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Навчальний посібник призначений для студентів бакалаврів та магістрів і розкриває стилістичні і структурні особливості академічних текстів з урахуванням міжнародних вимог до англомовного наукового дискурсу. Навчальний посібник спрямовано на розвиток умінь аналітичного читання публіцистичного тексту та написання есе і розраховано для використання під час аудиторної та самостійної роботи студентів.

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Introduction

Academic writing

Writing is necessary for all students in higher education. It is a process. It starts from understanding your task. It then goes on to doing the research and reading. The next stage is planning and writing various drafts. This is followed by proof-reading and editing. All this should lead to the final text.

Academic writing is a social practice. A social practice is what people do together. This means that you always write with a readership in mind. You always write with a purpose: to explain, to persuade, etc. It also means that what is right and wrong, appropriate or inappropriate is defined by the users in the social community. In your case these are other students, lecturers or examiners. There is nothing natural about the organization and the way language is used in a scientific report, for example. It is as it is because that is the way it has developed through centuries of use by practitioners. For that reason it has to be learned. No-one speaks (or writes) academic English as a first language. It must be learned by observation, study and experiment.

Academic writing is clearly defined by having a clear audience; a clear purpose, either an exam question to answer or a research project to report on. It is also clearly structured.

Academic writing in English is linear: - it starts at the beginning and finishes at the end, with every part contributing to the main line of argument, without digression or repetition. Whatever kind of writing you are producing, you, the writer, are responsible for making your line of argument clear and presenting it in an orderly fashion so that the reader can follow. Your written work should have the following sections: Preliminaries, Main text, End matter.

The preliminaries and end matter will depend on the kind of text you are writing. The main text will, however, generally contain an introduction, a main body and a conclusion. The introduction will usually consist of some background information, which will give the reason for the writing and explain, to some extent,

how this will be done. This must be closely connected to the essay or research question. The main body will then contain some data - either experimental, from ideas or from reading - and some argument. This will then lead to the conclusion, which will refer back to the introduction and show that the purpose has been fulfilled. The actual form of the main body will depend on the type of writing.

(From <http://www.uefap.com/writing/writfram.htm>)

Unit 1. Theoretical information

The main elements in academic writing

How do I know what I think till I see what I say.

E. M. Forster

How do I know what I'll say till I see what I think.

Anon.

Writing is the seed, the fruit and the pickle of our understanding. To learn and to write is, first, to make sense for ourselves of our new experience in terms of our old.

Good academic writing *creates* new knowledge and meaning. Actually there is no single *technique* by which this can be achieved. Rather, there seem to be four elements whose relationships with one another need to be balanced: the writer, the object of the analysis or discussion (the content), the reader, and the formal properties of the language itself. Not everybody will balance these elements in quite the same way; and this is as it should be, since there is no such thing as a uniform, ideal academic English. Getting the balance right will depend partly on how you, the writer, respond in particular circumstances and partly on those traditions of expression and scholarship which grow up within certain disciplines, schools of thought within disciplines, and within particular university departments.

These four elements of the writing situation – writer, subject matter, reader and the forms of language – are reflected in four main characteristics of a piece of written language itself. They must all be handled together in the act of writing. Their competing claims to attention are resolved in the choice of one word in preference to another, in the structuring of a sentence, in the placing of an emphasis in the paragraph, in the confidence with which you argue your case etc.

So, the four characteristics are the following:

- Your own point of view must emerge, not as a mere opinion but as a *justified judgement*;

- _You need to treat your subject matter as comprehensively and as precisely as the essay topic demands (read carefully and do your best to make your language clarify the information and ideas you needed);
- You must present your work in the appropriate form for academic readers (understanding certain *conventions* of academic writing which are, at times, quite different from those you may be used to); ,
- The text of your essay needs to create a coherent unity from the many diverse elements of language and your thoughts. An essay is not merely a vehicle for ideas, but is a piece of literature. It is best to conceive of essay-writing as entering into a debate.

While writing bear in mind different stages of your working at the task.

The 1st is “*You and your writing task*”.

