

**КАЗАНСКИЙ ФЕДЕРАЛЬНЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ
ИНСТИТУТ МЕЖДУНАРОДНЫХ ОТНОШЕНИЙ, ИСТОРИИ И
ВОСТОКОВЕДЕНИЯ**

Кафедра английского языка в социогуманитарной сфере

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**ACADEMIC WRITING FOR MASTERS IN
HUMANITIES**

**Учебное пособие
по академическому письму для магистров гуманитарных
специальностей**

Казань – 2016

УДК 821.111.09
ББК ШЗ(4)

*Рекомендовано учебно-методической комиссией ИМОИиВ
Протокол № 8 от 15 июня 2016 года*

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Academic Writing for masters in humanities: учеб. пособие по академическому письму для магистров гуманитарных специальностей/ А.А. Гильманова, С. Е. Никитина, Д. В. Тябина. – Казань: Казан.ун-т, 2016. – 221 с.

Учебное пособие предназначено для магистров гуманитарных специальностей и содержит теоретические и практические материалы по курсу академического письма. Пособие предназначено как для аудиторной, так и внеаудиторной работы и адресовано всем, кто приступает к написанию академических и научных текстов на английском языке.

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От составителей

Написание научных и академических текстов на английском языке приобретает особую актуальность в контексте современной мировой ситуации в связи с развитием мировых информационных технологий и ростом научно-технического сотрудничества между государствами. На этапе активного обмена научным опытом, в том числе публикаций научных статей в иностранных изданиях, от современных специалистов требуется владеть иностранным языком не только на разговорном уровне, но и демонстрировать навыки и умения письменной иностранной речи, необходимые при написании академических текстов.

Пособие по академическому письму *Academic Writing for masters in humanities* предназначено для обучения письменным формам профессионального общения на английском языке. Основные навыки академического письма развиваются в пособии через чётко встроенную структуру, сочетающую теоретический материал и практические задания и упражнения к изученным теоретическим аспектам.

Пособие состоит из 9 уроков, каждый из которых состоит из нескольких частей, а именно: теоретический материал, практические задания, вопросы для самопроверки и список ключевых терминов по теме урока. Теоретические аспекты позволяют обучающимся получить общее представление о написании академического текста, практические задания нацелены на отработку практических навыков письма, вопросы для самопроверки применяются для закрепления теоретических знаний по данной теме, а перечень ключевых терминов структурирует изученный материал и позволяет студентам свободно ориентироваться в научном пространстве того или иного академического текста.

Кроме того, в пособии представлен общий словарь ключевых слов, которыми должны владеть студенты после изучения материала данного пособия, а также промежуточный и финальный тесты с ответами по курсу академического письма, позволяющие в полной мере оценить знания и умения, полученные студентами в результате освоения курса академического письма.

Целью пособия является обучение письменным формам профессионально - ориентированного общения на английском языке.

Основные задачи пособия - совершенствование навыков написания научных текстов на английском языке; - выработка практических навыков письменной интерпретации англоязычных текстов; создание собственного англоязычного терминологического «Глоссария»; - выработка практических навыков академического письма; - создание оригинальных научных текстов небольшого объема на английском языке

Данное пособие может использоваться как для аудиторной работы, так и для внеаудиторного обучения, и рекомендуется для всех желающих усовершенствовать навыки самостоятельного создания научных статей и академических текстов.

UNIT 1. ACADEMIC WRITING STYLE

ACADEMIC WRITING QUIZ

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

Answers

1. b	5. b	9. c
2. c	6. c	10. a
3. a	7. a	11. b
4. c	8. b	12. c

Part 1. What Is Academic Writing And Why Do We Need It?

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.

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. So, ***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 its 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 sound writing as well as research skills is the key of attaining the good grades in academic environment.

- At tertiary level education, these skills are must to cope up with the dynamic environment of university where writing reports and presenting them hold much worth.

- 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, position paper), 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 each others' texts 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.

Main features of academic writing

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 features 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.

Hedging

In any kind of academic writing you do, it is necessary to make decisions about your stance on a particular subject, or the strength of the claims you are making. Different subjects prefer to do this in different ways. A technique common in certain kinds of academic writing is known by linguists as a 'hedge'.

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.

Exercises

Ex.1.Examinethe following texts and identify any significant features. What kind of text does the extract come from and how does the language differ between the texts?

Text A

No one who had ever seen Catherine Morland in her infancy would have supposed her born to be an heroine. Her situation in life, the character of her father and mother, her own person and disposition, were all equally against her. Her father was a clergyman, without being neglected, or poor, and a very respectable man, though his name was Richard -- and he had never been handsome. He had a considerable independence besides two good livings -- and he was not in the least addicted to locking up his daughters. Her mother was a woman of useful plain sense, with a good temper, and, what is more remarkable, with a good constitution. She had three sons before Catherine was born; and instead of dying in bringing the latter into the world, as anybody might expect, she still lived on -- lived to have six children more -- to see them growing up around her, and to enjoy excellent health herself. A family of ten children will be always called a fine family, where there are heads and arms and legs enough for the number; but the Morlands had little other right to the word, for they were in general very plain, and Catherine, for many years of her life, as plain as any. She had a thin awkward figure, a sallow skin without colour, dark lank hair, and strong features -- so much for her person; and not less unpropitious for heroism seemed her mind. She was fond of all boy's plays, and greatly preferred cricket not merely to dolls, but to the more heroic enjoyments of infancy, nursing a dormouse, feeding a canary-bird, or watering a rose-bush. Indeed she had no taste for a garden; and if she gathered flowers at all, it was chiefly for the pleasure of mischief -- at least so it was conjectured from her always preferring those which she was forbidden to take. Such were her propensities -- her abilities were quite as extraordinary. She never

could learn or understand anything before she was taught; and sometimes not even then, for she was often inattentive, and occasionally stupid. Her mother was three months in teaching her only to repeat the "Beggar's Petition"; and after all, her next sister, Sally, could say it better than she did. Not that Catherine was always stupid - by no means; she learnt the fable of "The Hare and Many Friends" as quickly as any girl in England. Her mother wished her to learn music; and Catherine was sure she should like it, for she was very fond of tinkling the keys of the old forlorn spinner; so, at eight years old she began. She learnt a year, and could not bear it; and Mrs. Morland, who did not insist on her daughters being accomplished in spite of incapacity or distaste, allowed her to leave off. The day which dismissed the music-master was one of the happiest of Catherine's life. Her taste for drawing was not superior; though whenever she could obtain the outside of a letter from her mother or seize upon any other odd piece of paper, she did what she could in that way, by drawing houses and trees, hens and chickens, all very much like one another. Writing and accounts she was taught by her father; French by her mother: her proficiency in either was not remarkable, and she shirked her lessons in both whenever she could. What a strange, unaccountable character! - for with all these symptoms of profligacy at ten years old, she had neither a bad heart nor a bad temper, was seldom stubborn, scarcely ever quarrelsome, and very kind to the little ones, with few interruptions of tyranny; she was moreover noisy and wild, hated confinement and cleanliness, and loved nothing so well in the world as rolling down the green slope at the back of the house.

Text B

COSTATA alla PIZZAIOLA

SERVES 4

1.5 lb (750 g) thinly sliced sirloin or rump steak or veal or chicken breasts, skinned

6 tablespoons olive oil

3 cloves garlic, peeled and crushed

1.5 lb (750 g) canned tomatoes, sieved

2 tablespoons chopped parsley

3 tablespoons chopped basil salt and pepper

Trim any gristle and fat off the meat, flatten it as much as possible with a meat mallet and set it to one side. Heat the oil in a frying-pan wide enough

to take all the meat in a single layer, add the garlic and fry gently for about 3 minutes. Add the tomatoes, parsley and basil, stir and bring to the boil. Slip the meat into the tomato sauce, cook very quickly for about 5 minutes, sprinkle with salt and plenty of pepper and serve at once.

Text C

PO Box 1452Almeira

Spain

14th April 2003

Dear John,

How are you? Everything here's fine. I'm very happy at the moment because my football team won last week. I went to the match with my brother Fernando, and we both enjoyed it very much. The score was 6 - 1.

Well, that's a little bit of recent news from Almeira. Now, here's the most important thing in this letter:

What are you doing in September? I'm on holiday then, and I'd like to invite you to come to Almeira for a month. The weather is usually very good in September (it's not too hot!). We could go swimming and I could show you something of Spain.

I hope you can come. My family and I think it's a great idea, and we all want to meet you.

That's all for now.

Best wishes to you and your family.



Text D

Introduction to Pitch

2/1 Pitch names and notation

Playing any note on a piano produces a fixed sound. The sound gradually fades away, but it does not go up or down. Music is made up from fixed sounds such as this.

Many instruments (including all the stringed instruments and the trombone) are capable of producing an infinite number of fixed sounds between any two notes on a keyboard, with only minute differences between them. It is the same with the human voice. But in practice all

instruments, and singing voices too, normally use only the particular notes of the keyboard. When a player such as a violinist 'tunes' his instrument, he is trying to find *exactly* the one fixed sound he wants. All the other notes in the music will be placed in relation to this one note.

If one note is played on the keyboard and then another note is played anywhere to the right of it, the sound of the second note is said to be higher than that of the first. A note to the left of it would produce a lower sound. In the same way men's voices are said to be lower than those of women or young boys. The technical word referring to the height or depth of sound is pitch.

On the keyboard, groups of two black notes alternate with groups of three black notes. This makes it easy to distinguish between the white notes, which are given the letter names from A to G. A is always between the second and third of the group of three black notes. After G comes A again.

Text E

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Part 2.Sentence Structure. Sentence Types

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:

I and my brother 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:

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

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.*

Exercises

Ex. 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 3.Punctuation

What is 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, etc., 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.

Why should you use punctuation in your writing? The simple answer is that it helps your reader – who is possibly also your marker - 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 . (If you need more detailed information, there is a separate leaflet on “Apostrophes” and commas, colons and semi-colons are covered in greater depth in this leaflet after the list.)

Punctuation mark	When to use it	For example
<i>Apostrophe</i> ,	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. <i>That means you use ‘s’ for singular and s’ for plural unless the plural does <u>not</u> end in an s, as in the case of ‘children’.</i> <i>Note: There is <u>no</u> apostrophe used with ours, yours, hers, his, whose, its (meaning belonging to us, you, her, him , who, or it)</i> you’re = you are; I’m = I am; it’s = it is; who’s = who is; don’t = do not BUT remember that you don’t use short forms like ‘don’t’ in academic writing. Always use

		<i>the full forms such as do not, who is, it is etc.</i>
Brackets ()	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. A sentence should still make complete sense without the words in brackets.	He always hands in his work on time (he is a well organised student) after carefully checking it.
Capital letter A	1) at the beginning of a sentence 2) for names	Snow continued to fall. Finally a decision was taken to shut the campus. Alice Smith; Hull; The Bible; The Thames; The Midwifery Council
Colon : (see below for more details)	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	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. Mediterranean cookery is considered healthy: it uses olive oil, fresh vegetables and fish.
Comma , (see below for more details)	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”)	We cannot help him, unless he comes to see us. The picnic included sandwiches, salad, crisps, cakes and fruit.
Dash –	1) to create a pause for dramatic effect, introducing something surprising or unexpected 2) used in pairs in a similar way to brackets	I looked at the mark for my last essay and it was – a first. I hear she’s a good pianist – I myself have never heard her – but

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

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” lets 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 when 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 3 methods shown above.

Ex.1. 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.

11. The continuing cancer and antidrug abuse campaigns are only two examples of the use of the advertising industry as a means to promote public welfare.

12. Advertising falls into two main categories: consumer advertising directed to the ultimate purchaser and trade advertising in which the appeal is made to dealers through trade journals and other media.

13. Both consumer and trade advertising employ many specialized types of commercial persuasion.

14. A relatively minor but important form of advertising is institutional advertising which is designed solely to build prestige and public respect for particular business concerns as important American institutions.

15. Each year millions of dollars are spent on institutional advertising which usually mentions products or services for sale only incidentally.

16. Another minor but increasingly popular form of advertising is cooperative advertising in which the manufacturer shares the expense of local radio or newspaper advertising with the retailer who signs the advertisement.

17. National advertisers occasionally share the same space in magazine advertising.

18. For example makers of pancake flour of syrup and of sausages sometimes jointly advertise this combination as an ideal cold-weather breakfast.

19. Advertising may be local national or international in scope and so the rates charged for the three different levels of advertising vary sharply particularly in newspapers.

20. Varying rates are set also by newspapers for amusement legal political financial religious and charitable advertisements.

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.

e.g. 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.

e.g. *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!

Ex.1. 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.

Ex.1. 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.
6. Which can/should be connected with a semi-colon?
- a) I'm not going on holiday this year _____ I am very short of money.
- b) I'm not going on holiday this year _____ no time!!
- c) I'm not going on holiday this year _____ too expensive!
- d) I'm not going on holiday this year _____ hot weather doesn't agree with me.
7. Which can/should be connected with a semi-colon?
- a) Clare is a lovely girl _____ gentle and kind.
- b) Clare is a lovely girl _____ a smashing cook and a thoughtful parent.

- c) Clare is a lovely girl _____ she knows just what to say in a crisis.
- d) Clare is a lovely girl _____ I think I will have to marry her.
8. Which can/should be connected with a semi-colon?
- a) Tim recently took up the guitar _____ he finds it very relaxing.
- b) Tim recently took up the guitar _____ a relaxing hobby.
- c) Tim recently took up the guitar _____ I pity his neighbors.
- d) Tim recently took up the guitar _____ although he has no musical talent.
9. Which can/should be connected with a semi-colon?
- a) Tim is emigrating to New Zealand _____ he is fed up with life in the UK.
- b) Tim is emigrating to New Zealand _____ he loves the outdoor life.
- c) Tim is emigrating to New Zealand _____ a beautiful country.
- d) Tim is emigrating to New Zealand _____ he longs for a better life.
10. Which can/should be connected with a semi-colon?
- a) DIY is becoming increasingly popular _____ sales of household paint have doubled in the last three years.
- b) DIY is becoming increasingly popular _____ and a good thing too.
- c) DIY is becoming increasingly popular _____ many people are improving their home rather than moving.
- d) DIY is becoming increasingly popular _____ but mainly in the South East.

Run-on sentences

What are “run-on” sentences? Run-on sentences are two sentences which have been written as one single one. They should always be avoided although they are often not picked up by “grammar checkers”. In many ways it is all too easy to write run-on sentences when you are keen to put down your ideas on paper when working on an essay! Therefore, when you proofread your work, be sure to check that you do not have two ideas in a single sentence. Below are some examples of “run-on” sentences.

