pretty good bet that the paragraph is not fully developed if it is that short. A paragraph has to have enough information in it to justify being a paragraph! It should consist of a main point that is then further elaborated on. Some possible development models include:

- expansion – the point is further defined or broken down and analysed or reframed for clarification
- illustration – examples or scenarios are given
- evidence – research-based or sometimes experience-based support for the point
- application – how this can then operate in practice. There may also be a sentence which comments on the material or relates the expanded point back to main topic of that section of the writing.

<p><b>Topic sentence (expressing the “problem”) →</b></p> <p><i>Expansion of point →</i></p> <p>Evidence/ support →</p> <p><u>Solution</u> →</p>	<p><b>The emphasis of the criminal justice system has until recently been on the battle between the offender/ defendant and the state/ prosecutor and not the actual harm experienced by the victim.</b></p> <p><i>In Fact victims have had minimal participation in the criminal justice process; their role being primarily to provide information to the state prosecutor with no involvement in prosecution and sentencing. McShane and Williams (1992, p. 260) contend that «victim neglect is not simply a result of indifference, it is a logical extension of a legal system which defines crime as an offence against the state».</i></p> <p><u>They argue that this neglect can be remedied by training of personnel within the criminal justice system and through victim support services.</u></p>
--	--

### **Some methods to make sure your paragraph is well-developed**

- Use examples and illustrations
- Cite data (facts, statistics, evidence, details, and others)
- Examine testimony (what other people say such as quotes and paraphrases)
- Use an anecdote or story
- Define terms in the paragraph
- Compare and contrast

- Evaluate causes and reasons
- Examine effects and consequences
- Analyze the topic
- Describe the topic
- Offer a chronology of an event (time segments).

### **When to start a new paragraph?**

A new paragraph should be started when:

- ***When you begin a new idea or point.*** New ideas should always start in new paragraphs. If you have an extended idea that spans multiple paragraphs, each new point within that idea should have its own paragraph.

- ***To contrast information or ideas.*** Separate paragraphs can serve to contrast sides in a debate, different points in an argument, or any other difference.

- ***When your readers need a pause.*** Breaks between paragraphs function as a short «break» for your readers – adding these in will help your writing be more readable. You would create a break if the paragraph becomes too long or the material is complex.

- ***When you are ending your introduction or starting your conclusion.*** Your introductory and concluding material should always be in a new paragraph. Many introductions and conclusions have multiple paragraphs depending on their content, length, and the writer's purpose.

#### ***Example of an Academic Paragraph:***

*1) Topic Sentence – 2) Support Sentences – 3) Concluding Sentence*

1) A number of problems associated with the traditional routines of handover practices. 2) Baldwin and McGinnis find that many handovers are unnecessarily lengthy which means that there is an unacceptable period of time during each shift when nurses are not available in the ward or unit. Another area that has received attention is the content and presentation of handover information. Wills observes that «an unprofessional approach has been noted among some nurses, with derogatory comments about patients or their families». Lastly, there is the issue of what information nurses actually pass on during the handover. It appears that:

2) Nurses frequently report on their own activities over the shift rather than providing patient centred information. Information obtained from discussions with relatives is rarely relayed onto other nursing staff, and of the patient information

reported, most is described from a medical perspective rather than focusing on the discussion of nursing related information.

3) Thus, many serious problems have been identified in traditional handover practices, which may reflect on the professional standing of nurses in this profession.

***Exercise 1. The sentences below form a paragraph, but have been mixed up. Use the table to rewrite the sentences in the correct order.***

- a) The Romans were the first people to build a bridge near the position of today's Tower Bridge.
- b) London has been the English capital for over 1,000 years.
- c) Over 500 years ago the area below the bridge had become a major river port for ships trading with Europe.
- d) Its dominance is due to its strategic site near the lowest crossing point of the River Thames.
- e) For many centuries it has been the centre of the country's economic, cultural and social life.

1. Topic	
2. Restatement	
3. Reason	
4. Example	

***Exercise 2. Divide the following text into paragraphs. Remember that each paragraph should develop a particular theme.***

### **How to stop yourself snoring**

Snoring is caused when the airway at the back of the nose and throat becomes partially obstructed. This is usually due to the loosening of the surrounding oropharyngeal muscles, but the reasons why this should occur are varied. The most common are smoking, obesity and the consumption of relaxants such as alcohol and sleeping pills. As with any common ailment, there are a host of «miracle» cures advertised - but you should first try a few simple steps to see if you can halt the snoring before adopting more drastic measures. Lifestyle changes can be the most effective. If you are overweight, a loss of weight will help to reduce the pressure on your neck. You should also stop smoking and try not to drink alcohol at least four hours before you go to bed. Beyond this, try to change your regular sleeping position. Raise the head of

your bed with a brick, or tie something uncomfortable into the back of your pyjamas to encourage you to sleep on your side. Both of these will help to alter the angle of your throat as you sleep, and may thus make breathing easier for you. It is also important to keep your nasal passage clear and unblocked. Allergies, colds and hay fever can temporarily cause you to snore; nasal decongestants may help, but you are not advised to use such remedies for long periods. Nasal strips, as worn by sportspeople, have been proven to reduce nasal airway resistance by up to 30 per cent, so consider these as a long-term alternative. If this fails, then you may wish to look at the varied snoring aids that are on the market. They range from neck collars that stop your neck tilting, through to mandibular-advancement devices (such as gumshields) which reduce upper airway resistance, and tongue-retaining devices. You can also buy essential-oil products that are added to warm water and infused or consumed before bedtime. They claim to tone up your palate and unblock your nasal passage. Finally, if your symptoms persist, visit your GP or contact the British Snoring and Sleep Apnoea Association (01737 557 997) for advice. If you do not, your partner might.

***Exercise 3. Look at the following text about growing cotton in India. The paragraphs have not been printed in the correct order. Arrange the paragraphs in the correct order. Remember that the topic of one paragraph should follow logically from the topic of the last paragraph and should lead on to the topic of the next paragraph.***

Pesticide suicide

Most of the farmers are extremely poor. Attracted by cheap loans from pesticides traders and the prospect of a quick buck, they borrowed heavily to raise cotton on small plots of land.

According to the Ministry of Agriculture, the crop losses and destruction in Andhra Pradesh arose from the repeated application of excessive amounts of chemicals – a practice actively encouraged by pesticides traders.

The suicide of Samala Mallaiah in Nagara village grabbed media headlines. He owned one acre of land, leased two more and grew cotton on all three. After making a loss in the first year, he leased yet more land in an attempt to recover. Confronted with falling prices, mounting debts and pest attacks, he committed *harakiri*. ‘Cotton has given us shattered dreams,’ said one old farmer in Nagara village.

As many as 60,000 small farmers in the region of Andhra Pradesh, southern

India, have taken to farming cotton instead of food crops. Some 20 of them have recently committed suicide by eating lethal doses of pesticide. Whitefly, boll weevils and caterpillars multiplied and destroyed their crops, despite the constant application of pesticides. The average yield of cotton fields in Andhra Pradesh fell by more than half in just one year. Now the farmers are in no position to repay the loans or feed their families.

Nearly half the pesticides used in India go into protecting cotton, the most important commercial crop in the country. However, pests have shown increased immunity to a range of pesticides. Last year there were heavy crop losses due to leaf-curl, which is caused by the dreaded whitefly. This nondescript, milky-white fly sucks sap from the cotton leaves, making them curl and dry up. The fly struck first in Pakistan and north-western India. Then it turned south.

***Exercise 3. In each paragraph, two sentences break the rule of unity. Find these irrelevant sentences, and cross them out.***

### **Paragraph 1**

#### ***California***

1. California is a state with every type of geography. 2. It has mountains where you can enjoy the winter sports of skiing, snowboarding, and snowshoeing. 3. It has deserts where temperatures can reach of 43°C in the summer. 4. It has beaches where you can surf, swim, and fish. 5. It has forests where the world's tallest trees grow. 6. Finally, it has farmland where a lot of the nation's fruits and vegetables grow. 7. California also has Hollywood and Disneyland, which are world-famous centers of entertainment. 8. California is a popular place to live, so many people move there every year. 9. Indeed, California has it all: mountains, deserts, beaches, and farms.

### **Paragraph 2**

#### ***Nurses***

1. A nurse should have at least five characteristics. 2. First, he or she must be a caring person. 3. He or she must have genuine concern about sick, injured, frightened people. 4. Second, a nurse must be organized. 5. If a nurse forgets to give a patient his or her medicine on time, the consequences could be serious. 6. Third, a nurse must be

calm. 7. He or she may have to make a life and death decision in an emergency, and a calm person makes better decisions than an excitable one. 8. Doctors need to stay calm in emergencies, too. 9. In addition, a nurse should be physically strong because nursing requires a lot of hard physical work. 10. Finally, a nurse must be intelligent enough to learn subjects ranging from chemistry to psychology and to operate the complex machinery used in hospitals today. 11. There is a shortage of nurses today, so they earn good salaries. 12. In brief, nursing is a profession for people who are caring, organized, calm, strong, and smart.

***Exercise 4. Divide the following paragraph into six shorter paragraphs.***

Ask any non-native speaker (NNS) of English which language is simpler English, or their own mother tongue, and they will invariably say that their own language is more complex. Ask any native English teacher the same question, and they will say ‘English’. So is the complexity of a language more linked to national pride or objective factors? It is interesting that complexity is also often considered as something positive rather than negative: the more something is difficult the better, in some inexplicable way, it is. English is simpler, NNSs say, because you say, for example, I want, you want, we want, they want, I wanted, you wanted etc., with only the third person in the present causing any irregularity. Whereas in many other languages each person has its own ending throughout the tense system. But is this a matter of complexity, or simply of memory? Once you’ve memorized the endings system of verbs in for example, Greek, Italian or German, there is little difficulty in their actual use. In English the opposite seems to be true – tenses are easy to form but their actual use is far more subtle. How many English teachers, let alone students, can explain clearly the difference between I will do, I am doing, I am going to do, I will be doing, I am going to be doing, I will have done and I will have been doing? Some of these future tenses don’t even exist in most other languages. Another reason that NNSs use in their justification of English being simpler because it is written in nice short sentences. Actually, English is written in nice short sentences only because most people have made a conscious decision to write like that because they know their ideas will be communicated better if they do so. There are even organizations in Britain and the US whose revenues depend exclusively on making their clients’ English clearer and more concise. But legal English, for example, is just as complicated as legal Arabic, Russian, Japanese or Hindi, perhaps because British and American lawyers want to hold on to their jobs just as much as their counterparts

overseas – only they are the ones who should be able to interpret each other’s deliberately contorted legalese. It is often claimed that the non-complex nature of English is also due to the fact that the same word, for instance *get*, is used in hundreds of ways. *get* in fact can be combined with almost every preposition and adverb to give another meaning, but many of these meanings can also be rendered with another, often Latin-derived (and therefore more formal) verb. English has an inbuilt capacity to be formal or informal depending on the choice of word – and English has a lot more words to choose from than the majority of other languages. But these examples of simplicity are often in NNS’s eyes evidence of the inferiority of English; as indeed are the complexities, for example the near total lack of correspondence between the way a word is spelt in English and the way it is pronounced (e.g. *though*, *one*, *business*). But this means that many other languages are unable to indulge in the word games the English are so particularly fond of: *The Beatles* for example is a mix of *beetles* (i.e. the insect) and *beat* (i.e. rhythm). A language should not be judged on how simple or complex it is, but on how expressive it is. English commands a vaster vocabulary and a far wider range of tenses than most other tongues. Other languages may have a much more flexible word order / sentence structure than English, and may even sound more eloquent and beautiful than English. At the end of the day, however, the average university-educated speaker, whether mother tongue English or not, knows about 25,000 words in their own language, and is equally capable as being as literate or as illiterate as they like.

**Exercise 5. Write a topic sentence for each of the following paragraphs.**

1.

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Green curry is the hottest Thai curry. People who like very spicy food will enjoy green curry. Red curry is medium hot. It is flavorful, but it doesn't burn your mouth. Yellow curry is the mildest of all. It is usually the choice of people who eat Thai food for the first time. In short, you have three delicious choices when you order Thai curry.

2.

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First, good teachers know their subject very well. That is, a math teacher has advanced education in mathematics, and an English teacher is an expert in English

grammar. Second, good teachers must be good communicators. Being a good communicator means presenting information in ways that students can understand. Third, good teachers are enthusiastic. That is, they are so interested in their subject that they make it fun to learn. To summarize, good teachers have expert knowledge, good communication skills, and contagious enthusiasm.

**Exercise 5. Write a concluding sentence for the following paragraphs.**

**Paragraph 1**

Goldfish have three characteristics that make them good pets. First of all, goldfish are very quiet. They don't bark, howl, meow, chirp, squawk, creech, race around the house at night while you and your neighbors are trying to sleep. Second, they are economical. You can buy a goldfish at your local pet store for about 50¢, and a small bowl for it costs less than \$3.00. Water is practically free. Also, they eat only a pinch of dried fish food daily, so their food bill is quite low. Third, goldfish are very well behaved. They don't have teeth, so they can't chew your furniture or bite your guests. They don't ever go outside, so they can't dig holes in your garden. In addition, you don't have to spend hours teaching them commands, such as "Sit!" or "Lie down!"

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**Paragraph 2**

The island nation of Singapore, the smallest nation in Asia, is one of the best cities in the world to live in and to visit. First of all, Singapore is a very safe city. It has a very low crime rate. Citizens and tourists alike can walk the streets at night without fear. Also, Singapore is very clean. The nation has very strong antilittering laws, so there is almost no litter anywhere. Third, Singaporeans come from many different racial, ethnic, and religious backgrounds, but they live together in peace. Finally, Singapore's economy is one of the healthiest in Asia, so its people enjoy a very high standard of living.

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***Exercise 6. The sentences below have been mixed up. Attempt to put them in the correct order.***

- (1) These had been developed to allow higher-risk poorer families to buy their own homes, but contributed to a property price bubble.
- (2) Many economists now argue that there is a maximum level of home ownership that should not be exceeded.
- (3) All these claims were challenged by the economic crash of 2008, which was in large part caused by defaults on American sub-prime mortgages.
- (4) Even households that had positive equity still felt poorer and reduced their spending.
- (5) Others were trapped in their houses by negative equity, in other words their houses were worth less than they had paid for them.
- (6) When this burst, millions of people lost their homes, which for many had contained their savings.

**Check yourself**

- 1) What is a paragraph?
- 2) What are the main rules of paragraphing?
- 3) Name the main points of a paragraph structure.
- 4) What is a topic sentence? Tell about its distinctive features.
- 5) Name the basic distinctive features
- 6) What is cohesion? Which cohesive devices do you know?
- 7) Which principal elements should a paragraph possess?
- 8) When do we normally start a new paragraph?
- 9) What are the strategies to make a paragraph more developed?

## UNIT 4. WRITING AN ABSTRACT

### PART 1. THE CHARACTERISTIC OF AN ABSTRACT

An abstract is a concise summary of a research paper or entire thesis. They're often found at the front of dissertations, theses, or journal articles. It is an original work, not an excerpted passage. The word abstract comes from the Latin «*abstractum*», which means a condensed form of a longer piece of writing. An abstract must be fully self-contained and make sense by itself, without further reference to outside sources or to the actual paper. It highlights key content areas, your research purpose, the relevance or importance of your work, and the main outcomes. It is a well-developed single paragraph of approximately 250 words in length, which is indented and single spaced. The function of the abstract is to outline briefly all parts of the paper. Although it is placed at the beginning of your paper, immediately following the title page, the abstract should be the last thing that you write, once you are sure of the conclusions you will reach.

The abstract should give the reader enough information about your research to make them recognise its significance and assess whether it is relevant to the particular area they are researching. It is important to consider the inclusion and use of particular keywords in an abstract to ensure there is a very quick way to identify relevant material in your work.

Abstract writing is an art to develop; and believe us, with a brief to write no more than 250 words for each page of this resource, we all need to keep practising the skill of effective summary.

#### **The reasons to write an abstract**

You may write an abstract for various reasons. The two most important are selection and indexing. Abstracts allow readers who may be interested in a longer work to quickly decide whether it is worth their time to read it. Also, many online databases use abstracts to index larger works. Therefore, abstracts should contain keywords and phrases that allow for easy searching. Abstracts are important for both *selection* and *indexing purposes*.

**Selection:** Abstracts allow readers who may be interested in the paper to quickly decide whether it is relevant to their purposes and whether they need to read the whole paper.

**Indexing:** Besides selection, the other main purpose of the abstract is for indexing. Most article databases in the online catalog of the library enable you to search abstracts. This allows for quick retrieval by users and limits the extraneous items recalled by a “full-text” search. However, for an abstract to be useful in an online retrieval system, it must incorporate the key terms that a potential researcher would use to search.

Abstracts are usually required for:

- submission of articles to journals, especially online journals application for research grants;
- completion and submission of Ph.D. dissertation or M.A. thesis submission of proposals for conference papers;
- writing a book proposal;

### **The features of a good abstract**

An effective abstract:

- uses one or more well-developed paragraphs, which are unified, coherent, concise, and able to stand alone.
- uses an **introduction-body-conclusion** structure in which the parts of the report are discussed in order: purpose, findings, conclusions, recommendations
- follows strictly the chronology of the report
- provides logical connections between material included
- adds no new information but simply summarizes the report
- is intelligible to a wide audience

### **The steps to to write an abstract**

1. Reread your report with the purpose of abstracting in mind. Look specifically for these main parts: purpose, methods, scope, results, conclusions, and recommendations. Then read each section and condense the information in each down to 1-2 sentences.

2. Next read these sentences again to ensure that they cover the major points in your paper. Ensure you have written something for each of the key points outlined above for either the descriptive or informative abstract.

3. Write a rough draft without looking back at your report. Consider the main parts of the abstract listed in step 1. Do not merely copy key sentences from your report. You will put in too much or too little information. Do not summarize information in a new way.

4. Revise your rough draft to;

- Correct weaknesses in organization and coherence,
- Drop superfluous information,
- Add important information originally left out,
- Eliminate wordiness
- Correct errors in grammar and mechanics.
- Edit for flow and expression

5. Carefully proofread your final copy.

As your abstract is an important way to promote your work it is worth taking time to write it well. You will likely have to revise several drafts to produce a precise, concise outline of your paper which is clear, complete, includes key search terms and fits within the word limit.

### **The things to be includes in an abstract**

The format of your abstract will depend on the work being abstracted. An abstract of a scientific research paper will contain elements not found in an abstract of a literature article, and vice versa. However, all abstracts share several mandatory components, and there are also some optional parts that you can decide to include or not. When preparing to draft your abstract, keep the following **key process elements** in mind:

1. **Reason for writing**: What is the importance of the research? Why would a reader be interested in the larger work?

2. **Problem**: What problem does this work attempt to solve? What is the scope of the project? What is the main argument, thesis or claim?

3. **Methodology**: An abstract of a scientific work may include specific models or approaches used in the larger study. Other abstracts may describe the types of evidence used in the research.

4. **Results**: An abstract of a scientific work may include specific data that indicates the results of the project. Other abstracts may discuss the findings in a more general way.

5. **Implications**: How does this work add to the body of knowledge on the topic? Are there any practical or theoretical applications from your findings or implications for future research?

The importance given to the different components can vary between disciplines.

You should look at abstracts of research that are similar to your own work as models.

**A simplified universally accepted** format of an abstract is as follows:

**1. Introduction/aim/background/topic.** Phrase it in one sentence what is your topic, and why you are writing the paper, making it easy for the reader to understand where you are taking them. Remember your audience is your peer reviewers, and ultimately others interested in your field of research.

**2. Methods/approach/materials.** Preferably in as few sentences explain how you conducted the research. Succinctly explain what kind of experiments were involved, or was it a case series? Don't overdo it, and be liberal in omitting unnecessary details. Write sentences that can be read aloud without having to stop for breath.

**3. Results.** Let others know about the results, giving statistical substantiation. Keep it short and relevant.

**4. Conclusions.** Summarise the deduction of your research and its relevance for future. Your conclusion should be able to answer how useful it could be for others in their practice and enhance their knowledge as well.

## **PART 2. TYPES OF ABSTRACTS**

Abstracts can be *informative* and *descriptive*.

**Descriptive abstracts** describe the work being abstracted. They are more like an outline of the work and are usually very short – 100 words or less. Descriptive abstracts are generally used for humanities and social science papers or psychology essays. This type of abstract is usually very short (50-100 words). Most descriptive abstracts have certain key parts in common. They are:

- background (tell what the report contains);
- purpose, methods, scope, but NOT results, conclusions and recommendations (you introduce subject to readers, who must then read the report to learn study results);
- particular interest or focus of paper overview of contents (not always included).

**Informative abstracts** act as substitutes for the actual papers as all the key arguments and conclusions are presented; specifically, the context and importance of the research, reasons for methods, principal results and conclusions. Informative abstracts are generally used for science, engineering or psychology reports. You must get the essence of what your report is about, usually in about 200 words. Most

informative abstracts also have key parts in common. Each of these parts might consist of 1-2 sentences. The parts include:

- background (contents of reports)
- aim or purpose of research
- method used
- findings/results
- conclusion
- recommendations

The table below summarises the main features of, as well as the differences between, the two types of abstracts discussed above. In both types of abstract, your lecturer/tutor may require other specific information to be included.

<b>Descriptive abstract</b>	<b>Informative abstract</b>
Describes the major points of the project to the reader.	Informs the audience of all essential points of the paper.
Includes the background, purpose and focus of the paper or article, but never the methods, results and conclusions, if it is a research paper.	Briefly summarises the background, purpose, focus, methods, results, findings and conclusions of the full-length paper.
Is most likely used for humanities and social science papers or psychology essays.	Is concise, usually 10% of the original paper length, often just one paragraph.  Is most likely used for sciences, engineering or psychology reports.

### **Samples of abstracts**

Here are two abstracts with the key parts identified. The **Descriptive abstract** (1) is for a humanities paper and the **Informative abstract** (2) for a psychology report.

### Model descriptive abstract

Abstract (Stevenson, 2004)	Key Parts
<p>The opportunity to design and deliver short programs on referencing and avoiding plagiarism for transnational UniSA students has confirmed the necessity of combating both the ‘all-plagiarism-is-cheating’ reaction and the ‘just-give-them-a-referencing-guide’ response. The notion of referencing is but the tip of a particularly large and intricate iceberg. Consequently, teaching referencing is not adequate in educating students to avoid plagiarism. In this presentation, I will use the transnational teaching experience to highlight what educating to avoid plagiarism entails.</p>	<p>background</p> <p>purpose and aim</p> <p>particular focus of paper</p>

### Model informative abstract

Abstract (Zoltan, 2005)	Key Parts
<p>Metalinguistic awareness contributes to effective writing at university. Writing is a meaning-making process where linguistic, cognitive, social and creative factors are at play. University students need to master the skills of academic writing not only for getting their degree but also for their future career. It is also significant for lecturers to know who our students are, how they think and how we can best assist them. This study examines first-year undergraduate Australian and international engineering students as writers of academic texts in a multicultural setting at the University of Adelaide. A questionnaire and interviews were used to collect data about students’ level of metalinguistic awareness, their attitudes toward, expectations for, assumptions about and motivation for writing. The preliminary results of the research</p>	<p>background</p> <p>purpose and aim</p> <p>methods</p> <p>results</p>

show that students from different cultures initially have different concepts about the academic genres and handle writing with different learning and writing styles, but those with a more developed metalanguage are more confident and motivated. The conclusion can also be drawn that students’	conclusions
level of motivation for academic writing positively correlates with their opinion about themselves as writers. Following an in-depth multi-dimensional analysis of preliminary research results, some recommendations for writing instruction will also be presented.	

### **Difference between an abstract and an introduction**

Students are sometimes confused about the difference between an abstract and an introduction. In fact, they are different pieces of writing with different aims and key parts. The following table will briefly describe these differences in the case of a research paper.

<b>Abstract</b>	<b>Introduction</b>
The essence of the whole paper	Introduces the paper
Covers the following academic elements: - background - purpose and focus - methods - results (also called ‘findings’) - conclusions - recommendations (or ‘implications’, not always relevant)	Covers the following academic elements: -background -purpose -proposition (also called ‘point ofview’ or ‘thesis’ statement) -outline of key issues -scope (not always relevant)
Summarises briefly the whole paper including the conclusions	Introduces the paper and foregrounds issues for discussion

### **PART 3. THE KEY ELEMENTS OF ALL ABSTRACTS**

The key elements of all abstracts are:

- A full citation of the source, preceding the abstract.
- The most important information first.
- The same type and style of language found in the original, including technical language.
- Key words and phrases that quickly identify the content and focus of the work.
- Clear, concise, and powerful language.

#### **Abstracts may include:**

- The thesis of the work, usually in the first sentence.
- Background information that places the work in the larger body of literature.
- The same chronological structure as the original work.

#### **How not to write an abstract:**

- Do not refer extensively to other works.
- Do not add information not contained in the original work.
- Do not define terms.

#### **If you are abstracting your own writing**

When abstracting your own work, it may be difficult to condense a piece of writing that you have agonized over for weeks (or months, or even years) into a 250-word statement. There are some tricks that you could use to make it easier, however.

#### **Reverse outlining**

This technique is commonly used when you are having trouble organizing your own writing. The process involves writing down the main idea of each paragraph on a separate piece of paper. For the purposes of writing an abstract, try grouping the main ideas of each section of the paper into a single sentence. Practice grouping ideas using webbing or colour coding.

For a scientific paper, you may have sections titled **Purpose, Methods, Results, and Discussion**. Each one of these sections will be longer than one paragraph, but each is grouped around a central idea. Use reverse outlining to discover the central idea in each section and then distill these ideas into one statement.

## **Cut and paste**

To create a first draft of an abstract of your own work, you can read through the entire paper and cut and paste sentences that capture key passages. This technique is useful for social science research with findings that cannot be encapsulated by neat numbers or concrete results. A well-written humanities draft will have a clear and direct thesis statement and informative topic sentences for paragraphs or sections. Isolate these sentences in a separate document and work on revising them into a unified paragraph.

### **If you are abstracting someone else's writing**

When abstracting something you have not written, you cannot summarize key ideas just by cutting and pasting. Instead, you must determine what a prospective reader would want to know about the work. There are a few techniques that will help you in this process:

#### **Identify key terms**

Search through the entire document for key terms that identify the purpose, scope, and methods of the work. Pay close attention to the Introduction (or Purpose) and the Conclusion (or Discussion). These sections should contain all the main ideas and key terms in the paper. When writing the abstract, be sure to incorporate the key terms. Using keywords is a vital part of abstract writing, because of the practice of retrieving information electronically: keywords act as the search term. Use keywords that are specific, and that reflect what is essential about the paper.

#### **Highlight key phrases and sentences**

Instead of cutting and pasting the actual words, try highlighting sentences or phrases that appear to be central to the work. Then, in a separate document, rewrite the sentences and phrases in your own words.

#### **Don't look back**

After reading the entire work, put it aside and write a paragraph about the work without referring to it. In the first draft, you may not remember all the key terms or the results, but you will remember what the main point of the work was. Remember not to include any information you did not get from the work being abstracted.

## Practical tasks

**Exercise 1.** *Read the following abstract and the title. Does the title convey well the content of the abstract? Try to reformulate it.*

### Output and Efficiency of the Closed-Cycle Gas Turbine

The paper considers the closed-cycle gas turbine plant from the educational aspect of knowledge and understanding. The special qualitative features of the T-s diagram are discussed and a quantitative treatment of a simple model is presented. A new expression for the maximum efficiency is given and interesting aspects of the results are discussed. Technical and educational conclusions are drawn from the work.

**Exercise 2.** *In which parts of the abstract can you find the following phrases?*

- a) Quite recently, considerable attention has been paid to .....
- b) X was computed with the finite difference formula .....
- c) The results show clearly that .....
- d) The issues related to ..... are briefly addressed .....
- e) X is in very good agreement with .....
- f) The comparison of numerical results with ..... confirms that .....
- g) The paper summarizes our knowledge of .....
- h) Progress has been made towards understanding .....
- i) Nevertheless, more experimental data are required.
- j) This paper presents .....
- k) The technique applied has confirmed that .....
- l) X and Y were compared.
- m) It can be concluded that .....

- 1) topic and background.....
- 2) method and approach.....
- 3) results .....
- 4) conclusion.....