Your task will become more manageable if you learn how to cope with your own particular ways of avoiding or putting off the moment when you start writing. First of all, it is as well to be aware that this fear of writing is very widespread, and not only amongst students. Another problem is time - most books on study skills recommend drawing up some kind of timetable for your work (like 500 words a day).

In the process of writing an essay on a book, think, of the times when something in a book has caught your attention sufficiently to make you underline the words. You may have been stimulated to make a marginal note or a note on a sheet of paper. This is the important moment. Though, instead of covering it over with a book mark, begin to sharpen your ideas on it immediately in a written form. Bear in mind that writing begets writing. If you do this from time to time, your mind will be working constructively on the essay (even in periods off duty) and your attention will be shifted from the act to the matter when you come to write the essay as a whole.

Discussion can also provokes creativity, being an essential part of academic work both as an informal preparation for writing and as writing's final justification.

The 2nd stage is “*You and subject matter*”.

Whilst nearly everybody suffers to some degree from ‘writer’s block’, we tend to vary in our ability to handle the four major elements of the writing process. You might need to give most attention to establishing your own point of view on the topic – or finding your ‘voice’ – and feeling able to hold to it with some degree of confidence. Or you might find manipulating your language to get it to say something sensible, or you may suffer some difficulty in structuring the essay to develop your ideas to ‘fill up’ the given amount of words (2,000 -4,000). Furthermore, overcoming one of the problems might also require attention to another. So, it is a good idea at this early stage to decide which of the writing problems apply most particularly to you, by identifying your own strengths and weaknesses.

The first thing is the understanding that your tutor is not expecting in your essay the ‘right’ or the ‘correct’ answer to the question. It might be the case that there is a ‘right’ answer, but it is not likely that all of your tutors are going to be in complete agreement among themselves on what it is. Therefore your task is to use books and tutors to help you establish *your best answer*. This demands that you learn to exercise your faculty of judgments (coherent descriptions of things) and to be as clear and explicit as you can about how you form your own judgments.

What may be new is the increasing responsibility to ask your own questions and to analyse the objects of your enquiries and the statements you’ve made. It is important to be quite clear about the nature of this process of judgement. You *must* bring your prejudices and opinions to bear on your provisional answer to the question. But, by the time your reading and your writing are finished, prejudice and opinion must have been converted into a reasoned judgment, which might be significantly different from your initial reaction to the essay topic.

In beginning with our prejudices and opinions and then gradually converting them through reading and writing into considered judgments, we are committing a great deal of our own selves to the answer we give. We must be prepared to mean

what we say. But we must also be able to feel a certain *confidence* in our judgements.

A tendency to perfectionism, especially in relatively superficial aspects of writing, is often a sign of a lack of confidence. Confidence cannot be built up by presenting a perfectly grammatical exterior to your reader, but rather by trying out your ideas in the language that you can best muster on the occasion. It is only when you read over your own work, well after it has been composed, that you will be able to see its shortcomings. This means that it is absolutely necessary to construct a timetable which provides that you finish the first draft of any essay well before it is due to be handed in.

The 3^d stage is “*You and your reader*”.

While seizing with the problems of understanding and knowing the material, you have to think about the interpersonal or communicative function of your writing. The aim to be achieved while writing is to present your work in such a way that the medium (paper, setting-out, etc.) does not draw the reader’s attention away from the argument you are making. This problem is that of deciding whom you are writing for and whom you are writing to. The academic essay is in some respects an artificial task. Though you are ostensibly writing *to* a relatively depersonalized ‘academic establishment’, you are in effect writing *for* yourself. Also don’t forget about the risk of plagiarising others’ work. In a very real sense, your essays actually write you – they become part of your own developing conception of yourself, your own life story.

The 4th stage is “*You language: form and structure*”.

In order to make language work for you, you should learn something of its forms and structures. The forms we are concerned with operate on two levels – the sentence and the discourse ones (like the paragraph and the essay as a whole). There are ways in which we use words, grammar and discourse to organise our diverse ideas into a coherent unity. Every piece of academic writing should strive for this unity.