Sometimes the pupils misunderstand the instructions given by the teacher they do not listen carefully enough.

The secretary hurried into her office she needed to phone the tutor immediately.

I read a fascinating book on the birds of Australia it had wonderful illustrations.

You can simply change a “run-on” sentence into **two shorter sentences**. (Don’t be frightened of writing short sentences in your academic work. They can add clarity.)

The secretary hurried into her office. She needed to phone the tutor immediately.

You can use a **semi-colon** to join the two sentences and show the link between them.

The secretary hurried into her office; she needed to phone the tutor immediately.

To make the link even clearer, you could use a **conjunction**.

*The secretary hurried into her office **as** she needed to phone the tutor immediately.*

What you should never do is leave a run-on sentence in your work.

Ex.1. In the following exercise, you will be presented with a series of sentences. Put a tick by the run-on sentences.

1.

- a) Greece is a fantastic country it has lovely people and great food.
- b) Despite a long flight, arriving in Athens is always a good feeling.
- c) She gave me a withering stare I was really scared.
- d) There is nothing better for a cold than a hot whisky and a big box of chocolates.

2.

- a) The chest contained large amounts of gold, rubies, sapphires and other precious stones.
- b) She ran out of the room the shadows in the corner had scared her.
- c) I will never fly again it is far too polluting.
- d) She always recycles her bottles they are collected twice a month.

3.

- a) I hate kippers the smell puts me off.
- b) Bill rushed to his mate's house there was cold beer in the fridge.
- c) She never walks anywhere she is really lazy.
- d) Tim loves jelly strawberry is his favourite flavour.

4.

a) The meal was a huge success despite his lack of skill in the kitchen.

b) The meal was a disaster he is useless in the kitchen.

c) Given his ineptitude with a food mixer, the meal was a surprising success.

d) I really enjoyed the smoked kippers that he had prepared the night before.

5.

a) 'Give me that pencil it's mine.'

b) She found the wallet he found the money.

c) Pirates sailed the seas during the warmer months.

d) Leaving the house early, Bill found the roads empty.

6.

a) Tim left his job because he could not stand his boss.

b) Tim left his job he could not stand his boss.

c) Tim left his job; he could not stand his boss.

d) Tim left his job, as he could not stand his boss.

7.

a) She threw down the bottle she hates wine anyway.

b) I love wine the French reds are definitely the best

c) Tim prefers a nice pint of bitter, but sometimes likes a lager on warm days.

d) She uncorked the new bottle that she had bought in France the previous summer.

8.

a) Tim rushed out of the house; he desperately needed another pint of milk.

b) Tim rushed out of the house he desperately needed another pint of milk.

c) Tim rushed out of the house because he desperately needed another pint of milk.

d) Tim rushed out of the house, as he desperately needed another pint of milk.

Ex.2. Punctuate the following text.

comparative studies of animals help to show how mans space requirements are influenced by his environment in animals we can observe the direction the rate and the extent of changes in behaviour that follow changes in space available to them as we can never hope to do in men for one thing by using animals it is possible to accelerate time since animal generations are relatively short a scientist can in forty years observe four hundred and forty generations of mice while he has in the same span of time seen only two generations of his own kind and of course he can be more detached about the fate of animals in addition animals don't rationalise their behaviour and thus obscure issues in their natural state they respond in an amazingly consistent manner so that it is possible to observe repeated and virtually identical performances by restricting our observations to the way animals handle space it is possible to learn an amazing amount that is translatable to human terms

Part 4. Linking Ideas Using Linking Words

What are 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 2 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. **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 never- and 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) & *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.

General list of linking words and their meanings

<p>Personal opinion:</p>	<p><i>In my opinion/view</i> <i>To my mind</i> <i>To my way of thinking</i> <i>I am convinced that</i> <i>It strikes me that</i> <i>It is my firm belief that</i> <i>I am inclined to believe that</i> <i>It seems to me that</i> <i>As far as I am concerned, I think that the economic recession of the previous decade was foreseeable.</i></p>
<p>To list advantages and disadvantages:</p>	<p><i>One advantage of</i> <i>Another advantage of</i> <i>One other advantage of</i> <i>A further advantage of</i> <i>The main advantage of</i> <i>The greatest advantage of</i> <i>The first advantage of riding a motorbike in a large metropolis is that of not getting caught in major congestion.</i></p>

<p>To list points:</p>	<p><i>Firstly</i> <i>First of all</i> <i>In the first place</i> <i>Secondly</i> <i>Thirdly</i> <i>Finally.</i></p> <p><i>To start/begin with, we have to address the inadequacies within the education system before we can tackle unemployment fully.</i></p>
<p>To add more points to the same topic:</p>	<p><i>What is more</i> <i>Furthermore</i> <i>Apart from this/that</i> <i>In addition (to this</i> <i>Moreover</i> <i>Besides (this)</i></p> <p><i>... 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.</i></p>
<p>To refer to other sources:</p>	<p><i>With reference to, According to.</i></p> <p><i>According to the latest scientific research, the use of mobile phones can be damaging to one's health in the long run.</i></p>
<p>To emphasise a point:</p>	<p><i>Indeed, Naturally, Clearly, Obviously, Of course, Needless to say</i></p> <p><i>Needless to say, the scheme was found to fail due to insufficient funds.</i></p>
<p>To give examples:</p>	<p><i>For instance</i> <i>For example</i></p> <p><i>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.</i></p>

<p>To state other people's opinion:</p>	<p><i>It is popularly believed that</i> <i>People often claim that</i> <i>It is often alleged that</i> <i>Some people argue that</i> <i>Many argue that</i> <i>Most people feel that</i> <i>Some people point out that wealth will bring happiness.</i> <i>Contrary to popular belief, wealth does not necessarily bring happiness.</i></p>
<p>To conclude:</p>	<p><i>Finally</i> <i>Lastly</i> <i>All in all</i> <i>Taking everything into account/consideration</i> <i>On the whole</i> <i>All things considered</i> <i>In conclusion</i> <i>On balance</i> <i>For the above mentioned reasons</i> <i>To sum up</i> <i>Therefore I feel that</i> <i>To sum up, it is unlikely that there will be peace in all the countries of the world concurrently.</i></p>
<p>Summarising:</p>	<p><i>In short</i> <i>Briefly</i> <i>To put it briefly, his performance on stage was fantastic!</i></p>

Ex.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- not-so-distant relatives. Ongoing research (such as that discussed in this TED talk) is exploring the possibilities of learning to communicate with them.

Check yourself

- 1) What is academic writing?
- 2) What are the main features 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?

Key terms and words

academic writing, n академическое письмо

Academic writing is a formal type of writing and its usage throughout the academic career also makes it easy for the students to cater to professional writing environment after completing their degrees.

academic writing skills, n навыки академического письма

Academic writing skills encompass strong composition, excellent grammar, and a consistent stylistic approach.

adjective, n прилагательное

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, n наречие

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, n обстоятельственное придаточное предложение
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.

apostrophe, n апостроф

An apostrophe is a type of punctuation mark commonly used to show the omission of letters and convey possessive relationships.

brackets, n круглые скобки

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, n заглавная буква

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).

colon, n двоеточие

The colon (:) is a punctuation mark consisting of two equally sized dots centered on the same vertical line.

comma, n запятая

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.

conjunction, n союз

A conjunction is a part of speech that connects words, sentences, phrases, or clauses.

contrast words, n слова, выражающие контраст/противопоставление

Linking words that show contrast between things in English.

complex sentence, n сложноподчинённое предложение

A complex sentence is a sentence that is made from an independent clause and a dependent clause joined together.

compound sentence, n

сложносочинённое предложение 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.

compound-complex sentence, n предложение, сочетающее элементы сложносочинённого и сложноподчинённого предложения

A compound-complex sentence is made up of a compound sentence and a complex sentence. A compound-complex sentence is made from two independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses.

conjunction, n союз

Conjunction is word or a phrase which connects two words or two phrases or two clauses or two sentences.

dash, n тире

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.

exclamation mark, n восклицательный знак

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, n ясность/эксплицитность.

Clarity as a consequence of being explicit

formality, n соблюдение норм и правил. Something that is required or usual but that has little true meaning or importance

full-stop, n точка. The full stop or period is a punctuation mark placed at the end of a sentence.

punctuation, n пунктуация.

Punctuation is a set of symbols used in writing to help indicate something about the structure of sentences, or to assist readers in knowing when to change the rhythm or the stress of their speaking.

hedge, n слово, смягчающее воздействие высказывания (прилагательные, наречия, придаточные предложения). A hedge is a mitigating word or sound used to lessen the impact of an utterance.

hyphen, n дефис The hyphen (-) is a punctuation mark used to join words and to separate syllables of a single word.

linking words, n связующие слова

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.

Noun clause, n придаточное дополнительное предложение

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.

preposition, n предлог

A preposition is a word (usually a short word) that shows the relationship between two other two nearby words.

punctuation, n пунктуация

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 вопросительный знак

The question mark [?] is a punctuation mark that indicates an interrogative clause or phrase in many languages

quotation, n цитата

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.

quotation mark, n кавычка. Quotation marks are punctuation marks used in pairs in various writing systems to set off direct speech, a quotation, or a phrase.

relative clause, n относительное придаточное предложение A relative clause is a subordinate clause that modifies a noun or a noun phrase.

run-on sentence, и предложение, состоящее из двух самостоятельных предложений (частей), которые не имеют правильного пунктуационного соединения. 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.

transition words, и переходные/связующие слова Transition words and phrases keep the reader on track by showing relationships between ideas and information.

UNIT 2. WRITING A PARAGRAPH

What is 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 (i.e. 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.

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 o 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. o 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 16 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, “Wow! 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

Because 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 over-use 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!

- key words (or synonyms) repeated. Use the same word or a synonym in the next sentence.

*The policy on **changing classes** is too strict. According to **the policy**, a student must get the signatures of 7 different people before **moving to another class**.*

- pronouns (*it, she, they*). Use a pronoun to refer to a noun from the previous sentence (referring to a person or thing already mentioned).

*Teachers should **not put grades on essays**. **This** would eliminate students' tears.*

*Angela Rizzi argues that grades do not motivate students. **She** thinks teachers should only write comments, but not grades.*

- reference words (*that, this*) which link related ideas, e.g. *one such experiment; in this way; these*

- general class words – (*these characteristics, this process*)

- conjunctions and sentence connectors (but, however, furthermore, yet)

- signposts to emphasise the relationships expressed (*on the other hand; in contrast; in addition; moreover; first, second*). Signposts are internal aids to assist readers; they usually consist of several sentences or a paragraph outlining what the article has covered and where the article will be going.

- parallel structures (using a repeated grammatical form)

In the following paragraph the sentences are all about mummification but they jump all over the place. There is no overall paragraph plan and they jump all over the place.

The ancient Egyptians were masters of preserving dead people's bodies by making mummies of them. Mummies several thousand years old have been discovered nearly intact. The skin, hair, teeth, finger- and toenails, and facial features of the mummies were evident. It is possible to diagnose the

diseases they suffered in life such as smallpox, arthritis, and nutritional deficiencies. The process was remarkably effective. Sometimes apparent were the fatal afflictions of the dead people: a middle-aged king died from a blow on the head, and polio killed a child king. Mummification consisted of removing the internal organs, applying natural preservatives inside and out, and then wrapping the body in layers of bandages.

Here is the same paragraph revised with a plan (from general to specific) and clearer links to help the reader.

The ancient Egyptians were masters of preserving dead people's bodies by making mummies of them. *The process of mummification* consisted of removing the internal organs, applying natural preservatives inside and out, and then wrapping the body in layers of bandages. *It was a remarkably effective practice.* **Indeed**, mummies several thousand years old have been discovered nearly intact. *Their* skin, hair, teeth, fingers and toenails, and facial features of the *mummies* are **still** evident. *Their* diseases in life, such as smallpox, arthritis, and nutritional deficiencies, are **still** diagnosable. **Even** *their* fatal afflictions are **still** apparent: a middle-aged king died from a blow on the head: a child king died from polio.

Topic sentence is bold

Words in italics – nouns repeated and then pronouns

Highlighted words: links between sentences

Underlined words: parallel grammatical form for parallel content

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 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, ...

Topic sentences in bold

Problem 1 (flaws)

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

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>Topic sentence (expressing the “problem”) →</p> <p><i>Expansion of point →</i></p> <p>Evidence/ support →</p> <p><u>Solution</u> →</p>	<p>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.</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</i></p>
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	offence against the state". <u>They argue that this neglect can be remedied by training of personnel within the criminal justice system and through victim support services.</u>
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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?

You should start a new paragraph 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.

Ex.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	

5. information	
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Ex.2. You are writing an essay on ‘Prisons make criminals worse, and should be abolished’. Using the notes below, complete the introductory paragraph, following the structure provided.

Introduction

- Modern prison system developed in nineteenth century
- Prisons intended to isolate, punish and reform cross-reference
- Steep rise in number of prisoners in last 20 years
- Critics claim they are ‘universities of crime’
- Essay aims to consider how effective prisons are

1. The modern prison system . . .
2. The system had three basic aims: . . .
3. However, in the last 20 years . . .
4. Prisons are commonly criticised . . .
5. This essay attempts to evaluate . . .

Ex.3. Using the second set of notes, write the next paragraph of the essay.

Advantages

- Prisons offer society three apparent benefits
- Provide punishment by deprivation of freedom
- Offenders are segregated so cannot re-offend
- Possibility of reform through training programmes

1.
2.
3.
4.

Ex.4. Using the next set of notes, write the third paragraph.

Drawbacks

- Prisons appear to be failing in twenty-first century
- Prison population steadily rising in many countries
- Many prisoners are ‘repeat offenders’

Few prisons able to offer effective reform programmes
Prison conditions often brutal and degrading

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

Ex.5. Write a concluding paragraph, summarising the previous points and using your own ideas, to answer the title given.

Ex.6. 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.

Ex.7. 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.

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?