### **Exercise 3.**

*Take five English journal abstracts in your field of study and compare their rhetorical structure with that described in this Unit. Make a list of similarities and differences in the form of a table. Present and discuss it with your partners in your group.*

**Exercise 4.** *Write an abstract on the topic of your research paper and present it in class.*

### **Check yourself**

- 1) Give a definition for an abstract.
- 2) Name the two main reasons for writing a paragraph.
- 3) What are the qualities of a good abstract?
- 4) Name the main steps of paragraph writing.
- 5) Which key elements does an abstract of a scientific research paper contain?
- 6) Which two types are abstracts divided into? Characterize each of them.
- 7) What is the difference between an abstract and an introduction?

**UNIT 5. WRITING AN ESSAY**  
**PART 5. THE WRITING PROCESS**

An essay is a group of paragraphs written about a single topic and a central main idea. It must have at least three paragraphs, but a five- paragraph essay is a common length for academic writing. Writing is a long and winding process. In managing this process, there are certain steps that you can take every time you begin an assignment. These steps will help to maximise your efforts. However, the steps outlined have general application for almost all essays that you will be given.

Table 1.4.

**Stages for writing essays**

Name of the stage	Characteristic of the given stage
<b>Think about topic</b>	It is essential that you interpret the topic correctly. This can be achieved by brainstorming to generate ideas, and then formulating a point of view, even if it is a very rough one. Some people have found that reading around the assignment topic, by looking up some of the key words in their course materials and textbooks or glancing through relevant readings in their study guide, is helpful in familiarising themselves with the question.
<b>Research topic</b>	Start your research by reading your study guide, text book, and lecture notes (if lectures are available). Then look in the library, or access the online catalogue, to see if there are other useful materials, but only look at information relevant to the topic. However, to do well in an assignment, it is not always necessary to have references outside your course materials. For 100 level papers, 3-5 references may be enough to do well, as long as you explain the ideas thoroughly and relate them effectively to the essay topic. Sometimes, course co-ordinators may specify the minimum number of references expected in the assignment instructions. Also, remember that you will be marked on what you write, not what you read. So try to look at everything you read in terms of whether it is worthy of summarising on paper. Simply writing

	something down in your own words will help clarify your understanding of the topic.
<b>Plan your essay</b>	Now that you have made notes and summaries on the essay topic, you should be in a much better position to decide on the type of position or argument you are going to back up or argue in your essay. With your argument in mind, write down the main points that support it. Make sure they are in complete sentences, and arrange them in the order that best supports your stance. These sentences can function as an essay plan. Each sentence represents a paragraph in your essay.
<b>Write your essay</b>	Remember, writing often does not come easily. Be patient and start with getting your ideas down on paper. After the first draft, you can work on refining them. If you have already made summaries and notes, the process of writing your essay may be easier. However, if you are having difficulty, try writing some headings that are relevant to the essay topic – perhaps they summarise each of the main points you want to make – or perhaps they are just words that have some relevance to the topic. Under each heading start summarising information from one book or study guide reading.
<b>Revise your essay</b>	Look over your essay to make sure that you have answered the essay question. Have you stuck to the topic? Have you left out anything vital? You may have to revise your essay several times before it effectively addresses the topic and question.
<b>Edit your essay</b>	You should check for errors (punctuation, spelling, grammar), bad sentence structure, jargon, slang etc. Is your presentation OK? Can it be improved? Is the referencing correct?

## Common Key Task Words in Assignments

**Account for:** To give reasons, explain why something has happened.

**Analyse:** To break the subject up into its main ideas, and evaluate them.

**Assess:** To judge the value of a subject critically.

**Comment on:** To discuss, explain, and give your opinion on the ideas expressed.

**Compare:** To show the similarities and differences between two or more subjects.

**Criticise:** To make your judgement about the views expressed and support your judgement with evidence.

**Define:** To give the meaning of a word term, distinguishing it from closely related subjects, sometimes by examples and illustrations.

**Describe:** To give a detailed account of the characteristics of a subject.

**Discuss:** To investigate and present the different aspects of a problem or subject and come to some conclusion.

**Evaluate:** To appraise or estimate the worth of something, to some extent an explained personal opinion.

**Examine:** To inquire into, and consider a problem carefully.

**Explain:** To account for a subject's character, causes, results, implications, etc., by clearly stating and interpreting the relevant details.

**Generate:** To propose new ideas or new interpretations of available subjects.

**Hypothesise:** To propose a supposition which can be used as a basis for testing conclusions.

**Illustrate:** To explain or clarify a problem using concrete examples, diagrams, or figures.

**Integrate:** To draw together in a logical related way two or more subjects not previously related.

**Interpret:** To explain the meaning of something, to make it clear and explicit, and to evaluate it in terms of your own knowledge.

**Justify:** To provide the reasons for your conclusions or for the statement made in the question.

**Outline:** To give the main features or general principles of a subject leaving out minor details.

**Prove:** To show the truth of a statement by argument, experiment, or test.

**Relate:** To establish the connection between one thing and another.

**Review:** To survey and critically examine a subject.

**State:** To describe the subject in precise terms, or set down an exact meaning.

**Summarise:** To make a concise account of the main ideas of a subject or argument, omitting explanatory details and examples.

### Essay Structure

All essays share the same basic structure, although they may differ in content and style. The essence of an essay is an opinion, expressed as a thesis statement or proposition, and a logical sequence of arguments and information organised in support of the proposition.

#### Essay Structure

Introduction =  
5% of the total  
paper

Opening sentences are broad and general, gradually focusing the reader onto the topic and finally onto the proposition.

**PROPOSITION:** Main idea of the essay, summarising the whole point of the essay.



Paragraph 1

First Supporting Statement (SS1)

Sentences developing SS1 (definition, explanation, evidence, illustration).

Paragraph 2

Supporting Statement (SS2)

Sentences developing SS2

Paragraph 3

Third Supporting Statement (SS3)

Sentences developing SS3

Narrow statement relating to the conclusion from the previous paragraph.

Argument  
Paragraphs

Conclusion =  
5-10 % of  
total paper

Summarising argument leading to final broad statement on the implications or significance of your argument.

## **PART 2. PLANS, INTRODUCTIONS AND THESIS STATEMENTS**

It is really important to plan your essay before you begin writing. Planning will save you time later. It is also essential that you have a starting point to plan from, even if it is in a very rough form. The thesis statement is the obvious place to start from as this is the answer to the essay question. From there you can decide what your essay's subtopics will be and what you want to say about them. After you have a basic idea of what you want to talk about, you can begin to write the essay. However, when writing an essay, it can also be difficult to come up with a point of view early on, at least until you have surveyed most of the literature. So, instead of developing a thesis statement early on, you may choose to read up on the assignment question and make notes on the relevant concepts, theories, and studies that support different points of view. Once you have been able to make these notes and develop a summary of the issues, you may then be in a far better position to write a thesis statement that accurately summarises the issue and takes into account any divergences in opinion and evidence from the literature. The notes you have already written will not go to waste because these can be the building blocks for your paragraphs that support your thesis statement. In fact, if you have made really good notes, you may only need a linking sentence between paragraphs to link your argument together in support of your thesis statement. Irrespective of the approach you use, it is important that you have a good structure to your essay. This begins with an introductory paragraph.

### **A thesis statement**

The **thesis statement** is the sentence that tells the main idea of the whole essay. It can be compared to a topic sentence, which gives the main idea of a paragraph. It usually comes at or near the end of the introductory paragraph.

### **Guidelines for writing a thesis statement**

Try to state the outcome of your analysis, rather than announcing your intention to investigate, as in the case of "this essay will," "this essay intends to," or "I will" statements.

- Make sure you are very specific.
- Make sure you are very clear.
- A thesis statement is brief, 1-2 sentences only.
- Make sure your claim is realistic so that your essay does not sound ridiculous, or fanciful.

- Ensure your thesis statement has some significance.
- A thesis statement generally does two things: it answers the essay question and provides a reason or explanation for the answer chosen.

### **Writing a strong thesis statement**

A thesis statement gives the author's opinion or states an important idea about the topic. It should give an idea that can be discussed and explained with supporting ideas:

***For example:***

*The qualifications for getting into university in my country are unreasonable.*

*When studying a foreign language, there are several ways to improve your use of the language.*

These are strong thesis statements. They can be discussed or explained.

A thesis statement should not be a sentence that only gives a fact about the topic:

***For example:***

*In the Northern Hemisphere, the summer months are warmer than the winter months.*

This is not a strong thesis statement. It cannot be discussed or argued about.

A thesis statement should not state two sides of an argument equally:

***For example:***

*There are advantages and disadvantages to using nuclear power.*

This could be a topic sentence, but it is not a thesis statement. It gives two sides of an argument without giving a clear opinion of support or disagreement. It could be revised like this:

***For example:***

*Although there are some advantages, using nuclear power has many disadvantages and should not be a part of our country's energy plan.*

This is a strong thesis statement. It clearly gives the writer's opinion about nuclear power.

### **Connection between the thesis statement and the essay**

The paragraphs in the main body of an essay should always explain the thesis statement.

In addition, each paragraph in the main body should discuss one part of the thesis. Look at the following thesis statement. The topics to be discussed are underlined:

*To create a successful advertisement, it is necessary for advertisers to answer three questions: What are we selling?, Who are we selling it to?, and How can we make people want to buy it?*

Possible topic sentences for each paragraph in the main body:

- The first step in creating a successful advertisement is to completely understand the product that is being sold and how it can be used.
- A second important part of creating an advertisement is deciding who is expected to buy the product.
- Finally, a way must be found to create an ad that will make people want to buy the product.

### **Paragraphs**

In order for your argument to come across clearly, it is essential that your paragraphs are well structured.

Generally, each paragraph should develop one idea only – referred to as the controlling idea. This idea can be summarised in a topic sentence, which may be the first sentence, although it can also be the last sentence of the previous paragraph. The controlling idea should be developed in the rest of the paragraph with relevant factual details, examples, explanations, definitions, or research data.

Try to ensure that you have no less than three sentences per paragraph.

Sentences within the paragraph should be well linked so connections between them are obvious. Be careful to avoid sentences that may be too long. Ideally, a sentence should be no longer than three lines.

Paragraphs should be arranged in a logical sequence and should also be well linked.

Connections can be made between sentences and between paragraphs by using signposts or transitional words and phrases to indicate change, comparison, or agreement.

### Highlighting a point

Importantly, ...  
More importantly, ...  
It is also important to highlight...

Indeed, ...  
Furthermore, ...

In fact, ...  
Moreover, ...

### Changing direction and creating comparisons

However, ...  
Nevertheless, ...  
Rather, ...  
Compared to...

In contrast, ...  
On the contrary, ...  
On one hand, ...  
In comparison, ...

Conversely, ...  
Unfortunately, ...  
On the other hand, ...  
Another perspective holds...

### Adding another point

In addition, ...  
Secondly, ...

Further, ...  
Thirdly, ...

Another point to consider is...  
Also, ...

### Adding a similar point

Similarly, ...

Likewise, ...

Again, ...

### Summarising

Finally, ...  
To conclude this...,  
In sum, ...

Lastly, ...  
To summarise, ...  
Overall, ...

In conclusion, ...  
In summary, ...  
The three main points are...

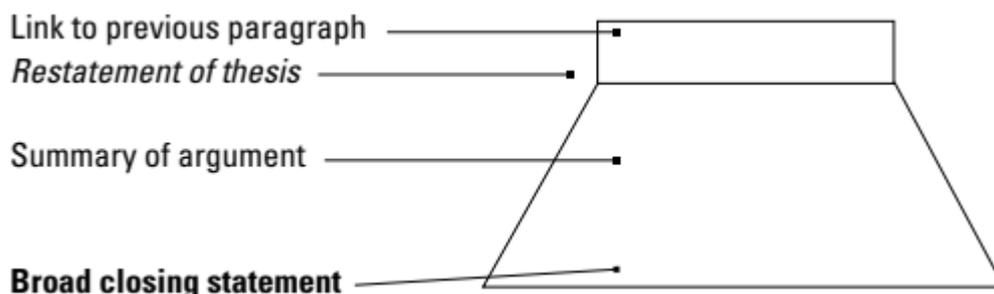
## Conclusions

Conclusions round off your essay. They remind the reader of all your main points and explain the significance of your argument.

The concluding paragraph of an essay should include:

- A narrow statement relating the conclusion to the preceding paragraph.
- A restatement of the proposition or thesis statement.
- A brief summary of the main points made in the essay.
- A final, broad statement on the significance of the argument, and, if appropriate, its implications.

Your conclusion should not just be a list of the points you have made.



## **How to format an essay**

1. Use double spacing (leave a blank line between each line of writing).
2. Leave 2.5 centimeters of space on the sides, and the top and bottom of the page. This space is called the margin.
3. If you type your essay, start the first line of each paragraph with five spaces (one tab). This is called *indenting*. If you write by hand, indent about 2 centimeters. Alternatively, paragraphs can begin at the left-hand margin with no indentation. However, you must then leave one line space between each paragraph.
4. Put the title of your essay at the top of the first page in the centre.

## **Writing an outline**

Before writing an outline, you must go through the usual process of gathering ideas, editing them, and deciding on a topic for your writing. Writing an outline can be a very useful way of organising your ideas and seeing how they will work together. To show how the ideas work together, number them. To avoid confusion, use several different types of numbers and letters to show the organisation of the ideas. Use Roman numerals (I, II, III, IV, V, VI, etc.) for your essay's main ideas: your introduction and thesis statement, your main body paragraphs, and your conclusion. Write these entire first, before going into more detail anywhere.

- I. Introduction
- II. First main idea
- III. Second main idea
- IV. Third main idea
- V. Conclusion

Next, fill in more information for the paragraphs in the main body by using capital Roman letters (A, B, C, etc.). Use one letter for each supporting idea in your main body paragraph. Complete this information for each paragraph in the main body before going into more detail.

- I. Introduction
- II. First main idea
  - A. First supporting point
  - B. Second supporting point ... and so on.

Finally, use Arabic numerals (1, 2, 3. etc.) to give details for your supporting points. Not every supporting point will have details, and some points will have several. It is not important to have the same number of details for every supporting point.

- I. Introduction
- II. First main idea
- C. First supporting point
  - 1. First detail
  - 2. Second detail
- D. Second supporting point
  - 1. First detail
  - 2. Second detail ... and so on.

It is common knowledge that most essay outlines will never be handed in. They are meant to serve you and no one else. Occasionally, your professor will ask you to hand in an outline weeks prior to handing in your paper. Usually, the point is to ensure that you are on the right track. Nevertheless, when you produce your outline, you should follow certain basic principles. Here is an example of an outline for an essay on *Hamlet*:

Thesis: Despite Hamlet’s highly developed moral nature, he becomes morally compromised while delaying his revenge.	
.	<b>Introduction:</b> Hamlet’s father asks Hamlet not only to seek vengeance but also to keep his mind untainted.
<b>I.</b>	Hamlet has a highly developed moral nature.
.	Hamlet is idealistic.
.	Hamlet is aware of his own faults, whereas others are self-satisfied.
.	Hamlet does not want to take revenge without grounds for acting.
<b>II.</b>	Hamlet becomes morally compromised while delaying.

	.	The turning point in Hamlet's moral decline is his killing of Polonius.
	.	Hamlet's moral decline continues when he sends Rosencrantz and Guildenstern to their death.
	.	Hamlet already began his moral decline before the turning point in the play, the killing of Polonius.
	.	Hamlet treats women badly.
	.	Hamlet criticizes others in the play for acting falsely to get ahead, but in adopting the disguise of madness he, too, is presenting a falseface to the world.
<b>III.</b>		Though Hamlet becomes more compromised the longer he delays, killing the king would have been a morally questionable act.
.		<b>Conclusion:</b> The play <i>Hamlet</i> questions the adequacy of a system of ethics based on honour and revenge.

This is an example of a sentence outline. Another kind of outline is the topic outline. It consists of fragments rather than full sentences. Topic outlines are more open-ended than sentence outlines: they leave much of the working out of the argument for the writing stage.

## Practical Tasks

**Exercise 1.** *Label the three parts of this essay: introduction, main body paragraphs, and conclusion.*

### Changing English: the African American Influence

*If you ask average Americans where their language comes from, they will probably say 'England'. However, English vocabulary has also been influenced by other countries and groups of people. Some words are borrowed from other languages, such as typhoon, which originally came from the Chinese word, 'tai-fung', meaning 'big wind'. Skunk, the name of a small, smelly, black-and-white animal, came to English from a Native American language. African Americans, too, have both contributed new words to English and changed the meanings of some existing words.*

*African Americans, many of whose ancestors were brought to the States as slaves hundreds of years ago, have introduced a number of words to English from languages that they spoke in their native countries. The common English word OK is used around the world today, but it was not always part of English vocabulary. One theory is that slaves in America used a phrase in their own language that sounded like OK to mean 'all right'. Americans heard the phrase and started using it. Today, almost everyone in the world uses OK to mean 'all right'. Another good example of a 'new' word is the word jazz. African American musicians living in the United States began playing jazz music in the city of New Orleans, and they used the word jass or /azz to describe the music and certain kinds of dancing. No one is sure where the word originally came from, but as iazz music became more and more popular, the word jazz became a common English word.*

*The meanings of words sometimes change over time. The word cool is a good example. Cool has been used in English for a long time to describe a temperature that is 'not warm but not too cold' or to describe a person who is 'calm or unemotional'. However, an additional meaning was given to the word cool in the past 100 years. Just like the word jazz, African American musicians used the word cool to describe the music they were playing. For them, cool meant 'good'. As jazz music and other forms of music played by African American musicians became popular, more and more people started to use the word cool in conversation. Today, it is still a commonly used word, especially by younger people, to mean good" or 'great'. A word with the opposite meaning of cool is square. Square is, of course, a shape, but it also is used to describe a person who is not cool. This may be because a person who is too old-fashioned and not flexible is like a shape with four straight sides and four corners.*

*English owes some of its interesting and colourful vocabulary to African Americans. Existing ethnic groups in the United States as well as new immigrants will surely continue to bring new words to English and give fresh meanings to existing words. Who knows what the 'cool' words of tomorrow will be?*

**Exercise 2. Read these thesis statements below. Write S (strong thesis statement), F (fact only - a weak thesis statement), or N (no clear opinion - a weak thesis statement).**

- a) The top government official in my country is the prime minister.
- b) Some people prefer digital cameras, while others like traditional cameras.

- c) India became an independent country in 1947.
- d) To be a successful student, good study habits are more important than intelligence.
- e) There are several advantages of owning a car, but there are also many disadvantages.
- f) Half of the families in my country own a house.
- g) Using public transport would be one of the best ways to solve the traffic and pollution problems in cities around the world.
- h) While travelling, staying in a hotel offers more comfort, but sleeping in a tent is less expensive.
- i) Classical music concerts are very popular in my country.
- j) In order to create a successful advertisement, it is necessary to consider three issues: who should be targeted, where the advert should be placed, and what type of advert should be made.

There are many transition words and phrases in English that are used to connect sentences together or relate ideas to one another. Here are several types of writing and some common transitions that are used with them.

<b>Chronology</b>	<b>Comparison</b>	<b>Contrast</b>	<b>Additional Information</b>	<b>Examples</b>	<b>Cause and effect</b>	<b>Concluding ideas</b>
<i>before</i>	<i>likewise</i>	<i>however</i>	<i>and</i>	<i>for example</i>	<i>therefore</i>	<i>in conclusion</i>
<i>after</i>	<i>compared to</i>	<i>on the other hand</i>	<i>also</i>	<i>in general</i>	<i>so</i>	<i>in summary</i>
<i>next</i>	<i>similarly</i>	<i>hand</i>	<i>in addition</i>	<i>generally</i>	<i>thus</i>	<i>finally</i>
<i>since</i>	<i>as ... as</i>	<i>but</i>	<i>in fact</i>	<i>for instance</i>	<i>as a result</i>	<i>therefore</i>
<i>first, second</i>	<i>and</i>	<i>yet</i>	<i>furthermore</i>	<i>specifically</i>	<i>since</i>	<i>to conclude</i>
<i>while</i>		<i>in spite of</i>	<i>moreover</i>	<i>in particular</i>	<i>because</i>	<i>to summarise</i>
<i>when</i>		<i>in contrast although instead</i>	<i>Another... is/was</i>			

## **Strengths and drawbacks of certain source materials**

### **Your reading list**

**Right.** The people who will be marking your essay – experts in their field – have recommended this list. You should trust their opinion.

**Wrong.** The list may be extremely long and unrealistic and may reflect your lecturer's bias/interest.

### **Wikipedia® (en.Wikipedia.org)**

**Right.** Can be a good starting point for research, especially if you know little about the subject.

**Wrong.** It is not considered an appropriate academic source as it may be subjective and biased.

### **Google Scholar (scholar.google.co.uk)**

**Right.** Identifies purely academic sources (e.g., books, abstracts, articles, thesis), providing an indication of how popular/respected they are among the academic community.

**Wrong.** You may have to pay to read some of the material which it identifies.

### **Academic journals**

**Right.** Easy to search, should be available through your university and up- to-date.

**Wrong** Can be difficult/technical/focused on very specific issues.

### **Academic books**

**Right.** Tend to be authoritative and well-respected.

**Wrong.** Texts can be long and difficult to understand.

### **General books on the subject**

**Right.** May offer a useful introduction to the subject (if they are written in a non-academic style).

**Wrong.** May not be considered appropriate academic sources and may trivialize certain issues.

### **Online podcasts/lectures**

**Right.** A good resource if your listening skills are better than your readingskills.

**Wrong.** Can be time-consuming – difficult to get a quick overview (unlike a reading text).

### **Revising your Essay**

### **Part 3. The Importance of Revising Your Paper**

Many students make the mistake of finishing a draft of their paper and handing it in. Not only are their papers often filled with typographical errors and other problems, but they lack the benefits of a fundamental stage in the writing process: revision.

When we revise our writing, we take the opportunity to step back and re-envision it. We think about the goals of the paper and whether we have accomplished these goals. We ensure that our ideas are clearly expressed and well supported. And, we make certain that errors of grammar and style do not detract from our work or make it look as though the paper was prepared hastily.

#### **Keep the following rules of revision in mind:**

- Do everything in your power NOT to hand in a first draft.
- Try to take a break (even if it is only 30 minutes) between drafting and revision. This will help you gain perspective.
- If you are feeling frustrated and stuck, involve someone else in your revision process. You can have a friend read it. Or, you can take a draft to the Academic Skills Centre.

#### **Revising for Substance**

As you read through your draft, ask yourself the following questions about the substance of your paper:

- Is your thesis clearly and firmly stated? Do you present your own analysis?
- Does your work fairly reflect the sources that you consulted?
- Do you include specific evidence to support your ideas? Is this evidence analyzed and explained?
- Are there gaps in your logic that need to be corrected?
- Do you fulfill all of the goals that you set out in the thesis?
- Have you met all of the instructions included with the assignment?

#### **Revising for Structure**

As you read, you need to ensure that your essay has a strong structure.

Consider all of the questions below:

- Is there a clear and logical pattern by which you prove your thesis?

- Does your introduction give a clear indication of what the paper is about?
- Is each paragraph unified and developed?
- Does each paragraph contain a strong, clear topic sentence?
- Is each paragraph related to the thesis? You could create a reverse outline.
- Do you have transitions between paragraphs and between sections? Does your essay have a well-reasoned and interesting conclusion?

### **Revising for Style**

Unclear writing and errors detract from your ideas and your mark. As you edit, you want to think about your writing style. Take the following issues into account:

- Have you used the passive voice too much?
- Did you make sure to use gender neutral language? Is your language precise and concise?
- Have you edited out repetitive language or syntax?
- Have you corrected grammatical errors and made sure that all of the names and events that you discuss are spelled properly?
- Is all of your information properly footnoted and do you have a bibliography that is correctly formatted?

### **Final Proofreading**

Your final read-through of the draft should focus on formatting and accuracy – not substance. Use a hard-copy instead of just reading from your computer screen. You may want to read the words out loud. Check for:

- Spelling, typographical errors, correct word usage
- Italicize or underline titles of books and put titles of articles in quotation marks
- Correct documentation and bibliography Double Space (unless told otherwise)
- Create a Title Page that includes a title for your essay, your name, your section and tutorial leader's name, and the date.
- Pagination. Use page numbers but do not use a page number on the title page.

### **Practical Tasks**

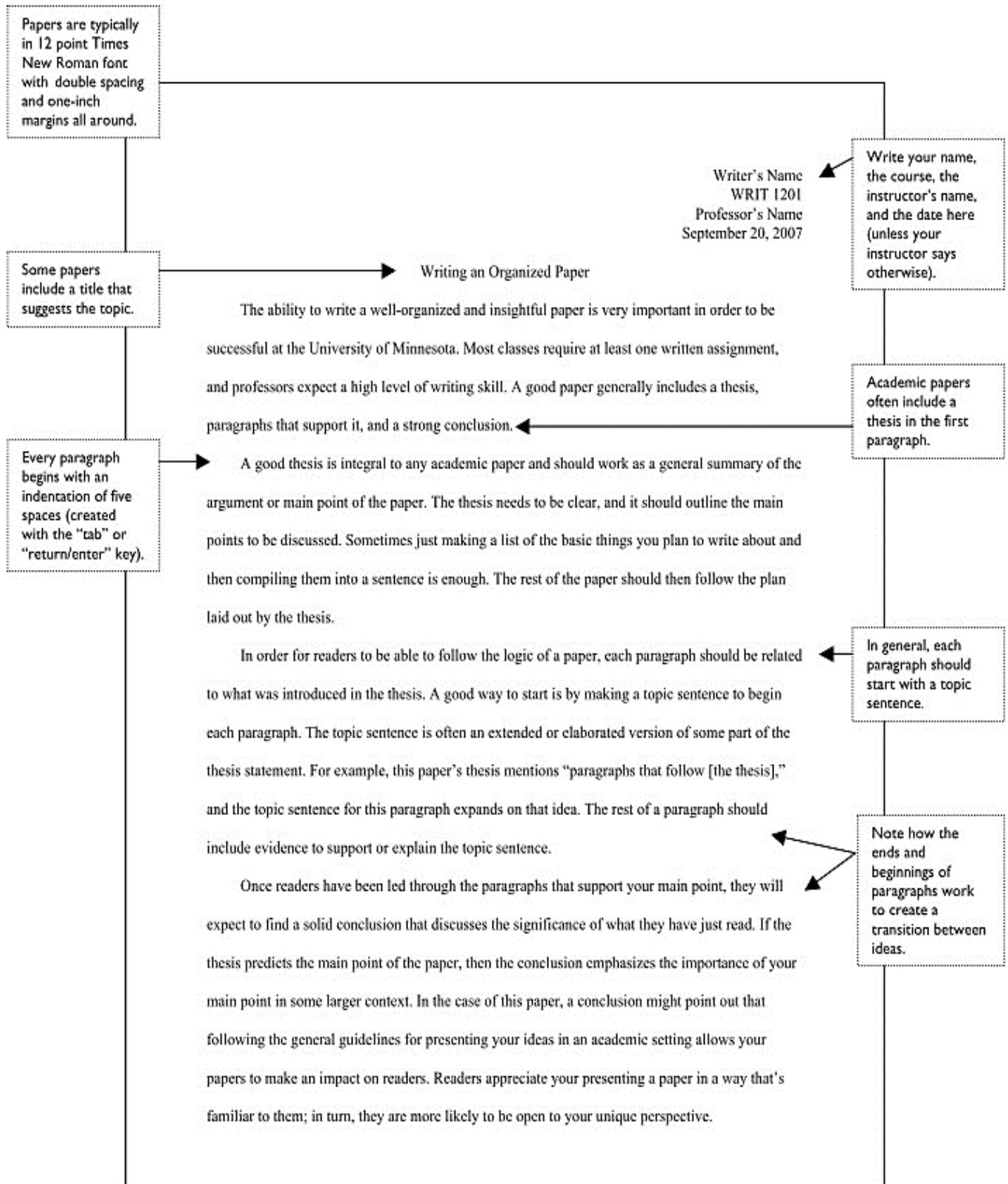
#### *Example 1*

*Look at a visual representation of this structure, adapted from the Seattle University Writing Center.*

*(<http://writing.umn.edu/sws/assets/pdf/quicktips/academicessaystructures.pdf>)*

## Academic Paper Format

Here is an example of what an academic paper typically looks like. Using standard fonts, margins, and indentations helps your paper gain credibility with an academic audience; readers who are comfortable with your paper's format can pay close attention to the ideas you're communicating.