A well-organised piece of writing reveals that the writer has established a pattern of relationships between the individual parts and between the parts and the whole composition. Sometimes we begin to realise that our thinking and writing are just ‘going round in circles’. We start to repeat ourselves unnecessarily, contradict ourselves or fail to show the connections between ideas. We become aware that, whenever we arrive at the end of a section of the essay, or of a paragraph or even of a sentence, we do not know where to turn next or how to establish a connection between what is written and what is to be written. We become more and more unable to decide between what should be included in the essay and what should be left out. Overall, we get that feeling that our writing does not ‘flow’, that some aspect of its structure has collapsed.

The first difficulty we face is in learning to recognise when these symptoms are present. Sometimes they are not particularly apparent to us while we are writing, only revealing themselves when we read the piece over later. Sometimes our own sense of form is not sufficiently developed to enable us to see aspects of our problem at all. We learn these things by having our writing criticised by others, and by absorbing gradually from our reading a sense of what good writing ‘feels’ like.

An almost invariable sign that something is wrong is a series of either very long or very short paragraphs. This is the point at which we often have to decide to cross out the whole passage and start again. Far from seeking to improve the form for its own sake, our re-writing gives us a chance to improve our understanding of the *subject* we are writing about. In short, to heed the formal signals of distress gives us the opportunity to think of a better answer to the question.

Form and structure enter into most aspects of writing. To write well you will also need progressively to learn about yourself and the way your own mind works, about the ways in which you attain to knowledge, and about the academic culture in which you and your readers live.

Dealing adequately with all these claims to the attention demands that you gradually work out for yourself a set of procedures and conditions that will not

only improve your efficiency but also open up new, more interesting and more subtle ways of approaching your work. The success with which all these matters are resolved will be apparent in the artefact that emerges: every piece of your writing you preserve will always remain an articulate testimony to your state of mind when you wrote it. This is what makes writing –even if ‘only’ another academic essay – an attempt to deal not only with a ‘topic’ but with knowledge itself, with other people and with yourself.

Constituents of Scientific work

1. EXACTNESS AND CLARITY

1.1. Write with Precision

In science, your goal is to write a paper that is easy to understand. Scientific prose is judged by how well it defines the details of the observations that you have made. In a short story, the reader might marvel at the “sensual writing, with hints of the mysteries of space and time.” In a scientific paper, however, your prose style should disappear, and the reader should marvel at the realistic, explicit, and cleanly etched picture that you have painted.

Scientific papers have a stereotyped format so that there are no distractions from their contents. Likewise, scientific prose should be plain. Here, the medium is not the message, the message is the message. To write precisely is to write without adornment. It can be an effort to recognize fluff and imprecision in your own writing, so train yourself to catch and to remove vagaries, emotion, indirectness, and redundancy.

It helps to remember that your goal is to speak plainly, i.e., to write clean straightforward sentences without hedging. Say what you mean directly. For example: • “*It may therefore not be unexpected that ...*” should be “*These results suggest...*”, • “*An effort was made to ...*” should be “*We tried to ...*”, • “*It is our considered opinion that other authorities may have misstated the relative import of such particulate paradigm*” should be written with specifics, such as “*In their 1994 paper, Drs. Williams and Wilkins say that the*”

1.1.1. Use Numbers

Numbers have just the right properties for scientific writing: numbers are precise, objective, unambiguous, and without emotional undertones. Moreover, numbers can be used to describe many things in the real world; for example, in a variety of ways, numbers can represent shapes and sizes:

1.1.2. Use Objective Words

You cannot write with numbers alone. When quantifiable words are not available, you should use as precise and objective vocabulary as possible.

Whether any particular sentence is precise and objective, depends on the reader's ability to define all its components. For example, "The needle vibrated continuously" is appropriate in a scientific paper if the reader is told which needle, what type of vibration, and over what time period it vibrated continuously. In science, the rule is, *define all your words*.