Key terms and words

cohesion, n лексико-грамматическая связность текста

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.

coherence, n семантическая связность текста

Coherence in linguistics is what makes a text semantically meaningful.

cohesive device, n связующее слово

A word or phrase used in a text to connect ideas together, i.e. a conjunction

concluding sentence, n заключительное предложение

A concluding sentence is the last sentence of a paragraph(s), it summarizes everything that you just wrote about.

conclusion, n заключение

Conclusion is the chronological end of any discussion.

evaluation, n оценка

Evaluation is a process that involves assessment of an idea, project, or activity and judging its worth in terms of value, merit, or importance.

findings, n полученные результаты/данные

The results of an investigation.

introduction, n введение

The introduction is the first paragraph of your essay, **introduction** is the first impression your readers will have of your writing.

paragraph, n параграф/абзац

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 структура параграфа/абзаца

Most paragraphs in an essay have a three-part structure—introduction, body, and conclusion.

paragraphing, n структурирование текста по параграфам/абзацам

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.

supporting sentence, n обосновывающие предложения; предложения, разворачивающие аргументацию вокруг тематического предложения

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.

thesis, n тема, тезис, основное положение

The point that an essay is trying to prove.

thesis statement, n изложение тезисов

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 тема, проблематика

The topic, or theme, is what is being talked about.

topic sentence, n тематическое/топикальное предложение, в котором формулируется тема сообщения

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, n переход

Transition is a word or group of words that relate something that come before to what comes after.

UNIT 3.WRITING AN ABSTRACT

What is 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.

Your 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.

Why 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.

When is it necessary to write abstracts?

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. theses
- submission of proposals for conference papers
- writing a book proposal

Qualities 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

How 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.

What to include 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 could it be useful for others in their practice and enhance their knowledge as well.

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.

Descriptive abstract	Informative abstract
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.

Examples 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 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’</p>	<p>background</p> <p>purpose and aim</p> <p>methods</p> <p>results</p> <p>conclusions</p>

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.	
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How is an abstract different to 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.

Abstract	Introduction
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 of view’ 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

All abstracts include:

- 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 color 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.

Ex.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 .

Ex.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.....

Check yourself

- 1) Give a definition for 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?

Key terms and words

abstract, аннотация

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.

approach, н подход

The method used in dealing with or accomplishing.

article, н статья

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.

dissertation, н диссертация

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, н черновой вариант

A version of an unfinished document or other written work.

implications, н подтекст, скрытый смысл

What is suggested in an utterance, even though neither expressed nor strictly implied.

informative abstract, н информативный абзац

An informative abstract is short, specific and presents only the essential details of the research.

introduction, н введение

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 word, н ключевое слово

A word which occurs in a text more often than we would expect to occur by chance alone.

method, н метод

A method is a system or a way of doing something.

methodology, н методика/методология

Methodology is the systematic, theoretical analysis of the methods applied to a field of study.

overview, н обзор, общее описание

Generalized treatment of a topic – a summary or outline

redraft, v переписывать, исправлять

To write a document, an agreement, etc. again, making changes and improvements.

report, n сообщение, доклад. A report is a systematic, well organised document which defines and analyses a subject or problem.

research, n исследование. Research is the procedure that involves gathering and searching of required data or information.

summary, n краткое изложение. A summary is a shortened version of a text that highlights its key points.

wordiness, n многословие. Wordiness is taking more words than necessary to make your point. It may take the form of redundant expressions or phrases.

UNIT 4. WRITING AN ESSAY

What is an essay?

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.

What is 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.

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:

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:

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:
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:

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.

How to connect 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.

How to format an essay

1. Use double spacing (leave a blank line between each line of writing).

2. Leave 2.5 centimeters (1 inch) 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 ($\frac{3}{4}$ inch). 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.

What does an essay outline look like?

How to write 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 all of these 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.

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.	
	Introduction: Hamlet's father asks Hamlet not only to seek vengeance but also to keep his mind untainted.
I.	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.
II.	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 false face to the world.
V.	Though Hamlet becomes more compromised the longer he delays, killing the king would have been a morally questionable act.
	Conclusion: 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.

Exercises

Ex.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?

Ex.2 Read these thesis statements below. Write/(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.

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</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</i> <i>although</i> <i>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, theses), 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 reading skills.

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

How to choose the necessary source material?

Besides asking the four questions noted on page 27, talk to people on your course or who took the course last year. They may be able to provide useful recommendations.

Question 1: Is it relevant?

You will have a lot of reading. As a non-native speaker, this may take a long time. You will probably not have time to read everything you want to - so be selective. Everything you read should be directly related to your essay title.

Strategy 1: Read the abstract

This gives an overview of the book/paper, probably including the research topic; the specific study area; methodology; key findings. A brief analysis will indicate how appropriate the source is.

Right. 'The field of English for Academic Purposes' - relevant to the essay question.

Right. 'Broad theoretical foundations' - implies it will be wide-ranging and quite general.

Right. 'To develop ways for learners to gain' - suggests it might be student-focused.

Strategy 2: Read the table of contents/index/keywords

A table of contents gives an overview of the book's chapters; the index indicates specific ideas. Both can be used to focus research on the sections of most value to you.

Right. Users of "academic" English' and '5. "Academic literacy"' - these sections indicate that they might be particularly useful in answering your essay question.

Wrong. EAR ESP and JEAP' and '6. Disciplinary variation or similarity' - these sections use abbreviations/technical language, indicating that the intended audience may be experts.

Question 2: Is it authoritative?

There is no point in using the ideas of people who are not respected in your academic field.

Strategy 4: Identify the publishers

If the book/article has been published by a well-respected publisher (e.g., a good university press, a major publishing company), you can assume the publication has a certain quality. These publishers are unlikely to publish material they think is factually inaccurate or extremely biased. If, however, it is by a vanity publisher, its 'authority' may be less.

?*Journal of English for Academic Purposes* - a respected journal in its field; experts in the field have judged this article to be of the necessary quality. However, the journal is aimed at professionals, so the level may be inappropriate for a student.

Question 3: Is it recent?

Scholarship moves forward quickly. In some subjects (e.g., robotics), even five years is a long time. You must judge whether the information is still relevant to your topic.

Strategy 5: Look at the date the book was published

'206'. Although in ten years the core principles of academic writing will probably not have changed much, some of the content about 'new technologies' may not be relevant. You may want to compare this source with more recent sources as well.

Question 4: Is it reliable?

Since people can publish material more easily than ever before (mainly via the Internet), reliability is an increasingly important issue.

Essay Template

TITLE

Introduction Paragraph:

- Hook
- Thesis
- Transition

Body Paragraph 1:

- Strongest point

- Introduction
- Examples
- Explanation
- Conclusion that ties to thesis
- Transition

Body Paragraph 2:

- Weakest point
- Introduction
- Examples
- Explanation
- Conclusion that ties to thesis
- Transition

Body Paragraph 3:

- Second-strongest point
- Introduction
- Examples
- Explanation
- Conclusion that ties to thesis
- Transition

Conclusion Paragraph:

- Restated thesis
- Concise summary of the body and how it ties to thesis
- Signal for the end of essay

Text C Revising your Essay

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. See *Creating an Effective 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.

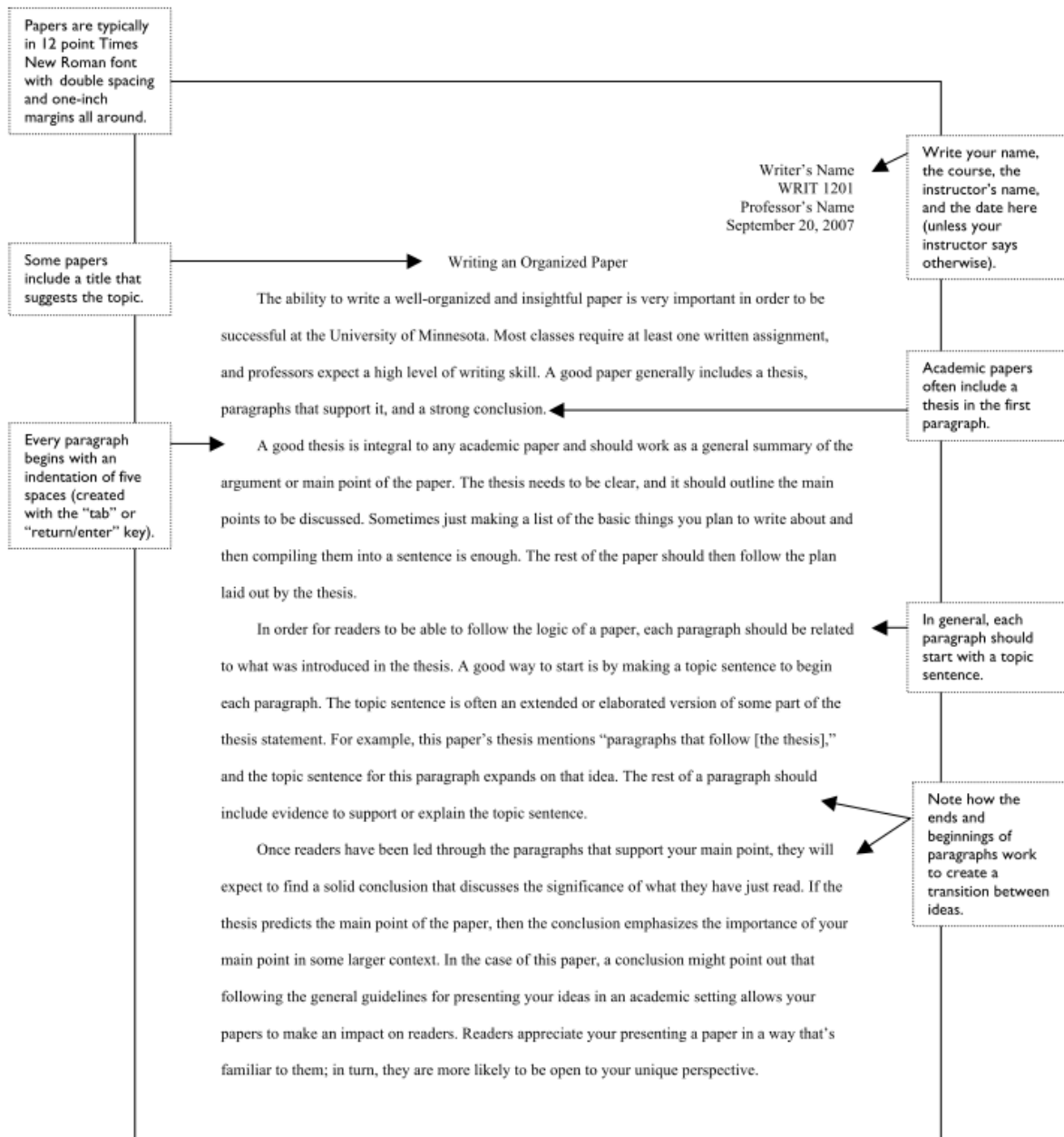
Example 1

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’ 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

Ex.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?

Ex.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 source					Any relevant comments which might help you decide whether to read the	

					source later	
--	--	--	--	--	-----------------	--

Ex. 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</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>			

¹-_____of focusing on a patient's health problems, Chinese medicine triesto make the patient's whole body well again. ²-_____doctors of Chinesemedicine 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,³-_____a person becomes unhealthy. A doctor of Chinese medicine doesn't try to stop a person's coughby giving a cough medicine. ⁴-_____the doctor gives a mixture of herbs that will restore balance in the patient's body. ⁵-_____when the body is in balance, the cough will stop naturally.

Ex.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.

Ex. 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)*)

- a) Three synonyms for 'employees'
- b) A generalisation
- c) A definition
- d) A purpose statement
- e) A quotation and its citation
- f) A passive structure
- g) A phrase showing cause and effect
- h) A paragraph of discussion
- i) 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.*

Key terms and words

analyse means look behind the surface structure of your source material. See the relationship of parts to whole. Be able to recognize relationships such as cause and effect, even if it's unstated in what you read. Look for underlying assumptions and question their validity. How and why imply an answer reached by analysis.

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.

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.

argue (or agree or disagree) likewise asks you to take a stand based on analysis of solid evidence and explained by clear reasoning. You will need to consider other possible viewpoints and defend your own in comparison.

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 - 10% leeway) 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 5. WRITING A SUMMARY

What is a summary?

A **summary** – 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.

How 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.

Useful tips 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, excerpt...) 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, fruiteating 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).

Exercises

Ex. 1. Read the article and single out all necessary information. Then write a summary, which should be no longer than 120 words.

Bombay's existing situation contradicts its flourishing economic status

Bombay is often regarded as India's Capital of Hope. Often wondering why this is so, I made a fruitful trip down to the busy city, solving most of my queries.

Bombay consists of seven islands, joined by land reclamation. Many Indians, especially those from the rural areas, regard Bombay as their paradise, since they could find work relatively easily here, as compared to their homelands.

Being the pillar for revenue collection, Bombay's economic growth has far outperformed the other cities. In fact, its per capita (head) production of goods and services is about three times greater than that of Delhi - India's second most prosperous city. Despite the economic boom, Bombay gives me an astonishing image of deterioration when I first stepped into the city.

The ostentatiously dignified imperial buildings, erected by the British, are so overly populated that they look as if they are toppling over any minute. There are the 1950s kind of black and yellow taxis, which appeared as if brutally thrashed, lining up like ants trails, clotting up the small avenues. Amidst the dins of traffic jams, stood the oppressed-looking

buildings of Benetton outlets, foreign car dealerships, croissant-serving outlets and so on.

Though unemployment is not a significant problem in Bombay, housing is. A visit in Dharavi, a slum area in Bombay will help clarify our imagination. The Bombayites' so called "houses" are actually movable shacks, built from unwanted bits of tarpaulin, tin and cardboard. There are so many of them that a maze of alleys emerged, passable only when I walked sideways like a crab between them. Curious about the living conditions, I wondered around the maze, meeting groups of scantily clad kids and hungry, stray dogs. Popping my inquisitive head into one of the small huts, I was totally amazed by their living conditions. Estimating about twelve or more Bombayites living in each hut, these two-storey houses are usually partitioned by rough platforms with ceilings no higher than five feet from the ground. Furthermore, these shacks look absolutely bare -- no furniture and I deduced that the inhabitants eat and sleep on the ground.

In spite of the poor living conditions, many Indians still hope to migrate to Bombay. Interviewing a few of the newcomers, a majority of them said that they came to Bombay to find jobs. There are some who regard Bombay as buoyant floats, saving them from natural disasters and tyrannies in their homelands.

Ex. 2. 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.

Ex. 3. 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.