## Example 2

(taken from <http://www.wikihow.com/Sample/Ozymandias-Essay>)

*Sample Ozymandias Essay*

### **Mighty Despair: Power and Irony in “Ozymandias”**

*“Ozymandias,” Shelley’s famous poem, reveals the impermanence of human achievement. The poem describes a crumbling statue, a “colossal wreck” in the form of a long-lost king. The reader of the poem is thrice-removed from Ozymandias, as the speaker relates a story he heard from a traveller who encountered the statue in the desert. A plate beneath the statue reads “Look on my works, ye Mighty, and despair!” Though Ozymandias presumably means that other mighty kings should despair at their inability to match his strength, the statement ironically evokes despair in the readers of the poem by reminding them of the impermanence of human works.*

*The traveller describes the shattered statue, abandoned to sink in the desert. He begins building the image of the statue by emphasizing its size, referring to it as “colossal” and “vast.” Early in the poem, this description serves to create a sense of the grandness of the statue and the story, but later it will create the sense that even incredible achievements will be lost to time. While the statue’s face still conveys something of Ozymandias’s nature, it, too, ultimately reinforces the impermanence of human works. By describing the sculptor’s skill (“its sculptor well that passion read”), the speaker begins to build the “despair” central to the poem. Neither the might of a king (Ozymandias) nor the skill of an artist (the sculptor) allows the monument to survive the test of time.*

*The poem separates the reader from Ozymandias: it does not describe the king himself, but the speaker hearing a traveller tell of a statue he saw in the desert. This separation is central to the sense of impermanence in the poem. If the poem exposed the reader to Ozymandias’s mightiness, it might lend a sense of meaning to Ozymandias’s works. Instead, the poem reveals the ephemeral nature of power and artistry by separating the reader from both the king and his monument. Even though Ozymandias was seemingly powerful enough to build the statue, the speaker only hears of him through happenstance. If the speaker had never met the traveler, the traveler had never found the statue, or Ozymandias had never commissioned the statue, the speaker might have never heard of Ozymandias, let alone experienced a*

sense of his might. This discovery of Ozymandias by chance, coupled with the separation of the speaker from the king, create the sense of loss around Ozymandias's works.

*Beneath the statue, on the pedestal, a placard reads "My name is Ozymandias, king of kings:/ Look on my works, ye Mighty, and despair!" When dictating this placard, Ozymandias surely intended to proclaim his might to anyone drawing near the statue. The phrase "king of kings" demonstrates that he was very powerful, perhaps more akin to an emperor than the prince of a nation-state. While the command to "despair!" once implored his subjects and enemies to dread his power, it now implores the reader to despair at fleeting nature of humanity. Through decay, time inverts this statement to imply that no matter how powerful you are, or how great your works, you will eventually fade into obscurity.*

*A sense of the impermanence of human achievement permeates this poem. The poem's focus on vastness helps evoke a sense Ozymandias's might, heightening the reader's "despair" at the statue's "decay." By distancing the reader from Ozymandias's power through layers of storytellers (the sculptor, the traveller, and the speaker), and the ironic statement engraved on the statue's pedestal, the poem reveals time's dominance over all human works, including words. The poem describes the futility of amassing skill and power, leaving the reader to contemplate the ephemeral nature of human life.*

## **Exercises**

**Exercise 1.** *Which types of sources would be most useful if ...*

1. you have no idea about a particular subject?
2. you want specific academic information about a topic?
3. you have a good understanding of the topic and want to deepen your understanding?
4. you are tired of/bored with reading and want a change?

**Exercise 2.** *What is your current practice?*

1. Make a list of the sources which you used for a recent essay.
2. Ask yourself the four questions given in part B.
3. Make yourself a table

Source	Relevant?	Authoritative?	Recent?	Reliable?	Comments	Read?
Name of the source					Any relevant comments which might help you decide whether to read the source later	

**Exercise 3.** Use transitions from the list above, or others that you know, to connect these sentences taken from the essay about. When you have finished, compare your answers with the essay

Chronology	Comparison	Contrast	Additional information	Examples	Cause and effect	Concluding ideas
<i>before</i>	<i>likewise</i>	<i>however</i>	<i>and</i>	<i>for example</i>	<i>therefore</i>	<i>in conclusion</i>
<i>after</i>	<i>compared to</i>	<i>on the other hand</i>	<i>also</i>	<i>in general</i>	<i>so</i>	<i>in summary</i>
<i>next</i>	<i>similarly</i>	<i>hand</i>	<i>in addition</i>	<i>generally</i>	<i>thus</i>	<i>finally</i>
<i>since</i>	<i>as ... as</i>	<i>but</i>	<i>in fact</i>	<i>for instance</i>	<i>as a result</i>	<i>therefore</i>
<i>first, second</i>	<i>and</i>	<i>yet</i>	<i>furthermore</i>	<i>specifically</i>	<i>since</i>	<i>to conclude</i>
<i>while</i>		<i>in spite of</i>	<i>moreover</i>	<i>in particular</i>	<i>because</i>	<i>to summarise</i>
<i>when</i>		<i>in contrast although</i>	<i>Another. ..is/was</i>			

<sup>1</sup>-\_\_\_\_\_of focusing on a patient's health problems, Chinese medicine tries to make the patient's whole body well again. <sup>2</sup>-\_\_\_\_\_doctors of Chinese medicine believe that inside people, there are two types of energy. The first type of energy, called 'yin', is quiet and passive. The other type of energy, called 'yang', is active.

When there is an imbalance – too much yin,<sup>3</sup> – \_\_\_\_\_ a person becomes unhealthy. A doctor of Chinese medicine doesn't try to stop a person's cough by giving a cough medicine. <sup>4</sup> – \_\_\_\_\_ the doctor gives a mixture of herbs that will restore balance in the patient's body. <sup>5</sup> – when the body is in balance, the cough will stop naturally.

**Exercise 4.** *Read these revised paragraphs from the essay on sign language. Underline examples of transition use, pronoun reference, and repetition of key words. Then compare your answers with a partner.*

Thesis statement: Sign language, the language used by many deaf people, has a five-hundred-year history.

The first sign language for deaf people was developed in Europe in the 1500s. Three men in particular contributed a lot to the development of sign language. In Spain, a man named Pedro de Ponce was the first person to teach deaf children using sign language. In addition, another Spaniard, Juan Pablo de Bonet, wrote the first book on teaching sign language to deaf people at about the same time. Another important teacher who influenced the development of sign language was a Frenchman named Abbe de LEpee. LEpee understood that deaf people could communicate without speech. He started to learn the signs used by a group of deaf people in Paris. Using these signs, he developed a more complete French sign language.

The early 1800s were an important period in the development of American Sign Language. In 1815, a man named Thomas Gallaudet became interested in teaching deaf people, so he travelled to Europe to study ways of communicating with deaf people. He was twenty-seven years old at this time, and he studied at a school for deaf students in Paris for several months. After that, Gallaudet returned to the United States, and he brought with him Laurent Clerc, a deaf sign language teacher from Paris. As a result of his experience in Europe, Gallaudet started the first school for the deaf, and Clerc became the first sign language teacher in the USA. American Sign Language developed from the mixture of signs used by deaf Americans and French Sign Language. Today, it is used by more than 500,000 deaf people in the United States and Canada.

**Exercise 5.** *Read the following essay on the topic of motivation. As you read, find examples of the following features: (taken from Stephen Bailey-Academic Writing for International Students of Business-Routledge (2010).*

- Three synonyms for ‘employees’
- A generalisation
- A definition
- A purpose statement
- A quotation and its citation
- A passive structure
- A phrase showing cause and effect
- A paragraph of discussion
- An example of tentative or cautious language

To what extent are the theories of motivation relevant to modern managers seeking to improve the performance of employees?

Illustrate your discussion with a case study from the UK.

### ***INTRODUCTION***

*In most contemporary businesses the skills and performance of employees is an essential factor in the success of the enterprise. Clearly, the firm which is most successful in training and motivating its staff is likely to have a significant advantage over its rivals. Not only will it spend less on replacing workers who leave, due to lower labour turnover, but the workforce in general will be more productive and more creative.*

*Motivation, which has been defined as ‘the direction or persistence of action’, and describing ‘why do people do what they do’ (Mullins, 2006:184), can then be distinguished as a key factor for commercial success. It has been the subject of considerable theoretical speculation over the past 70 years, amounting to a substantial body of research. This essay will examine some of the main theories in this field, dividing them into the content theories such as Maslow’s and the process theories characterised by Vroom’s. An attempt will then be made to assess their relevance to the modern workplace, taking as an example the employment policies of Toyota in the UK. This company was chosen due to both the distinctive nature of its labour practices and the fact that, as a Japanese company operating in Britain, it illustrates some of the cross-cultural issues that arise from the globalisation process.*

## **1 MOTIVATION THEORIES**

*The various theories of motivation are usually divided into content theories and process theories. The former attempt to 'develop an understanding of fundamental human needs' (Cooper et al., 1992: 20). Among the most significant are Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, McClellan's achievement theory and Herzberg's two factor theory. The process theories deal with the actual methods of motivating workers, and include the work of Vroom, Locke and Adams.*

### **1.1 Content theories**

*Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory was first published in 1943 and envisages a pyramid of needs on five levels, each of which has to be satisfied before moving up to the next level. The first level is physiological needs such as food and drink, followed by security, love, esteem and self-fulfillment (Rollinson, 2005:195–6). This theory was later revised by Alderfer, who reduced the needs to three: existence, relatedness and growth, and re-named it the ERG theory. In addition, he suggested that all three needs should be addressed simultaneously (Steers et al., 2004: 381).*

*McClelland had a slightly different emphasis when he argued that individuals were primarily motivated by three principal needs: for achievement, affiliation and power (Mullins, 2006: 199).*

*In contrast Herzberg suggested, on the basis of multiple interviews with engineers and accountants during the 1950s, a two-factor theory: that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction had differing roots. He claimed that so-called hygiene factors such as conditions and pay were likely to cause negative attitudes if inadequate, while positive attitudes came from the nature of the job itself. In other words, workers were satisfied if they found their work intrinsically interesting, but would not be motivated to work harder merely by good salaries or holiday allowances. Instead workers needed to be given more responsibility, more authority or more challenging tasks to perform (Vroom and Deci, 1992: 252). Herzberg's work has probably been the most influential of all the theories in this field, and is still widely used today, despite being the subject of some criticism, which will be considered later.*

### **1.2 Process theories**

*Vroom's expectancy theory hypothesises a link between effort, performance and motivation. It is based on the idea that an employee believes that increased effort*

*will result in improved performance. This requires a belief that the individual will be supported by the organisation in terms of training and resources (Mullins, 2006). In contrast, Locke emphasised the importance of setting clear targets to improve worker performance in his goal theory. Setting challenging but realistic goals is necessary for increasing employee motivation: 'goal specificity, goal difficulty and goal commitment each served to enhance task performance' (Steers, 2004: 382). This theory has implications for the design and conduct of staff appraisal systems and for management by objective methods focusing on the achievement of agreed performance targets.*

*Another approach was developed by Adams in his theory of equity, based on the concept that people value fairness. He argued that employees appreciate being treated in a transparently equitable manner in comparison with other workers doing similar functions, and respond positively if this is made apparent (Mullins, 2006). This approach takes a wider view of the workplace situation than some other theories, and stresses the balance each worker calculates between 'inputs', i.e. the effort made, and 'outputs', which are the rewards obtained.*

### ***1.3 Theory and practice***

*It should be emphasised that these various approaches are by no means mutually exclusive, and to some extent merely reflect alternative viewpoints. For instance, various similarities have been noted between the theories of Maslow and Herzberg. As Rollison (2005: 205) points out, Herzberg's hygiene factors roughly correspond to Maslow's physiological, safety and affiliation needs, and Herzberg's motivators are similarly equivalent to Maslow's esteem and self-actualisation needs. But both have been criticised as being too general; ignoring individual personality differences in favour of a simplistic overall scheme. In this respect the process theories accommodate better to the variations between different employees.*

*A further objection is that Herzberg based his work on interviews with accountants and engineers, both professional classes, and that their attitudes may not apply to manual or less-skilled workers. In some cases researchers have failed to replicate Herzberg's results, and it has been argued that the two factors are not as distinct as he proposed, but can overlap in some people. In addition, critics have pointed out that it is common to blame dissatisfaction at work on externals such as working conditions (hygiene factors), while people are generally pleased to take*

*credit for their own work (motivators). As both Maslow and Herzberg did their research over 50 years ago, it is further argued that they reflect an outdated view of work with limited relevance to modern practices.*

## **2 A CASE STUDY – TOYOTA UK**

*Toyota, the Japanese motor manufacturer, opened its first European production facility in the UK in 1989. This company claims to have high standards of employment practice to maximise the productivity of its workforce, and has come in some ways to represent the Japanese model of paternalistic employer.*

*According to its statement of general principles:*

*We also recognise that people are the foundation of the Company and that highly competent, motivated and respected Members commit to work toward fulfilling the objectives of the Company. We strive to provide to the individual both growth opportunity and stable employment through the achievement of the long-term prosperity of the Company. (Toyota UK,2010)*

*The company claims to improve its employees' (always referred to as 'members') job satisfaction by operating a job rotation plan. They are given the responsibility for the quality of their own part in the production process. The safety and welfare of the staff is also highlighted by Toyota, who provide medical insurance and comprehensive safety training. They also operate a scheme to obtain regular feedback from workers, to assist management in their understanding of employees' opinions.*

*In many ways Toyota's approach seems to conform closely to the Maslow/ Herzberg model. Physiological needs are met by providing good levels of pay, while safety needs are addressed by the medical insurance and safety training. The emphasis on good communication and providing fair and equitable treatment for all achieves the social need, and performance appraisals and the delegation of authority meets the requirements for self-esteem. Finally, the system of job rotation and continuous product development should allow workers to use their creativity.*

*Despite this, two issues at Toyota need consideration. Firstly the company employs both Japanese and British workers in its UK plant. It is possible that working practices devised in its home country, Japan, may not always be suitable*

*for application to other cultures, and may need to be modified to motivate adequately British workers who may, for example, place more value on holidays than their Japanese counterparts. For their part, the expatriate Japanese workers in the UK are likely to have very distinct needs, particularly with regard to their families, as a result of living outside their own culture.*

*Another issue is the difference in work attitudes between professionals such as engineers and assembly line workers. While the former, who were the subject of Herzberg's original research, may put more value on work satisfaction, the latter may be more concerned with factors such as the speed of the assembly line.*

*Despite the company's insistence of equal treatment for all, in practice this may be difficult to achieve.*

### **CONCLUSION**

*Although the main theories of motivation such as Herzberg's and Maslow's have been in circulation for some time they still have relevance to the modern workplace. While possibly offering an over-simplified approach, their basic principle of a series of employee needs, which must be addressed in order to achieve motivation, is a useful basis for study. However, no over-arching theory is likely to reflect the full complexity of the contemporary employee-employer relationship, especially in the current uncertain economic climate. The process theories of Vroom, Locke and Adams may prove more useful in dealing with the contemporary scene, with their focus on trust, goal setting and fairness.*

*Clearly, these do not exclude the content theories, as can be seen in the example of Toyota, where the strong emphasis on respecting and valuing all workers equally is matched by provision for the hierarchy of needs. This case also acts as a reminder that the modern multi-cultural workforce may well not all share the same values, thereby adding another layer of complexity to the task of the management. One promising field for further research might be to compare the motivation of professional workers in a firm such as Toyota with that of the blue-collar employees, in order to test how far the theories of Herzberg and Maslow are generally applicable.*

## **Answers**

*(Model answers, others may be possible)*

*(a) staff/workers/workforce*

*(b) In most contemporary businesses the skills and performance of employees is an essential factor in the success of the enterprise.*

*(c) Motivation, which has been defined as ‘the direction or persistence of action’, and describing ‘why do people do what they do’*

*(d) This essay will examine some of the main theories in this field, dividing them into the content theories such as Maslow’s and the process theories characterised by Vroom’s. An attempt will then be made to assess their relevance to the modern workplace, taking as an example the employment policies of Toyota in the UK.*

*(e) ‘goal specificity, goal difficulty and goal commitment each served to enhance task performance’*

*(f) Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory was first published in 1943.*

*(g) He claimed that so-called hygiene factors such as conditions and pay were likely to cause negative attitudes if inadequate.*

*(h) It should be emphasised that these various approaches are by no means mutually exclusive. In this respect the process theories accommodate better to the variations between different employees.*

*(i) In many ways Toyota’s approach seems to conform closely to the Maslow/Herzberg model.*

## **Check yourself**

(taken from <http://learninghub.une.edu.au/tlc/aso/aso-online/academic-writing/sample-essay.php> )

The following five paragraph essay has paragraph labels to show the parts of an academic essay.

## **Question**

Discuss why assignment essays are common assessment tasks in undergraduate tertiary coursework, and evaluate the effectiveness of assignments as an avenue for learning. (Word limit 500 words). Please note that the APA referencing style is used in this sample essay.

## **Introduction**

Assignment essays are developed from set questions that give students a period of time to research a topic and produce their answer with references to their sources of information. While there are some disadvantages with using assignment essays as an assessment tool, there are sound educational purposes underpinning this practice. This essay examines the reasons why assignment essays are beneficial for student learning and considers some of the problems with this method of assessment.

### **Body paragraph 1**

Assignment essay tasks are set to assist students to develop mastery of their study subject. Firstly, assignment tasks enhance understandings about subject matter. Yang and Baker (2005) reason that "to master your learning materials and extend your understandings, you need to write about the meanings you gain from your research" (p. 1). Secondly, research (Jinx, 2004; Zapper, 2006) clearly demonstrates that students learn the writing conventions of a subject area while they are researching, reading and writing in their discipline. This activity helps them to "crack the code" of the discipline (Bloggs, 2003, p. 44). Thus, students are learning subject matter and how to write in that disciplinary area by researching and writing assignment essays.

### **Body paragraph 2**

Using assignment essays for assessment supports student learning better than the traditional examination system. It is considered that course- work assignment essays can lessen the extreme stress experienced by some students over 'sudden-death' end of semester examinations:

If we insist that all students write about everything they have learned in their study courses at the same time and in the same place (e.g. in examinations), we are not giving all of our students equal opportunities. Some students are not daunted by the exam experience while others suffer 'exam nerves' and perform at the lowest level of their capabilities.

Additionally, Jones et al. (2004, pp. 36-37) propose that assignment essays can be used to assess student learning mid-course and so provide them with helpful feedback before they are subjected to the exam experience. Exams only provide students with a mark rather than specific feedback on their progress. Therefore, setting assignment essays for a substantial part of student assessment is a much fairer approach than one- off examination testing.

### **Body paragraph 3**

As an assessment tool, assignment essays have some disadvantages for lecturers and students. It has been found that assignment essays consume a great deal of staff time and money to mark and student time to prepare (Sankey & Liger, 2005, p. 192). A consequence of this is that feedback to students is frequently delayed, and this is much less useful to students than rapid feedback (p. 294). It is partly because of these disadvantages of time and expense that other assessments such as multiple-choice tests and short answer questions have an enduring place in the tertiary learning environment.

### **Conclusion**

To conclude, it seems that assignment essays continue to have a prominent role in tertiary education as an assessment tool. This is mainly because they are very effective in developing knowledge and writing skills for subject areas. Also, assignment essays can be less stressful than examinations as they allow students to show their understanding of content in less pressured circumstances. On the other hand, the time consuming nature of writing and marking essays points to some disadvantages that also need to be considered. The weight of evidence, however, supports the writing of assignment essays for student assessment because this approach has such positive and proven effects for improved student learning.

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**Analyse an academic essay. The following questions relate to the essay above.**

**The introduction paragraph**

1. There is information in quotation marks.
2. There is an indented long quote in this paragraph.
3. The last sentence gives the answer to the essay question.
4. Information from the same person is used twice.
5. The second sentence is the thesis statement (i.e. position the writer will take).

**2. Body paragraph 1**

1. There is information in quotation marks.
2. There is an indented long quote in this paragraph
3. The last sentence gives the answer to the essay question.
4. Information from the same person is used twice.
5. The second sentence is the thesis statement (i.e. position the writer will take).

**3. Body paragraph 2**

1. There is information in quotation marks.
2. There is an indented long quote in this paragraph
3. The last sentence gives the answer to the essay question.
4. Information from the same person is used twice.
5. The second sentence is the thesis statement (i.e. position the writer will take).

**4. Body paragraph 3**

1. There is information in quotation marks.
2. There is an indented long quote in this paragraph.
3. The last sentence gives the answer to the essay question.
4. Information from the same person is used twice.
5. The second sentence is the thesis statement (i.e. position the writer will take).

**5. The conclusion paragraph**

1. There is information in quotation marks.
2. There is an indented long quote in this paragraph.
3. The last sentence gives the answer to the essay question.
4. Information from the same person is used twice.
5. The second sentence is the thesis statement (i.e. position the writer will take).

**6. The reference list**

1. All of the references are in random order.
2. All of the reference items start with the title of the information source.
3. If the author is a person, then their first name is used first.
4. There are no dates of publication in all of the references.

**Answers 1) 5; 2) 1; 3) 2; 4) 4; 5) 3; 6) 4.**

## UNIT 6. WRITING A SUMMARY

### PART 1. CHARACTERISTIC OF A SUMMARY

A **summary** is a short version of a larger reading. To write a summary means to use your own words to express briefly the main idea and relevant details of the piece you have read. The purpose in writing the summary is to give the basic ideas of the original reading. The size of the summary is usually one-third of the original article.

#### Steps to write a summary

While reading the original work, take note of what or who is the focus and ask the usual questions that reporters use: Who? What? When? Where? Why? How? Using these questions to examine what you are reading can help you to write the summary.

Sometimes, the central idea of the piece is stated in the introduction or first paragraph, and the supporting ideas of this central idea are presented one by one in the following paragraphs. Always read the introductory paragraph thoughtfully and look for a thesis statement. Finding the thesis statement is like finding a key to a locked door. Frequently, however, the thesis, or central idea, is implied or suggested. Thus, you will have to work harder to figure out what the author wants readers to understand. Use any hints that may shed light on the meaning of the piece: pay attention to the title and any headings and to the opening and closing lines of paragraphs.

In writing the summary, let your reader know the piece that you are summarizing. Identify the title, author and source of the piece. You may want to use this formula:

Do not put in your opinion of the issue or topic discussed in the original piece. Often, instructors ask students to put their opinions in a paragraph separate from the summary.

#### **Before writing a summary:**

For a text, read, mark, and annotate the original. (For a lecture, work with the notes you took.)

- highlight the topic sentence
- highlight key points/key words/phrases
- highlight the concluding sentence
- outline each paragraph in the margin

**Take notes on the following:**

- the source (author – first/last name, title, date of publication, volume number, place of publication, publisher, URL, etc.)
- the main idea of the original (paraphrased)
- the major supporting points (in outline form)
- major supporting explanations (e.g. reasons/causes or effects).

**Remember:**

- Do not rewrite the original piece.
- Keep your summary short.
- Use your own wording.
- Refer to the central and main ideas of the original piece.
- Read with who, what, when, where, why and how questions in mind.

**PART 2. USEFUL TIPS AND PHRASES FOR WRITING A SUMMARY**

1. Read the original text until you completely understand it. You may find it useful to divide the text into several sections (parts).

2. Read the original again understanding any necessary information. Find the purpose statement, the topic sentence and the key facts in each paragraph. Summarise each paragraph in one sentence.

3. Mark all the information you think you'll need to use? or cross out any information you think will be unnecessary.

4. Paraphrase the summarizing sentences in your own words. Make sure you include all the key points. Don't include minor details, descriptions or unnecessary words. When possible, join related ideas into single meaningful sentences.

5. Compare your draft summary with the original, make sure you've included all the essential information without adding anything new. Make sure the ideas in the summary follow the order in the original text. Include transition words, like "however", "although", "also", "moreover" etc.

6. Re-read your summary, check if all the information is correct. Make sure your summary doesn't include your own commentary/ judgment of the original text.

7. Check your summary for accuracy – consider spelling, grammar, style, punctuation. You may give your summary for someone to read, and see if the main idea is clear to others.

## Useful phrases for writing a summary

**In "... (Title)"** (source and date of piece), **the author shows that ...**  
(central idea of the piece).

**The author supports the main idea by** using .... and showing that....

**The text (story, article, poem) is about...**

deals with...

presents...

describes

**In the text (story, article, poem, excerpt...) the reader gets to know...**

the reader is confronted with...

the reader is told about...

**The author (the narrator) says, states, points out that...**

claims, believes, thinks that...

describes, explains, makes clear that...

uses example to confirm, prove that...

agrees/disagrees with the view /thesis...

contradicts the view...

criticises, analyses, comments

on...tries to express...

argues that... suggests that... compares X to Y...

emphasises his thesis by saying that...

doubts that...

tries to convince the readers

that...concludes that...

## About the structure of the text:

The text consists of/ may be divided into...

In the first paragraph/ exposition the author introduces...

In the second paragraph of the text / paragraph the author introduces...

Another example can be found in...

As a result...

The climax/ turning point is reached when...

To sum up/to conclude...

In the conclusion/ starting from line..., the author sums up the main idea/ thesis...

In his last remark/ with his last remark / statement the author concludes that...

## Sample Summaries

*Sample 1. Study the article and follow the process of writing a summary. Then compare with the final version of a summary.*

### Global Implications of Patent Law Variation

A patent is an exclusive right to use an invention for a certain period of time, which is given to an inventor as compensation for disclosure of an invention.

Although it would be beneficial for the world economy to have uniform patent laws, each country has its own laws designed to protect domestic inventions and safeguard technology.

*(This is the main idea).*

Despite widespread variation, patent laws generally fall under one of two principles: the first-to-file and first-to-invent.

*(The classification of the two principles is important).*

The first-to-file principle awards a patent to the person or institution that applies for a patent first, while the first-to-invent principle grants the patent to the person or institution that was first to invent – and can prove it. Most countries have adopted the first-to-file system. However, the United States maintains a first-to-invent system, despite obvious shortcomings.

*(It is important to point out that most of the world follows one system and the United States another).*

A result of countries employing different patent law principles is inconsistency of patent ownership.

*(This first sentence is a general definition.)*

*It may be safe to assume that your audience is already familiar with patents; thus you do not have to include it in your summary).*

Patent ownership is not recognized globally. *(Include a description of the problem surrounding variation in patent laws).*

On the contrary, ownership may change depending on the country. It is not uncommon for an invention to have two patent owners – one in the United States and one in the rest of the world. This unclear ownership often has economic consequences.

*(Provide some support/explanation for the problem, but not all the details).*

If a company is interested in using a patented invention, it may be unable to

receive permission from both patent owners, which in turn may prevent manufacture of a particular product. Even if permission is received from both owners, pay royalties to both may be quite costly. In this case, if the invention is useful enough, a company may proceed and pass on the added cost to consumers.

International economic tension has also been increasing as a result of differing policies.

*(Describe this other problem associated with differing patent principles).*

Many foreign individuals and companies believe that they are at a serious disadvantage in the United States with regard to patent ownership because of the logistical difficulties in establishing first-to-invent status. Further, failure of the United States to recognize patent ownership in other countries is in violation of the Paris Conventions on Industrial Properties, which requires all member nations to treat all patents equally.

*(Provide some explanation, but not all the details).*

The conflict surrounding patents has prompted the World Intellectual Properties Organization (WIPO) to lobby for universality in patent laws. WIPO maintains that the first necessary step involves compelling the United States to reexamine its patent principle, taking into account the reality of a global economy. This push may indeed result in more global economic cooperation.

*(Describe the action taken to solve the problem).*

**Study the final summary of the article:**

In his paper “Global Implications of Patent Law Variation,” Koji Suzuki (1991) states that lack of consistency in the world’s patent laws is a serious problem. In most of the world, patent ownership is given to the inventor that is first to file for a patent. However, the United States maintains a first-to-invent policy. In view of this, patent ownership can change depending on the country. Multiple patent ownership can result in economic problems; however, most striking is the international tension it causes. The fact that the United States does not recognize patent ownership in other countries, in violation of the Paris Convention on Industrial Properties, has prompted the World Intellectual Properties Organization (WIPO) to push the United States to review its existing patent law principles.

*Sample 2. Study this original article and compare it with its summary. Did the author follow all the guidelines? How would you evaluate the summary?*

## *The original article:*

### **Bats**

In the distant past, many people thought bats had magical powers, but times have changed. Today, many people believe that bats are rodents, that they cannot see, and that they are more likely than other animals to carry rabies. All of these beliefs are mistaken. Bats are not rodents, are not blind, and are no more likely than dogs and cats to transmit rabies. Bats, in fact, are among the least understood and least appreciated of animals.

Bats are not rodents with wings, contrary to popular belief. Like all rodents, bats are mammals, but they have a skeleton similar to the human skeleton. The bones in bat wings are much like those in arms and the human hand, with a thumb and four fingers. In bats, the bones of the arms and the four fingers of the hands are very long. This bone structure helps support the web of skin that stretches from the body to the ends of the fingers to form wings.