Beyond this rule, *a few writing habits will help to ensure good scientific text*. One of these habits is to weed out or replace vague and subjective terms; for instance, remove:

- Expressions with no clear limits, such as: *a lot, fairly, long term, quite, really, short term, slightly, somewhat, sort of, very*;
- Words of personal judgment, such as: *assuredly, beautiful, certainly, disappointing, disturbing, exquisite, fortuitous, hopefully, inconvenient, intriguing, luckily, miraculously, nice, obviously, of course, regrettable, remarkable, sadly, surely, unfortunately*;
- Words that are only fillers, such as: *alright, basically, in a sense, indeed, in effect, in fact, in terms of, it goes without saying, one of the things, with regard to*;
- Casual colorful words and phrases, such as: *agree to disagree, bottom line, brute force, cutting edge, easier said than done, fell through the cracks, few and far between, food for thought, leaps and bounds, no nonsense, okay, quibble, seat of the pants, sketchy, snafu, tad, tidbit, tip of the iceberg*.

1.2. Scientific Use of Tenses

Good scientific prose uses a precise vocabulary. Scientific prose also uses verb tenses in a standardized way. When discussing research, the present tense

indicates general knowledge and general principles, while the past tense indicates results of experiments.

1.2.1. Present Tense Is for Generalities

Use the present tense for general knowledge statements, widely accepted statements, and statements for which you could cite textbook references; for example:

- *“Black-eyed Susan (*Rudbeckia hirta*), a member of the Aster family, is a plant native to North America.”*
- *“The term ‘nuclide’ indicates a species of atom having a specified number of protons and neutrons in its nucleus.”*

1.2.2. Past Tense Is for Specific Observations

Your results—the particular observations that you made during a research study—are bits of history, so use the past tense when you report your experimental results. For example:

- *“During his war-time expedition to Guatemala, Rawski (1943) reported finding tarantulas with 9 stripes.”*
- *“Eighteen percent of the patients in our study developed a mild rash.”*

2. THE PARAGRAPH IS THE UNIT OF EXPOSITION

2.1. Each Paragraph Makes One Point

In a research paper, each paragraph should contain one main idea, and the space between paragraphs should be like taking a mental breath. Most people absorb ideas in small chunks, and scientific paragraphs are those small absorbable chunks. You can assess the absorbability of a paragraph simply by counting its sentences. The ideal size for a paragraph is 3–4 sentences, and five sentences are about the upper limit. If you find that you have written six or more sentences without allowing for a mental breath, then go back and break your writing into smaller chunks.

Consider this paragraph about insulin.

- *‘To keep all the cells in the body coordinated and working toward the same metabolic goals, the body uses hormones. Hormones are chemicals that are carried throughout the bloodstream, giving the same message to all the cells they meet. For sugar metabolism, the hormone messenger is insulin. Insulin is a protein that is made in the beta cells, which are clustered inside the pancreas. When the level of glucose in the blood becomes too high, the beta cells secrete insulin molecules into the bloodstream; thus, after a meal, the pancreas puts a large dose of insulin into the blood. The message that insulin then transmits throughout the body is “it’s time to absorb, use, and store glucose.” ’*

This paragraph contains six sentences, and its length alone should send you back to your writing desk. Reading the paragraph, you can find two major ideas. First, there are sentences about hormones in general. Second, there are sentences about one specific hormone, insulin. To emphasize each of these ideas, we should break the paragraph in two: one paragraph concerning hormones in general and the other concerning the nature and the effects of insulin:

- *‘The body uses hormones to coordinate the metabolism of its many far-flung cells. A hormone is a chemical that is carried in the bloodstream and that gives a message to the cells it contacts. For sugar metabolism, insulin is one of the hormone messengers, and its message is “take up, use, and store glucose.”*
- *‘Insulin is a protein that is made in beta cells, which are clustered inside the pancreas. When the level of glucose in the blood becomes too high, the beta cells secrete extra insulin molecules into the bloodstream. After a meal, for instance, the pancreas secretes a large dose of insulin into the blood.’*

In a literary work, where the flow of words conveys a subconscious emotional message, a page of short paragraphs can be choppy and disruptive. However, a research paper has a different goal. Scientific writing must present a clear unemotional experience.