Key terms and words

summary (краткое изложение, конспект, резюме) – see the definition in part A (above).

body paragraph (основной абзац) is the main part of the piece of writing. Each body paragraph contains a topic sentence, supporting sentences and a concluding sentence.

topic sentence (предложение, в котором формулируется тема сообщения) tells readers what the paragraph is going to be about.

supporting sentence (подтверждающее предложение) discusses the idea or ideas in the topic sentence using examples and/or evidence to support the discussion,

concluding sentence (заключительное предложение) emphasizes the importance of the supporting examples or evaluates the connections between them.

original article (оригинальная статья) – an article published in a magazine, used as the basis for writing a summary, translation etc.

transition(al) words/ phrases (союзы и словосочетания, используемые для логического перехода при подаче новой информации) are used to connect ideas within the text, show relations within a paragraph between the main idea and the support for those ideas.

key words (ключевые слова) – words which occur in the text most often and cover the topic of relevance.

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 6. DATA COMMENTARY

What is data commentary?

Data commentary – the type of writing that accompanies a visual display.

Like many other aspects of graduate 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 a data commentary, but here 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 computer viruses.

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

Source	Percentage
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.

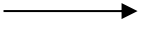

Table 5 shows the most common modes of infection. (Indicative)

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.

Table 5 provides infection-source percentages, not Table 5 provides that the most common source of...

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.

4 Ways to hedge (weaken) statements

1. Reduce likelihood

Reduce likelihood by including a modal before the main verb or by including a phrase before the sentence.

Examples

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:

Modals	Phrases
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.

Examples

Most researchers use hedges when discussing a study's limitations.

Researchers generally use hedges when discussing a study's limitations. Researchers tend to use hedges when discussing a study's limitations. With the exception of some fields, researchers use hedges when discussing a study's limitations.

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.

Examples

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.

Examples

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.

Its 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 mu 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 un-filled. 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.

Exercises

Ex. 1 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 ...

	Method A	Method B
No. participants in study	375	421
Length of study	4 months	4 months
No. words learned that can be used actively	500	456

No. words that can be understood	3,000	1,500
No. of tenses learned	5	8
Level of fluency achieved	mid	Low
% errors made when speaking	35%	15%
Writing ability	low	good
% understood while listening to authentic radio news	10%	20%

Ex.2. \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

NB.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

Ex.3.*Rewrite each sentence in a simpler way. using a suitable expression from the list above.*

- In 1975 a litre of petrol cost 12p, while the price is now £1.20.*
- Out of eighteen students in the group twelve were women.*
- The new high-speed train reduced the journey time to Madrid from seven hours to three hours 20 minutes.*
- 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.*

Ex.4. 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

Ex.5. The language of change. Study the graph below and complete the description with phrases from the table.

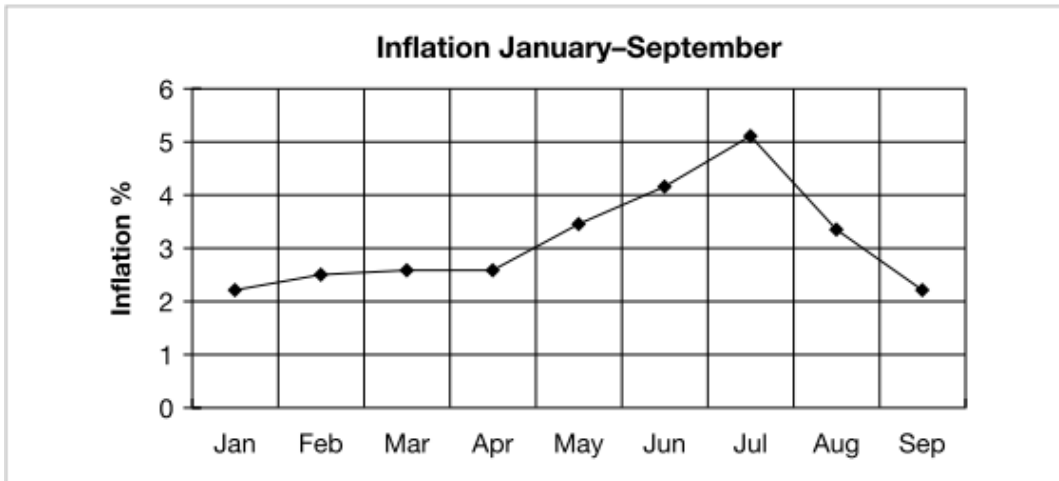
Verb	Adverb	Verb	Adjective + noun
grew	slightly	dropped	a slight drop
rose	gradually	fell	a gradual fall
increased	steadily	decreased	a sharp decrease
climbed	sharply		
also: a peak, to peak, a plateau, to level off, a trough			

Profit margins grew steadily until 2006 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 January and February and then (b) _____ until April. It subsequently climbed (c)

to July, when it (d) _____ at just over 5 per cent. From July to September inflation (e) _____ steeply.



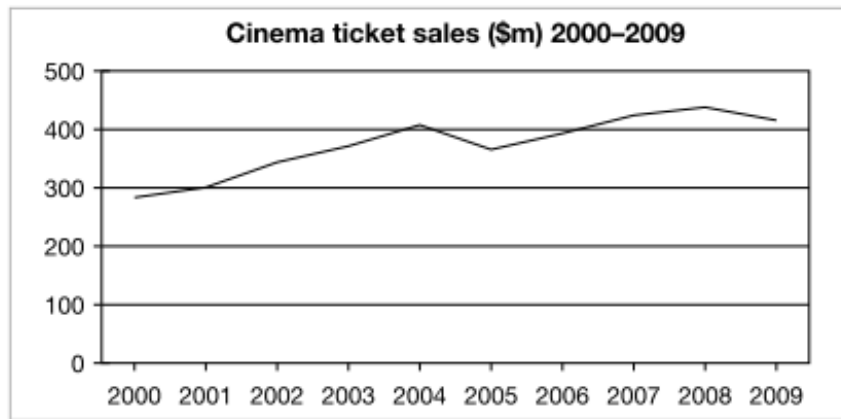
Ex. 6. Visual information .Below there are examples of some of the main types of visuals used in academic texts. Complete the box below to show the use a-f and the example A-F of each type.

Uses:

- location
- comparison
- proportion
- function
- changes in time
- statistical display
-

TYPES	USES	EXAMPLE
1 diagram		
2 table		
3 map		
4 pie chart		
5 bar chart		
6 line graph		

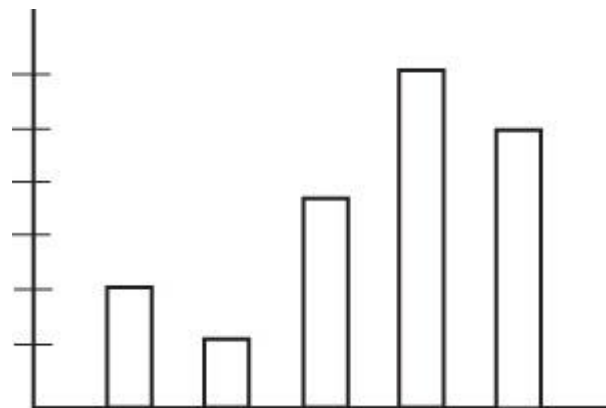
(A) Cinema ticket sales

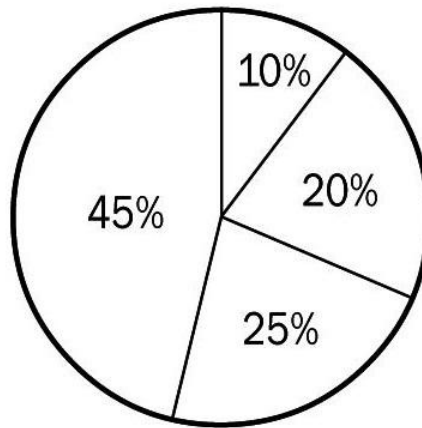


(B) Total expenditure on R & D (% of GDP)

Sweden	3.6
Finland	3.4
Iceland	3.1
Japan	3.0
South Korea	2.9
United States	2.8
Switzerland	2.6

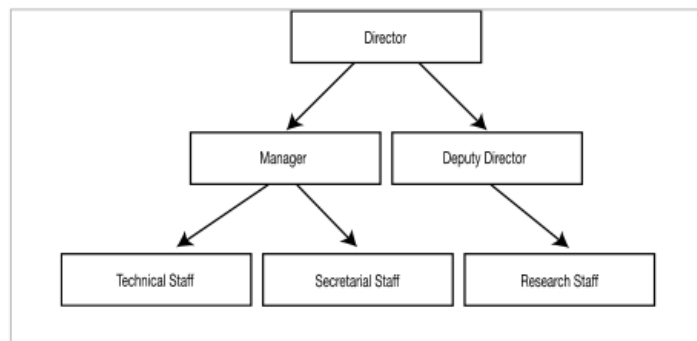
(C) Electricity output from coal



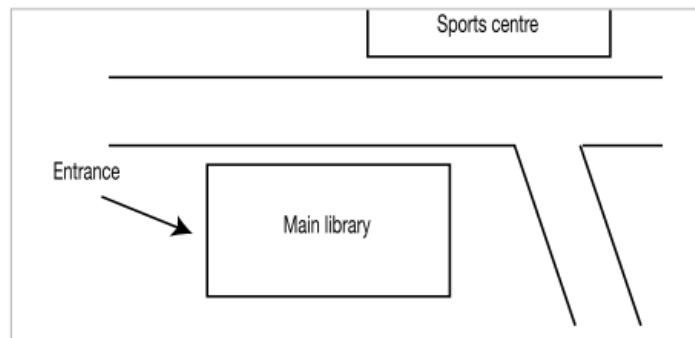


(D) Origins of international students

(E) Structure of the research unit



(F) Position of the main library



Ex. 7. 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 1990
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?

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 fourth largest consumers are Russia, Japan and Britain, with 7 per cent each, while Pakistan consumes 5 per cent. Other countries account for the remaining 12 per cent.

Ex. 8. 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	Russia	UK	USA
Total tax as % GDP	29.5	32.3	16.4	44.7	40.4	18.9	28.2	33.2	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.

**Ex.9. 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.	Synoppec	207,814	1,961
10.	Toyota Motor	204,352	-4,349

Key terms and words

table - a combination of formatting choices for table components available to you that are based on a theme.

pie chart - a type of chart used to show proportions of a whole.

bar chart - a type of chart used to show comparisons among items where the information is displayed horizontally.

label - a chart element that identifies data in the chart

line graph/chart - A type of chart used to display a large number of data points over time.

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).

UNIT 7. WRITING A BOOK REVIEW/REPORT

What is a book review?

An academic book review is a formal paper that works to describe, analyze, and evaluate a particular source as well as to provide detailed evidence to support this analysis and evaluation. Further, a review often explains how the book compares to other works on similar topics or illuminates the contribution the book makes to our understanding of a historical topic.

What is the Difference Between a Book Review and a Book Report?

It is essential to distinguish between a university-level book *review* assignment and a book *report* assignment that you may have completed in high school. **Book reports** tend to focus on *summarizing* the work that you read; your goal is to explain what it says and show that you read the book with care. In contrast, a **book review** asks you to *analyze* a book; your goal is to identify the key arguments of the book and how the author supports these arguments as well as to evaluate the book's strengths and weaknesses.

This evaluation of strengths and weaknesses is central to another key difference between **book reviews** and **book reports**. Book reports often ask you to provide a personal opinion as to whether or not you liked a book. A book review asks you to move beyond your personal likes or dislikes and provide a reasoned argument as to the merits or problems contained in the book. In a book review, it is not enough to say that a particular book was “bad” or “excellent.” You need to provide detailed analysis as to what factors, such as scope, theoretical perspective, or use of evidence made it so.

Some teachers will give oral or written directions on what book reports or reviews should look like. These teachers may tell students how many words to write. They may even give students a template, or form, with questions or headings and room to write in answers or ideas.

If the teacher (lecturer) has not given such directions, here are two options for a standard book report (and at the end of this chapter we give alternatives to the standard book report).

Text A Organising a book report

Setting Up a Book Report as a Form

One option is to write a book report that is set up as a form—with headings. Here are examples of a form for a novel and a form for a nonfiction book.

Sample form for the novel

OPENING	
Title:	
Author:	
BODY	
Names of Main Characters and Descriptions:	
Setting:	
Summary of Story:	
CONCLUSION	
Opinion, Recommendation, and Reasons:	

Sample form for the nonfiction book

OPENING	
Title:	
Author:	
BODY	
Kind of Book:	
Main Idea:	
CONCLUSION	
Opinion, Recommendation, and Reasons:	

Setting up a book report as a regular composition

Another option is to produce a book report in the form of a regular composition or essay. This kind of book report will not have headings written out, but keeping them in mind helps the writer to organize the composition. See the complete model later in this chapter.

Writing a first draft

Opening

The basic opening for a book report immediately identifies the book by title, author, and kind of book. Following are models of basic openings for book reports. Examples A and B are for a fiction book—one set up as a form and one set up as a regular composition. Models C and D are for a nonfiction book—one set up as a form and one set up as a regular composition.

Example A

Title: The Courage of Sarah Noble

Author: Alice Dalgliesh

Kind of Book: Historical novel published in 1954. This book is based on a true story about a girl who left Massachusetts in 1707 to help her father while he built the first house in New Milford, Connecticut.

Example B

The Courage of Sarah Noble by Alice Dalgliesh is a historical novel published in 1954. It is based on a true story.

Example C

Title: What's the Big Idea, Ben Franklin?

Author: Jean Fritz

Kind of Book : Biography of Benjamin Franklin published in 1976

Example D

What's the Big Idea, Ben Franklin? by Jean Fritz is a biography of Benjamin Franklin published in 1976. It does not tell about Franklin's whole life but concentrates on his most important ideas and accomplishments.

Attention-Getting Openers

Sometimes an opening can be more of an attention-getter, as in the following two examples. While the basic opening begins with information about the author, title, and kind of book, in the attention-getter, the writer tries to grab the reader's interest before providing basic information about the book.

"Keep up your courage, Sarah Noble." That's what Sarah's mother tells her. Sarah will need her courage—even more than she imagines. The Courage of Sarah Noble by Alice Dalgliesh is a historical novel published in 1954. It is based on a true story.

Do you know who first said, "A penny saved is a penny earned"? Do you know who first had the idea for the U.S. Postal Service? Ben Franklin had lots of big ideas. When you read this book, you'll find out about his biggest idea of all. What's the Big Idea, Ben Franklin? by Jean Fritz is a biography of Benjamin Franklin published in 1976.

Body

When a reader fills in the next sections of the form or drafts the body of a composition about a book, he or she has to think about the book as a whole, as well as its details. Here are some pointers.