Although bats cannot see colors, they have good vision in both dim and bright light. Since most bats stay in darkness during the day and do their feeding at night, they do not use their vision to maneuver in the dark but use a process called echolocation. This process enables bats to emit sounds from their mouths that bounce off objects and allow them to avoid the objects when flying. They use this system to locate flying insects to feed on as well. Typically, insect-eating bats emerge at dusk and fly to streams or ponds where they feed. They catch the insects on their wingtip or tail membrane and fling them into their mouths while flying.

There are about 1,000 species of bat, ranging in size from the bumblebee bat, which is about an inch long, to the flying fox, which is sixteen inches long and has a wingspan of five feet. Each type of bat has a specialized diet. For seventy percent of bats, the diet is insects. Other types of bats feed on flowers, pollen, nectar, and fruit or on small animals such as birds, mice, lizards, and frogs.

One species of bat feeds on the blood of large mammals. This is the common vampire bat, which lives only in Latin America and is probably best known for feeding on the blood of cattle. Unfortunately, in an attempt to control vampire bat populations, farmers have unintentionally killed thousands of beneficial fruit- and insect-eating bats as well.

Bats, in fact, perform a number of valuable functions. Their greatest

economic value is in eliminating insect pests. Insect-eating bats can catch six hundred mosquitoes in an hour and eat half their body weight in insects every night. In many tropical rain forests, fruit-eating bats are the main means of spreading the seeds of tropical fruits. Nectar-feeding bats pollinate a number of tropical plants. If it were not for bats, we might not have peaches, bananas, mangoes, guavas, figs, or dates.

Today, the survival of many bat species is uncertain. Sixty percent of bats do not survive past infancy. Some are killed by predators such as owls, hawks, snakes and other meat-eating creatures, but most are victims of pesticides and other human intrusions. In Carlsbad Caverns, New Mexico, where there were once eight million bats, there are now a quarter million. At Eagle Creek, Arizona, the bat population dropped from thirty million to thirty thousand in six years.

Bats often have been burdened with a bad reputation, perhaps because they are not the warm, cuddly sort of animal we love to love. However, their unusual physical features should not lead us to overestimate their harm or to underestimate their value.

### ***The Summary:***

#### ***Bats***

In the article “Bats” by Debbie Dean, we learn that in contrast to some mistaken beliefs, bats are not blind rodents that usually have rabies. They have sight, are mammals, and are not especially likely to carry rabies. Bats are relatively misunderstood and unappreciated.

Bats have some interesting physical features. They have similar bone structure and skeletons to that of humans, so they are not winged rodents. They are color blind, so they use echolocation if there is not sufficient light. Otherwise, their sight is enough.

Species of bats total about a thousand. The species come in a variety of sizes and have unique diets. Most eat insects, but some eat plant products and small animals. However, vampire bats drink blood, which can be harmful to livestock. Farmers have accidentally killed many innocent bats while trying to rid themselves of vampire bats.

Bats can actually be helpful to humans. An important trait of bats is their ability to destroy many unwanted bugs. They also spread fruit seeds and pollinate

plants. However, the survival of bats is not known because many are killed by human disruptions and predators. The bat population has dropped steadily and may continue to drop.

Hopefully, we will realize that although bats look different than our favorite animals, we can learn to accept and admire their value and uniqueness.

*Sample 3. Study the following summary of a short story and mark the structure, useful words, and other information you might find useful for writing a summary.*

### **A Summary of the Short Story "Miss Brill" by Katherine Mansfield**

"Miss Brill is the story of an old woman told brilliantly and realistically, balancing thoughts and emotions that sustain her late solitary life amidst all the bustle of modern life. Miss Brill is a regular visitor on Sundays to the Jardins Publiques (the Public Gardens) of a small French suburb where she sits and watches all sorts of people come and go. She listens to the band playing, loves to watch people and guess what keeps them going and enjoys contemplating the world as a great stage upon which actors perform. She finds herself to be another actor among the so many she sees, or at least herself as 'part of the performance after all.

"One Sunday Miss Brill puts on her fur and goes to the Public Gardens as usual. The evening ends with her sudden realization that she is old and lonely, a realization brought to her by a conversation she overhears between a boy and a girl presumably lovers, who comment on her unwelcome presence in their vicinity. Miss Brill is sad and depressed as she returns home, not stopping by as usual to buy her Sunday delicacy, a slice of honey-cake. She retires to her dark room, puts the fur back into the box and imagines that she has heard something cry." (K. Narayana Chandran, *Texts and Their Worlds II*. Foundation Books, 2005).

### ***Practical Tasks***

*Exercise 1. Read the article and cross out all the unnecessary information. Then paraphrase the remaining information in your own words and write a summary in no more than 120 words.*

### **The evolution of writing system and tools**

Today, with just twenty-six letters, we can write a letter to our friends or answer an examination question. Thousands of years ago, there was no writing system at all. News, knowledge and information were passed on from one person to

another by word of mouth. If you ever played 'rumor clinic' where a cognate message is passed from one person to another down the chain by mouth, you will understand the inefficiency of the system. Messages passed down are unreliable as the speakers may mix up or lose part of the information.

The first written language was invented by the early cave man. They tied bits of animal hair together to form brushes and painted pictures on the cave wall, telling their friends about their hunts. It was after several centuries that different writing systems like the Chinese characters and hieroglyphs in Egypt were invented. The alphabetical system that we are using currently also came about only after many decades of development.

Besides alphabets, the invention of writing tools is another major transition. In olden times, the kind of writing tools used, depended on the material they wrote on. For example, in the Middle East, where clay is abundant in supply, the early people used hollow reed 'pens' to carve onto the wet clay tablets. After which, these clay pieces were baked till rock hard to make the writings permanent. In ancient Egypt, Egyptians either wrote on scraped thin pieces of animal skins called 'parchment' or flattened papaya stems known as 'papyrus'. Their writing tool was a primitive kind of fountain pen -- a reed with ink inside.

It was only in the 1880s, that fountain pens were invented. Before that, most people used either quill pens - sharpened bird feathers or nibbed pens, which were dipped into ink before writing. Fountain pens invented later have both plus and minus points. With tiny ink tanks in them, fountain pens are superior to quill or nibbed ones as the ink in them do not run out as quickly. The disadvantage is that sometimes, the nibs of the fountain pens may break, causing the ink to leak, staining the writer's fingers.

The flaw in fountain pens has led to further investigation and the successful invention of the first 'ballpoint' pen by a Hungarian, Ladislao Biro. There were many people after him who tried to improve upon the appearance of his ballpoint pens. Today, 'ballpoint' pens are conveniently and widely used in the world.

**Exercise 2.** Summarise the article in no more than 140 words.

### **A trip to Cherokee**

During my vacation last May, I had a hard time choosing a tour. Flights to Japan, Hong Kong and Australia are just too common. What I wanted was

somewhere exciting and exotic, a place where I could be spared from the holiday tour crowds. I was so happy when Joan called up, suggesting a trip to Cherokee, a county in the state of Oklahoma. I agreed and went off with the preparation immediately.

We took a flight to Cherokee and visited a town called Qualla Boundary Surrounded by magnificent mountain scenery, the town painted a paradise before us. With its Oconaluftee Indian Village reproducing tribal crafts and lifestyles of the 18th century and the outdoor historical pageant Unto These Hills playing six times weekly in the summer nights, Qualla Boundary tries to present a brief image of the Cherokee past to the tourists.

Despite the language barrier, we managed to find our way to the souvenir shops with the help of the natives. The shops are filled with rubber tomahawks and colorful traditional war bonnets, made of dyed turkey feathers. Tepees, cone-shaped tents made from animal skin, are also pitched near the shops. "Welcome! Want to get anything ?" We looked up and saw a middle-aged man smiling at us. We were very surprised by his fluent English. He introduced himself as George and we ended up chatting till lunch time when he invited us for lunch at a nearby coffee shop.

"Sometimes, I've to work from morning to sunset during the tour season. Anyway, this is still better off than being a woodcutter ..." Remembrance weighed heavy on George's mind and he went on to tell us that he used to cut firewood for a living but could hardly make ends meet. We learnt from him that the Cherokees do not depend solely on trade for survival. During the tour off-peak period, the tribe would have to try out other means for income. One of the successful ways is the "Bingo Weekend". On the Friday afternoons of the Bingo weekends, a large bingo hall will be opened, attracting huge crowds of people to the various kinds of games like the Super Jackpot and the Warrior Game Special. According to George, these forms of entertainment fetch them great returns.

Our final stop in Qualla Boundary was at the museum where arts, ranging from the simple hand-woven oak baskets to wood and stone carvings of wolves, ravens and other symbols of Cherokee cosmology are displayed.

Back at home, I really missed the place and I would of course look forward to the next trip to another exotic place.

### *Check yourself*

1. How long should a summary be?
  - a) the size of the original text.
  - b) longer than the original text
  - c) one third of the original text
2. What information should you include in the summary?
  - a) just the plan of the main points
  - b) all basic information, but paraphrased and shortened
  - c) all the details, descriptions etc.
3. Should a summary include your personal attitude?
  - a) yes, you should say what you think about the topic.
  - b) no, summary should include only the ideas of the original text.
  - c) yes, you may include evaluation if you want.
4. Choose the phrase that must **not** be included onto the summary:
  - a) The text can be divided into...
  - b) The author states that...
  - c) I find ... the most interesting part.
5. Chose the component which should not be included in the summary:
  - a) a source of the piece of reading
  - b) a body paragraph
  - c) a list of sources
  - d) a supporting sentence

## UNIT 7. DATA COMMENTARY

### PART 1. CHARACTERISTIC OF DATA COMMENTARY

**Data commentary** – the type of writing that accompanies a visual display. Like many other aspects of postgraduate student writing, data commentaries are exercises in positioning yourself. There are, as a result, both dangers and opportunities. One danger is to simply repeat in words what the data has expressed in nonverbal form - in other words, to offer description rather than commentary. An opposite danger is to read too much into the data and draw unjustified conclusions.

It is not easy to predict precisely what you might need to do in commentary a data, but there are some of the more common purposes:

- Highlight the results.
- Assess standard theory, common beliefs, or general practice in the light of the given data.
- Compare and evaluate different data sets.
- Assess the reliability of the data in terms of the methodology that produced it.
- Discuss the implications of the data.

Typically, of course, a data commentary will include more than one of these elements:

- location elements and/or summary statements
- highlighting statements
- discussions of implications, problems, exceptions, etc.

Here is the data commentary with these elements marked.

*Table 1 shows the most common modes of infection for U.S. businesses. As can be seen, in the majority (Linking as clause) of cases, the source of viral infection can be detected, with disks being brought to the workplace from home being by far the most significant. However, it is alarming to note that the source of nearly 30% of /viral infections cannot be determined. (While it may be possible to eliminate home-to-workplace infection by requiring computer users to run antiviral software on diskettes brought from home, businesses are still vulnerable to major data loss, especially from unidentifiable sources of infection.*

Look at the first two of these elements in more detail.

Many data commentary sections begin with a sentence containing these two elements. The passive can also be used. We bring two points to your attention here. First, note the consistent use of the present tense. This occurs because the author is

talking about his or her present text. Second, in English the active forms are as appropriate as the passive versions. (However, in a number of languages it may not be natural to say that a graph or other inanimate object "reveals," "gives," or "suggests.") Now notice that all the examples so far have been indicative. By this we mean that we have been told nothing yet about what the common modes of infection might be, which fertilizers were actually used, or what the results of the second experiment were. Alternatively, the writer could have given an informative summary; that is, the writer could have actually summarized the data.

*Table 1 shows that home disks are the major source of computerviruses.*

*Table 3 gives the ingredients of the chosen fertilizer*

*Figure 4.2 suggests that the experimental results confirm the hypothesis.*

(Notice the use of that in 1 and 3. Sentences containing that-clauses do not easily go into the passive)

We have borrowed the terms *indicative* and *informative* from the major two-way classification of abstracts. Indicative abstracts merely indicate what kind of research has been done. Informative abstracts additionally give the main results.

Table 1.

**Means of Computer Virus Infection in U.S. Businesses**

<b>Source</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Disks from home	43
Electronic bulletin board	7
Sales demonstration disk	6
Repair or service disk	6
Company, client, or consultant disk	4
Shrink-wrapped application	3
Other download	2
Local area network supervisor disk	1
Purposely planted	1
Undetermined	29

Table 2.

### Starting a Data Commentary

Location	Summary
a. Table 1 shows	the most common modes of computer infection for U.S. businesses
b. Table 3 provides	details of the fertilizer used
c. Figure 4.2 gives	the results of the second experiment

Table 3.

### Passive in Starting a Data Commentary

Summary	Location
a. The most common modes of infection	are shown in table 1.
b. Details of the fertilizers used	are provided in table 3.
c. The results of the second experiment	are given in figure 4.2.

### Language Focus: Verbs in Indicative and Informative summaries

There are about a dozen verbs commonly used to make reference to nonverbal material. Some can be used with both types of summary statement. “**Show**” is one such verb.

*For example:*

*Table 5 shows the most common modes of infection.* (Indicative)

*Table 5 shows that the most common source of infection is disks brought from home.* (Informative)

Some verbs can be used with only one type of summary statement. ‘Provide’ for example, can only be used in an indicative summary.

*For example:*

*Table 5 provides infection-source percentages, not –Table 5 provides that the most common source of...*

Table 4.

## List of verbs and nouns

Direction	Verbs	Nouns
	Rose (to) Increased (to) Went up (to) Climbed (to) Boomed	A rise An increase Growth An upward trend A boom (a dramatic rise)
	Fell (to) Declined (to) Decreased (to) Dipped (to) Dropped (to) Went down (to) Slumped (to) Reduced (to)	A decrease A decline A fall A drop A slump (a dramatic fall) A reduction
	Levelled out (at) Did not change Remained stable (at) Remained steady (at) Stayed constant (at) Maintained the same level	A levelling out No change
	Fluctuated (around) Peaked (at) Plateaued (at) Stood at (we use this phrase to focus on a particular point, before we mention the movement, for example: In the first year, unemployment stood at...)	A fluctuation Reached a peak (of) Reached at plateau (at)

## List with phrases to describe charts

The pie chart is about ...

The bar chart deals with ...

The line graph (clearly) shows ...

The slices of the pie chart compare the ...

The chart is divided into ... parts.

It highlights ...

... has the largest (number of) ...

... has the second largest (number of) ...

... is as big as ...

... is twice as big as ...

... is bigger than ...

more than ... per cent ...

only one third ...

less than half ...

The number ... increases/goes up/grows by ...

The number ... decreases/goes down/sinks by ...

The number ... does not change/remains stable

I was really surprised/shocked by the ...

So we can say ...

## Text B

Which opening statement do you prefer?

*Data commentary with strong claims are attractive to readers.*

*Data commentary with strong claims can be attractive to readers.*

*It could be concluded that some data commentary with strong claims tend to be attractive to readers.*

All three statements are grammatically correct, but statement 1 is more debatable because it's an overgeneralization. Statement 3, on the other hand, uses words and phrases to excessively weaken the generalization. This act of using weakening words and phrases to show caution is called **hedging**.

**Hedging** has two effects when used in a data commentary:

- It modifies the meaning of a sentence. Including words like “generally” or “may” introduces probability into a statement. Other words limit the scope of a statement.

- It gives the reader insight into the writer’s position. Using verbs like “support” instead of “validate” shows the writer is not overcommitted to or confident in a statement.

**Part 2. Ways to hedge (weaken) statements**

**1. Reduce likelihood**

Reduce likelihood by including a modal before the main verb or by a phrase before the sentence.

*For example:*

*Using hedges can distract readers. Using hedges may distract readers.*

It is likely that using hedges distracts readers.

There is a strong possibility that using hedges distracts readers.

**Common hedges:**

<b>Modals:</b>	<b>Phrases:</b>
May	It is clear that . . .
Can	There is a strong possibility that .
Could	It is likely that . . .
Might	It is possible that . . .

**2. Soften generalizations**

Soften generalizations by limiting who/what is included in the topic or by limiting the frequency of the action.

*For example:*

*Most researchers use hedges when discussing a study’s limitation.*

*Researchers generally use hedges when discussing a study’s limitation.*

*Researchers tend to use hedges when discussing a study’s limitation.*

*With the exception of some fields, researchers use hedges when discussing a study’s limitation.*

### Common hedges:

Limits topics	Limits frequency
a majority of	generally/typically
most	appear(s) to
many	seem(s) to
some	tend(s) to

### 3. Use weaker verbs

Find weaker verbs by checking for synonyms in a learner's dictionary or published papers and noting how these verbs alter the meaning in sentences.

***For example:***

*The analysis indicates differences between the two populations.*

*The analysis establishes differences between the two populations.*

*These differences contributed to the variations in the results.*

*These differences caused the variations in the results.*

### 4. Combine hedging methods

Any of the previous three ways can be combined to further weaken a statement and still be grammatical. Check publications in your field (especially in the data commentary sections) to see how common writers hedge statements.

***For example:***

*The analysis appears to indicate differences between the two populations.*

*These differences may have contributed to the variations in the results.*

#### ***Example of the Pie chart survey analysis***

*The evidence from this pie chart shows that the most popular place people got their music supply from was an 'Online downloader' the second most popular was I tunes, all of the other categories however still had people purchasing from them, therefore this pie chart shows a clear variation in music supplies.*

*It's clear from the information given in this pie chart that the most popular age range taking this survey was 11 to 18 year olds, the other age ranges did take the survey however 11-18 was by far the most popular category, this shows the ages range in which the details of music magazines in this survey applies to.*

*From the information shown in this pie chart the large dark blue area*

*resembles those who do not buy music magazines. However concentrating on the music magazines people taking the survey do buy the most popular ones seem to be Ker range and NME, this gives me help when designing my magazine as to give my magazine similar characteristics to those that my readers are already fond of and buy.*

*From the information given in this pie chart taken from my survey it's not really obvious which reader hobby is more popular than others, however large areas include Going out, friends, internet and shopping. This again gives ideas of what type of articles could be included in my magazine given the hobby information supplied by readers.*

*Evident in the bar chart here the most popular genre of music listened to by the survey takers by quite a chunk is R&B, other genres such as Hip- Hop, Pop, Dance, Club and Metal are all quite popular but not as much as R&B. This gives an idea of what genre of bands to include in my magazine in order to keep up with the demand of reader interest.*

*It's quite obvious that when buying a magazine what many of the readers look for is bands they like and something eye catching with colours and intriguing fonts as a front cover, followed by what is to be included in the content. This therefore gives an idea how the magazine should be designed in order to appeal to reader, a good front cover which makes people want to read/buy.*

*As shown in the small pie chart the majority of people answering the survey preferred a busy and eye catching cover rather than a simple and classy one. This includes lots of pictures/colours/fonts/bands/artists. This also gives an idea when thinking about the designing of my cover on what the readers prefer.*

*As shown here £1-2 is the most popular price readers would be willing to pay for a music magazine. However it also shows that a decent chunk of those taking the survey would be willing to pay from £3-5 or over as those ranges were not left unfilled. These results as a whole give me a good understanding to prices and how much people are willing to pay, also how to price mine matching with the content of the magazine also.*

*The majority of those filling out my survey were females, this means that a lot of the answers given in my survey were in correspond with female opinions rather than male ones. This shows me that much of the content should cater to a female gender as they're the main readers.*

*The pie chart shows the type of social networking sites those taking my survey used most. Therefore the most popular social networking site is twitter. This could help me in designing my magazine as I would be able to include twitter references, or even advertise my magazine to audiences via twitter.*

### **Useful Phrases: Locating the Data**

Below are the most typical phrases that realize the first element of data commentaries. Please pay special attention to the use of prepositions and relative pronouns.

As can be seen from the data, ...

As can be seen in/from Table 1, ...

As demonstrated by the graph, ...

As (it) has been proved in Chapter 1, ...

As shown by the data, ...

As stated on the previous page, ...

... are shown/given/provided/summarized/ demonstrated in Table 1.

For more explanations, see Chapter 1 ...

Table (figure, graph) 1 demonstrates/indicates/shows/suggests (that) ...

Table (figure, graph) 1 gives/illustrates /presents/reveals/summarizes ...

### **Useful Phrases: Highlighting the Data**

Highlighting statements generalize the data. When highlighting the data, it is important to reveal and show the most important details and regularities; it is not necessary to cover all the information.

Highlighting statements often include comparison and contrast. Some widespread patterns with added qualifying words are below.

X is completely/entirely/quite different from Y.

X is considerably/somewhat/slightly larger/smaller than Y.

X is exactly/approximately/almost the same as Y.

X is not exactly/entirely/quite the same as Y.

Both X and Y are/have ...

X and Y are similar in that they both have/are ...

is similar to Y in its ...

X and Y are dissimilar in that X has a m u c h greater/smaller ... than Y.

The main difference/one of the differences between X and Y is that X is . . . ,  
whereas (while) Y is ... X is twice/three times as large/small as Y.

### **Useful Phrases: Discussing the Data**

Data commentaries usually conclude with:

- explanations (and/or),
- discussions of unexpected results or unsatisfactory data (if this is necessary),
- possible further research or possible future predictions ( Swales and Feak, 1994, 80).

The final parts of data commentaries may also include the discussion of limitations of data collection and/or analysis, as in Task 61 (sentences 11-12). Concluding statements judge the data and, therefore, are often written rather cautiously.

**Below are some typical phrases, which you may find useful for your writing.**

The data clarify the relationship between ...

The data indicate/suggest that there is a connection between ...

There is some evidence in the data to support our hypothesis, which proposed that ...

The errors may be due to ...

The inconsistency of data is probably a consequence of . . .

This particular result may be attributed to the influence of . . .

The quantitative data support the initial hypothesis.

The results have failed to explain ...

The results of the experiment question/undermine the previous research.

Although the data shows support for ... , mention should be made of some of the limitations of this study.

The findings of the study need to be treated with certain caution, since ...

Notwithstanding their applicability, these findings will still be limited to simply providing advice and guidance.

## Practical Tasks

**Exercise1. Translate the following useful words.**

Verbs	Nouns	Adjectives	Adverbs and others
decrease	reduction in	gradual	just over
drop	level	high	around/ about
intersect	pie chart	sharp	marginally
jump	proportion	slight	considerably
account for	decline	steady	over
amount to	kink	adjacent	steadily
climb	lessening	steep	around/ about
comprise	leveling off	substantial	slightly
consist of	acceleration	high	gradually
constitute	bar chart	low	both...and...
cross	local dip	major	in a similar way
decline	local maximum	minor	partly
make up	local minimum	partial	sharply
plot	low point	restricted	close to
present	lowering	similar	approximately
reach a peak	caption	significant	just as x,y ...
record	cross-section	linear	substantially
have the greatest rate of	percentage	parallel	not only ... but also
Verbs	Nouns	Adjectives	Adverbs and others
double	rate	sharp	like x, y
rise	area	mostly	
run	depletion	remarkably	
exceed	relationship of	in comparison with	
fall	downturn	as opposed to	
fall off	expansion	in contrast to	
show	extent	by contrast	

soar	fluctuation	instead of	
gain	scale	apart from	
grow	frequency	except for	
distinguish	legend	the same	
include	spike	nevertheless	
vary from/between	stacked bar chart	equally	
display	growth	on the other hand	
become	histogram	unlike	
appreciate	table	while	
compare	volume	whereas	
indicate	altitude	although	
survey	x(y)-axis	even though	
illustrate	percent	similarly	
resemble	range	in the same way	

**Exercise 2. Study the language of graphs and tables which is divided, for convenience, into some groups:**

<p><b>Introductory expressions</b>  The graph / table shows / indicates / illustrates / reveals / represents  It is clear from the graph / table  It can be seen from the graph / table  As the graph / table shows,  As can be seen from the graph / table,  As is shown by the graph / table,  As is illustrated by the graph / table,  From the graph / table it is clear</p>		
<p><b>Time expressions</b>  between –and  from - to / until  (in) the period from - to  (in) the period</p>	<p><b>Quantity expressions</b>  amount  figure  the total quantity  the whole of the  the majority</p>	<p><b>Mathematical expressions</b>  Half  triple  quarter  average  equal</p>

<p><b>Time expressions</b></p> <p>between and  in the first/last three  months of the year  over the period - to  over the next years/  decades/ quarter  over a ten year period  throughout the 19th  century  from that time  after that  then  in the 1980s</p>	<p><b>Quantity expressions</b></p> <p>the maximum  quantity  the total  the total number  the whole amount  the greatest  amount  the minimum  the total amount  all of the  the full amount  the greatest  number</p>	<p><b>Mathematical expressions</b></p> <p>halve  treble  multiply  total  fraction  double  threefold  divide  partial</p>
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**Exercise 3. Match the beginnings and endings of the sentences about setting data in tables and charts.**

<p>1. Tables, graphs, etc. are necessary  2. Visual summaries allow  3. Deciding how to present data  visually makes you  4. Visuals need to be clear even  when  5. Graphs should be used to  6. Too much information in a visual  7. Use standard symbols and</p>	<p>a. be consistent with them.  b. reduced in size in a paper.  c. show trends; tables to show exact numbers.  d. the reader to check the data for themselves.  e. think carefully about what your results  mean.  f. to avoid filling up the text with lists of  numbers.  g. will confuse the reader.</p>
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**Exercise 4. Comparing data in a table**

The table summarizes the efficiency of two methods for learning English. Make a comparison between the two methods. In your description make sure you use:

At least one irregular comparative form (e.g. *worst, fewest*).

All the following words: *less, fewer, more, much, many.*

At least two adverbs (e.g. *efficiently, quickly, fluently*)

Below is an example in which the first few rows of the table are compared.

*In both methods the length of the study was the same (i.e. four months), however the number of participants in Method B was higher than in Method A: 421 and 375, respectively. Not as many words were learned in Method B than in ...*

	<b>Method A</b>	<b>Method B</b>
Number participants in study	375	421
Length of study	4 months	4 months
Number words learned that can be used actively	500	456
Number words that can be understood	3,000	1,500
Number of tenses learned	5	8
Level of fluency achieved	mid 35%	Low 15%
% errors made when speaking	low 10%	good 20%
Writing ability		
% understood while listening to authentic radio news		

**Exercise 5. Numbers.** *The expressions listed below can also be used to present and simplify statistical information.*

**For example:**

*The price of coffee rose from \$750 to \$1,550 in two years. The price of coffee doubled in two years.*

If appropriate, *roughly/approximately* can be added:

*The price of coffee roughly doubled in two years.*

one in three	one in three new businesses ceases trading within a year
twice/three times as many	twice as many women as men study business law
a five/tenfold increase	there was a fivefold increase in the price of oil
to double/halve	the rate of inflation halved after 1997
the highest/lowest	the lowest rate of home ownership was in Germany
a quarter/fifth	a fifth of all employees leave every year

the majority/minority	the majority of shareholders supported the board
on average, the average	on average, each salesperson sells four cars a week
a small/large proportion	the website generates a large proportion of their sales

**NOTE:**

5-20 per cent = a tiny/small minority

40-49 per cent = a substantial/significant minority

51-55 per cent = a small majority

80 per cent + = a vast majority

**Exercise 6. Rewrite each sentence in a simpler way. Using a suitable expression from the list above.**

1. In 1975 a litre of petrol cost 12p, while the price is now £1.20.

2. Out of eighteen students in the group twelve were women.

3. The new high-speed train reduced the journey time to Madrid from seven hours to three hours 20 minutes.

4. The number of students applying for the Management course has risen from 350 last year to 525 this year.

5. Visitor numbers to the theme park show a steady increase. In 2007 there were 40,000 admissions, in 2008 82,000 and 171,000 in 2009.

6. More than 80 per cent of British students complete their first degree course; in Italy the figure is just 35 per cent.

7. Tap water costs 0.07p per litre while bottled water costs, on average, 50p per litre.

8. The rate of unemployment ranges from 18 per cent in Spain to 3 per cent in Norway.

9. 27 out of every hundred garments produced had some kind of fault.

10. 57 per cent of shareholders supported the proposal, but 83 per cent of these expressed some doubts.