Structuring Paragraphs and Sentences

1. The key to good writing: always think about the reader

Good writing very much depends on the role that you expect the reader to play and the effort you expect them to make. But this role varies considerably from culture to culture.

Poor readability has a monetary cost. If you force your reader to spend a lot of energy and time on deciphering your papers, you are also stopping them from spending the same time and energy on their work.

To write well, you need to know exactly how people read. Today, much reading is done directly from a screen, rather than from a hard copy. Because we generally want information fast, particularly when searching on the Internet, we tend to scan. Scanning means not reading each individual word, but jumping forwards three or more words (or sentences) at a time. The distance that we jump (in terms of number of words or sentences) depends on the value that those words are adding in our search for information. If they add no value we tend to jump further.

If we continue to get no value, instead of scanning left to right along a line of text, we scroll from top to bottom. We thus read vertically rather than horizontally until we find what we want. In an article in the British newspaper *The Guardian*, Tracy Seeley, an English professor at the University of San Francisco, noted that after a conversation with some of her students she discovered that “most can’t concentrate on reading a text for more than 30 seconds or a minute at a time. We’re being trained away from slow reading by new technology,”...she added that “papers need to get to the point quickly” and that “good writing is even more important now in order to hold reader’s attention”.

Every word you write needs to be understood by the reader. The style should be specific, emphatic and concise. Everything should be relevant. Readers are generally lazy and in a hurry. They need to be able understand everything the first time they read. Don’t force your reader to wait till the end of a sentence, paragraph or section in order to be able to put all the pieces of the jigsaw together. Instead of

a jigsaw, a good writer of English has a chain as a writing model. Within a sentence, each word forms a chain to make the meaning of the sentence clear. And each sentence forms a chain with the next, so that the reader is guided link-by-link and step-by-step towards the writer's conclusions.

2 General structure of a paragraph

Every paper has a title and the readers know that the title will be followed by the Abstract and at (or towards) the end of the paper they expect to find the Literature Cited. Just as readers have certain expectations with regard to the structure of the entire paper, they also have expectations with regard to how a section, paragraph and a sentence should be structured. These expectations are less conscious or explicit than expectations regarding the position of a title and the abstract. However they are based on how readers usually find and receive information in a section, paragraph and sentence.

Each paragraph is like a microcosm of a paper – it has its own title (the topic sentence), the intermediate sentences are like the sections of the paper, and the last sentence is like the conclusions:

1. A well-structured paragraph in any other part of a section (i.e. not the first paragraph) is thus generally as follows:
2. A topic sentence that tells the reader what the paragraph is about and in some way connects with the previous paragraph.
3. From one to eight sentences in a logical sequence that develop the topic.
4. A concluding sentence, possibly referring back to the first sentence or forward to the next paragraph.

The three elements of this structure are dealt with in detail in the subsections below. Your aim is to show readers how your paragraph fits in with what came before and what is coming after. You need to organize your information for the reader, rather than the reader trying to organize the information that you have given him / her.

Only one specific idea should be covered in each sentence, and only one general idea in each paragraph.

3 How to structure a paragraph: an example

Different writers have different methods of organizing their reports, and some seem to have no discernible method at all. Most of the better writers, however, appear to be in remarkably close agreement as to the general approach to organization. This approach consists of stating the problem, describing the method of attack, developing the results, discussing the results, and summarizing the conclusions. You may feel that this type of organization is obvious, logical, and natural. Nevertheless, it is not universally accepted. For example, many writers present results and conclusions near the beginning, and describe the derivation of these results in subsequent sections.

If you analyzed a paragraph in a typical research paper, you would very likely get very different data. Try looking at some of your own work. With respect to Katzoff's paragraph, you will probably notice a big increase in the number of words, commas and semicolons per sentence. The typical sentence length will be around 30–40 words, but also up to 70–80. Sam Katzoff was a top scientist. His document was intended for fellow scientists, who were, like him, native English speakers. These fellow scientists were also amongst the most brilliant scientists in the world. They could potentially understand even the most complex text. Yet Dr Katzoff decided to write his document in the simplest and clearest way possible, and he encouraged his fellows to do the same.