For a Novel

- To describe the characters of a novel, a student can tell what they look like, how they act, how they speak and think, and what other people in the book say about them. A student can also mention whether the characters are believable and whether the author makes readers care about the characters. Whenever possible, the student should provide one or two examples to back up general statements about a character.

- To describe the setting of a novel, a student must tell when and where the novel takes place. Sometimes it is helpful for the student not only to give the dates but to identify the historical period more directly—for example, “*The novel takes place in New England in the 1770s, during the American Revolution.*”

- To provide an effective summary of the plot of a novel, the student should report what happens in chronological, or time, order. The summary should be more than just a list of unrelated incidents in the book. It should give the reader of the report a clear sense of the main action of the book without giving away the ending.

For a Nonfiction Book

- To state the main idea of a nonfiction book, a student should consider the following kinds of questions:

1. If the book is a biography, which tells about a person, what were (or are) the person’s most important traits, or characteristics?

2. If the book is about an event, why was it important to people?

- In discussing the details that back up, or support, the main idea of a nonfiction book, a student should provide facts, descriptive details, or examples. For instance, if the student says the main idea of a book is that Benjamin Franklin was both a great inventor and a great statesman, the student must give examples of Franklin’s inventions and mention his contributions to the American Revolution and to the Constitution.

Conclusion

Whether or not a student hints at his or her opinion about the book in the opening of the report, the end of the report must make clear the student's thoughts and feelings about the reading experience. The student should include a generalization—did he or she like the book or not?—and details or reasons to the generalization. In addition, the student should mention other people who might benefit from reading the book. Here are sample questions the student might ask himself or herself in order to form a judgment about the book.

For a Novel

- Is the novel—even if it is science fiction or fantasy—believable? Why?
- What did the novel teach me about other people or about myself?
- What particular parts of the novel do I remember most? What makes me remember these parts?
- What kinds of people would find this novel enjoyable or helpful?
- Would I read another novel by this author? Why?
- How does this novel compare with other novels I have read?

For a Nonfiction Book

- Is the topic of the book important to me? Why?
- Is the book lively and interesting or dull and dry?
- What particular parts of the book do I remember most? What makes me remember these parts?
- What kinds of people would find this book enjoyable or helpful?
- Would I read another book on this topic or another book by this author? Why?

Quoting from a book

Usually, a teacher wants to read the student's own words about a book—not a series of lines quoted directly from the book. However, using a phrase or sentence from the book can be effective. Here are examples of working in a quotation.

Sarah's father is kind and understanding. He says to Sarah, "To be afraid and to be brave is the best courage of all."

The author tells us that Franklin was “white with rage” when the British government would not listen to his ideas.

Making up a title for a book report

If a book report is set up as a form, the following titles are appropriate:

- A Book Report about a Novel
- A Report about a Nonfiction Book

If a book report is written as a regular composition, the teacher may give advice about making up a title. If the teacher has not given any direction, here are examples of titles a book report. The examples are for report about *The Courage of Sarah Noble*.

- A Book Report on The Courage of Sarah Noble
- My Thoughts about The Courage of Sarah Noble
- The Courage of Sarah Noble and Colonial Times

Examples of book reports

Example A presented here shows a book report set up as a form with headings.

Example B shows a book report as a regular composition without headings. Both models have an opening, a body, and a conclusion.

Example A

Title: *What’s the Big Idea, Ben Franklin?*

Author: *Jean Fritz*

Kind of Book: *This is a biography of Benjamin Franklin published in 1976. It doesn’t give all the facts about Franklin’s whole life, but it tells about his biggest ideas and the most important things he did.*

Main Idea: *The main idea of this book is that Benjamin Franklin was a man who had many important ideas. He was a writer and an inventor. His ideas also helped the American colonies become the United States of America.*

Support for Main Idea (or Important Details): *In this biography, the author tells that Franklin published a book called Poor Richard’s Almanac. This book is full of many famous sayings we still use today, such as “A penny saved is a penny earned.” We also learn that Franklin did important experiments with electricity and invented the lightning rod. The U.S. Postal Service was Franklin’s idea! Benjamin Franklin was also very important*

because he helped to write both the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution.

Opinion, Recommendation, and Reasons: *I liked reading this book because the author writes in a lively way and isn't always serious. She tells some funny stories about Franklin. For example, she tells how he used to eat too much and call himself "Dr. Fatsides." Even though Benjamin Franklin was a great man, the author makes him seem like a regular person. I recommend *What's the Big Idea, Ben Franklin?* to anyone who wants to read a book that tells about American history and is funny at the same time.*

Example B

A Book Report on The Courage of Sarah Noble

"Keep up your courage, Sarah Noble." That's what Sarah's mother tells her. Sarah will need her courage—even more than she imagines. The Courage of Sarah Noble by Alice Dalgliesh is a historical novel published in 1954. It is based on a true story.

The main characters are Sarah and her father. Sarah is a very brave eight-year-old girl. She has to face many dangers, but she keeps her courage. Sarah's father is kind and understanding. He says to Sarah, "To be afraid and to be brave is the best courage of all."

The story takes place in 1707. Sarah and her father are leaving Massachusetts for Connecticut, where Sarah's father is going to build a house. The area around New Milford is wilderness, and only Indians live there.

Sarah has to go with her father because he needs someone to cook for him, and Sarah's mother has to stay home with the baby. When they get to the place where the house will be, they live in a hut. An Indian they call "Tall John" helps Sarah's father build the house, and Sarah makes friends with Tall John's children. Then Sarah's father goes back for the rest of the family. Sarah stays with Tall John's family. She worries about unfriendly Indians who might attack them, and she worries that something will happen to her family. But she never loses her courage.

I enjoyed The Courage of Sarah Noble because I admired Sarah for being so brave. The only thing I'd like to know is why Sarah's father couldn't cook for himself or take one of his older sons to help him. I would recommend this book to anyone who likes reading about colonial times and anyone who likes reading stories of courage.

Checklist for Evaluating and Revising a Book Report

1. *Did I remember to identify the book and its author?*
2. *Did I make clear what kind of book it is (for example, a historical novel, a biography)?*
3. *If the book is a novel, did I tell enough about the characters, the setting, and the plot?*
4. *If the book is nonfiction, did I tell enough about its main idea and the details that support or illustrate that idea?*
5. *Did I make my opinion about the book clear, and did I give enough reasons for my opinion?*
6. *Did I identify other people who I think should read the book?*
7. *Did I remember to underline or use italics every time I mentioned the title of the book?*
8. *Did I check my report for grammar, usage, spelling, capitalization, and punctuation?*

Text B Structure of a Book Review

(<https://www.trentu.ca/history/workbook/bookreviews.php>)

I. Introduction

An introduction to a book review is generally short and direct. However, it must provide two key elements: *background* and *thesis*.

Background: First, your introduction should identify the book and author under review along with any essential historical or historiographical background: What time period and region are discussed? What is the historical question or topic that the book addresses?

Thesis: Somewhere in your introduction (generally toward the end) you must provide a succinct, clear evaluation of the book. This evaluation is the thesis for your book review. Your thesis should encompass three main components:

- What the main argument of the book is.
- Your evaluation of the book such as its strengths and contributions or weaknesses and shortcomings.
- Why and/or in what ways you think the work demonstrates these strengths and weaknesses.

As you will see from the examples below, there are many different ways to write a thesis for a book review. However, all of the thesis

statements have the three qualities mentioned above. *Please note that the authors mentioned below are fictitious.*

- **Example A:** In her work, Jones successfully argues that slave women in the American South had a different experience than did male slaves, an experience that opened up some unique freedoms for women but also created gender-specific hardships; while her book is well supported through her creative use of slave narratives and provides a crucial examination of a little-studied group, her failure to acknowledge the importance of religion to slave culture leads her to miss a crucial area of gender difference within the slave experience.

- **Example B:** Smith argues that Indigenous peoples during the nineteenth century faced insurmountable cultural and physical losses through both warfare and assimilationist practices. His argument is supported with detailed evidence. However, his work fails to recognize the limited agency that Indigenous peoples maintained throughout their experience and thus does not illustrate how Indigenous people met the challenges of their new surroundings; ultimately, the book does not explain the cultural continuity that some Indigenous peoples were able to maintain.

- **Example C:** Mankad argues that the Black Death affected cities far more than it did the countryside; while one might question whether his work ignores the secondary effects of the Black Death on rural populations, his innovative use of artistic and literary sources makes his argument convincing and a significant contribution to a field that has been dominated by demographic and statistical evidence.

II. Summary of Key Arguments

After your introduction, you should generally provide a brief summary or overview of the book. Take great care not to simply repeat or mirror everything in the book. Step back and identify what its essential arguments are and briefly summarize them.

You may want to comment on:

- What is the book's thesis? How is it similar to or different from other historians' work on a similar topic?

- How is it organized? What are the major arguments?

- What types of evidence are presented?

III. Evaluation/Analysis

This section should constitute the bulk of your review. In it, you need to explain and develop the evaluation made in your thesis. *Make sure to use examples and quotations (if your professor allows quotations) from the book to illustrate and prove your assessment of the work.* For example, if your thesis argues that the work provides a careful and detailed examination of a topic, you should point toward places in the book where it does so. Similarly, if you argue that the work fails to recognize a particular perspective, give examples of places in the text that you think would have benefited from attention to that perspective.

IV. Conclusion

Your conclusion should provide a succinct summation of your review. Overall, what does this work contribute to its field? What limitations does it possess? Does it suggest interesting avenues for future research? How does your analysis of the book help readers to understand the time period being studied or how historians have understood that period?

Common Problems in Book Reviews

Book reviews are a different form of writing than other types of essays, and writing successful reviews takes time, preparation, and practice. Below we list some of the common problems that bedevil students as they write their first book reviews.

- **Summarizing rather than analyzing a work.** Some students are so concerned about summarizing everything that the book says that they fail to provide analysis and evaluation. Try to step back and see the big picture of the work. Only discuss its main arguments and supporting evidence.

- **Writing a research paper rather than a book review.** Some students forget that their goal is to review how the author of a particular book has interpreted an event and instead begin to write a research report on the event itself. Stay focused on the book. If, for example, you are reviewing Raj Mankad's book on the Black Death, keep in mind that your topic is her book not the Black Death itself.

- **Writing a paper that does not reflect a thorough reading of the book.** Some students begin to write before they have spent time reading and evaluating a book with care. The result is often a paper that lacks detailed examples or only provides examples and ideas from one section of the book. Put time and thought into reading and reflecting on your book; it really is key to writing a successful review.

• **Not having a clear method of organization.** Like any paper, a book review needs a clear, logical structure that the reader can follow. Your reader should be able to predict what topic you will discuss next from your thesis and topic sentences.

• **Relying on personal opinions rather than reasoned judgments.** Some students write reviews based on their personal feelings toward a book deeming it “boring” or “exciting,” “bad” or “good.” These feelings may be the first step toward a good evaluation of the book, but you need to dig deeper. What is it that makes the book “bad” or “good”? What specific evidence can you provide to illustrate the book’s strengths and weaknesses? It is important to have opinions about the book, but it is also essential to base your opinions on a reasoned and careful assessment of the work.

Text C. Writing a critical book review

(<https://www.trentu.ca/history/workbook/bookreviews.php>)

You may be asked to write a critical review of a book or a book chapter. Although this may be an unfamiliar exercise, it is not as complex a task as writing an essay requiring a lot of library research. It is, however, not the same as a book review in *The Canberra Times* which is written for the general reader.

Your book review is written for a reader (your lecturer, tutor or fellow student) who is knowledgeable in the discipline and is interested not just in the coverage and content of the book being reviewed, but also in your critical assessment of the ideas and argument that are being presented by the author.

Reading for the critical review

Obviously, to write a critical review of a book, you need to read the text. As the above examples indicate, the lecturer will give you advice on what they want you to critique. To go about this process, consider the following three steps.

1. Get to know the book you are reviewing

Look at the Title, the Table of Contents and any Preface or Introduction. These should give you some idea of the central focus and the coverage of the book and, if the Preface is useful, also the author's reasons for writing the book. Skim quickly through the whole book, running your eye over opening sentences of paragraphs and glancing at any tables,

illustrations or other graphic materials. Read more closely the first chapter, which should tell you the main issues to be discussed and indicate the theoretical or conceptual framework within which the author proposes to work. Read closely the final chapter, which should cover the author's conclusions and summarise the main reasons why these conclusions have been reached. Now that you are familiar with the text, read the whole text thoroughly to develop a basis on which to critically review it.

2. Decide which aspects of the book you wish to discuss in detail in your review

Do you need to critically evaluate the theoretical approach, the content or case studies, the selection and interpretation of evidence, the range of coverage, and/or the style of presentation? Usually you will discuss the main issues which the author has specifically examined. Sometimes you may choose a particular issue because it has importance for you and the course you are studying, even if it is not the main issue for the author.

3. Deepen your understanding of the issues that you will be focusing on

Now, on the basis of your overall knowledge of the book and your decision about which issues you will discuss, read in closer detail the sections of the book which are relevant to these issues. Make notes of the main points and identify key quotations. If necessary, read other articles or books which are relevant to your topic, possibly to provide supporting evidence or alternative theoretical models or interpretations of data. You may also want to glance at other reviews of the book in recent academic journals in order to get a feel for the way the book has been received within the discipline. However, only use these reviews to support your own evaluation; do not merely copy or imitate them.

Writing and structuring the review

Depending on the advice given to you by your lecturer, the **structure** of your review should allow you to address the assessment criteria and the questions posed by the lecturer.

- Initially, identify the book (author, title, date of publication and other details that seem important, eg, it is originally a French edition, etc), indicate the major aspects of the book that will be discussed, and state the purpose of the review.

- Then, provide a brief summary of the range, contents, and argument of the book. Occasionally you may summarise chapter by chapter, but in a short review (1000-1500 words) you usually pick up the main themes only. This section should not normally take up more than a third of the total review.

- Next, and most significant, critically discuss 2-3 key issues raised in the book. This section is the core of your review. Make clear the author's own argument before you criticise and evaluate it. Support your criticisms with evidence from the text or from other writings. You may also want to indicate gaps in the author's treatment of a topic, but it is seldom useful to criticise a writer for not doing something they never intended to do.

- For the conclusion, evaluate the overall contribution that the book has made to your understanding of the topic (and maybe its importance to the development of knowledge in this particular area or discipline, setting it in the context of other writings in the field).