**Exercise 7. The data in the table was collected about a group of 15 international students. Write sentences about the group using the data.**

Mother tongue		Future course		Age		Favourite sport	
Arabic	2	Accounting	1	21	1	climbing	2
Chinese	8	Economics	3	22	3	cycling	1

French	1	Finance	2	23	9	dancing	3
Japanese	1	Management	6	24	-	football	3
Korean	2	MBA	2	25	-	swimming	5
Spanish	1	Tourism	1	26	1	tennis	1

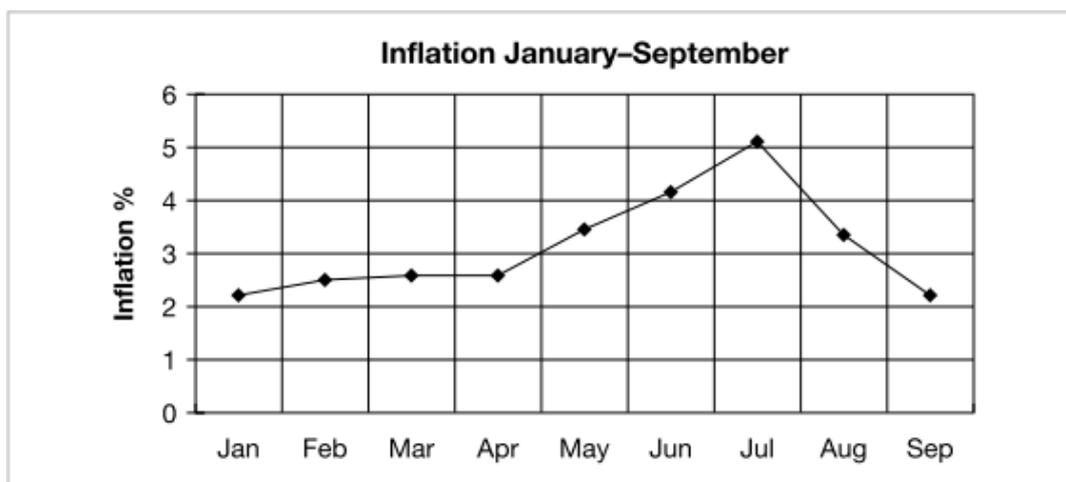
**Exercise 8. The language of change. Study the graph below and completethe description with phrases from the table.**

Verb	Adverb	Verb	Adjective + noun
grew	slightly	dropped	a slight drop
rose	gradually	fell	a gradual fall
increased	steadily	decreased	a sharp decrease
climbed	sharply		
also: a peak, to peak, a plateau, to level off, a trough			

*Profit margins **grew** steadily until 2016 and then **dropped** slightly.*

*There was **a sharp decrease** in sales during the summer and then a **gradual rise**.*

The graph shows that inflation (a)\_\_\_\_\_slightly between Januaryand February and then (b)\_\_\_\_\_until April. It subsequently climbed (c)\_\_\_\_to July, when it (d)\_\_\_\_\_at just over 5 per cent. From July to Septemberinflation (e)\_\_\_\_\_steeply.



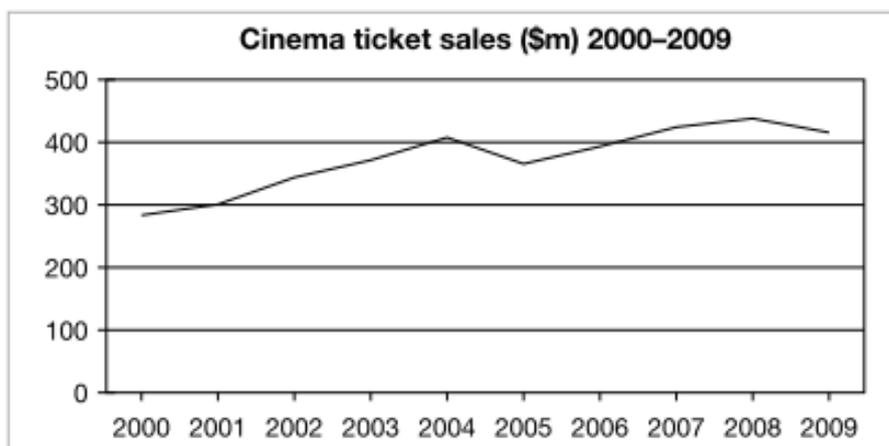
**Exercise 9. Visual information.** Below there are examples of some of the main types of visuals used in academic texts. Complete the box below to show the use a-f and the example A-F of each type.

**Uses:**

- a. location
- b. comparison
- c. proportion
- d. function
- e. changes in time
- f. statistical display

TYPES	USES	EXAMPLE
1 diagram		
2 table		
3 map		
4 pie chart		
5 bar chart		
6 line graph		

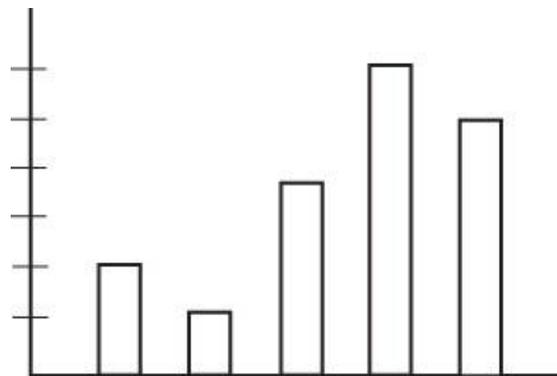
(A) Cinema ticket sales



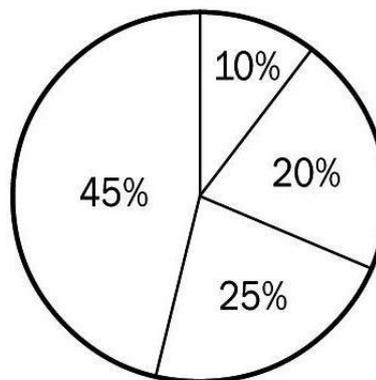
(B) Total expenditure on R & D (% of GDP)

Sweden	3.6
Finland	3.4
Iceland	3.1
Japan	3.0
South Korea	2.9
United States	2.8
Switzerland	2.6

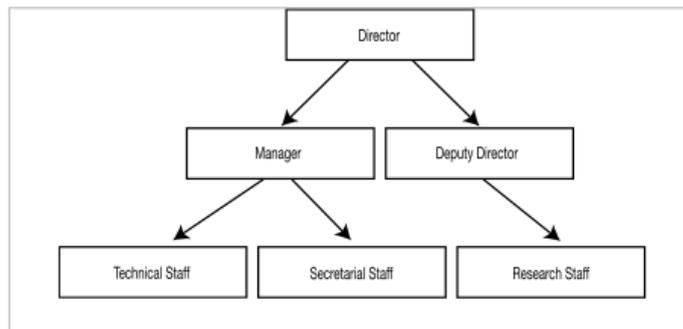
(C) Electricity output from coal



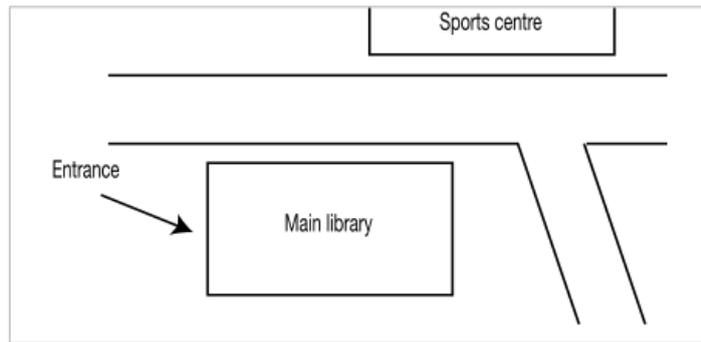
(D) Origins of international students



(E) Structure of the research unit



(F) Position of the main library



**Exercise 9. Describing visuals.**

Although visuals do largely speak for themselves, it is common to help the reader interpret them by briefly commenting on their main features.

The graph	shows	the changes in the price of oil since 2000
map	illustrates	the main sources of copper in Africa
diagram	displays	the organisation of both companies

**Read the following descriptions of the chart below. Which is better? Why?**

I. *The chart shows the quantity of tea consumed by the world's leading tea consuming nations. India and China together consume more than half the world's tea production, with India alone consuming about one third. Other significant tea consumers are Turkey, Russia and Britain. 'Others' includes the United States, Iran and Egypt.*

II. *The chart shows that 31 per cent of the world's tea is consumed by India, 23 per cent by China, and 8 per cent by Turkey. The largest consumers are Japan and Britain, with 7 per cent each, while Pakistan consumes 5 per cent. Other countries account for the remaining 12 per cent.*

**Exercise 10. Labelling. Complete the following description of the table below (one word per gap).**

When referring to visual information in the text, the word 'figure' is used for almost everything (such as maps, charts and graphs) except tables. Figures and tables should be numbered and given a title. Titles of tables are written above, while titles of figures are written below the data. As with other data, sources must be given for all visual information.

If you are writing a lengthy work such as a dissertation you will need to provide lists of tables and figures, showing numbers, titles and page numbers after the contents page.

	Australia	Brazil	China	France	Germany	India	Japan	UK	USA
Total tax as % GDP	29.5	32.3	16.4	44.7	40.4	18.9	28.2	37.7	28.0

Table 1 (a)\_\_\_\_\_the proportion of tax revenues raised by national governments in relation to GDP in 2013. It can be seen that there are considerable variations, with the (b)\_\_\_\_\_government collecting nearly 45 per cent of GDP, while in China the (c)\_\_\_\_\_is below 20 per cent. In general, (d)\_with higher welfare spending such as France, Germany and the UK collect more (e) \_\_\_\_\_ the developing BRIC economies such as India, but there are some exceptions to this, with the Brazilian government collecting a (f) \_\_\_\_\_ percentage of GDP than Australia's.

**Exercise 11. Write a paragraph commenting on the data in the table below (The world's largest companies 2014)**

Rank	Company	Revenues \$m.	Profits \$m.
1.	Royal Dutch Shell	458,361	26,277
2.	Exxon Mobile	442,851	45,220
3.	Wal-Mart Stores	405,607	13,400
4.	BP	367,053	21,157
5.	Chevron	263,159	23,931
6.	Total	234,674	15,500
7.	Conoco Phillips	230,764	-16,998
8.	ING Group	226,577	-1,067
9.	Synopec	207,814	1,961
10.	Toyota Motor	204,352	-4,349

### Check yourself

Write a commentary to your own research data or any available data in your field of study.

## UNIT 8. CITATION. REFERNCE. PLAGIARISM

### PART 1. CHARACTERISTIC OF THE TERMS

We shall start with defining the essence of the notions. **Citation** – the way to tell your readers that the information you used comes from another source. Citations play an important role in academic texts. They are used to demonstrate the familiarity of the citing author with the field of investigation, to provide support for his/her research claims or criticism. Also, by describing what has already been done in the field, citations point the way to what has not been done and thus prepare a space for new research (Swales, p.181).

Giving credit to cited sources is called **documentation**. There are two main methods of documenting. The first one, numeric, involves putting a number near the reference. The full reference is given then in the bibliography at the end of the text – in numerical sequence, or as a footnote at the bottom of the page.

The second procedure of documenting, which is probably more popular, consists in putting a short reference in the text itself. Normally, it includes the authors (authors’) last name(s) and the year of publication and page numbers in parentheses (separated/not separated by a comma or a colon), e.g.: (Osofisan 1986, 786-7), or (Chan 1993: 31). If a reference is made to the whole work, the page numbers are usually not given: (Durning, 1990). If several authors are simultaneously cited, their names are separated in parentheses by a semicolon: (Edwards, Schuldiner). Sometimes, an ampersand (&) is used in place of *and* between the names of two authors, e.g.: (Sudhof & Jahn). If a reference is made to a paper written by more than two authors, it is possible to give the name of the first author followed by the Latin abbreviation *et al.*: (Liu et al., Krickson et al.). As in the first case, the full references are given in the bibliography at the end of the text. However, referencing formats vary across disciplines, and it is advisable to check the journals in the areas of research interest.

**Instead of “the author says,” consider “the author...**

acknowledges	analyzes
addresses	answers
adds	appeals
admits	approves

advocates	argues
contends	articulates
agrees	criticizes
allows	asks
confuses	champions
considers	charges
attacks	claims
attests	clarifies
confirms	comments
backs up	communicates
believes	complicates
challenges	concludes
declares	highlights
defines	holds
demonstrates	hypothesizes
describes	illustrates
develops	indicates
disagrees	insists
embraces	interprets
emphasizes	maintains
examines	mentions
explains	notes
expresses	records
extends	refers
offers	remarks
poses	reports
points out	represents
presents	Shows
questions	simplifies
reasons	States
recognizes	stresses
recommends	subscribes
summarizes	Thinks
supports	Writes

**Instead of “this example shows,” consider “this example...**

communicates	implies
complicates	indicates
confirms	points out
demonstrates	presents
emphasizes	Proves
exemplifies	provokes
exhibits	Relates
explains	represents
explicates	simplifies
highlights	strengthens
illuminates	stresses
illustrates	suggests
summarizes	supports

So, **reference** - a mention or citation of a source of information in a book or article.

### **Using proper citation and reference.**

In higher education whenever you include a fact or piece of information in an assignment or essay you must also include where and how you found that piece of information. Even if you 'just know it' - it has to have come from somewhere. This is because in higher education assignment writing you are not just being tested on what you know, but rather what you are able to find out and what you think it means.

Details about where you found the information utilised to write your assignment are kept in two chapters right at the very end, called the reference list and bibliography. The reference list is where you list the direct quotes or paraphrased findings of another author. The bibliography is where you list sources you've read for background information, but did not directly include in your work. In addition, a small mention to the author and publish year, within brackets, must be given in the main body of your assignment wherever you make a reference.

### **Usage of reference**

From reading academic articles and books, you should be familiar with the scholarly practice of making references in the text to other people's work and

providing listings of relevant source material at the end of the text. Why is this done, and why should you adopt this approach in your own work? There are several reasons:

- To enable someone reading the document to find the material you have referred to or consulted
- To demonstrate your width of reading and knowledge about a subject
- To support and/or develop points made in the text
- To avoid accusations of plagiarism: using somebody else's work without acknowledging the fact
- Because you may be required to do so by your department.

### **Referencing Styles**

Nowadays citation styles differ mostly in the location, order, and syntax of information about references. The number and diversity of citation styles reflect different priorities with respect to concision, readability, dates, authors, publications, and, of course, style.

There are also two major divisions within most citation styles: **documentary-note style** and **parenthetical style**. Documentary-note style is the standard form of documenting sources. It involves using either **footnotes** or **endnotes**, so that information about your sources is readily available to your readers but does not interfere with their reading of your work.

This is generally considered an abbreviated form of citation, and it does not require footnotes or endnotes, although it does require the equivalent of a "Works Cited" page at the end of the paper. It is easier to write, but might interfere with how smoothly your work reads.

With so many different citation styles, how do you know which one is right for your paper? First, we strongly recommend asking your instructor. There are several factors which go into determining the appropriate citation style, including discipline (priorities in an English class might differ from those of a Psychology class, for example), academic expectations (papers intended for publication might be subject to different standards than mid-term papers), the research aims of an assignment, and the individual preference of your instructor.

To make the reference list and bibliography consistent and easy to read across different papers there are predefined styles stating how to set them out - these are

called citation styles. Different subjects prefer to each use different styles. The following are the most popular:

**APA.** APA is an author/date based style. This means emphasis is placed on the author and the date of a piece of work to uniquely identify it.

**MLA.** MLA is most often applied by the arts and humanities, particularly in the USA. It is arguably the most well used of all of the citation styles.

**Harvard.** Harvard is very similar to APA. Where APA is primarily used in the USA, Harvard referencing is the most well used referencing style in the UK and Australia, and is encouraged for use with the humanities.

**Vancouver.** The Vancouver system is mainly used in medical and scientific papers.

**Chicago and Turabian.** These are two separate styles but are very similar, just like Harvard and APA. These are widely used for history and economics.

Regardless of what subject you're writing for, you should use the style your university and tutor recommend and you must not mix-and-match.

## **PART 2. AVOIDING PLAGIARISM**

**Plagiarism** – the practice of taking someone else's work or ideas and passing them off as one's own.

If you quote or paraphrase another author's work without including a reference to it, you are plagiarising. Not only is it very easy to detect plagiarism using online services, but it is also very easy for your tutor to spot it just by reading your work. Remember - you are not being marked on your ability to write facts or show off what you know. Any assumptions or facts you state must have someone else's credible work to back you up. Plagiarism does not only mean cheating, it is mainly used to describe forgetting or not realising to include a reference to other's work or theories.

### **Bibliography?**

A bibliography is not just "works cited." It is *all* the relevant material you drew upon to write the paper the reader holds.

If you read any articles or books in preparing your paper, you need a bibliography or footnotes.

If you cite the arguments of "critics" and "supporters," even if you don't name them or quote them directly, you are likely referring to information you read in books or articles as opposed to information you've gathered firsthand, like a news reporter, and so you need a bibliography.

If you quote sources and put some of the reference information in the text, you still need a bibliography, so that readers can track down the source material for themselves.

If you use footnotes to identify the source of your material or the authors of every quote, you DO NOT need a bibliography, UNLESS there are materials to which you do not refer directly (or if you refer to additional sections of the materials you already referenced) that also helped you reach your conclusions. In any event, your footnotes need to follow the formatting guidelines below.

### **Rules to Cite Sources in the Text**

In-text citations alert readers to cited material and tell them exactly where to go and look. These citations work in conjunction with a bibliography.

Usually, an in-text citation is a combination of a name (usually the author's) and a number (either a year, a page number, or both).

For Internet sources, use the original publication date, not your retrieval date.

Internet sources also do not have page numbers, so use your discretion in the format that will direct the reader closest to the relevant section. You can number the paragraphs (abbreviate "par.") or chapters (abbreviate "chap.") or sections (abbreviate "sec.>").

If there is no author listed, the document's title should be used in place of the author's name. Use the entire title but not the subtitle. Subtitles are anything appearing after a colon (:).

### **Use a signal phrase**

A signal phrase alerts the reader to the fact that you are citing another source for the information he or she is about to read.

Myers reported that "structured decision aids, as a factor in a more structured audit approach, are designed to focus the auditor on relevant information to improve effectiveness, and to improve audit efficiency, by eliminating the time needed to develop or organize individual approaches to the audit problems." (sec. 1, "Introduction").

Note that the date goes with the author, directions within the document go with the quote.

Later on, same source, different section:

According to one study (Myers, 1997), inexperienced auditors from a structured firm will demonstrate higher audit effectiveness in the typical audit situation than inexperienced auditors from an unstructured firm. (sec. 2, "Structure and Audit Effectiveness").

### **Full parenthetical citation after the material cited**

Another method is to end the quote with the full citation:

The primary controversies surrounding the issue of accounting for stock-based compensation include whether these instruments represent an expense that should be recognized in the income statement and, if so, when they should be recognized and how they should be measured. (Martin and Duchac, 1997, Sec. 3, “Theoretical Justification for Expense Recognition”).

### **For long quotes, use a previewing sentence and a parenthetical citation**

Long quotes are 40 words or longer and should be single-spaced even in double-spaced papers. The previewing sentence tells the reader what to look for in the quotes (and helps the reader change gears from you to another author).

Martin and Duchac (1997) reiterate the problems with stock-based compensation and accounting issues.

While it is true these estimates generate uncertainties about value and the costs to be recognized, cost recognition should be the fundamental objective and information based on estimates can be useful just as it is with defined benefit pension plans.

Given the similarities between stock based compensation and defined benefit pension costs, an expense should be recognized for employee stock options just as pension costs are recognized for defined benefit pension plans. The FASB agreed with this assessment in their exposure draft on stock based compensation, noting that nonrecognition of employee stock option costs produces financial statements that are neither credible nor representationally faithful. (sec. 2.1, “Recognition of Compensation Cost”).

Note the consistent indentation and the paragraph break inside the quote. Also note that the parenthetical citation falls outside the closing period.

### **Source-reflective statements**

Sometimes, summarizing arguments from your sources can leave the reader in doubt as to whose opinion he or she is seeing. If the language is too close to the original source’s, you can leave yourself open to charges of low-level plagiarism or “word borrowing.” Using a source-reflective statement can clarify this problem, allowing you the freedom to assert your voice and opinion without causing confusion.

### **For example:**

Myers (1997) reported that “structured decision aids, as a factor in a more structured audit approach, are designed to focus the auditor on relevant information to improve effectiveness, and to improve audit efficiency, by eliminating the time needed to develop or organize individual approaches to the audit problems.” (sec. 1, “Introduction”) Thus, audit pricing by firms with a structured audit approach is lower, on average, than firms with an intermediate or unstructured audit approach.

Is the observation in the last sentence Myers’s or the author’s? We aren’t sure. So insert a source-reflective statement to avoid confusion.

Myers (1997) reported that “structured decision aids, as a factor in a more structured audit approach, are designed to focus the auditor on relevant information to improve effectiveness, and to improve audit efficiency, by eliminating the time needed to develop or organize individual approaches to the audit problems.” (sec. 1, “Introduction”) *Myers’s observation suggests that* audit pricing by firms with a structured audit approach is lower, on average, than firms with an intermediate or unstructured audit approach.

### **How to Use Footnotes**

You may decide to substitute footnotes for in-text citations and a bibliography. Footnotes are thorough, like entries in the bibliography, and yet specific, like in-text citations. However, depending on the thoroughness of your use of footnotes, you may also need a bibliography.

If you decide to use footnotes, you should follow the format outlined above for the information to include in your entries and should number each footnote separately (1, 2, 3, etc.). You should NOT use the same number twice, even when referencing the same document.

### **Sample citation and referencing**

#### **Books**

Books are the bibliography format with which you’re probably most familiar. Books follow this pattern:

Author Last Name, Author First Name. (Publication Year) *Title*.  
Publisher’s City: Publisher. Page numbers.

Alexander, Carol. (2011) *Market Models: A Guide to Financial Data Analysis*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons. pp. 200-220.

## **Periodicals**

Periodicals remove the publisher city and name and add the title of the article and the volume or issue number of the periodical. Notice article titles are put in quotation marks and only the publication title is italicized or underlined.

Author Last Name, Author First Name. (Publication Date—could be more than a year) “Article Title.” *Publication Title*, Vol. #.(Issue #), Page numbers.

Salman, William A. (July-August 1997) “How to Write a Great Business Plan.” *Harvard Business Review* 74. pp. 98-108.

## **Web versions of printed material**

As web sources are time-sensitive, meaning that web content can change day by day, it is important to include the day of retrieval and the URL from which you quoted the material. You include this in a retrieval statement.

The format for online versions of print publications should basically follow the same format as above, meaning if you’re referencing an online book, you should follow the book format with the addition of the retrieval statement. If you’re referencing an online periodical, you should follow the periodical format with the addition of the retrieval statement.

Note that you should not break the Internet address of the link, even if it requires its own line. Very long URLs, such as those that occur when using an online database, can be shortened by removing the retrieval code. (The retrieval code usually consists of a long string of unintelligible letters and numbers following the end point “htm” or “html.” Remove everything that occurs after that point to shorten.)

Author. (Date of Internet Publication—could be more than a year) “Document Title.” *Title of Publication*. Retrieved on: Date from Full Web Address, starting with http:// Grant, Linda. (January 13, 1997) “Can Fisher Focus Kodak?” *Fortune*. Retrieved on August 22, 1997 from [www.pathfinder.com/@ctQzLAcAQQIIP/fortune/1997/970113/kod.html](http://www.pathfinder.com/@ctQzLAcAQQIIP/fortune/1997/970113/kod.html)

**Paraphrasing** is important strategy that second-language writers need to develop for summary writing. As Bailey (2003, 21) points out, effective paraphrasing is vital in academic writing for, among other things, avoiding the risk of plagiarism. A good paraphrase, in his words, ‘is significantly different from the wording of the original, without altering the meaning at all’. Plagiarism is a serious issue in international science, even though it may not be considered so in your country of

origin. It is easy for native speakers to spot it in the work of non native speakers. If you commit plagiarism your credibility and reputation will be seriously compromised. Copying phrases from other people's work is perfectly acceptable and is a good way to learn useful phrases in English that you can then use in your own work. However, such phrases must be 100% generic.

**So, a paraphrase is. . .**

- your own rendition of essential information and ideas expressed by someone else, presented in a new form;
- one's legitimate way (when accompanied by accurate documentation) to borrow from a source;
- a more detailed restatement than a summary, which focuses concisely on a single main idea.

**Paraphrasing is a valuable skill because. . .**

- it is better than quoting information from an undistinguished passage.
- it helps you control the temptation to quote too much.
- the mental process required for successful paraphrasing helps you to grasp the full meaning of the original.

**Steps to Effective Paraphrasing**

- Reread the original passage until you understand its full meaning.
- Set the original aside, and write your paraphrase on a note card.
- At the top of the note card, write a key word or phrase to indicate the subject of your paraphrase.
- Check your rendition with the original to make sure that your version accurately expresses all the essential information in a new form.
- Use quotation marks to identify any unique term or phraseology you have borrowed exactly from the source.
- Record the source (including the page) on your note card so that you can credit it easily if you decide to incorporate the material into your paper.
- Never paraphrase technical words.
- If the original contains ideas that in some sense 'belonged' to the original author, then this author should be acknowledged. This is true even if you have radically changed the original so that it is now unrecognizable.

**There are key techniques which can be used to paraphrase.**

They are the following:

- changing the word,
- changing the word class,
- changing the word order.

**Typical ways to paraphrase:**

- use of synonyms for non key words (especially verbs, adverbs and adjectives)
- change of part of speech, for example: from noun to verb, from noun to adjective, from one category of noun to another category of noun (e.g. science to scientist)
- change of nouns and pronouns from singular to plural and vice versa
- change of verb form, for example: from –ing form to infinitive, from simple to continuous, from active to passive
- change of style from personal to impersonal
- reversal of the order in which information is presented.

**The examples of using different citation styles in the text:**

**Example 1: Literary Studies (MLA)**

The MLA requires a parenthetical citation in the body of the text that corresponds to an entry in the Works Cited at the end. A citation for a quotation from a book in the MLA style is formatted this way:

As Frank Lentricchia argues, *The Waste Land* should not be understood as a logical sequence of events but as “an intellectual and emotional complex grasped in an instant of time” (194).

The parenthetical citation “(194)” refers to a page number from a book by Frank Lentricchia. Publication information about the book would be found in the Works Cited, where it would be formatted this way:

Lentricchia, Frank. *Modernist Quartet*. New York: Cambridge UP, 1994.

**Example 2: Psychology (APA)**

The APA also requires parenthetical citations in the body of the text, though these citations typically include the author and the date. A citation for a summary of an article in the APA style is formatted this way:

Studies that examine links between cardiovascular and mental activity must understand that cardiovascular activity itself comprises a suite of variables (Van Roon, Mulder, Althaus, and Mulder, 2004).

The parenthetical citation “(Van Roon, Mulder, Althaus, and Mulder, 2004)” refers to an article by the four listed co-authors. Publication information about the article would be found in the References, where it would be formatted this way:

Van Roon, A., Mulder, L., Althaus, M., and Mulder, G. (2004). Introducing a baroflex model for studying cardiovascular effects of mental workload. *Psychophysiology*, 41,961–981.

### **Example 3: History (CMS)**

CMS, or “Chicago,” is a style in which citations are presented in footnotes. A citation for a quotation from an article in the Chicago style is formatted this way:

Nineteenth-century bohemians were more dependent on mainstream culture than might at first appear. As one scholar puts it, “Bohemia’s self-designated types always existed in symbiotic relation to bourgeois culture rather than in opposition to it.”<sup>1</sup>

The footnote would refer to a note at the bottom of the page containing full publication information and formatted this way:

1. Christine Stansell, *American Moderns: Bohemian New York and the Creation of a New Century* (New York: Henry Holt and Co., 2000), 18.

### **Electronic Sources**

An electronic source is any source that exists primarily in electronic form and is accessed primarily through electronic means. Websites, online periodicals, online books, e-mails and postings, and even CD-ROMs are all forms of electronic sources. But be careful: not all materials found through electronic means are necessarily electronic sources. For example, if a PDF of an article you found through a database on the library’s website was originally published in a printed journal, then the article doesn’t qualify as an electronic source. In short, there’s a difference between electronic sources and sources that are accessed electronically.

When citing an online source, your citation should contain the following elements:

- the author or editor (if available)
- the title of the text (if different from the name of the website)
- the name of the website
- the name of the site’s sponsor or associated institution or organization
- the date you accessed the site
- the electronic address (URL).

For example, a short work posted on a website would be formatted in MLA style as follows:

McCort, Dennis. "Kafka and the Coincidence of Opposites." *Romantic Circles Praxis Series: Romanticism and Buddhism*. Feb. 2007. *Romantic Circles*. 21 Apr. 2008 [www.rc.umd.edu/praxis/buddhism/mccort/mccort.html](http://www.rc.umd.edu/praxis/buddhism/mccort/mccort.html).

This citation includes not only the author's name and the work's title, but also other important information, including the date of the work's publication on the site (February 2007) and the date the website was accessed (21 April 2008).