Now let's analyze the structure of Katzoff's paragraph.

(S1) Different writers have different methods of organizing their reports, and some seem to have no discernible method at all. (S2) Most of the better writers, however, appear to be in remarkably close agreement as to the general approach to organization. (S3) This approach consists of stating the problem, describing the method of attack, developing the results, discussing the results, and summarizing the conclusions. (S4)

You may feel that this type of organization is obvious, logical, and natural. (S5)

Nevertheless, it is not universally accepted. (S6) For example, many writers present results and conclusions near the beginning, and describe the derivation of these results in subsequent sections.

S1 introduces the general topic and summarizes current practice with regard to report writing. S2 qualifies what was said in S1. The reader is warned of this qualification by the link word *however*.

Katzoff repeats the word *writer* from S1 to link it into S2, but precedes it with a different adjective (*different, better*) to show that he is moving from something general (all authors) to something more specific (better authors). The repetition of *approach* in S3 serves a similar linking purpose. It gives readers the feeling that they are being guided step by step along the path by which Katzoff develops his topic.

In S4 he addresses the reader directly, which is probably something that you would not do in a paper. Instead you would probably phrase such a concept in the passive: *it may be argued that* Katzoff's idea is to anticipate possible objections to what he is about to say. S5 is only six words long. Such a short sentence is rare in academic work. Yet it is very effective in capturing reader attention. The link word, *nevertheless*, placed prominently at the beginning of the sentence, also catches the reader's eye and helps to underline the importance of what is being said.

In S6 he uses another link word, *for example*. These link words all serve to show how each sentence relates to what has been said before. Without these link words, the reader would be forced to figure out Katzoff's train of thought. However, Katzoff only uses link words when they really serve a purpose.

As can be seen, one constant device Katzoff uses is to repeat words. He uses the word *writer* three times. He could easily have found synonyms, e.g. author, researcher, technician. But this might have confused readers who might think that there was a difference in meaning between these terms.

Another massive aid to helping readers understand, is to have a maximum of two ideas per sentence. S4 and S5 contain just one idea. S6 contains two ideas linked by *and*.

4 First paragraph of a new section - begin with a mini summary plus an indication of the structure

Readers do not necessarily read the paper from beginning to end. They may begin with any section in the paper. This means you could consider starting some sections (e.g. Introduction, Discussion, Conclusions) with a one or two-sentence summary of the main aims and/or findings of the paper. This style is also typical if you are writing chapters in a book.

However, check the general style of papers in your chosen journal. If they do not begin sections in such a way, then don't do it yourself. Instead go for a more direct approach. Here are some examples of mini summaries at the beginning of a section: *The X Committee has for some years encouraged collaborative clinical trials in X by reporting the results in the medical literature. In this section we describe the first of two unreported results that we believe deserve such publication and which constitute the main contribution of this paper.* As mentioned in the Introduction, a principal concern in the field of X is to understand why ...

This section attempts to answer the question ...

Our aim is to provide a simple alternative to the complex theoretical models that attempt to explain ... In this section we present a simplified model, which we believe is ...

This section reviews the process of ... This process provides the backbone to the system that is at the core of our research.

In addition to this mini summary, some authors also briefly outline what will be contained in the rest of the section. Here are four examples:

S1. In this section, we briefly review the broad perspectives that have shaped the direction of thinking about ...

S2. In this section, the numerous advances in cosmology are described, with emphasis on the vast new area of ...

S3. In this section, we will ask the question: ‘Under what circumstances will a paper be rejected?’

S4. In this section we define our approach and show how it can be very naturally used to define distributions over functions. In the following section we show how this distribution is ...

The examples highlight different styles for introducing the topic. S1 and S2 are the standard approach, using a personal style (*we* in S1) and an impersonal style (the passive form in S2). S3 represents a variation because it asks a question – this may be a good solution for creating some variety in the way you begin each section. Note how in S4 the author also refers to future sections. Such references help the reader to see how the current section fits in with the logical progression of the rest of the paper. However, you should keep such references as short as possible as they can become quite heavy and annoying for the reader.