- Finally, provide a reference list or bibliography of the sources that you have referred to. Use the referencing format appropriate to your discipline.

Assessing the final draft of the review

Having written the final draft of the critical review, consider the following questions:

- Have you identified the book clearly, right at the start?
- Is the author's argument clearly and objectively summarised so that your reader can recognise the theoretical approach and the range of material covered? (about a third of a short review)
- Are the 2-3 key issues raised in this book clearly identified and discussed? (about 50-60% of the review)
- Have you given reasons for your criticism and your approval of the book?
- Is there a final evaluation of the book's importance, based on your earlier discussion?
- Is there a reference list and is it appropriately formatted?
- Has the review been formatted according to the lecturer's instructions? For example, have you used the right font, the right spacing, the right referencing format, and so on?

Look at the following three examples of instructions for book review assignments, all taken from courses at the Australian National University.

Notice how the questions to be considered can help shape the structure of the review.

Political Science

(Length: 1,000 words.) The review should not be a summary of the book. Instead it should state what the book sets out to do and assess how well the author achieves that goal. You might therefore use the following questions to engage with the book and help you form your critical analysis:

- Objectives: what does the book set out to do?
- Theory: is there an explicit theoretical framework? If not, are there important theoretical assumptions?
- Concepts: what are the central concepts? Are they clearly defined?
- Argument: what is the central argument? Are there specific hypotheses?
- Method: what methods are employed to test these?
- Evidence: is evidence provided? How adequate is it?
- Values: are value positions clear or are they implicit?
- Literature: how does the work fit into the wider literature?
- Contribution: how well does the work advance our knowledge of the subject?
- Style: how clear is the author's language/style/expression?
- Conclusion: a brief overall assessment.

Helpful questions to write an advanced book review

<https://smedjeback.wordpress.com/advanced-literary-analysis/>

The following questions are there to help you make a profound analysis of any novel. It is of course not necessary to use all the questions in any one text. Remember to not just answer the questions, but write a coherent, interesting analysis with an introduction, body and conclusion.

Plot

1. What is the text about?
2. What is the conflict/problem in the text?
3. When do the events take place?
4. Is the text related in chronological order?

5. What important episodes are there?

Setting

1. Do the settings seem realistic?

2. Are the settings described with many or few details?

3. What is the atmosphere like? Is it sad? Ironic? Depressing? Happy?

Upsetting? Gloomy? Mystic? Give examples.

Characters

1. Who are the main characters?

2. What is the relationship between the characters?

3. What does the narrator emphasize: people's looks and clothing?

Their behaviour? Moral features? Personality?

4. Give examples from the book to support your arguments.

Other questions

1. Where is the turning point of the story?

2. What can be said about the gender perspective?

3. What can be said about the pace of the text: is it fast? Calm? Slow?

Intense?

4. What can be said about the vocabulary? Dialect? Slang or jargon?

Technical words? Are there many verbs = lots of action, or many nouns = mostly descriptions?

5. What is the author's intentions?: to influence? Entertain? Confess? Appeal? Inform? Scare?

6. Have you been influenced in any way by the text?

7. Have you experienced any of the feelings expressed in the text?

8. What in the text appeals to you: the characters? The settings? The plot? The language?

9. Do you recognize any of the problems or conflicts in the text from your own experience?

10. What are the feelings towards the main character(s)?

11. What is the specific topic of the book or article? What overall purpose does it seem to have? For what readership is it written? (The preface, acknowledgements, bibliography and index can be helpful in answering these questions. Don't overlook facts about the author's background and the circumstances of the book's creation and publication.)

12. Does the author state an explicit thesis? Does he or she noticeably have an axe to grind? What are the theoretical assumptions? Are they

discussed explicitly? (Again, look for statements in the preface, etc. and follow them up in the rest of the work.)

13. What exactly does the work contribute to the overall topic of your course? What general problems and concepts in your discipline and course does it engage with?

14. What kinds of material does the work present (e.g. primary documents or secondary material, literary analysis, personal observation, quantitative data, biographical or historical accounts)?

15. How is this material used to demonstrate and argue the thesis? (As well as indicating the overall structure of the work, your review could quote or summarize specific passages to show the characteristics of the author's presentation, including writing style and tone.)

16. Are there alternative ways of arguing from the same material? Does the author show awareness of them? In what respects does the author agree or disagree?

17. What theoretical issues and topics for further discussion does the work raise?

18. What are your own reactions and considered opinions regarding the work?

What to think about when writing

1. Write in the present tense.

YES: *In Faulkner's "A Rose for Emily," the townspeople visit Emily Grierson's house because it smells bad.*

NO: *In Faulkner's "A Rose for Emily," the townspeople visited Emily Grierson's house because it smelled bad.*

2. In a formal analysis you should keep yourself out of the analysis, in other words – use the third person (no I or you). However, some instructors may require or allow the first or second person in an informal analysis.

FIRST PERSON: *I believe that the narrator in "Sonny's Blues" is a dynamic character because I read many details about the changes in his attitude.*

THIRD PERSON: *The narrator in "Sonny's Blues" is a dynamic character who changes his attitude.*

SECOND PERSON: *At the end of "Everyday Use," Mama realizes that Maggie is like her but has not received the attention you should give your daughter to help her attain self-esteem.*

THIRD PERSON: *At the end of “Everyday Use,” Mama realizes that Maggie is like her but has not received enough attention to build self-esteem.*

3. Use literary terms to discuss your points, see separate list.

4. Do not confuse characters’ or speakers’ viewpoints with authors’ viewpoints.

5. Support your points with many quotations and paraphrases, but write the majority of your paper in your own words with your own ideas.

6. Avoid summarizing the plot or retelling the story literally. Explain the context briefly and implement your analytical view.

7. Use linking words and transition sentences that guide the reader from one point to the next in your analysis.

Example 1

A professional book review

Catching Fire: Suzanne Collins’ Hit Young-Adult Novels

By Lev Grossman Monday, Sep. 07, 2009

I used to tell my daughter stories about a family of mer-cats—kitties with fish tails—who lived in the East River and how they were persecuted by a mean purple octopus. I spent considerable time and effort coming up with nonviolent ways for the mer-cats to defeat the octopus at the end of each story. Finally one night I asked my daughter Lily, who was 4 at the time, how she thought the mer-cats should handle the problem. She chirpily replied that the mer-cats should find a sharp rock and then stab the octopus till it died. Ha, ha, ha! Kids.

*If the time ever comes, Lily might do pretty well in the Hunger Games. As described by Suzanne Collins in her young-adult novel of the same name, the Hunger Games are an annual spectacle in which a group of children are forced by the government to fight one another to the death on TV. A sequel, *Catching Fire* (Scholastic; 400 pages), will be out on Sept. 1. *The Hunger Games* is a chilling, bloody and thoroughly horrifying book, a killer cocktail of *Logan’s Run*, *Lord of the Flies*, *The Running Man*, reality TV and the myth of Theseus and the Minotaur. But it inspires in readers a kind of zeal I haven’t seen since the early days of *Twilight*. Stephen King is a major fan. So is Stephenie Meyer.*

The Hunger Games is set in an unspecified future time when things have gone pretty spectacularly badly for humanity. The world, or the bit of it we can see, is dominated by a ruling caste who live in luxury in a city called the Capitol. The rest of us live like peasants in 12 districts that are strictly cordoned off from the Capitol and one another. Life in the districts sucks: it's mostly hard labor—mining coal and farming and working in factories—in dismal conditions.

To make things even dimaler, once a year each district is required to give up two of its children, chosen by lottery, and enter them in the Hunger Games. The kids are dropped into an enormous arena strewn with traps and hazards, with a heap of weapons and supplies in the middle. The last child alive wins a lifetime of luxury and celebrity. The action is filmed and broadcast to the entire world.

We experience this ordeal through the eyes of Katniss, a resident of District 12, a harsh, cold region mostly given over to coal-mining. She is a passionate 16-year-old who hates the Capitol and is devoted to her family; she volunteers for the Games to take the place of her sister, whose name came up in the lottery. Katniss is a skilled hunter and sheer death with a bow and arrow. She doesn't like to kill. But she doesn't want to die either.

*Whereas Katniss kills with finesse, Collins writes with raw power. After a life spent in freezing poverty, Katniss experiences pleasure—warmth, food, pretty clothes—with almost unbearable intensity, and that's where Collins' writing comes alive. (Not sex, though. *The Hunger Games* isn't just chaste, like *Twilight*; it's oddly non-erotic.) Likewise, Collins brings a cold, furious clarity to her accounts of physical violence. You might not think it would be possible, or desirable, for a young-adult writer to describe, slowly and in full focus, a teenage girl getting stung to death by a swarm of mutant hornets. It wasn't, until Collins did it. But rather than being repellent, the violence is strangely hypnotic. It's fairy-tale violence, Brothers Grimm violence—not a cheap thrill but a symbol of something deeper. (One of the paradoxes of the book is that it condemns the action in the arena while also inviting us to enjoy it, sting by sting. Despite ourselves, we do.)*

*Katniss survives the first novel, and the second finds her back in the arena, where she will try, in her words, to “show them that I'm more than just a piece in their Games.” *The Hunger Games* and *Catching Fire* expose children to exactly the kind of violence we usually shield them from. But that just goes to show how much adults forget about what it's like to be a*

child. Kids are physical creatures, and they're not stupid. They know all about violence and power and raw emotions. What's really scary is when adults pretend that such things don't exist.

Example 2

Below is a review of *Taking Soaps Seriously* by Michael Intintoli written by Ruth Rosen in the *Journal of Communication*. Note that Rosen begins with a context for Intintoli's book, showing how it is different from other books about soap operas. She finds a strength in the kind of details that his methodology enables him to see. However, she disagrees with his choice of case study. All in all, Rosen finds Intintoli's book most useful for novices, but not one that advances our ability to critique soap operas very much.

Taking Soaps Seriously: The World of Guiding Light. Michael Intintoli. New York: Praeger, 1984. 248 pp.

*Ever since the U.S. public began listening to radio soaps in the 1930s, cultural critics have explored the content, form, and popularity of daytime serials. Today, media critics take a variety of approaches. Some explore audience response and find that, depending on sex, race, or even nationality, people "decode" the same story in different ways. Others regard soaps as a kind of subversive form of popular culture that supports women's deepest grievances. Still others view the soap as a "text" and attempt to "deconstruct" it, much as a literary critic dissects a work of literature. Michael Intintoli's project is somewhat different. For him, the soap is a cultural product mediated and created by corporate interests. It is the production of soaps, then, that is at the center of his *Taking Soaps Seriously*.*

To understand the creation of soap operas, Intintoli adopted an ethnographic methodology that required a rather long siege on the set of "Guiding Light." Like a good anthropologist, he picked up a great deal about the concerns and problems that drive the production of a daily soap opera. For the novice there is much to be learned here

But the book stops short of where it should ideally begin. In many ways, "Guiding Light" was simply the wrong soap to study. First broadcast in 1937, "Guiding Light" is the oldest soap opera in the United States, owned and produced by Procter and Gamble, which sells it to CBS. It is

therefore the perfect soap to study for a history of the changing daytime serial. But that is not Intintoli's project. . . .

Taking Soaps Seriously is a good introduction to the production of the daily soap opera. It analyzes soap conventions, reveals the hierarchy of soap production, and describes a slice of the corporate production of mass culture. Regrettably, it reads like an unrevised dissertation and misses an important opportunity to probe the changing nature of soap production and the unarticulated ideological framework in which soaps are created.

(http://www.indiana.edu/~wts/pamphlets/book_reviews.shtml)

Exercises

Ex.1. Write all the necessary details of your book: title, author , stage, no. of pages. Names of main characters.

Ex.2. Choose two main characters from the book you have read and describe each of them in length. Describe their personalities , their deeds , their role in the plot , their relationships with other characters , their physical features , your opinion about them and any other relevant details you might want to add.

Ex.3. Write a letter to the author .tell him/her what you think about the plot , characters , events , title , language , relationships , ending , length etc. Tell him/her your opinion about the book in general and about specific events or characters , what you like and dislike about the book , and what you would like to change or add and why.

Ex.4. From whose Point of View is the story/ novel written? (1 st person narrator, 3rd person omniscient, or 3rd person limited? Explain why this point of view is effective for this novel. List Four Characters and explain their importance or significance to the novel as a whole.

Ex.5. Write out the main conflict or challenge in the story/novel for the protagonist (main character)

Ex.6. Write about how the main conflict or challenge is resolved by the end of the story/ novel.

Ex.7. State two main themes of the story/novel, and explain why they are themes of the story, using specifics of the story to justify your point.

Ex.8. Name three literary devices the author used to help make this story/novel meaningful and interesting and explain how and where they are used in the novel and specifically why the use of this literary device enhances the meaning of the novel. Cite two specific examples from the novel where these literary devices are used. (include page numbers). Literary devices include: symbolism, foreshadowing, flashbacks, irony, diction, figurative language, creative/realistic imagery, satire, syntax, persuasive/rhetorical devices,

Ex.9. Choose two quotes from the novel, write them down, and the page number, and explain how these quotes are especially meaningful or significant to the novel's themes or to the development of character.

Ex.10. Write a Book Review on the book you work with while preparing to the research paper.

Key terms and words

antagonist - A character or force that opposes the protagonist.

conflict - Struggle between opposing forces.

crisis - Turning point; moment of great tension that fixes the action.

exposition -Background information regarding the setting, characters, plot.

first-person - Narrator participates in action but sometimes has limited knowledge/vision.

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.

narrator - The person telling the story.

suspense - A sense of worry established by the author.

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**.

plot - The arrangement of ideas and incidents that make up a story.

point of view - can sometimes indirectly establish the author's intentions.

protagonist- Major character at the centre of the story.

resolution -The way the story turns out.

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.

Check yourself

Complete each statement by choosing the correct term.

1. Writing a _____ is a good way to show how well you understand a book and to tell what you think about it.

research paper persuasive essay book report fiction story

2. The first part of a book report is the _____.

conclusion introduction body subheading

3. The _____ is the main idea of the book

characters theme setting plot

4. The _____ is the time and place the story takes place.

characters theme setting plot

5. The _____ is what happens in the story.

characters theme setting plot

6. The _____ are who the story is about.

characters theme setting plot

7. The characters, theme, setting, and plot are all discussed in the _____ part of a book report.

conclusion introduction body subheading

8. The person who writes a book is called its _____

publisher author illustrator reviewer

Answers 1 book report; 2 introduction; 3 theme; 4 setting; 5 plot; 6 characters; 7 body; 8 author.