The published guides of the MLA, APA, and Chicago styles include detailed descriptions of how to cite most electronic sources. As explained earlier in this booklet, the emerging nature of this new technology means that conventions are forming quickly, and the variations among citation styles vary considerably. Be sure to look up the appropriate form of citation and to consult your professor about any points of confusion.

### **Example of plagiarism**

#### **Original source (text)**

Alvin Kernan, *The Playwright as Magician*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1999. pp. 102–103.

From time to time this submerged or latent theater in becomes almost overt. It is close to the surface in Hamlet's pretense of madness, the "antic disposition" he puts on to protect himself and prevent his antagonists from plucking out the heart of his mystery. It is even closer to the surface when Hamlet enters his mother's room and holds up, side by side, the pictures of the two kings, Old Hamlet and Claudius, and proceeds to describe for her the true nature of the choice she has made, presenting truth by means of a show. Similarly, when he leaps into the open grave at Ophelia's funeral, ranting in high heroic terms, he is acting out for Laertes, and perhaps for himself as well, the folly of excessive, melodramatic expressions of grief.

#### **Verbatim plagiarism, or unacknowledged direct quotation (lifted passages are underlined)**

Almost all of Shakespeare's Hamlet can be understood as a play about acting and the theater. For example, there is Hamlet's pretense of madness, the "antic disposition" that he puts on to protect himself and prevent his antagonists from plucking out the heart of his mystery. When Hamlet enters his mother's room, he

holds up, side by side, the pictures of the two kings, Old Hamlet and Claudius, and proceeds to describe for her the true nature of the choice she has made, presenting truth by means of a show. Similarly, when he leaps into the open grave at Ophelia's funeral, ranting in high heroic terms, he is acting out for Laertes, and perhaps for himself as well, the folly of excessive, melodramatic expressions of grief.

### **Comment for example I**

Aside from an opening sentence loosely adapted from the original and reworded more simply, this entire passage is taken almost word-for-word from the source. The few small alterations of the source do not relieve the writer of the responsibility to attribute these words to their original author, Alvin Kernan. A passage from a source may be worth quoting at length if it makes a point precisely or elegantly. In such cases, copy the passage exactly, place it in quotation marks, and cite the author.

### **Practical Tasks**

*Exercise 1. Paraphrasing: Decide whether the paraphrased passages are acceptable or unacceptable. If unacceptable, say WHY.*

#### **Original Source**

A key factor in explaining the sad state of American education can be found in overbureaucratization, which is seen in the compulsion to consolidate our public schools into massive factories and to increase to mammoth size our universities even in underpopulated states. The problem with bureaucracies is that they have to work hard and long to keep from substituting self-serving survival and growth for their original primary objective. Few succeed. Bureaucracies have no soul, no memory, and no conscience. If there is a single stumbling block on the road to the future, it is the bureaucracy as we know it.

Edward T. Hall, *Beyond Culture*, Anchor Publishing, 1977, p. 219.

#### **Paraphrase 1**

American education is overly bureaucratic. This is manifest in the increasing size of educational institutions, even in small states. Bureaucracies are bad because they tend to work to promote their own survival and growth rather than that of the institution, as was their initial objective. Most bureaucracies fail because they have a conscience or a soul. I believe that bureaucracies are the biggest stumbling block on

the road to the educational future.

### **Paraphrase 2**

Bureaucratization has proved to be a major stumbling block on the road to our educational future. American institutions have become factories that are more conducive to the growth of bureaucratic procedures than to the growth of the students who attend them. Bureaucracies have to work long and hard to keep from promoting their own survival rather than the educational goals that were their primary objective.

### **Paraphrase 3**

Bureaucratization has proved to be a major stumbling block on the road to our educational future. American institutions have become factories that are more conducive to the growth of bureaucratic procedures than to the growth of the students who attend them. This means that, as In Hall's (1977) opinion today's educational institutions "have no soul, no memory, and no conscience".

### **Paraphrase 4**

Hall (1977) discusses the problems posed by the increasing bureaucratization of American educational institutions. Hall maintains that overbureaucratization is one of the key factors governing the state of education in America today. He points to the tendency of bureaucracies to promote their own growth and survival first and foremost, and observes that few overcome that tendency. He believes that this is responsible for the fact that many public schools bear a closer resemblance to factories than to educational institutions. In Hall's (1977) words, "Bureaucracies have no soul, no memory, and no conscience " (p. 219).

### **Answers:**

**P1. Unacceptable.** This paraphrase retains most of the original author's ideas, as well as his way of structuring and expressing them. The writer has not only made no effort to acknowledge the original author, she has used the expression "I believe..." in a way that suggests that the ideas in question are her own.

**P2. Unacceptable.** This paraphrase retains most of the original author's ideas and several key phrases, although it juggles their order around and rephrases them. The writer has not acknowledged the original author.

**P3. Unacceptable.** The writer does credit the original author, but she only

credits him with one of the ideas/phrases she uses and she misrepresents what he says by omitting a key word from her quote.

**P4. Acceptable.** The writer has avoided using too many of Hall's key phrases and clearly attributes his ideas to him without distorting their meaning).

*From: <http://gsi.berkeley.edu/teachingguide/misconduct/exercise.html>*

**Exercise 2. Paraphrase by changing nouns into verbs. Replace the phrases in italics with a verb and make any other necessary changes.**

1. The use of a microscope is essential for a full comprehension of the technique.
2. In certain environments this could lead to an enhancement in the lipid preservation.
3. The anaerobic bacteria can cause a strong degradation of the wood.
4. The amount formed is strictly dependent on the degree of oxidation, thus the values observed present a high variability and are influenced by many factors.
5. Samples were directly monitored for the observation of the morphological characteristics.
6. The assessment of this index was carried out by means of the correlation function.
7. The heating of the probe can be carried out in two different ways:
8. The main drawbacks are the increase in volume and weight of the residue which causes the loss of the advantage of the incineration process, and the production of a material that might still be very hazardous for the environment.
9. This solution implies the reaching of a consensus among these processes.
10. The authors wish to thank the Department of Political Sciences for the setting up and coordination of the project.

**Exercise 3. Paraphrasing by changing the parts of speech and word order. Rewrite the sentences below so that (1) the word order is different (where possible), and (2) at least one element changes from, for example, verb to noun, or noun to verb, or active to passive, or adjective to adverb.**

The examples below show two different ways to change the sentence. However, you only need to find one way. No key is given for this exercise as there are many ways to paraphrase each sentence.

**For example:**

*X is different from Y in a number of respects. = There are a number of important differences between X and Y. = X differs from Y in several fundamental ways.*

*This tool is targeted at end users. = The target of this tool is end users. = End users are the target of this tool.*

*This survey provides a summary of the relevant literature. = This article aims to do widen current knowledge of this topic. Summarizing the most pertinent papers in the field is the focus of this article.*

1. Our experiments confirm previous results [Wiley 2009].
2. We found much higher values with respect to those reported by Pandey [2000].
3. To the best of our knowledge no other authors have found that  $x = y$ .
4. In conclusion, our work demonstrates that  $x = y$ .
5. Figure 1 clearly shows that these values reach a peak when  $x = y$ .
6. There is a possibility that dissimilar evaluations would have arisen if the focus had been on  $x$  instead of  $y$ .
7. Many attempts have been made [Kim 2009, Li 2010, Hai 2011] aimed at improving performance.
8. As far as we know this is the first time that this system ...
9. The samples were prepared as required by current norms.
10. A great deal of attention must be paid when handling the samples.
11. This method suffers from a number of pitfalls.
12. We would like to thank the following people for their support, without whose help this work would never have been possible:
13. It is very likely that participants may have answered the questions incorrectly.
14. The reasons for this result are not yet entirely understood.
15. Despite the limitations of this method, and consequently the poor results in Test 2, our findings do nevertheless suggest that ...

**Exercise 4. Finding synonyms. Write at least one synonym for each of the words/phrases in bold.**

1. Last century this procedure **was considered** to be the most ...
2. Previous work has only **focused on** addressing the symptoms rather than the cause.
3. Concerns **have arisen** which question the **validity** of ...

4. This paper **outlines** a new approach to ...
5. The **aim** of our work was to **further current** knowledge of ...
6. Vitous [2015] has provided a new definition, in which ...
7. A body of literature **has examined** [Ref].
8. **An increase** in the number of cases was first noted by ...
9. Experiments with this system **were conducted** in 2009 by a group of **researchers** from ...
10. Many **experts** now contend that rather than using Pappov's approach it might be more useful to ...
11. To assess whether plastic could be **converted** into gold we ...
12. The **set up** we used can be found in [Ref 2].
13. The apparatus consists of three main parts.
14. The **interface** can easily be customized to suit all requirements.
15. Having this system enabled us **to incorporate** several new parameters.
16. The **interviewees** were divided into two groups.
17. We began this **project** three years ago.
18. This **underlines** just how important this system is.
19. This **confirms** previous findings in the literature ...
20. Further tests carried out with this system **confirmed** our initial findings.
21. As **expected**, our experiments prove that.
22. This **research** has raised the need for further investigation.
23. As was **mentioned** in the Methods, ...

**Exercise 5. Finding synonyms. Write at least one synonym for each of the words in bold.**

1. This has many uses **in the field of** ...
2. **A major defect** of this procedure is ...
3. In **this report** we ...
4. **A recent review** of the literature on this topic [2012] found that ...
5. Southern's group [5] **calls into question** some past assumptions about this procedure.
6. The method is **essentially the same** as that used by Kirk [2009] with some changes.

7. This **component** is fully compliant with international norms.
8. **The software application** used to analyze the data was SoftGather (Softsift plc, London).
9. The main **criteria** for selecting the samples was not mentioned at all.
10. In all cases patients' consent was **obtained**.
11. In the **first step** of the process ...
12. This new equipment has **the ability to** outperform all previous versions.
13. Our procedure is a clear **improvement** on current methods.
14. There are several possible explanations for **this result**.
15. The results **point to** the likelihood that the species will be extinct within 5 years.
16. **Further** experimental investigations are needed to estimate ...
17. These findings suggest the following directions for future research:
18. An important issue **to resolve** for future studies is ...

**Exercise 6. Finding synonyms: adjectives. Write at least one synonym for each of the words/phrases in bold.**

1. It is straightforward to verify that ...
2. Malaria is the **main** cause of ...
3. Many hypotheses regarding this system appear to be *ill-defined*.
4. In their **seminal** paper of 2001, Peters and Jones ...
5. Kamos's [23] assumptions seem to be **realistic**.
6. Their approach is not **well** suited to ...
7. The **traditional** approach to sample collection is to ...
8. Our results were **disappointing**. However, ...
9. One **possible** application of our technique would be ...

**Exercise 7. Finding synonyms: adverbs and prepositions. Write at least one synonym for each of the words/phrases in bold.**

1. **Since** the focus of the study was on a new system, we decided to ...
2. There has been some disagreement **concerning** whether x is equal to you or not.
3. Several authors have attempted to define emotional intelligence, but **as yet** there is **still** no accepted definition.
4. The fonts , **i.e.** the form of the characters, are of various types .
5. **Little** is known about ...

6. Statistical significance was analyzed *by using* SoftGather.
7. The aim of this system is to increase performance. **Consequently** we.
8. We chose this particular apparatus **because** it is inexpensive.
9. The samples were prepared **as** described by Jude [2010].
10. **Almost two-thirds of the** participants (64%) commented that ...
11. **In response to** Question 1, most of those surveyed indicated that ...
12. **Interestingly,** only 7–8 year olds were able to find the answer.
13. **Overall,** our results show this machine outperforms all the others on the market.
14. The correlation between the two procedures **is worth noting** because ...
15. **In contrast to** earlier findings [Castenas, 2009], we ...
16. **Although** there was some inconsistency ...
17. We hope that our research will be helpful in solving this difficulty. **At the same time** we believe that ....

**Exercise 9. Paraphrasing by changing word order. Rewrite these sentences by putting the part in bold at the beginning of the sentence. Make any changes that you feel are necessary.**

1. There are several categories of race and ethnicity. **These include Hispanic, American Indian and Filipino.**
2. There are three categories of rendering techniques. **These are A, B and C.**
3. Someone who spends their day thinking about existential problems is called a **philosopher.**
4. The usual length of the rod is **two meters.**
5. The disease may be caused by **water pollution, contaminants in food** etc.
6. The categorisation combines **the ideas from previous taxonomies.**
7. It is still not fully understood **how the brain works.**
8. A courier delivered **the package.**

**Exercise 10. Replacing “we” with the passive form. Imagine you have written the Materials and Methods below. You then discover that your chosen journal does not allow the use of personal pronouns. Where possible and appropriate, rewrite the parts in bold by removing all instances of “we” and “our”.**

(1) **In the first part of our study, we analysed** the length of 50 European Union documents written in English and Spanish, to confirm whether documents

which purport to be exact translations of the same subject, vary substantially in length. The difference was not significant: Spanish documents were typically in the region of 5% longer. Not convinced by this result, (2) **we then decided** to do a more detailed study. One thousand scientific articles written in English and the same number written in Spanish were scanned using a conventional high resolution scanner. A ‘Word Parser’ was then used to analyse the articles in terms of: word length, sentence length, frequency of use of nouns rather than verbs, the use of impersonal phrases and passive form, and the frequency of particular punctuation marks.

The two languages were compared on the basis of the number of occurrences of these elements. For example, (3) **we assumed that** there would be a direct correlation between the length of words and sentences and the reader’s understanding of such sentences, i.e. the shorter the sentence (the quicker and deeper the understanding).

### **Check yourself**

#### **Choose the most appropriate variant:**

1. All the information from other sources should be cited.
  - a) Yes, all of it.
  - b) No, you needn’t use reference or citation.
  - c) You may cite the source if you want to.
2. What is the difference between a reference list?
  - a) These are synonyms and mean the same.
  - b) Reference list is more detailed.
  - c) Bibliography contains all sources, even if you didn’t quote them.
3. Which is not the purpose of referencing?
  - a) To support the main parts of the text.
  - b) To show that your written work is excellent.
  - c) To show where the information comes from.
4. Why do academics use different citation styles?
  - a) The usage of style depends on the area of research.
  - b) The usage of style depends on your own choice.
  - c) The usage of style depends on the university you write for.
5. What is the correct way to quote the source in the text?
  - a) The author’s name and page.
  - b) The year and page.
  - c) The author’s name, the year, a page number.

## **UNIT 9. WRITING A RESEARCH PAPER**

### **PART 1. PECULIARITIES OF A RESEARCH PAPER**

It is a form of academic writing, composed by students in colleges, universities and postgraduate students as well. A research paper requires students to locate information about a topic (to conduct research), take a stand on that topic, and provide support (or evidence) for that position in an organized report. Also it is called a *term paper*, *research project* or *research report*.

The term *research paper* may also refer to a scholarly article that contains the results of original research or an evaluation of research conducted by others. Most scholarly articles must undergo a process of peer review before they can be accepted for publication in an academic journal.

#### **Writing a research paper**

Parts of a research paper. One of the most important aspects of science is writing, ensuring that you get all of the parts of the research paper in the right order.

You may have finished the best research project on earth but, if you do not make an interesting and well laid out paper, then nobody is going to take your findings seriously.

The main thing to remember with any research paper is that it is based upon an hourglass structure. It starts with general information, as you conduct a literature review, and becomes specific as you nail down a research problem and hypothesis.

Finally, it again becomes more general as you try to apply your findings to the world at general.

Whilst there are a few differences between the various disciplines, with some fields placing more of an emphasis upon certain parts than others do, there is a basic underlying structure.

These steps are the building blocks of constructing a good research paper. This section covers laying out the parts of a research paper, including the various experimental methods and designs.

The principles for literature review and essay of all types follow the same basic principles:

- Abstract
- Introduction
- Method
- Results
- Discussion
- Conclusion
- Reference List

## **The Introduction**

Writing the introduction is the first part of the process, setting down the direction of the paper and laying out exactly what the research paper is trying to achieve.

The introduction is the last thing written, acting as a quick summary of the paper. As long as you have planned a good structure for the parts of a research paper, both methods are equally good and it is a matter of preference.

A good introduction generally consists of three distinct parts, starting with:

- A general presentation of the research problem.
- You should then lay out exactly what you are trying to achieve with this particular research project.
- Stating your own position.

Ideally, you should try to give each section its own paragraph, but short or long papers will vary.

### **1) The General Presentation**

Look at the benefits to be gained by the research or why the problem has not been solved. Perhaps nobody has thought about it, or maybe previous research threw up some interesting leads that the previous researchers did not follow up.

Another researcher may have uncovered some interesting trends, but did not manage to reach the significance level, due to experimental error or small sample sizes.

### **2) Purpose and the Exact Direction of the Paper**

The research problem does not have to be a statement, but must at least imply what you are trying to find.

Many writers prefer to place the thesis statement or hypothesis here, which is perfectly acceptable, but most include it in the last sentences of the introduction, to give the reader a fuller picture.

### **3) A Statement of Intent From the Writer**

The idea is that somebody will be able to gain an overall view of the paper without needing to read the whole thing. Literature reviews are time-consuming enough, so giving the reader an idea saves their time.

In this section, you look to give a background to the research, including any relevant information learned during your literature review. You are also trying to explain why you chose this area of research, attempting to highlight why it is necessary. The second part should state the purpose of the experiment and should

include the research problem, as a part of focusing the introduction towards the thesis statement or hypothesis. The third part should give the reader a quick summary of the form that the parts of the research paper are going to take and should include a condensed version of the discussion.

### **The Method**

This should be the easiest part of the paper to write, as it is a run-down of the exact design and methodology used to perform the research. Obviously, the exact methodology varies depending upon the exact field and type of experiment.

There is a big methodological difference between the apparatus based research of the physical sciences and the methods and observation methods of social sciences. However, the key is to ensure that another researcher should be able to replicate the experiment exactly, whilst keeping the section concise.

You can assume that anybody reading your paper is familiar with all of the basic methods, so try not to explain every last detail. For example, an organic chemist or biochemist will be familiar with chromatography, so you only need to highlight the type of equipment and should not explain the process in detail.

In the case of a survey, if you have too many questions to cover in the method, you can always include a copy of the questionnaire in the appendix. In this case, make sure that you refer to it.

### **The Results**

This is probably the most variable part of any research paper, and depends upon the results and aims of the experiment.

For quantitative research, it is a presentation of the numerical results and data, whereas for qualitative research it should be a broader discussion of trends, without going into too much detail.

For research generating a lot of results, then it is better to include tables or graphs of the analyzed data and leave the raw data in the appendix, so that a researcher can follow up and check your calculations.

A commentary is essential to linking the results together, rather than displaying isolated and unconnected charts, figures and findings. It can be quite difficult to find a good balance between the results and the discussion section, because some findings, especially in a quantitative or descriptive experiment, will fall into a grey area. As long as you do not repeat yourself too often, then there should be no major problem.

It is best to try to find a middle course, where you give a general overview of the data and then expand upon it in the discussion - you should try to keep your own opinions and interpretations out of the results section, saving that for the discussion.

### **The Discussion**

This is where you elaborate upon your findings, and explain what you found, adding your own personal interpretations.

Ideally, you should link the discussion back to the introduction, addressing each initial point individually.

It is important to try to make sure that every piece of information in your discussion is directly related to the thesis statement, or you risk clouding your findings. You can expand upon the topic in the conclusion - remembering the hourglass principle.

### **The Conclusion**

The conclusion is where you build upon your discussion and try to refer your findings to other research and to the world at large.

In a short research paper, it may be a paragraph or two, or practically non-existent.

In a dissertation, it may well be the most important part of the entire paper - not only does it describe the results and discussion in detail, it emphasizes the importance of the results in the field, and ties it in with the previous research.

Some research papers require a recommendations section, postulating that further directions of the research, as well as highlighting how any flaws affected the results. In this case, you should suggest any improvements that could be made to the research design.

### **The Reference List**

No paper is complete without a reference list, documenting all of the sources that you used for your research. This should be laid out according to APA, MLA or other specified format, allowing any interested researcher to follow up on the research.

One habit that is becoming more common, especially with online papers, is to include a reference to your paper on the final page. Lay this out in MLA, APA and Chicago format, allowing anybody referencing your paper to copy and paste it.

## **PART 2. Structure Of A Research Report**

Research papers and reports of research studies usually follow the **IMRAD** format. **IMRAD** (Introduction, Methods, Results, [and] Discussion) is a mnemonic for the major components of a scientific paper. These elements are included in the overall structure outlined below.

### **I. The Title Page**

Title: Tells the reader what to expect in the paper.

Author(s): Most papers are written by one or two primary authors. Check the Instructions to Authors for the target journal for specifics about authorship.

Keywords [according to the journal]

Corresponding Author: Full name and affiliation for the primary contact author for persons who have questions about the research.

Financial & Equipment Support [if needed]: Specific information about organizations, agencies, or companies that supported the research.

Conflicts of Interest [if needed]: List and explain any conflicts of interest.

**II. Abstract:** “Structured abstract” has become the standard for research papers (introduction, objective, methods, results and conclusions), while reviews, case reports and other articles have non-structured abstracts. The abstract should be a summary/synopsis of the paper.

**III. Introduction:** The “why did you do the study”; setting the scene or laying the foundation or background for the paper.

**IV. Methods:** The “how did you do the study.” Describe the following:

- Context and the study design
- Specify the study design
- Population (patients, etc. if applicable)
- Sampling strategy
- Intervention (if applicable)
- Identify the main study variables
- Data collection instruments and procedures
- Outline analysis methods

**V. Results:** The “what did you find”.

- Report on data collection and/or recruitment
- Participants (demographic, clinical condition, etc.)
- Present key findings with respect to the central research question
- Secondary findings (secondary outcomes, subgroup analyses, etc.)

**VI. Discussion:** Place for interpreting the results

- Main findings of the study
- Discuss the main results with reference to previous research
- Policy and practice implications of the results
- Strengths and limitations of the study

**VII. Conclusions:**[occasionally optional or not required]. Do not reiterate the data or discussion. Can state hunches, inferences or speculations. Offer perspectives for future work.

**VIII. Acknowledgements:** Names of the people who contributed to the work, but did not contribute sufficiently to earn authorship. You must have permission from any individuals mentioned in the acknowledgements sections.

**IX. References:** Complete citations for any articles or other materials referenced in the text of the article.

**X. References:** Complete citations for any articles or other materials referenced in the text of the article.

### **Practical Tasks**

**Exercise 1. Select, read, and analyze a research paper from a peer-reviewed journal. Be prepared to present a 10 minute assessment of the paper in class:**

1. What is the universal question?
2. What were the research question, main points, how did the author address them, what did the author conclude?
3. Explication: how did the authors organize and present the research?
4. What special qualities struck you: How were the: illustrations, implications, writing style, etc.

5. What additional research, gaps to be filled, or next steps did the authors suggest OR that you can distinguish?

**Exercise 2. Brainstorm to create a list of five general topics of personal or professional interest to you that you would like to research. Then use free writing and preliminary research to narrow three of these topics to manageable size for a five- to seven-page research paper. Save your list of topics in a print or electronic file and add to it periodically as you identify additional areas of interest. Use your topic list as a starting point the next time a research paper is assigned.**

**Exercise 3. Working with one of the topics you just identified, use the research skills to locate three to five potentially useful print or electronic sources of information about the topic. Create a list that includes the following:**

One subject-specific periodicals database likely to include relevant articles on your topic.

Two articles about your topic written for an educated general audience At least one article about your topic written for an audience with specialized knowledge.

**Exercise 4. In real-life and work-related contexts, people consult a wide range of different information sources every day, without always making conscious judgments about whether the source is reliable and why. Identify one media source of information you use at least once a week— for instance, a website you visit regularly, or a newspaper or magazine to which you subscribe. Write two paragraphs explaining the following:**

What topics you learn about by reading or viewing this source.

Whether you consider this source reliable and why.

In addressing the latter point, be sure to consider details that help you evaluate the source's credibility and reputability, as well as the presence or absence of bias.

## Check yourself

### Consider and check the following points of your research paper:

1. Do not use the word “you” or any form of it. Do not use the word “I” or “me” or any form of either word.
2. Do not use any "to be" verbs such as am, is, are, was, were, has or have been, had been, will have been, being, would be, would, will, and to be.
3. Spell out any number ten or below unless it starts a sentence.
4. Do not use contractions (It’s = it is, aren’t = are not, etc.)
5. Do not announce in your writing (This paper is going to. . . , I have stated . . . , it is obvious, I think . . . )
6. Do not say, “I think” or “I believe” (your paper should automatically show your side).
7. Conclude without using the word “conclusion”. A reader knows the last paragraph is a conclusion.
8. Avoid any vague wording such as: this, that, stuff, thing, they, it, get/got, in order to, there is/are, come, great.
9. Avoid clichés. “In this day and age” is an overused phrase. Cliches are borrowed phrases, and they typically indicate a lack of originality.
10. Spell-check and look for homonyms, such as: to, two, too. Check the title of your essay, the title of literature, and names of characters especially.
11. Double check your topic sentences. Remember the first sentence in each paragraph should act as a title for that section. Every sentence that follows the topic sentence should support and defend it.
12. Make sure to include transitions or transitional phrases into your next main idea.

From <https://mattawanschools.org/fultonenglish11/research-paperinfo/research-paper-self-check>

## **UNIT 10. WRITING A RESEARCH GRANT PROPOSAL**

### **PART 1. CHARACTERISTIC OF A RESEARCH GRANT PROPOSAL**

A **research grant** is funding of academic research, obtained through a competitive process, in which potential research projects are evaluated and only the most promising receive funding. Such grants are provided by government, corporations or foundations.

A **grant proposal** is a request for funding for a specific project.

### **PART 2. STEPS TO WRITE A RESEARCH GRANT PROPOSAL**

Proposal writing is time-consuming. You must first clearly describe a specific problem found in your community or area of interest, design a program that will address it, and then describe the program in detail for the grant maker (funding source). If this is your organization's first attempt at applying for a grant, the entire process will benefit your organization. Your goal is to end up with a well-conceived proposal that lays out a strategy to address the problem, as well the funding to pay for it.

#### **Step 1: Agree on the Problem**

For a proposal to receive funding, the grant maker must be convinced that funding your program will have a positive and measurable affect on your community.

Start by identifying a need. What problem or issue in your community can be improved or changed with the grant money and a good effort? You may feel that there is a need to clean up a polluted river. But unless there is general agreement in the community on the need for your project, it may be difficult to get a grant to fix it - and even more difficult to complete the project.

#### **Involve All Stakeholders**

To develop a successful proposal, it's important to involve all of the stakeholders. A stakeholder is anyone affected by, or with an interest in, the project. Seek involvement from the organizations you already partner with, and consider forming new relationships with like-minded groups. A diverse group is good, since the levels of participation will vary among partners.

Plan a meeting of stakeholders at a convenient time and an acceptable place. Be prepared for disagreement among the stakeholders – remember that your goal is to try and achieve a consensus of opinion. Consider bringing in professional facilitation if your group is larger than a handful of people or if you are unsure of your ability to manage differences between groups.

## **Define the Problem or Situation**

Involve stakeholders in developing a clear, concise description of the problem or situation. More than one meeting may be necessary to arrive at a consensus that satisfies most of the stakeholders. The effort will be worth it. Once people agree on the problem, the rest of the work flows more smoothly.

When describing the problem, avoid using subjective terms like "ugly" or "outrageous." Instead, using the most current information available and, giving credit to the source, describe the problem objectively. Avoid attributing blame.

## **Describe the Impact of the Problem**

Use the same clear, objective language to describe the problem's impact, both in social and economic costs. It is a shame if pollution in a river harms wildlife, but it's more compelling to show that people can no longer fish or swim in the river because of pollution. Show how the situation has changed the way people live.

## **Investigate Possible Causes of the Problem**

Even if the cause(s) of the problem appear obvious to you, seek formal agreement from as many stakeholders as possible on the cause(s). The amount of detailed evidence you will need to present to a grant-making agency will vary. If a formal investigation into the causes has not been conducted, consider forming a committee to conduct or oversee an investigation and a follow-up report. Bring in outside or neutral investigators or experts to bolster your credibility. And even if there is agreement on the cause of the problem, you may still need an investigation to formally document the cause and to quantify as many factors as you can, depending on the grant's requirements.

When describing the problem, avoid technical terms and jargon wherever possible. Instead, use layman's terms. All stakeholders should clearly understand what is being said.

## **Step 2: Describe What You Hope to Achieve**

You've described a problem and identified the most likely causes. Now you need to focus on the solution or desired outcome of your proposed activity. What will occur as a result of your project? How will a situation improve? If the problem is a polluted river, will people be able to swim in the river again? Will they be able to eat the fish?