5 First paragraph of a new section - go directly to the point

Particularly in shorter papers, you may not have the space to have mini summaries at the beginning of your section or subsections. In any case, readers often don’t have the time or the inclination to read them. In such cases you need a more direct approach. Being direct does not necessarily entail telling the reader what you did, but telling them what it means. A typical sentence to open the Results section is: S1. An analysis of the number of words used in English was 25 words long, whereas in Italian was 32 words long. This indicates that when an Italian document is translated into English, there is ...

6 Deciding where to put new and old information within a paragraph

Known information is traditionally placed at the beginning of a sentence or paragraph. Below are the first three sentences from the abstract of a fictitious paper entitled ‘Readability and Non-Native English Speakers’ intended for a journal dedicated to communication in the world of business.

version 1 Readability formulas calculate how readable a text is by determining the level of difficulty of each individual word and the length of sentences. All types of writers can use these formulas in order to understand how difficult or readable

their texts would be for the average reader. However, readability formulas are based purely on what is considered difficult for a native English speaker, and do not take into account problems that may be encountered by non-natives. In this paper ...

The first word, *readability*, is one of the author's key words. It immediately alerts the reader to the topic of the sentence and of the abstract (and paper) as a whole. However, the information contained in it is not new - readability formulas and their indexes are well established in the literature on business communication. The role of the first two sentences is thus to set the context and gently guide the reader into the paragraph. The third sentence then introduces the new element, i.e. the fact that readability indexes do not take into account non-native speakers. The third sentence thus highlights the problem that the paper intends to tackle. However, the abstract could have begun like this:

version 2 Current readability formulas are based purely on what is considered difficult for a native English speaker. They fail take into account problems that may be encountered by non-natives. One thousand five hundred PhD students from 10 countries were asked to evaluate the difficulty of five technical texts from their business discipline written by native English speakers. Three key difficulties were found: unfamiliar vocabulary (typically Anglo-Saxon words), unfamiliar cultural references, and the use of humor. The paper also proposes a new approach to assessing the level of readability of texts to account for such difficulties.

In Version 2, the author still begins with his key word, *readability*. But he precedes it with *current*, which signals to the reader that the author will then probably propose an alternative. The author also assumes that his readers will be aware of what a readability formula is, so he feels he doesn't need to mention it. Thus, in the second sentence he immediately underlines a critical problem with current formulas.

In the third sentence he then tells his readers what his research was and then what was found.

Version 3, below, contains only new information.

version 3 Unfamiliar vocabulary (typically Anglo-Saxon words), unfamiliar cultural references, and the use of humor: these, according to our survey of 1500 PhD students, are the main difficulties non-native speakers have when reading a business text in English. Our results highlight the need to adjust current readability formulas in order to take non-native speakers into account. The paper also proposes a new approach to assessing the level of readability of texts to account for such difficulties.

This version is designed to immediately attract the reader's attention. In contrast, the first 50 words of Version 1 contain no new information at all. Version 2 has 40–50% new information or more, depending on whether readers are familiar with the limitations of readability formulas with regard to non-natives.

So, which version should you use?

The best version to use depends on two factors:

1. the section of the paper
2. what you are trying to achieve

Version 1 would only be appropriate in an Abstract if the journal where it is being published does not usually deal with communication and / or readability indexes. In this case the readers need the context to be set for them. It might be more acceptable in an Introduction in a slightly more specialized journal. In an Introduction the aim is not principally to attract attention, if readers are reading your Introduction you can presume that you already have their attention.

So the information contained in Version 1 would be used in an Introduction just to remind the readers of the context. This is a very typical way to begin an Introduction – it is what readers expect and therefore it is generally a good technique.

Version 2 would be appropriate as an Abstract or Introduction in a specialized journal on business communication.