UNIT 8. CITATION. REFERENCE. PLAGIARISM

Definition of the terms

Citation – the way to tell your readers that the information you used comes from another source.

Reference - a mention or citation of a source of information in a book or article.

Plagiarism - the practice of taking someone else's work or ideas and passing them off as one's own.

Using proper citation and reference. Avoiding Plagiarism.

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.

Why 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

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.

Avoiding plagiarism

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.

Do I Need a 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.

How 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 (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")

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.

When and 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. (2001)*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

Because 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

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.”¹

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>.

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, 1979. 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.

Exercises

Ex.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>

Ex.2. Cite each source in brackets using the reference list below.

ELEPHANTS AND CHEESE: AN EXPLORATORY PAPER

by Teck Wann

It is widely known that elephants fear cheese, and will flee at the first whiff of it (). What is not yet well understood is why this phenomenon occurs. For more than a decade academics have been researching this perplexing topic. Their work constitutes part of the booming new discipline known as pachydermo-fromagology, which is defined as “the study of elephant-cheese interactions” (). This paper will evaluate existing research and theories, and argue that none of them satisfactorily explain the data which has been gathered so far.

Source F

Source D

That elephants fear cheese was an accidental discovery made by the noted elephantologist G. Coleman (). The story of the discovery is now famous, but worth repeating:

Source B

Sources

G, H

Source E

After a hard morning following the herd, I had just sat down under a tree for lunch and unwrapped a particularly delectable chunk of cheddar sent up from the base camp. Suddenly I heard an enormous trampling sound, and when I looked up, the entire herd was gone. ()

.....
page 160

His discovery, while dismissed at the time, was subsequently corroborated by other researchers. Several studies () have confirmed the phenomenon, and that it occurs among both African and Asian elephants. A recent report by the Elephant Research Institute () established that smell is the primary means elephants detect cheese, and that they will ignore large pieces of cheese if tightly wrapped. Meanwhile a French cheese expert asserts on his website that elephants do not flee from French

Sources

Source I,

Introduction,
para. 2

cheese, only the lesser cheeses of other nations. “Zee creatures, zey have good taste, non?” he writes (_____).

Recently, a new theory has exploded on the scene and caused quite a stink. Based on several clever experiments, K. Maas (_____) has claimed that in fact elephants do not fear cheese at all, but instead fear the mice which are attracted to cheese. However, this theory, which she calls the Maas Mouse Hypothesis (MMH), has not yet been widely accepted. One researcher (_____) has published a series of articles roundly denouncing the MMH, and the debate has even spilled over into the popular press (_____).

Source J,

page 468

Source A

What are we to make of this controversy?

References

Achison, C.L. (2004, April). A ripe and weighty issue: an interview with Monica Sturgess. *Cheese Lovers World*, 6 (4), 12-13. **A**

Coleman, G.J. (1984). An odd behaviour observed among the species *Elephas maximus*. *Journal of Trunked Mammal Studies*, 23, 421-429. **B**

Coleman, G.J. (1988). *Underfoot: ten years among the elephants*. New York: Oxford University Press. **C**

Concise Oxford dictionary, 11th ed. (2004). Oxford University Press. Retrieved October 20, 2004, from Oxford Reference Online database. **D**

Elephant Research Institute, Simon Fraser University. (2001) *Smell versus sight: detection of cheese by elephants*. Retrieved November 1, 2004, from <http://www.sfu.ca/eri/reports/00107elephants.pdf> **E**

Elephants stampede, 7 cheese-lovers trampled. (2003, November 22). *Vancouver Sun*, p. A1, A8. **F**

Gibson, C.N. & Sturgess, M.N. (1987). Elephant fleeing behaviour confirmed. *Journal of Elephantology*, 16, 239-245. Retrieved October 27, 2004, from Academic Search Elite database. **G**

Gibson, C.N. Sturgess, M.N., & Bates, A.T. (1989). Experiments with cheese effects on *Elephas maximus* and *Elephas africanus*. *Journal of Elephantology*, 18, 120-134. Retrieved October 27, 2004, from Academic Search Elite database. H

Gouda, A.N. (n.d.) *Commentary of a report about cheese and les elephants*. Retrieved October 23, 2004, from <http://www.monedefromage.fr/elephants.html> I

Maas, K.A. (2003). The missing link: elephants, mice, and cheese. *International Journal of Rodentia Research*, 56, 459-471. Retrieved October 31, 2004, from <http://www.elsevierpublisher.com/ijrr/56/4/maas.htm> J

Sturgess, M.N. (2004a). Of mice and cheese (Part 1). *Journal of Trunked Mammal Studies*, 43, 10-15. K

Sturgess, M.N. (2004b). Of mice and cheese (Part 2). *Journal of Trunked Mammal Studies*, 43, 219-225. L

From http://libguides.tru.ca/ld.php?content_id=7335759

Ex. 3. Correct the mistakes in the following references:

1. According to Wong (2001, p.16), he states that the Internet is a useful research tool.

2. Wong (2001, p.16), he states that the Internet is a useful research tool.

3. Wong states that the Internet is a useful research tool (p.16).

4. Wong (2001, p.16) says that the Internet is a useful research tool.

5. Wong (2001, p.16) state that the Internet is a useful research tool.

6. Wong, D. (2001, p.16), states that the Internet is a useful research tool.

7. 'The Internet is a useful research tool', Wong (2001, p.16).

8. Wong (2001, p.16) claims that the Internet is a useful research tool.

9. Wong (January 1, 2001, p.16) claims that the Internet is a useful research tool.

From: <http://www2.elc.polyu.edu.hk/cill/exercises/intextrefs.htm>

Key terms and words

citation (цитирование) -see the definition in part A (above).

reference (ссылка) - see the definition in part A (above).

plagiarism (плагиат)- see the definition in part A (above).

reference list (списки источников) - contain 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.

bibliography (список литературы) - 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.

parentheses (parenthetical style) (круглые скобки) (цитирование в скобках) – 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.

footnotes (сноска, примечание) -are notes placed at the bottom of a page. They cite references or comment on a designated part of the text above it.

endnote (концевая сноска) -a note printed at the end of a book or section of a book, or at the end of the document.

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.

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 AN RESEACH PAPER

What is a research paper?

It is a form of academic writing, composed by students in colleges and universities. A research paper requires students to locate information about atopic(to conduct research), take a stand on that topic, and provide support(or evidence) for that position in an organized report. Also 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

For many students, 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.

For others, 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

1. A general presentation of the research problem.
2. You should then lay out exactly what you are trying to achieve with this particular research project.
3. 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.

By Martyn Shuttleworth

The 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 -

- Context and setting of the study
- 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 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.

Examples of research papers

Two major types of research papers.

Argumentative research paper:

The argumentative research paper consists of an introduction in which the writer clearly introduces the topic and informs his audience exactly which stance he intends to take; this stance is often identified as the thesis

statement. An important goal of the argumentative research paper is persuasion, which means the topic chosen should be debatable or controversial. For example, it would be difficult for a student to successfully argue in favor of the following stance.

Cigarette smoking poses medical dangers and may lead to cancer for both the smoker and those who experience secondhand smoke.

Perhaps 25 years ago this topic would have been debatable; however, today, it is assumed that smoking cigarettes is, indeed, harmful to one's health. A better thesis would be the following.

Although it has been proven that cigarette smoking may lead to sundry health problems in the smoker, the social acceptance of smoking in public places demonstrates that many still do not consider secondhand smoke as dangerous to one's health as firsthand smoke.

In this sentence, the writer is not challenging the current accepted stance that both firsthand and secondhand cigarette smoke is dangerous; rather, she is positing that the social acceptance of the latter over the former is indicative of a cultural double-standard of sorts. The student would support this thesis throughout her paper by means of both primary and secondary sources, with the intent to persuade her audience that her particular interpretation of the situation is viable.

Analytical research paper:

The analytical research paper often begins with the student asking a question (a.k.a. a research question) on which he has taken no stance. Such a paper is often an exercise in exploration and evaluation. For example, perhaps one is interested in the Old English poem *Beowulf*. He has read the poem intently and desires to offer a fresh reading of the poem to the academic community. His question may be as follows:

How should one interpret the poem Beowulf?

His research may lead him to the following conclusion:

Beowulf is a poem whose purpose it was to serve as an exemplum of heterodoxy for tenth- and eleventh-century monastic communities.

Though his topic may be debatable and controversial, it is not the student's intent to persuade the audience that his ideas are right while those of others are wrong. Instead, his goal is to offer a critical interpretation of primary and secondary sources throughout the paper--sources that should, ultimately, buttress his particular analysis of the topic. The following is an

example of what his thesis statement may look like once he has completed his research.

Though Beowulf is often read as a poem that recounts the heroism and supernatural exploits of the protagonist Beowulf, it may also be read as a poem that served as an exemplum of heterodoxy for tenth- and eleventh-century monastic communities found in the Danelaw.

This statement does not negate the traditional readings of *Beowulf*; instead, it offers a fresh and detailed reading of the poem that will be supported by the student's research.

It is typically not until the student has begun the writing process that his thesis statement begins to take solid form. In fact, the thesis statement in an analytical paper is often more fluid than the thesis in an argumentative paper. Such is one of the benefits of approaching the topic without a predetermined stance.

Exercises

Ex.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 discern?

Ex.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.

Ex.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

Ex.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.

Ex.5. Different professional communities develop their own standards about the writing style people in that community use when creating documents to share with others. In some cases, these standards may apply to a very broad group of professionals - for example, researchers in many different social sciences use APA style in academic writing. MLA style is commonly used in the humanities, including English classes. In other cases, style guidelines are specific to a particular company or organization. Find a document, such as a newsletter or brochure, that was produced by an organization to which you belong. (Make sure it is a document you have permission to share.) Review the document and answer the following questions:

•What are the purpose, intended audience, and message of this document?

•How does the writing style function to fulfill the purpose, appeal to a particular audience, and convey a message? Consider elements of style, such as word choice, the use of active or passive voice, sentence length, and sentence structure. If your document includes graphics, consider their effectiveness as well.

•Are there any places where the style is inconsistent?

•Is the writing style of this document effective for achieving the document's purpose? Why or why not? If it is not effective, explain why.

(taken from <http://2012books.lardbucket.org/books/successful-writing/s16-03-writing-a-research-paper-end-o.html>)

Key terms and words

research paper (исследование, исследовательская работа) – see the definition in section A (above).

abstract (аннотация) - is a self-contained, short, and powerful statement that describes a larger work.

introduction (введение) - an explanatory section at the beginning of a research work, a book, report etc.

methods (методы) – a section of a research paper, which describes how an experiment was done and what experimental procedures were chosen.

result (результат) – the section of a research paper, which announces the results of the research.

conclusion (заключение) – the section of a research paper, which provides the final word on the value of analysis, research, or paper.

discussion (обсуждение) – 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.

reference list (список источников) - contain 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.

IMRAD (introduction, methods, results, and discussion) – the most common structure of a research paper.

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-paper-info/research-paper-self-check>

FINAL ACADEMIC WRITING COURSE TEST

1. 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.

III. The following text has had all punctuation, capital letters and paragraphs removed. Rewrite the text and check your answer.

Reformasi or survival

Jeremy Seabrook reports from the Indonesian eye of the global economic storm.

Indonesia after the departure of president Suharto is a turbulent troubled place. Modest political freedoms have been conceded by Habibie his successor but these have taken place at a time of unimaginable economic hardship. Political parties are being formed - there are now over 60 of them. Workers have some rights - so long desired so long suspended - to organise but these small advances are in danger of being overtaken by unemployment poverty and hunger in the wake of the devaluation of the rupiah by 80 per cent and the shrinking of the Indonesian economy this year by at least 15 per cent. Jakarta has been made a restless volatile place. There are daily demonstrations. Incidents. Students demand the ousting of Habibie who is seen as the defender of the Suharto legacy. Workers protest at price rises which make one meal a day a luxury. The unemployed desperately seek some work for themselves in the formal economy. In front of the Aryaduta hotel hundreds of young men working for money-changers stop passing cars with the promise of 11000 rupiah to the US dollar. Elsewhere at traffic lights boys in ragged jeans and coloured bandannas sing to cheap guitars while children stand in the swirling exhaust fumes offering comics lighters

cigarettes from nine in the morning till seven at night for the sake of a dollar at one point jobs were disappearing in jakarta at the rate of 15000 a day no industry is unaffected only the machines in the garment factories are still humming away making cheap clothing for export it is impossible to exaggerate the plight of the workers they live in tiny shared rooms in overbuilt slum areas with bare plastic floor-coverings hard mats for sleeping a canvas zip-up wardrobe a mirror a lipstick and a tin of baby-powder the closest thing they have to luxury wati deserted by her husband has sent her three children back to her west java village to stay with her parents while she shares a room with two others each paying two dollars a month out of a salary of twenty dollars most of which must be sent to the village many have reduced their consumption of food to levels that are dangerously low in nutrients - a bowl of noodles and vegetables some rice with chili and salt even while work was assured workers lived on the edge of subsistence the factories guarded by the military to prevent them from combining or organising in any way this was the incentive for foreign capital taiwanese korean or singaporean subcontractors were drawn here by abnormally low wages which made labour costs in indonesia among the lowest in the world what happens to people who have entered the market economy only recently when they are ejected from it so brutally some have returned to their villages even though it was the inadequate livelihood there that drove them to the city in the first place as a result the crisis has been exported to the countryside there has been sporadic unrest here too as the unemployed join with poor farmers and workers - a powerful coalition against the mismanagement of government which despite the removal of suharto remains fundamentally unchanged the family still manages to absorb the poverty of its members who had scattered in search of a better life parlin returned from the oil-palm plantation in kalimantan to live with his brother in jakarta susanto depending on the wages his wife draws from the nike factory razak sacked from five different industries for organising the workers the extended family of mayu waiting each month for the money she sends from singapore where she is a maidservant waranto subsidised by the friend with whom he shares a cell-like room in ancol economic disruption has a profound effect on all areas of social life triatni a metal worker is still unmarried although he is aged over 30 i couldnt survive with a wife he says 'and could not afford to feed any children on the wage i am earning' many young people cannot think of marrying this suggests the destruction of

hopes and expectations on a large scale as well as creating an expanding sex industry with all its attendant social and economic costs the great majority of young people who came to Jakarta to work were reluctant migrants in the first place they would not have left the village if there had been a choice as it is many are reluctant to return or even to tell their families that the hope of a secure job has been disappointed and that they are barely surviving in the alien unchosen environment of the city the situation is untenable women sweep up the rice-grains along with the dust from the roadside near the warehouses people scavenge among the waste from restaurants a government which could pursue dissenters to the remotest hiding-places in Indonesia cannot bring the necessities of life to its wanting people is this by design as some believe so that the inevitable disorder can be used as a new excuse for the military to clamp down once more or will a revolt that is barely containable announce the beginning of true reform the tension on the streets is tangible as the desire for social and political change is undermined by a desperate struggle against hunger and destitution

Answer

Reformasi or survival

Jeremy Seabrook reports from the Indonesian eye of the global economic storm.