## **Measuring Success in Outputs and Outcomes**

Be careful not to confuse these terms. Outputs are measures of a program's activities; outcomes are changes that result from the activities. Outputs matter

because they lead to outcomes. Note that in our example, an output might be an increase in the size of a stream-side vegetative buffer. An outcome might be the resulting increase in the oyster harvest that occurs because the buffer stops pollutants from reaching the river. Also realize that a funder may specify a different way to measure success.

### **Identify the Key Outcomes**

Some projects will have a long list of outcomes. Work with your stakeholders to develop a consensus on two or three primary outcomes.

### **Set Realistic and Achievable Outcomes**

Your projected outcomes must be realistic. Some pollution will always exist within the river. Reducing the pollutants to an acceptable level in one year or even five years might be impossible. Consult with experts—local ones are fine—and determine what is realistic for your situation. If the river clean up will take ten years, say so.

Failing to meet goals will make getting additional funding in the future more difficult. It is far better to promise less and exceed your goals than to over-promise and under-deliver. However, don't seriously underestimate what can be achieved. Promise too little, and the project may not appear cost-effective.

### **Measure and Record the Result of Your Work**

State what measurements you hope to achieve and when you hope to achieve them. If you are going to reduce pollutants in a river, to what level will they be reduced? Use specific numbers or a range. If you cannot measure or count an output, do not include it.

### **Focus on End Results**

Always keep in mind your goal(s). Every activity should be evaluated on how it helps to achieve the ultimate goal(s).

### **Step 3: Design Your Program**

Now that you know where you are and where you want to go, your next step is determining the best path to get there. The best path is not always the shortest, quickest, easiest, or cheapest.

So, how do you decide the best path for your project?

### **Get Expert Opinions**

Grant makers, both governmental and private, often have experts on staff who can help you. When contacting a funding source, explain that while you might be asking them for funds in the future, for now you're interested in their expertise.

## **Research What Others Have Done**

There is no need to reinvent the wheel. Try to find organizations that have developed projects similar to yours. Look at the failures as closely as the successes. Knowing what does not work is often more valuable than knowing what does.

You may also get information from the popular press and from professional journals – one exists for just about every topic you can imagine. Search the Internet and contact professional associations. If you are near a college or university, find out if a faculty member or researcher has studied the problem. But don't just read about what others have done. Learn about projects firsthand by visiting the project site. If a visit isn't possible, contact those involved in similar projects by phone, email, or a letter.

## **Get "Buy In" From Stakeholders**

Whatever solution you choose, it's essential that all key stakeholders agree fully on the plan. This is often referred to as "buying in" and is often critical to your success. You may never get 100 percent agreement, but you want to prevent overwhelming opposition. People are most likely to support a project they helped create.

Ask your stakeholders to show support through letters of support and commitment. Letters of support state that the person or organization agrees with what you want to do and will not oppose you. More valuable are letters of commitment that specify how the person or organization will assist you. The assistance may include contributions of time, money, labor, space, supplies, materials, and other necessities.

## **Clearly Describe Your Solution**

With your key stakeholders' and experts' assistance, clearly describe your solution. What will be done, and by whom? If your project is technical, you may want two versions: one expressed in technical terms and the other in lay terms. It is important that both technical experts and the general public understand your plan.

A clear description of how you plan to achieve your desired outcomes, with a timeline and detailed workplan, can be a great help in obtaining funding and getting a broader range of stakeholder support.

## **Step 4: Locate Funding Sources**

Now that you've agreed upon a solution and program design, you need to find the resources—the people, the equipment, and the money—to get your project done. Locating funding requires an investment of time and careful planning. Many funders have a lengthy process for reviewing proposals.

## **Start with Organizations or People You Know**

As most funders, both government and private, provide money for rather specific purposes, your search can be targeted. Inquire with the most obvious choices first, like those that have funded similar projects in your geographic area. If your solution is outside the scope of their funding, they may be able to point you toward the right source. Can they introduce you to contacts at organizations with which they have a relationship? Then, meet with the individuals to whom you've been referred. An introduction from someone the funder trusts lends you credibility.

## **Use the Internet to Research Funders**

Visit the grant web sites, check individual federal agency Web sites, check state and local government Web sites to see what grants they offer. State and local governments administer many federal and private grants and will list these as well.

## **Questions to Ask When Reviewing a Funding Source**

Once you find a promising funding source, learn as much as you can about that organization and its particular funding program. Read the information on the organization's Web site thoroughly to find out:

- Do you want to work with this organization?
- Does it typically fund organizations and projects like yours? Do you qualify for a particular program?
- Can you meet all of the grant requirements?

## **Establish a Relationship with the Grant Program Officer**

Grant announcements, often called "Request For Proposals" (RFPs), usually list a contact person – the program officer – who manages the process. Arrange to meet the program officer, preferably in person, or by phone. Program officers are usually experts in the application process and may be knowledgeable about your type of project. Let him/her know about your organization, its accomplishments, and your proposed project. Confirm that your project is eligible for funding. Ask any questions you have about the grant announcement and clarify anything you don't understand. You will not appear foolish by asking a question; however, it would be a real mistake to omit a main item from your grant application.

## **Involve Your Funder in Your Project**

Your funders are key stakeholders in your project. Make every effort to fully involve them. Invite representatives to be on hand for key milestones. While some

funders want little involvement beyond giving you the money and periodically receiving a report, others want to be very hands-on and share in your success.

### **Step 5: Write Your Proposal**

Once you have a written description of your program, needs, outcomes, and activities, use this as the basis for numerous grant applications. Tailor each proposal to each funder. Use the style and format that the funder prefers. Most organizations make their winning proposals public. Study these proposals. Use them as guides for how to assemble yours, what information to include, and what style and terminology is preferred.

Each RFP usually specifies what information to include and in what format. Some specify page limits and even font size. Many request electronic or online (via the Internet) submission of applications. Carefully read through all of the directions and ask about any that seem unclear.

### **Follow the Instructions**

If there is a ten-page limit, stick to ten pages. You may feel that running over by a page or for a sentence or two is no big deal. However, the grant maker may feel that if you cannot comply with a simple page-length restriction, you can't be trusted with funding.

If you think you need to take exception, get permission to do so from the program officer at the funding agency. Include a statement with your application explaining that you have permission to deviate and your reason for doing so.

### **Study the Criteria**

Most grant programs are competitive, meaning only the proposals judged best by the grant maker get awards. The RFP may specify evaluation criteria and allocate a certain number of points to specific sections or components. Study all of the application criteria. Check with the program officer to see if there are other criteria or factors considered in making the funding decisions.

### **Use a Checklist to Make Sure Your Application is Complete**

Make a list of all criteria with the point values, if applicable. Use this checklist to be sure that you have included everything that is required. Missing or incomplete items often result in outright rejection or at least a lower score, limiting your chance for funding. Use your checklist as a table of contents for your proposal, to make it easy for reviewers to find the required information. Pay particular attention to your budget, making sure all costs are eligible and fully explainable.

### **Consider Hiring a Professional Writer**

While not essential, many organizations prefer to hire an outside consultant to write the proposal. The primary advantage is that the writer is able to devote time to the project, which you might not have. A consultant with expertise in a particular grant program can assure that you address all of the often complex regulatory requirements.

The disadvantage of hiring a professional writer is that the writer may lack the passion and project knowledge that you and other stakeholders bring to the project. The resulting proposal may be slick but may lack passion or urgency.

### **Edit Carefully**

What you say and how you say it may be the only information the reviewer has about you, your community, and your project. So, be sure that your proposal is clear and easy to understand. Before you attach your signature to an application, be sure that the application is complete and accurate.

Thoroughly edit your text. Try to eliminate all spelling and other typographical errors. Follow standard grammatical usage and avoid jargon and local expressions. Electronic dictionaries, spell checkers, and grammar checkers will catch 80 percent of your errors. Have two or three people read your proposal to catch the remaining 20 percent.

### **Give Your Proposal to a "Cold Reader" to Review**

Ask one or two people who have not been involved in the process or project—and can come to the proposal "cold"—to read the proposal. Give them a copy of the RFP and the review criteria, but little other information. Ask them to read the proposal quickly. (That is how reviewers will likely go through it, at least initially.) Do they understand it? Does it make sense to them?

### **Meet Deadline**

Most grant programs have deadlines that are specific and unyielding. Missing one will most likely eliminate your chance for funding during that cycle. Allow plenty of time for delays, because they invariably happen during the proposal writing process.

### **Practical Tasks**

**Exercise 1. Try to find out grant proposals on the field of your study. Analyse them according to the mentioned steps.**

**Exercise 2. Fill in the research grant proposal in field of your study. Use the form from the internet.**

## FINAL ACADEMIC WRITING COURSE TEST

*I. The paragraphs in the following abstract have been scrambled. Rearrange them so that they form a cohesive text. Suggest a title and keywords.*

a) Here, we focused on developing a method to detect a person trying to illegally cross the border by hiding in a car.

b) Due to the high sensitivity of the pressure sensor, consideration was given to the effect of external disturbances such as ground vibration and wind force acting on the car.

c) The proposed method is based on pneumatics. A silicon tube (inner diameter 4mm) with one end plugged by a highly sensitive pressure sensor and the other end capped is sandwiched between two rigid boards and placed on the ground at the entrance gate of the border.

d) This paper describes a novel method for detecting the presence of a person hiding in a car. One of the important strategies of homeland security is border control. In particular, strict and effective monitoring to control illegal immigration is a key strategy for maintaining public safety and a healthy local economy, and is essential for preventing the entry of terrorists.

e) Here, we propose a heartbeat detection filter robust against disturbances but sensitive to the heartbeat signal and an index to discriminate between the presence and non-presence of a person, and we present the experimental results obtained using the proposed method under various disturbance conditions.

f) When one wheel of the car is on the board and the engine is stopped, the pressure sensor can detect human vital signs such as heartbeat, which cannot be concealed.

1..... 2. .... 3..... 4..... 5..... 6.....

.....  
.....

### **Answer**

1) d 2) a 3) c 4) f 5) b 6) e

**Possible title:** New engineering solution to protect form illegal border crossing

**Possible key words:** border control, external disturbances, heartbeat detection filter, pressure sensor, public safety

**II. Put the following sentences in the correct order to produce a well-organised paragraphs.**

- a. But modern anthropology stands opposed to the view that anatomy is destiny.
- b. Men are taller, heavier, and stronger than women; hence it is "natural" that hunting and warfare should be male specialities.
- c. Men have higher levels of testosterone; hence they are "naturally" more aggressive, sexually and otherwise, and are "naturally" dominant over women.
- d. Since differences in the anatomy and physiology of human males and females are so obvious it is easy to be misled into believing that sex-linked roles and statuses are primarily biological rather than cultural phenomena.
- e. As the underlying demographic, technological, economic, and ecological conditions to which these sex-linked roles are adapted change, new cultural definitions of sex-linked roles will emerge.
- f. Moreover since women menstruate, become pregnant, and lactate, they "naturally" are the ones to stay at home to care for and feed infants and children.
- g. Nor are women born with an innate tendency to care for infants and children and to be sexually and politically subordinate.
- h. Rather it has been the case that under a broad but finite set of cultural and natural conditions certain sex-linked specialities have been selected for in a large number of cultures.
- i. Males are not born with an innate tendency to be hunters or warriors or to be sexually and politically dominant over women.

## **Answer**

Since differences in the anatomy and physiology of human males and females are so obvious it is easy to be misled into believing that sex-linked roles and statuses are primarily biological rather than cultural phenomena. Men are taller, heavier, and stronger than women; hence it is "natural" that hunting and warfare should be male specialities. Men have higher levels of testosterone; hence they are "naturally" more aggressive, sexually and otherwise, and are "naturally" dominant over women. Moreover since women menstruate, become pregnant, and lactate, they "naturally" are the ones to stay at home to care for and feed infants and children. But modern anthropology stands opposed to the view that anatomy is destiny. Males are not born with an innate tendency to be hunters or warriors or to be sexually and politically dominant over women. Nor are women born with an innate tendency to care for infants and children and to be sexually and politically subordinate. Rather it has been the case that under a broad but finite set of cultural and natural conditions certain sex-linked specialities have been selected for in a large number of cultures. As the underlying demographic, technological, economic, and ecological conditions to which these sex-linked roles are adapted change, new cultural definitions of sex-linked roles will emerge.

## LIST OF KEY TERMS AND WORDS

- abstract** – An abstract is a brief summary of a research article, thesis, review, conference proceeding or any in-depth analysis of a particular subject and is often used to help the reader quickly ascertain the paper's purpose.
- academic writing skills** – Academic writing skills encompass strong composition, excellent grammar, and a consistent stylistic approach.
- adjective** – An adjective is a describing word, the main syntactic role of which is to qualify a noun or noun phrase, giving more information about the object signified.
- adverb** – An adverb is a word that modifies a verb, adjective, another adverb, determiner, noun phrase, clause, or sentence. Adverbs typically express manner, place, time, frequency, degree, level of certainty, etc.
- adverbial clause** – An adverb (or adverbial) clause is an dependent clause used as an adverb within a sentence to indicate time, place, condition, contrast, concession, reason, purpose, or result.
- antagonist** – A character or force that opposes the protagonist.
- apostrophe** – An apostrophe is a type of punctuation mark commonly used to show the omission of letters and convey possessive relationships.
- approach** – The method used in dealing with or accomplishing.
- article** – An article is a written work published in a print or electronic medium. It may be for the purpose of propagating news, research results, academic analysis or debate.
- bar chart** - a type of chart used to show comparisons among items where the information is displayed horizontally.
- bibliography** – contain all sources that you have used, whether they are directly cited or not. A bibliography includes sources that you have used to generate ideas or ‘read around’ a topic, but have not referred to directly in the body of the document.
- body paragraph** – is the main part of the piece of writing. Each body paragraph contains a topic sentence, supporting sentences and a concluding sentence.
- brackets** – A bracket is a tall punctuation mark typically used in matched pairs within text, to set apart or interject other text. Used unqualified, brackets refer to different types of brackets in different parts of the world and in different contexts.
- capital letter** – A capital letter is basically a principal letter. A capital letter is used for the first word and every significant word (i.e. words such as a, the, of, an, or, in are not capitalised).
- citation** – the way to tell your readers that the information you used comes from another source.

**citation style** – dictates the information necessary for a citation and how the information is ordered, as well as punctuation and other formatting. There are many different ways of citing resources from your research. The citation style sometimes depends on the academic discipline involved. The citation styles are APA, MLA, Chicago/ Turabian etc.

**coherence** - Coherence in linguistics is what makes a text semantically meaningful.

**cohesion** – Cohesion is the grammatical and lexical linking within a text or sentence that holds a text together and gives it meaning. It is related to the broader concept of coherence.

**cohesive device** – A word or phrase used in a text to connect ideas together, i.e. a conjunction

**colon** – The colon ( : ) is a punctuation mark consisting of two equally sized dots centered on the same vertical line.

**comma** – The comma ( , ) is a punctuation mark that appears in several variants in various languages. It has the same shape as an apostrophe or single closing quotation mark in many typefaces, but it differs from them in being placed on the baseline of the text. The comma is used in many contexts and languages, mainly for separating parts of a sentence such as clauses, and items in lists, particularly when there are three or more items listed.

**compare** means find differences as well as similarities. You will need to formulate the aspects which you are looking at in each item; consider organizing your paper by using these aspects as headings.

**complex sentence** – A complex sentence is a sentence that is made from an independent clause and a dependent clause joined together.

**compound sentence** – A compound sentence is a sentence that contains two complete ideas (called clauses) that are related. A compound sentence is composed of at least two independent clauses. It does not require a dependent clause.

**concluding sentence** emphasizes the importance of the supporting examples or evaluates the connections between them.

**conclusion** – the section of a research paper, which provides the final word on the value of analysis, research, or paper.

**conjunction** – A conjunction is a part of speech that connects words, sentences, phrases, or clauses.

**contrast words** – Linking words that show contrast between things in English.

**crisis** - Turning point; moment of great tension that fixes the action.

**dash** – The dash is a punctuation mark that is similar to a hyphen or minus sign, but differs from both of these symbols primarily in length and function.

**discussion** – the section of a research paper, which states your interpretations and opinions, explains the implications of your findings, and makes suggestions for future research. Its main function is to answer the questions posed in the Introduction, explain how the results support the answers and, how the answers fit in with existing knowledge on the topic.

**dissertation** - A thesis or dissertation is a document submitted in support of candidature for an academic degree or professional qualification presenting the author's research and findings.

**draft** – A version of an unfinished document or other written work.

**endnote** – a note printed at the end of a book or section of a book, or at the end of the document.

**evaluate** - stresses applying your judgement to the results of your analysis. It asks for an opinion based on well-defined criteria and clearly stated evidence. Wording such as to what extent also asks for an evaluation of an idea.

**evaluation** – Evaluation is a process that involves assessment of an idea, project, or activity and judging its worth in terms of value, merit, or importance.

**exclamation mark** – The exclamation mark is a punctuation mark usually used after an interjection or exclamation to indicate strong feelings or high volume (shouting), and often marks the end of a sentence.

**explicitness** – Clarity as a consequence of being explicit

**exposition** - Background information regarding the setting, characters, plot.

**findings** – The results of an investigation.

**first-person** – Narrator participates in action but sometimes has limited knowledge/vision.

**footnotes** – are notes placed at the bottom of a page. They cite references or comment on a designated part of the text above it.

**formality** – Something that is required or usual but that has little true meaning or importance

**full-stop** – The full stop or period is a punctuation mark placed at the end of a sentence.

**hedge, n** – A hedge is a mitigating word or sound used to lessen the impact of an utterance.

**hyphen** – The hyphen (-) is a punctuation mark used to join words and to separate syllables of a single word.

**implications, n** – What is suggested in an utterance, even though neither expressed nor strictly implied.

**IMRAD** (introduction, methods, results, and discussion) – the most common structure of a research paper.

**informative abstract, n** – An informative abstract is short, specific and presents only the essential details of the research.

**Introduction**, n – The introduction is the first sentence of your essay and it plays the dual role of setting the theme of your essay and engaging the reader.

**key words** – words which occur in the text most often and cover the topic of relevance.

**label** - a chart element that identifies data in the chart.

**language and style** - Style is the verbal identity of a writer, oftentimes based on the author's use of diction (word choice) and syntax (the order of words in a sentence). A writer's use of language reveals the **tone**, or the attitude toward the subject matter.

**line graph/chart** – A type of chart used to display a large number of data points over time.

**linking words** - Linking words and phrases in English (also called 'connective' or 'transition' words) are used to combine two clauses or sentences presenting contrast, comparison, condition, supposition, purpose, etc. They enable us to establish clear connections between ideas.

**method** – A method is a system or a way of doing something.

**methodology** – Methodology is the systematic, theoretical analysis of the methods applied to a field of study.

**narrator** - The person telling the story.

**noun clause** – A noun clause is a phrase or part of a sentence that acts as a noun. The noun clause functions in the same way as a noun or pronoun, establishing a subject or object in the sentence.

**objective** - Narrator is unnamed/unidentified (a detached observer). Does not assume character's perspective and is not a character in the story. The narrator reports on events and lets the reader supply the meaning.

**omniscient** - All-knowing narrator (multiple perspectives). The narrator takes us into the character and can evaluate a character for the reader (**editorial omniscience**). When a narrator allows the reader to make his or her own judgments from the action of the characters themselves, it is called **neutral omniscience**.

**original article** - An article published in a magazine, used as the basis for writing a summary, translation etc.

**overview** – Generalized treatment of a topic – a summary or outline.

**paragraph** – A paragraph is a distinct section of writing covering one topic. A paragraph will usually contain more than one sentence. A paragraph starts on new line.

**paragraph structure**, n – Most paragraphs in an essay have a three-part structure—introduction, body, and conclusion.

**paragraphing** – Paragraphing is a typological device for arranging legislative text. It involves dividing a sentence into grammatical units and arranging them as separate blocks of text.

**parentheses (parenthetical style)** – (A remark that is added to a sentence, often to provide an explanation or extra information, that is separated from the main part of the sentence by brackets.

**pie chart** – a type of chart used to show proportions of a whole.

**plagiarism** – the practice of taking someone else's work or ideas and passing them off as one's own.

**plot** – The arrangement of ideas and incidents that make up a story.

**point of view** – can sometimes indirectly establish the author's intentions.

**preposition** – A preposition is a word (usually a short word) that shows the relationship between two other nearby words.

**punctuation** - Punctuation is the system of signs or symbols given to a reader to show how a sentence is constructed and how it should be read

**question mark**, n – The question mark [?] is a punctuation mark that indicates an interrogative clause or phrase in many languages

**quotation mark**, n – Quotation marks are punctuation marks used in pairs in various writing systems to set off direct speech, a quotation, or a phrase.

**quotation** – A quotation is the repetition of one expression as part of another one, particularly when the quoted expression is well-known or explicitly attributed by citation to its original source, and it is indicated by (punctuated with) quotation marks.

**redraft** – To write a document, an agreement, etc. again, making changes and improvements.

**reference** – a mention or citation of a source of information in a book or article.

**reference list** – It contains a complete list of all the sources (books, journal articles, websites, etc.) that you have cited directly in a document. That means that if there are in-text citations for a source there is a reference list entry, and vice versa.

**relative clause**, n – A relative clause is a subordinate clause that modifies a noun or a noun phrase.

**report**, n – A report is a systematic, well organised document which defines and analyses a subject or problem.

**research paper** – requires students to locate information about a topic (to conduct research), take a stand on that topic, and provide support (or evidence) for that position in an organized report.

**research**, n – Research is the procedure that involves gathering and searching of required data or information.

**resolution** – The way the story turns out.

**result** – the section of a research paper, which announces the results of the research.

**run-on sentence**, n – A run-on sentence is a sentence in which two or more independent clauses (that is, complete sentences) are joined with no punctuation or conjunction. It is generally considered to be a grammatical error.

**setting** – The place or location of the action, the setting provides the historical and cultural context for characters. It often can symbolize the emotional state of characters.

**structure** – The design or form of the completed action. Often provides clues to character and action.

**summary**, n – A summary is a shortened version of a text that highlights its key points.

**supporting sentence** – Support sentences are the sentences that support the themes or arguments opened up in the first sentence. Supporting sentences provide examples for the topic sentence.

**table** – a combination of formatting choices for table components available to you that are based on a theme.

**thesis**, n – The point that an essay is trying to prove.

**thesis statement** n – Thesis statement, which is a sentence or two in your introduction, tells the reader what the thesis is. A thesis statement is a statement in an essay that the writer plans to support, discuss or prove.

**topic**, n – The topic, or theme, is what is being talked about.

**topic sentence** - tells readers what the paragraph is going to be about.

**topic sentence**, n – The topic sentence is the sentence in an expository paragraph which summarizes the main idea of that paragraph. It is usually the first **sentence** in a paragraph.

**transition words**, n – Transition words and phrases keep the reader on track by showing relationships between ideas and information.

**transition(al) words/phrases** – are used to connect ideas within the text,

show relations within a paragraph between the main idea and the support for those ideas.

**variables** – are the different items of data held about a ‘thing’, for example it might be the name, date of birth, gender and salary of an employee. There are different types of variables, including quantitative (e.g. salary), categorical (e.g. gender), others are qualitative or text-based (e.g. name). A chart plots the relationship between different variables. For example, the bar chart to the right might show the number of staff (height of bar), by department (different clusters) broken down by gender (different colours).

**wordiness, n** – Wordiness is taking more words than necessary to make your point. It may take the form of redundant expressions or phrases.

## APPENDICES

(Appendices 1, 2, 4 5, 6 are taken from *50 Steps to Improving your Academic Writing*.)

### Appendix 1. High-frequency prefixes in academic English

Prefix	Meaning	Examples
<i>a-, an-</i>	not, without, lacking in	anarchy 'without order' anonymous 'with a name that is not known'
<i>ab-</i>	away	absent 'not present' abduction 'taking somebody away illegally'
<i>aero-</i>	high	acrobat 'entertainer who balances on high ropes' acropolis 'castle on a hill in an ancient Greek city'
<i>aero-</i>	air	aeroplane 'a flying vehicle with wings' aeronautics 'the science of building and flying aircraft'
<i>alter-</i>	another	alternative 'another option' alter ego 'another personality'
<i>alti-</i>	high	altitude 'height above sea level' altimeter 'instrument for showing height above sea level'
<i>anglo-</i>	English	anglocentric 'focused on England' anglophone 'a person who speaks English'
<i>ante-</i>	before	a.m. ( <i>ante meridian</i> ) 'before 12 o'clock midday' antenatal 'during pregnancy (i.e., before birth)'
<i>anti-</i>	against	antisocial 'harmful or annoying to other people' anticlockwise 'opposite of clockwise'
<i>auto-</i>	self	autobiography 'biography written by oneself automobile 'vehicle that moves under its own power - a car'
<i>bi~</i>	two	bicycle 'two-wheeled road vehicle that you ride using pedals' biped 'animal with two feet'
<i>bio-</i>	life	biology 'the study of living things' biography 'the story of a person's life'
<i>cent-</i>	hundred	centimetre 'one-hundredth of a metre' century 'one hundred years'
<i>co-</i>	together	cooperation 'working together' coordinate (v) 'enable people to work together'
<i>con-</i>	with, together	congregation 'group of people gathered together in church to worship God' congress 'large meeting of representatives of different groups'

<i>contr-</i>	against, opposite	contradict 'say that something someone said is wrong, and the opposite is true' controversy 'public argument over something people widely disagree about'
<i>crypto-</i>	secret, hidden	cryptography 'the art of writing or solving codes' cryptogram 'secret message'
<i>culp-</i>	guilty, at fault	culprit 'someone who has done something wrong or illegal' culpable 'blameworthy'
<i>de-</i>	opposite of, removing something	decelerate 'reduce speed, get slower' decentralization 'to move organizational power away from the centre'
<i>dec-</i>	ten	December 'tenth month of the year (in old calendar)' decimal 'counted in units of ten'
<i>demo-</i>	people	democracy 'government of the people' demographics 'data relating to the population'
<i>dis~</i>	not, the opposite of	disinformation 'false information that is given deliberately' disprove 'show that something is wrong or false'
<i>dynam-</i>	movement, power	dynamics 'science of the forces involved in movement' dynamite 'a type of explosive'
<i>eco-</i>	home	economy 'domestic finance' ecosystem 'creatures living in a particular area considered in relation to their physical environment'
<i>ethno-</i>	nation, race, people	ethnic 'connected with or belonging to a nation, race or people' ethnology 'the scientific study of human races'
<i>eu~</i>	good	eulogy 'speech or piece of writing praising someone' euphemism 'an indirect expression referring to something unpleasant, sometimes to make it seem more acceptable'
<i>ex-</i>	former, previous	ex-wife 'former wife' ex-president 'former president'
<i>extra-</i>	outside, more than usual	extra time 'time at the end of a sports match' extraterrestrial 'connected with life outside planet Earth'
<i>hydro-</i>	water	hydrogen 'gas combined with oxygen to form water' hydroelectric 'using water power to obtain electricity'
<i>hyper-</i>	more than normal	hyperactive 'too active' hypersensitive 'too sensitive'
<i>hypo-</i>	below, under	hypodermic syringe 'a syringe that injects under the skin' hypocrite 'someone who pretends to have moral standards that they do not actually have'

<i>in-</i>	not	inability 'the fact of not being able to do something' inaudible 'not able to be heard'
<i>inter-</i>	between	intervention 'to become involved in a situation in order to improve it' interlocutor 'a person taking part in a conversation'
<i>intra-</i>	within	intravenous 'into a vein' intranet 'computer network within an organization'
<i>kilo-</i>	thousand	kilogram 'one thousand grams' kilometre 'one thousand metres'
<i>mal-</i>	bad	malnutrition 'poor condition of health due to lack of (good) food' malice 'feeling of hatred for someone that causes a desire to harm them'
<i>maxi-</i>	most	maximum 'greatest amount, size, speed, etc., that is possible, recorded or allowed' maximal 'as great or large as possible'
<i>mega-</i>	million (lit) large (colloq)	megawatt 'a million watts' megalith 'very large stone'
<i>micro-</i>	small (colloq)	microgram 'a millionth of a gram' microchip 'a very small piece of a material that is a semiconductor'
<i>milli-</i>	thousandth	millimetre 'a thousandth of a metre' millilitre 'a thousandth of a litre'
<i>mini-</i>	small/tiny	miniskirt 'very short skirt' minimum 'smallest that is possible or allowed'
<i>mis-</i>	dislikes, bad, wrong	misanthrope 'person who hates and avoids other people' misbehaviour 'bad behaviour'
<i>mono-</i>	one, single	monorail 'railway system in which trains travel along a single-rail track' monotony 'boring lack of variety'
<i>multi-</i>	many	multiple 'involving many different people or things' multilingual 'speaking many languages'
<i>non~</i>	not	nondescript 'having no interesting or unusual features' nonsense 'ideas, statements or beliefs you think are ridiculous or untrue'
<i>omni-</i>	all	omnipotent 'all-powerful' omnivore 'animal or person that eats all types of food'
<i>out-</i>	greater, better,	outrun 'run faster or further than someone' outperform 'perform better than someone'

	further	
<i>post-</i>	after, following	postnatal 'after giving birth' post-op 'after a surgical operation'
<i>pre-</i>	before	prediction 'a statement of what you think will happen' preview 'to see a film or show before it is shown to the general public'
<i>pro-</i>	in favour of, supporting	promote 'to help something happen or develop' propose 'to put forward a plan'
<i>re-</i>	again	redo 'do something again' review 'carefully look at something again'
<i>retro-</i>	backwards	retrospective 'thinking about something that happened in the past' retrograde 'returning to how something was in the past'
<i>semi-</i>	half	semi-detached 'house joined to one other house by a shared wall' semicolon 'half a colon'
<i>sub-</i>	below, under, less than	substandard 'not as good as normal' subway 'path underneath a road' (BrE); 'underground train' (AmE)
<i>super-</i>	above, over	superhuman 'having greater power or knowledge than is normal' supersonic 'faster than the speed of sound'
<i>tele-</i>	far, distant	television 'device for watching pictures from far away' telephone 'device for speaking to somebody far away'
<i>trans-</i>	across	transfer 'move from one place to another' transatlantic 'crossing the Atlantic Ocean'
<i>tri-</i>	three	triangle 'flat shape with three straight sides and three angles' triptych 'picture in three panels'
<i>ultra-</i>	extremely	ultraviolet light 'very high-frequency light' ultrasonic 'higher-pitched than humans can hear'
<i>un~</i>	not, the opposite of	unattractive 'not attractive' undeniable 'cannot be denied'
<i>uni-</i>	one, single	unicycle 'cycle with one wheel' uniform 'special set of clothes worn by all members of an organization'

## Appendix 2. Phrasal (multi-part) verbs and their one-word verb equivalents

Here are 20 frequently used phrasal verbs with one-word verb equivalents that are more appropriate in academic writing.

Phrasal verb	One-word verb
call off	cancel
find out	discover
get away	leave; escape
get in	arrive; enter
give up	quit
hand in	submit
help with	aid, assist; support
hold up	delay
leave out	omit
look for	seek
look into	investigate
look over	examine
put off	postpone
put out	extinguish
put up with	tolerate
read through	peruse
step up	increase
talk over	discuss
try out	test
use up	exhaust

### Appendix 3. Latin words and phrases in common use in academic English

<i>a fortiori</i>	with even stronger reason
<i>a posteriori</i>	reasoning based on past experience, from effects to causes
<i>a priori</i>	deductive reasoning, or from causes to effects
<i>ab initio</i>	from the beginning
<i>ad hoc</i>	improvised, for a specific occasion, not based on regular principles (e.g., an <i>ad hoc</i> solution.)
<i>ad hominem</i>	appealing to feelings or emotions rather than logic
<i>ad infinitum</i>	things to be added
<i>anno domini</i> (A.D.)	in the year of the Lord, or the number of years after the beginning of Christianity
<i>ante meridiem</i>	before noon, typically abbreviated A.M.
<i>antebellum</i>	before the war, usually before the American Civil War
<i>bona fide</i>	in good faith (e.g., a <i>bona fide</i> effort to solve a problem)
<i>caveat</i>	a caution or warning (e.g., <i>Caveat emptor</i> "let the buyer beware")
<i>ceteris paribus</i>	other things being equal (much used by economists)
<i>circa</i> ( <i>c.</i> or <i>ca.</i> )	about, usually used with dates (e.g., c. 500 A.D.)
<i>confer</i> ( <i>cf.</i> )	compare
<i>curriculum vitae</i>	a statement in note form of a person's achievements
<i>de facto</i>	from the fact, so existing by fact, not by right (e.g., in a <i>de facto</i> government)
<i>de jure</i>	from the law, so existing by right
<i>ego</i>	literally "I," the consciousness or projection of oneself
<i>ergo</i>	therefore
<i>ex post facto</i>	after the fact, so retrospectively
<i>in memoriam</i>	in the memory of a person

<i>in situ</i>	in its original or appointed place (e.g., research conducted <i>in situ</i> )
<i>in toto</i>	in its entirety
<i>in vivo</i>	in life, experiments conducted on living organisms
<i>inter alia</i>	among other things
<i>ipso facto</i>	by that very fact
<i>locus classicus</i>	the standard or most authoritative source of an idea or reference
<i>mutatis mutandis</i>	the necessary changes being made
<i>per capita</i>	per head (e.g., <i>a per capita</i> income of \$20,000)
<i>per diem</i>	per day (e.g., expenses allowed each day)
<i>per se</i>	taken alone
<i>post meridiem</i>	after noon, usually abbreviated to P.M.
<i>postmortem</i>	after death, an examination into the cause of death
<i>pro rata</i>	in proportion (e.g., <i>pro rata</i> payment for working half time)
<i>quid pro quo</i>	something for something, to give or ask for something in return for a favor or service
<i>sine die</i>	without a day, with no time fixed for the next meeting
<i>sine qua non</i>	without which not, hence an essential precondition for something
<i>status quo</i>	things as they are, the normal or standard situation

## Expressions Referring to Textual Matters

<b>Expression</b>	<b>Full form</b>	<b>Literal meaning</b>	<b>Modern use</b>
eg.	<i>exempli gratia</i>	free example	for example
et al.	<i>et alii</i>	and others	and other authors
etc.	<i>et cetera</i>	and others	and others
errata	<i>errata</i>	errors	list of typographical mistakes
ibid.	<i>ibidem</i>	in the same place	the same as the previous reference
i.e.	<i>id est</i>	that is	that is to say
infra	<i>infra</i>	below	see below
loc. cit.	<i>loco citato</i>	in the place cited	in the place cited
N.B.	<i>nota bene</i>	note well	take note
op. cit.	<i>opere citato</i>	in the work cited	in the work cited
passim	<i>passim</i>	here and there	the point is made in several places
PS.	<i>post scriptum</i>	after writing	something added after the signature
<i>sic</i>	<i>si</i>	thus	the error is in the original quote
supra	<i>supra</i>	above	see above
viz.	<i>videlicet</i>	obviously	namely

## Appendix 4. Reducing overcomplexity and redundancy in academic writing

Here are examples of phrases which are commonly used but are overcomplex or use redundant language (tautology), and how they can be improved. The phrases are relatively common in general academic English.

### Overcomplex or overlong phrases

In these phrases either of the following has occurred:

1. A complex phrase, is used when a much simpler version is possible.
2. Too many words are used, making the phrase difficult to understand.

In each case, the overcomplex, longer and/or tautologous phrase is given in plain text and the shorter, more dynamic equivalent in **bold**.

along the lines of - **similar to**

at all times – **always**

at the time that – **when**

by the name of - **named, called** came to

an agreement – **agreed** carry out an

evaluation of – **evaluate** comply with –

**follow**

conduct a review of – **review** despite

the fact that – **although** due to the

fact that – **because** employment

opportunities – **job** excessive

number of - **too many** extend an

invitation to – **invite** give an

indication of - **show**

give rise to - **cause, lead to**

give consideration to – **consider**

has the capability to - **can**

if that/this is not the case - **if not**

if that/this is the case - **If so**

in addition to – **besides**

in advance of - **ahead of, before, by**

in conjunction with - **along with** or

**with**

in excess of - **more than**

in possession of - **has, have**

in proximity to - **close to, near**

in spite of the fact that – **although**

in the absence of – **without** in

the course of – **during** in the

event that – **if**

in view of the fact – **because**

is able to - **can**

it would appear that - **apparently, it seems (that)**

make a statement – **say**

make an application – **apply**

make an examination of – **examine**

make reference to - **refer to**

is/are not in a position to - **will not be able to**

not many - **few** not old enough - **too** not the same - **different** on  
**young** not possible - **impossible** most  
occasions - **usually** perform an assessment of -  
**assess** – refer to as - **call** some of the  
**some** a sufficient number of –  
**enough** take action - **act**  
until such a point in time as - **until**  
use up - **use**  
with a view to - **to, for**  
with regard to - **regarding**  
with the exception of - **except**

### Redundant language (tautology)

Here are examples of phrases where the language used just repeats information that is already there. In each case, the phrase can be cut down to include just the language in **bold**.

a total of <b>28 weeks</b>	each and <b>every</b>	<b>HIV</b> virus
<b>brief</b> in duration close	end <b>result</b>	<b>join</b> together month of
<b>proximity</b>	exactly <b>equidistant</b>	<b>January</b>
completely <b>destroyed</b>	first <b>began</b> foreign	mutual <b>cooperation</b> new
completely <b>unanimous</b>	<b>imports</b> free <b>gift</b>	<b>innovations</b> <b>return</b> again safe
<b>consensus</b> of opinion	<b>group</b> together honest	<b>haven</b> <b>shorter</b> in length <b>small</b>
<b>cooperate</b> together	<b>truth</b>	in size
<b>costs</b> a total of		<b>the reason is</b> because
current <b>status</b>		

## Appendix 5. Determiners: an overview

### Definition of terms

Determiners are those little words that precede and modify nouns; they include articles, demonstratives and quantifiers. For example:

- Articles: *the teacher, a college*
- Demonstratives: *that person, those people*
- Quantifiers: *enough eggs, either way*

These words are usually short and may seem irrelevant - however, they actually tell us a lot about nouns. They tell us whether the speaker is talking about something in general or about a specific case, as well as about how much or how many of something the speaker is talking about.

The difficulty of understanding how determiners (and especially articles) are used in English will vary depending on what your mother tongue (L1) is like. For example, if your L1 has articles and uses them similarly to English, understanding the English system will be relatively easy; but if your L1 does not use articles at all, understanding the English system will be difficult.

### Articles

Articles are the most commonly used determiners in English. Indeed, the definite article *the* is the most commonly used word in English; the indefinite article *a(n)* takes fifth place. Therefore, a good understanding of how they are used is imperative.

The main uses of each type of article are set out below.

#### Definite article

In general, *the* is used when referring to things that the speaker/writer and listener/reader are assumed to know about already.

- *The* is used when we refer to something specific which has already been established or mentioned, for example:

*She told me a story the other day. The story was very funny.*

- *The* thing you just mentioned – could you repeat it?
- *The* is used when we know which particular thing is meant, for example:

*I've just been to the zoo (i.e., it is obvious which zoo I am talking (about) versus A zoo should look after its animals (i.e., any zoo, in general)*

*Have you fed the cats (i.e., the cats we own) versus Do you like cats? (i.e., cats in general).*

- The is used for unique objects – when there is only one thing that the speaker could be talking about, for example:

*The Moon rotates around the Earth. The Japanese are a friendly people.*

- *The is used with superlatives*, for example:

*You're the best friend I've ever had.*

*The most annoying thing I ever heard was ...*

### **Indefinite article**

A(n) is used when it is not known which one is meant (the is used subsequently), for example:

*I bought an apple on the way to work. The apple tastes lovely. A thing of beauty is a joy forever.*

A(n) is used when it does not matter which one is meant, for example:

*Could I borrow a pen, please? I'd like an official to help me.*

### **No article**

There are some instances where you might think an article was needed, but it is not.

Use no article for things in general (when making a general, wide-ranging point about something), for example:

*Dogs are stupid.*

*Mobile phones are the curse of the modern world.*

Use no article for the names of countries (except in the few cases which have a countable noun as part of the name), for example:

*I went travelling to France, Germany, Italy and the UK (because UK = United Kingdom).*

*I once went to America (versus I once went to the United States of America).*

Uncountable nouns

*Water is wet (not ~~a water is wet~~).*

*Humans need air to breathe (not humans need ~~an air to breathe~~).*

### **Quantifiers**

Quantifiers, like articles, precede and modify nouns. They tell us 'how many' or 'how much'. Selecting the correct quantifier depends on your understanding the distinction between countable and uncountable nouns.

The following quantifiers will work **with countable nouns**:

- many trees
- a few trees few trees several trees
- a couple of trees none of the trees
- The following quantifiers will work with uncountable nouns: not much water
- a little water little water
- a bit of water
- a good deal of water a great deal of water no water

The following quantifiers will work with **both countable and uncountable nouns**:

- all of the trees/water
- some trees/water
- most of the trees/water
- enough trees/water
- a lot of trees/water
- lots of trees/water
- plenty of trees/water
- a lack of trees/water

### Notes

1. In formal academic writing, it is usually better to use *many* and *much* rather than phrases such as *a lot of*, *lots of* or *plenty of*.

2. There is an important difference between a *little* and *little* (used with uncountable nouns) and between a *few* and *few* (used with countable nouns). Look at the following sentences, for example:

*David has a little experience in teaching* (= David is no expert but has some experience, which may be sufficient).

*David has little experience in teaching* (= David doesn't have enough experience).

*Susan owns a few books about engineering* (= Susan owns enough for her needs).

*Susan owns few books about engineering* (= there are insufficient for her needs).

The quantifier *much* is reserved for questions and negative statements, unless it is combined with *of*. Compare:

*Much of the snow has already melted. How much snow fell yesterday?*

*Not much.*

Note that the quantifier *most of the* must include the definite article *the* when it modifies a specific noun – whether the latter is countable or uncountable, for

example:

*Most of the instructors at this college have a doctorate. Most of the water has evaporated.*

However, with a general plural noun (when you are not referring to a specific entity), *of the* is dropped:

*Most colleges have their own admissions policy. Most students apply to several colleges.*

### **Predeterminers**

Predeterminers occur before other determiners (as you can guess from the name). This class of words includes:

- multipliers (e.g., *double, twice, four times, five times*)
- fractional expressions (e.g., *one-third, three-quarters*)
- the words *both, half* and *all*
- intensifiers (e.g., *quite, rather, such*)

### **Appendix 6. Words that are commonly misspelt**

The following words, which are relatively common in academic English, are often misspelt.

<i>accommodate</i>	<i>discussed</i>	<i>knowledge</i>	<i>reference</i>
<i>acknowledge</i>	<i>eighth eliminate</i>	<i>laboratory</i>	<i>repetition</i>
<i>across actually</i>	<i>environment</i>	<i>library meant</i>	<i>rhythm</i>
<i>analyze</i>	<i>especially</i>	<i>neither nuclear</i>	<i>ridiculous</i>
<i>appearance</i>	<i>exaggerate</i>	<i>occasionally</i>	<i>scene</i>
<i>appreciate</i>	<i>excellent</i>	<i>parallel</i>	<i>schedule</i>
<i>argument</i>	<i>experience</i>	<i>persuade</i>	<i>separate</i>
<i>beginning</i>	<i>extremely</i>	<i>physically</i>	<i>similar</i>
<i>belief</i>	<i>foreign</i>	<i>possible</i>	<i>sincerely</i>
<i>business</i>	<i>government</i>	<i>practical</i>	<i>succeed</i>
<i>committee</i>	<i>guarantee</i>	<i>privilege</i>	<i>surprise</i>
<i>criticism</i>	<i>height</i>	<i>probably</i>	<i>thoroughly</i>
<i>definitely</i>	<i>immediately</i>	<i>psychology</i>	<i>unusual</i>
<i>dependent</i>	<i>independent</i>	<i>receipt</i>	<i>usually</i>
<i>difference</i>	<i>intelligence</i>	<i>recommend</i>	
<i>discipline</i>	<i>interest</i>		

## Appendix 7. Opening and Closing Remarks for Letters

LETTERS:	INFORMAL	SEMI-FORMAL	FORMAL
<b>Giving news</b>			
<b>Opening Remarks:</b>	(You'll never) guess what ...	I'm writing to tell you about ...	I am writing to inform you of ...
<b>Closing Remarks:</b>	That's all my news for now ...	Write and tell me your news.	I would appreciate your thoughts on this matter.
<b>Making an invitation</b>			
<b>Opening Remarks:</b>	I'm writing to invite you to ...	We would be very pleased if you could come ...	We would be honoured if you could attend ...
<b>Closing Remarks:</b>	Hope you can make it – it'll be great fun!	Please let us know if you can come.	We would be grateful if you could notify us regarding whether ...
<b>Accepting an invitation</b>			
<b>Opening Remarks:</b>	Thanks a lot for the invitation. I'd love to come ...	Thank you for your kind invitation; we would love to join you ...	Thank you for your kind invitation. We would be delighted to attend ...
<b>Closing Remarks:</b>	See you then!	We look forward to seeing you.	Thank you once more for your kind invitation.
<b>Refusing an invitation</b>			
<b>Opening Remarks:</b>	Thanks a lot for the invitation but I won't be able to make it ...	Thank you for your kind invitation. However, we will not be able to come ...	Thank you for your kind invitation. Unfortunately, we will be unable to attend ...
<b>Closing Remarks:</b>	Sorry again. Maybe next time!	Perhaps we can get together soon.	I hope that in the future we might have the opportunity to meet.
<b>Asking for advice</b>			
<b>Opening Remarks:</b>	I've got a problem, and I think you can help.	I'd really like your advice about/ on ...	I am writing to request some advice concerning ...
<b>Closing Remarks:</b>	Write back soon and tell me what you think.	I really hope you can help me.	I would greatly appreciate your assistance in this matter.
<b>Giving advice</b>			
<b>Opening Remarks:</b>	I'm sorry to hear ... and I think I can help.	I'm very sorry to hear that you're having problems with ...	I am writing with regard to your letter requesting advice concerning ...
<b>Closing Remarks:</b>	Let me know what happens.	I hope everything turns out well.	I hope to have been of assistance to you.
<b>Asking for information</b>			
<b>Opening Remarks:</b>	I'm thinking of ... and I wondered if you could help me out.	I'm considering ... and I'd like it if you could give me some information.	I would greatly appreciate it if you could provide me with some information on ...
<b>Closing Remarks:</b>	Hope you can help!	I would appreciate any help you can give me ...	Thank you in advance for your kind cooperation ...

## Appendix 8. Opening and Closing Remarks for Letters

LETTERS:	INFORMAL	SEMI-FORMAL	FORMAL
<b>Giving information</b>			
<b>Opening Remarks:</b>	I've looked into ...	I'm writing in reply to your letter asking for information on ...	I am writing in response to your letter requesting information on ...
<b>Closing Remarks:</b>	Hope this was what you wanted ...	I hope you find this useful...	Do not hesitate to contact me should you require further assistance.
<b>Thanking sb</b>			
<b>Opening Remarks:</b>	Thanks a lot for ...	Thank you very much for ...	I am writing to express my gratitude for ...
<b>Closing Remarks:</b>	Thanks again!	It was very good of you to ...	I am extremely grateful for ...
<b>Apologising</b>			
<b>Opening Remarks:</b>	I'm really sorry about ...	I am writing to apologise for ...	I am writing to offer my sincere apologies regarding ...
<b>Closing Remarks:</b>	Please say you'll forgive me ...	Please accept my apology ...	Once again, please accept our sincerest apologies ...
<b>Congratulating sb</b>			
<b>Opening Remarks:</b>	I'm just writing to say well done ...	I was really happy/pleased to hear that ...	May I congratulate you on ...
<b>Closing Remarks:</b>	Well done!	You really deserve (your) success.	Once again, congratulations.
<b>of Application</b>			
<b>Opening Remarks:</b>	—	—	I am writing to apply for the position ...
<b>Closing Remarks:</b>	—	—	I look forward to hearing from you ...
<b>of Complaint</b>			
<b>Opening Remarks:</b>	—	—	I am writing to draw your attention to ...
<b>Closing Remarks:</b>	—	—	I hope that this matter can be resolved ...
<b>Making Requests</b>			
<b>Opening Remarks:</b>	Could you do something for me?	I wondered if you could possibly do me a favour.	I would be most grateful if you could ...
<b>Closing Remarks:</b>	I hope you can help me out.	I hope it isn't too much trouble.	Thank you in advance for your assistance in this matter.

## Appendix 8. Useful Vocabulary for Letters

LETTERS:	INFORMAL	SEMI-FORMAL	FORMAL
<b>Making an invitation</b>	Let me tell you when & where ...  By the way, it's a fancy dress party/formal ceremony ... You can stay over if you like ...  There'll be plenty of food/drink ...  You won't need to bring anything ...	These are the details of ...  It will be a fancy dress party/formal occasion ... If you need somewhere to stay ...  Refreshments will be provided ...  It won't be necessary to ...	The party/wedding/ceremony will be held on ... at ... Be advised that the party/occasion is ... Accommodation can be provided by arrangement ... The catering arrangements have been made ... You will not be required to ...
<b>Accepting an invitation</b>	What a great way to celebrate ...  By the way, if you need help with ... Can I bring my friend, Brian?	It's a wonderful way to celebrate ...  If you would like any help ... Could I invite a friend to come too?	I'm sure it will be a wonderful occasion. Should you require assistance ... Would it be possible for ... to accompany me?
<b>Refusing an invitation</b>	I can't make it because ... I've got plans for that weekend ...	I won't be able to come because ... I have already arranged to ...	I am unable to attend due to ... I am otherwise engaged ...
<b>Asking for information</b>	Do you know anything about ... I also need to know about ... I want to find out about ... as well. Can you also let me know if ... I would be glad to ...	Do you have information about ... I would also like to know ... In addition, could you tell me ... Please could you also ... I would be grateful for ...	What information do you hold on ... Could you also provide details of ... Furthermore, it would be useful to have information concerning ... Please would you include ... ... would be appreciated ...
<b>Giving information</b>	I have sent you a ... To answer your question about ... Did you know that ...? This information should help you ...	This letter includes a ... In response to your enquiry about ... Were you aware of ...? This information should be useful to you ...	Please find enclosed a ... Regarding your request for ... May I bring to your attention ... The following information may be of use to you ...
<b>Apologising</b>	I'm really sorry for/about ... It wouldn't have happened if ... I admit that it was my fault ... I didn't mean to ...	I apologise for ... It happened because of ... I am to blame for ... It was not intentional ...	Please accept my apologies for ... The situation arose due to ... The fault is entirely mine ... It was not my intention to ...
<b>Making requests</b>	I really need ... Can I ask you to ...	I'd like ... Could I ask you to ...	I wish to request ... Would it be possible for you to ...
<b>Giving advice</b>	Why don't you ...	If I were you, I'd ...	I would suggest that ...

## Appendix 9. Rules and Punctuation

### CAPITAL LETTERS

A capital letter is used:

- to begin a sentence.  
e.g. *There's a great film playing at the cinema.*
  - for days of the week, months and public holidays.  
e.g. *This year, **C**hristmas **D**ay falls on the last **S**unday of **D**ecember.*
  - for names of people and places.  
e.g. My best friend's name is **C**laire and she's from **C**ardiff, **W**ales.
  - for people's titles.  
e.g. **M**r and **M**rs Graham; **D**r Stevens; **P**rofessor Brown; etc.
  - for nationalities and languages.  
e.g. They are **F**rench.  
*We love **I**talian cuisine.*  
*He's fluent in **P**ortuguese and **G**erman.*
  - for the first word and/or the most important words (e.g. nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs) of titles of books, films, plays, TV programmes, etc.  
e.g. *The **S**ixth **S**ense*  
*Indiana **J**ones and the **L**ost **T**emple*  
*Alice in **W**onderland*
- Note:** The personal pronoun **I** is always a capital letter.  
e.g. *George and **I** are going to the funfair.*

### FULL STOP (.)

A full stop is used:

- to end a sentence that is not a question or an exclamation.  
e.g. *I'm having a wonderful time. There's so much to do here.*

### ITALICS

Italics are used:

- to show the titles of books, plays, newspapers, films, etc.  
e.g. *The Hunchback of Notre Dame*  
*Romeo and Juliet*  
*The Daily Mail*  
*Braveheart*
- to show names of hotels, restaurants, etc.  
e.g. *The Majestic Hotel*  
*Cleo's Grill House*

### COMMA (,)

A comma is used:

- to separate words in a list.  
e.g. *We need eggs, milk, cheese and butter.*
- to separate phrases or clauses.  
e.g. *He stopped walking, looked down, and realised that he was still wearing his slippers.*
- to separate long sentences linked by *and*, *but*, *as*, *or*, etc.  
e.g. *Susan had a very bad cold, **but** she still went to the party.*  
*Ann brought some delicious egg sandwiches, **and** Tim brought his famous chocolate brownies.*
- to separate a non-identifying relative clause (i.e. a clause giving extra information which is not essential to the meaning of the main clause) from the main clause.  
e.g. *Maria, who is a ballerina, lives in Paris.*  
*The local market, where you can buy exotic spices, is located on the High Street.*
- after certain linking words/phrases (e.g. *in addition to this*, *for example*, *however*, *in conclusion*, etc).  
e.g. *In addition to this, Fred is a collector of antique watches.*
- when if-clauses begin sentences.  
e.g. *If we had taken her advice, we wouldn't have got lost.*  
**Note:** No comma is used, however, when the if-clause follows the main clause.
- before and/or after expressions such as: *he/she said*, *said Tom/Mary*, etc. when reporting someone's exact words.  
e.g. *Opening the door, he said, "Wake up children, it's time to get ready for your trip."*  
*but: "I am exhausted," said the firefighter.*
- to separate question tags from the rest of the sentence.  
e.g. *Ms Jones is your history teacher, isn't she?*

### QUESTION MARK (?)

A question mark is used:

- to end a direct question.  
e.g. *How old are you?*  
**Note:** A question mark is not used to end an indirect question.  
e.g. *He asked me how old I was.*

### EXCLAMATION MARK (!)

An exclamation mark is used:

- to end an exclamatory sentence, i.e. a sentence showing admiration, surprise, joy, anger, etc.  
e.g. *That's great news!*  
*What a beautiful baby!*

## Appendix 10. Rules and Punctuation

### QUOTATION MARK (' ' " ")

A quotation mark is used:

- in direct speech to report the exact words someone said.  
e.g. *'My flight is leaving at 9am,' said Pamela.*  
*'Where are you from?' he asked us.*
- for quotations (i.e. phrases taken from books, plays, etc), sayings and proverbs.  
e.g. *All in all, I believe that life would be boring without music. As Robert Fripp once said, "music is just a means of creating a magical state."*  
*My grandfather used to say that 'an apple a day, keeps the doctor away.'*

### COLON (:)

A colon is used:

- to introduce a list.  
e.g. *There were four of us on the boat : my mother, my father, my cousin Jane and me.*

### SEMICOLON (;)

A semicolon is used:

- instead of a full stop, sometimes to separate main sentences when their meaning is connected.  
Semicolons are not used as frequently as full stops or commas.  
e.g. *Some teenagers find it extremely hard to choose a career; others consider it a fairly easy choice.*

### DOTS (...)

- Three dots are used to show that words have been left out from a quotation, proverb, sentence, etc.  
e.g. *As Edward Guthman once said, 'Thirty seconds on the evening news is worth a front page headline ...'*

### BRACKETS ( )

Brackets are used:

- to separate extra information from the rest of the sentence.  
e.g. *These days, you can buy popular newspapers (i.e. The New York Times, Le Monde, etc) almost anywhere in the world.*

### APOSTROPHE (')

An apostrophe is used:

- in short forms to show that one or more letters or numbers have been left out.  
e.g. *I'm (= I am) writing because I've (= I have) got great news.*  
*I left for Canada in the summer of '95. (= 1995)*
- before or after the possessive -s to show ownership or the relationship between people.  
e.g. *Tom's bicycle, my sister's son* (singular noun + 's)  
*my parents' car* (plural noun + ' )  
*women's shoes* (Irregular plural + 's)

Study the examples:

e.g. *Look at that peacock! Aren't its feathers beautiful?*  
(its = possessive adjective)

but: *It's (= it is) a beautiful day, isn't it?*

*Our school is very big. It's got (= it has got) three floors and a huge gymnasium.*

- to form the plurals of letters, numbers or abbreviations.  
e.g. *She often writes j's instead of g's.*  
*Package holidays became extremely popular in the 1980's.*  
*UNICEF's efforts to raise money for children living in developing countries have been extremely successful.*

### HYPHEN (-)

A hyphen is used:

- to form a compound word.  
e.g. *kind-hearted; ten-year-old boy; seventy-nine; tape-recording; well-dressed; water-ski; etc.*

### DASH (—)

A dash is used:

- in informal English, the same way as a colon or semicolon.  
e.g. *There are three things I couldn't imagine living without — my best friend, a good book and my dog.*
- to introduce something that you thought of or added later, or something surprising, unexpected, etc.  
e.g. *They're closing down the old library — at least that's what I've heard.*

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