Indonesia after the departure of President Suharto is a turbulent, troubled place. Modest political freedoms have been conceded by Habibie, his successor, but these have taken place at a time of unimaginable economic hardship. Political parties are being formed - there are now over 60 of them. Workers have some rights - so long desired, so long suspended - to organise. But these small advances are in danger of being overtaken by unemployment, poverty and hunger in the wake of the devaluation of the rupiah by 80 per cent and the shrinking of the Indonesian economy this year by at least 15 per cent.

Jakarta has been made a restless, volatile place. There are daily demonstrations, incidents: students demand the ousting of Habibie, who is seen as the defender of the Suharto legacy; workers protest at price rises which make one meal a day a luxury; the unemployed desperately seek some work for themselves in the formal economy. In front of the Aryaduta Hotel hundreds of young men, working for money-changers, stop passing

cars with the promise of 11,000 rupiah to the US dollar. Elsewhere, at traffic lights, boys in ragged jeans and coloured bandannas sing to cheap guitars while children stand in the swirling exhaust fumes offering comics, lighters, cigarettes, from nine in the morning till seven at night, for the sake of a dollar. At one point, jobs were disappearing in Jakarta at the rate of 15,000 a day. No industry is unaffected. Only the machines in the garment factories are still humming away making cheap clothing for export.

It is impossible to exaggerate the plight of the workers. They live in tiny shared rooms in overbuilt slum areas, with bare plastic floor-coverings, hard mats for sleeping, a canvas zip-up wardrobe, a mirror, a lipstick and a tin of baby-powder the closest thing they have to luxury.

Wati, deserted by her husband, has sent her three children back to her West Java village to stay with her parents while she shares a room with two others, each paying two dollars a month out of a salary of twenty dollars, most of which must be sent to the village. Many have reduced their consumption of food to levels that are dangerously low in nutrients - a bowl of noodles and vegetables, some rice with chilli and salt.

Even while work was assured, workers lived on the edge of subsistence, the factories guarded by the military to prevent them from combining or organising in any way. This was the incentive for foreign capital. Taiwanese, Korean or Singaporean subcontractors were drawn here by abnormally low wages which made labour costs in Indonesia among the lowest in the world.

What happens to people who have entered the market economy only recently when they are ejected from it so **brutally**?

Some have returned to their villages, even though it was the inadequate livelihood there that drove them to the city in the first place. As a result, the crisis has been exported to the countryside. There has been sporadic unrest here, too, as the unemployed join with poor farmers and workers - a powerful coalition against the mismanagement of government which, despite the removal of Suharto, remains fundamentally unchanged.

The family still manages to absorb the poverty of its members who had scattered in search of a better life: Parlin, returned from the oil-palm plantation in Kalimantan to live with his brother in Jakarta; Susanto, depending on the wages his wife draws from the Nike factory; Razak, sacked from five different industries for organising the workers; the

extended family of Mayu, waiting each month for the money she sends from Singapore, where she is a maidservant; Waranto, subsidised by the friend with whom he shares a cell-like room in Ancol.

Economic disruption has a profound effect on all areas of social life. Triatni, a metal worker, is still unmarried although he is aged over 30. 'I couldn't survive with a wife,' he says, 'and could not afford to feed any children on the wage I am earning.' Many young people cannot think of marrying. This suggests the destruction of hopes and expectations on a large scale, as well as creating an expanding sex industry, with all its attendant social and economic costs.

The great majority of young people who came to Jakarta to work were reluctant migrants in the first place. They would not have left the village if there had been a choice. As it is, many are reluctant to return or even to tell their families that the hope of a secure job has been disappointed and that they are barely surviving in the alien, unchosen environment of the city.

The situation is untenable: women sweep up the rice-grains along with the dust from the roadside near the warehouses; people scavenge among the waste from restaurants. A Government which could pursue dissenters to the remotest hiding-places in Indonesia cannot bring the necessities of life to its wanting people.

Is this by design, as some believe, so that the inevitable disorder can be used as a new excuse for the military to clamp down once more? Or will a revolt that is barely containable announce the beginning of true reform? The tension on the streets is tangible, as the desire for social and political change is undermined by a desperate struggle against hunger and destitution.

IV. Study the following text. Which lines describe:

1. the topic.....
2. the background.....
3. aims/purposes.....
4. the method(s) and approach
5. the results
6. the conclusion.....

Give the numbers of the lines and the first words of the first sentence(s).

A systematic modelling and simulation approach for JIT performance optimization.

Robust computer-aided simulation and modelling tools help to visualise, analyse and optimise complex production processes with a reasonable amount of time and investment. A review of the literature shows that simulation and modelling have not been extensively applied in just-in-time (JIT) manufacturing environments. Also there remains a lack of a comprehensive mechanism to identify the most significant JIT drivers for the purpose of system process optimisation. The prime objective of this study is to close this gap by applying computer based simulation tools and linear mathematical modelling to identify the impact of selected key JIT parameters on performance in an automotive component— manufacturing environment. Research shows that variables such as inconsistent task distribution, variation on operator performance, misconception of total quality management philosophy and lack of set-up time elimination plans disrupt ideal JIT production. In this study, ProModel simulation and modelling software is used to model and simulate different experimental scenarios in order to understand and quantify the impact of selected input key JIT variables on objective functions (i.e. process time and takt time). The outcome is a robust mathematical model that highlights the significance of JIT drivers in the manually operated mixed-model assembly lines.

Answer

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. the topic: | 1,2. Robust computer-aided simulation ... |
| 2. the background: | 2, 3, 4. A review of the literature shows ... |
| 4, 5. Also there remains a lack of ... | |
| 3. the aims/purposes: | 6, 7, 8. The prime objective of this study ... |
| 4. the method/ approach: | 11, 12, 13, 14. In this study, ProModel simulation |
| 5. the results: | 8, 9, 10, 11. Research shows that variables such as ... |
| 6. the conclusion: | 14, 15. The outcome is a robust... |

LIST OF KEY TERMS AND WORDS

- abstract** аннотация. 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**, навыки академического письма. Academic writing skills encompass strong composition, excellent grammar, and a consistent stylistic approach.
- adjective** прилагательное. 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** наречие. 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**, обстоятельственное придаточное предложение. 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**, антагонист. A character or force that opposes the protagonist.
- apostrophe**, апостроф. An apostrophe is a type of punctuation mark commonly used to show the omission of letters and convey possessive relationships.
- approach**, подход. The method used in dealing with or accomplishing.
- article** статья. 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** (список литературы) - 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** (основной абзац) is the main part of the piece of writing. Each body paragraph contains a topic sentence, supporting sentences and a concluding sentence.

brackets круглые скобки. 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 заглавная буква 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, цитирование. 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, семантическая связность текста. Coherence in linguistics is what makes a text semantically meaningful.

cohesion, лексико-грамматическая связность текста. 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 связующее слово A word or phrase used in a text to connect ideas together, i.e. a conjunction

colon и двоеточие The colon (:) is a punctuation mark consisting of two equally sized dots centered on the same vertical line.

comma запятая 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, сложноподчинённое предложение. A complex sentence is a sentence that is made from an independent clause and a dependent clause joined together.

compound sentence, сложносочинённое предложение 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.

compound-complex sentence, предложение, сочетающее элементы сложносочинённого и сложноподчинённого предложения

concluding sentence (заключительное предложение) emphasizes the importance of the supporting examples or evaluates the connections between them.

conclusion заключение – the section of a research paper, which provides the final word on the value of analysis, research, or paper.

conflict - Struggle between opposing forces.

conjunction, союз. A conjunction is a part of speech that connects words, sentences, phrases, or clauses.

contrast words, слова, выражающие контраст/противопоставление Linking words that show contrast between things in English.

crisis - Turning point; moment of great tension that fixes the action.

dash, тире 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 обсуждение – 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, диссертация. 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, черновой вариант. A version of an unfinished document or other written work.

endnote, концевая сноска. -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, оценка. 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, восклицательный знак. 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, ясность/эксплицитность. Clarity as a consequence of being explicit

exposition - Background information regarding the setting, characters, plot.

findings, полученные результаты/данные. The results of an investigation.

first-person - Narrator participates in action but sometimes has limited knowledge/vision.

footnotes, сноска, примечание. -are notes placed at the bottom of a page. They cite references or comment on a designated part of the text above it.

formality, соблюдение норм и правил. Something that is required or usual but that has little true meaning or importance

full-stop, точка. The full stop or period is a punctuation mark placed at the end of a sentence.

hedge n слово, смягчающее воздействие высказывания (прилагательные, наречия, придаточные предложения). A hedge is a mitigating word or sound used to lessen the impact of an utterance.

hyphen, дефис The hyphen (-) is a punctuation mark used to join words and to separate syllables of a single word.

implications, n подтекст, скрытый смысл. 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 информативный абзац. An informative abstract is short, specific and presents only the essential details of the research.

introduction n введение. 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 ключевые слова – 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, связующие слова. 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, метод. A method is a system or a way of doing something.

methodology, методика/методология. Methodology is the systematic, theoretical analysis of the methods applied to a field of study.

narrator - The person telling the story.

noun clause, придаточное дополнительное предложение. 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 (оригинальная статья). An article published in a magazine, used as the basis for writing a summary, translation etc.

overview, обзор, общее описание. Generalized treatment of a topic – a summary or outline

paragraph, параграф/абзац. 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 структура параграфа/абзаца. Most paragraphs in an essay have a three-part structure—introduction, body, and conclusion.

paragraphing, структурирование текста по параграфам/абзацам. 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) (круглые скобки) (цитирование в скобках). 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, предлог. A preposition is a word (usually a short word) that shows the relationship between two other nearby words.

protagonist Major character at the centre of the story.

punctuation, пунктуация. 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 вопросительный знак. The question mark [?] is a punctuation mark that indicates an interrogative clause or phrase in many languages

quotation mark, n кавычка. Quotation marks are punctuation marks used in pairs in various writing systems to set off direct speech, a quotation, or a phrase.

quotation, цитата. 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, переписывать, исправлять. 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, список источников. 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 относительное придаточное предложение. A relative clause is a subordinate clause that modifies a noun or a noun phrase.

report, n сообщение, доклад. A report is a systematic, well organised document which defines and analyses a subject or problem.

research paper (исследование, исследовательская работа) – see the definition in section A (above).

research, n исследование. Research is the procedure that involves gathering and searching of required data or information.

resolution -The way the story turns out.

result(результат) – the section of a research paper, which announces the results of the research.

run-on sentence, n предложение, состоящее из двух самостоятельных предложений (частей), которые не имеют правильного пунктуационного соединения. 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 -структураThe design or form of the completed action. Often provides clues to character and action.

summary, n краткое изложение. A summary is a shortened version of a text that highlights its key points.

supporting sentence, обосновывающие предложения; предложения, разворачивающие аргументацию вокруг тематического предложения. 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 тема, тезис, основное положение. The point that an essay is trying to prove.

thesis statement n изложение тезисов. 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 тема, проблематика. The topic, or theme, is what is being talked about.

topic sentence (предложение, в котором формулируется тема сообщения) tells readers what the paragraph is going to be about.

topic sentence, n тематическое/топикальное предложение, в котором формулируется тема сообщения. 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 переходные/связующие слова Transition words and phrases keep the reader on track by showing relationships between ideas and information.

transition(al) words/ phrases (союзы и словосочетания, используемые для логического перехода при подаче новой информации) 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 многословие. 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. or 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

Expression	Full form	Literal meaning	Modern use
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
sic	<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 – **jobs**

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 young** not possible - **impossible** not the same - **different** on most

occasions - **usually** perform an until such a point in time as - **until**
 assessment of - use up - **use**
assessrefer to as - **call** some of the - with a view to - **to, for**
some a sufficient number of - with regard to - **regarding**
enough take action - **act** 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 28 weeks	each and every	HIV virus
brief in duration	end result	join together
close proximity	exactly equidistant	month of January
completely destroyed	first began	mutual cooperation
completely unanimous	foreign imports	new innovations
consensus of opinion	free gift	return again safe
cooperate together	group together	haven shorter in length
costs a total of	honest truth	small in size
current status		the reason is because

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, e.g.:

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,

e.g.:

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, e.g.:

The Moon rotates around the Earth.

The Japanese are a friendly people.

The is used with superlatives, e.g.:

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), e.g.:

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, e.g.:

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), e.g.:

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), e.g.:

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, e.g.:

- *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*
- intensifies (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</i>	<i>laboratory</i>	<i>repetition</i>
<i>across</i>	<i>eliminate</i>	<i>library</i>	<i>rhythm</i>
<i>actually</i>	<i>environment</i>	<i>meant</i>	<i>ridiculous</i>
<i>analyze</i>	<i>especially</i>	<i>neither</i>	<i>scene</i>
<i>appearance</i>	<i>exaggerate</i>	<i>nuclear</i>	<i>schedule</i>
<i>appreciate</i>	<i>excellent</i>	<i>occasionally</i>	<i>separate</i>
<i>argument</i>	<i>experience</i>	<i>parallel</i>	<i>similar</i>
<i>beginning</i>	<i>extremely</i>	<i>persuade</i>	<i>sincerely</i>
<i>belief</i>	<i>foreign</i>	<i>physically</i>	<i>succeed</i>
<i>business</i>	<i>government</i>	<i>possible</i>	<i>surprise</i>
<i>committee</i>	<i>guarantee</i>	<i>practical</i>	<i>thoroughly</i>
<i>criticism</i>	<i>height</i>	<i>privilege</i>	<i>unusual</i>
<i>definitely</i>	<i>immediately</i>	<i>probably</i>	<i>usually</i>
<i>dependent</i>	<i>independent</i>	<i>psychology</i>	
<i>difference</i>	<i>intelligence</i>	<i>receipt</i>	
<i>discipline</i>	<i>interest</i>	<i>recommend</i>	

Appendix 7. Writing 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.

How 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 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.

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