Version 3 would only be appropriate in an Abstract and exclusively in a very specialized journal. It can only be used if you have clear findings, or a clear new methodology, to report. It works very well because it does not force readers to read

background information that they are probably already familiar with. You might also choose Version 3 as an Abstract for a congress. In such cases you are competing for the attention of the referees who will use your Abstract to decide whether to include your contribution at the congress. If your Abstract is accepted, you will then be competing with other authors / presenters in motivating the audience to come and watch you rather than a parallel session.

In many languages Versions 2 and 3 would not be acceptable. This is the generally accepted (and considered correct) way of writing. This means that when you write in English you may be going against what is considered good style in your own language. But don't let breaking a taboo stop you from expressing yourself in the way that will best highlight your results and thus attract more readers.

7 Deciding where to put new and old information within a sentence

S1 and S2 begin with the same subject *English*, which is the main topic of the sentence. They then present the same two pieces of information, but in a different order.

S1. English, which is the international language of communication, is now studied by 1.1 billion people.

S2. * English, which is now studied by 1.1 billion people, is the international language of communication.

In both cases if you removed the 'which' clause (in italics) the sentence would still make sense. But if you removed the final clause it wouldn't. This would seem to indicate that the final clause is where we locate the most important information. Thus the relative position of the various parts of the phrase tells the reader the relative importance of the information contained on those parts. In S1, the order of the information tells you that the fact that English is *the international language of communication* is old news, but that *1.1 billion people* is new information that the reader probably does not already know. Thus, the order of the information in S2 is a little strange because it puts the new information (*1.1. billion people*) before the old information (*international language*).

Readers tend to focus on the first and last words of a sentence, so avoid placing your most important information in the middle of a long sentence. Readers don't want to make an effort to identify the key points, they want to be told immediately. Here are some more examples that show how by changing the order of information within a sentence you can achieve a different effect:

S3. English is now studied by 1.1 billion people, though this number is expected to drop with the rise in importance of Chinese.

S4. Although English is now studied by 1.1 billion people, this number is expected to drop with the rise in importance of Chinese. S5. Although the importance of Chinese is expected to lead to a drop in the numbers of people studying English, 1.1 billion people still study English.

S3–S5 all contain the same information, but the weight that this information is given varies.

In S3 the reader learns some information. This information is then qualified with *though*, which is used to introduce some new information that the author imagines that the reader does not know. In S4 the reader is immediately alerted to the fact that the information contained at the beginning of the sentence is going to be qualified by new information in the second part. The order of the information in S4 is thus more logical than in S3. In S5 the writer assumes that the reader already knows the importance of Chinese and instead focuses on the fact that despite the increase in the number of Chinese speakers, English is *still* studied by a lot of people. 'still' is the key word and it is located very close to the end of the sentence. In S1–S5 there are two parts to each sentence, and the writer gives more emphasis to the second part. Sometimes, you may want to give equal weight to the two parts. S6. English is the international language of communication. It is now studied by 1.1 billion people. S7. The importance of Chinese is expected to lead to drop in the numbers of people studying English. Despite this, 1.1 billion people still study English. In S6 and S7, the writer wants the reader to notice and absorb the two pieces of important information separately. She does this by presenting the information in two distinct sentences. This device should not be used too often

because it can lead to a series of very short sentences, which after a while begin to sound like a list.

8 Link each sentence by moving from general concepts to increasingly more specific concepts

A key issue when linking up sentences in a paragraph is to decide how to link one sentence to the previous one. The following is an extract from the beginning of a paragraph from a paper on pollution in soil. It fails to make a strong impact because of its lack of logical progression.

(S1) The *soil* is a major source of *pollution*. (S2) Millions of *chemicals* are released into the environment and end up in the soil. (S3) The impact of most of these *chemicals* on human health is still not fully known. (S4). In addition, *in the soil* there are naturally occurring amounts of potentially *toxic substances* whose fate in the terrestrial environment is still *poorly known*.

S1 puts *the soil* as the topic of the sentence. S2 is more specific and talks about the quantity of this pollution - *millions of chemicals*. S3 reports the impact of the chemicals mentioned in S2. But S4 does not continue this logical progression from general to increasingly more specific. Instead, it begins by putting *soil* in the topic position. This breaks the logical progression, because *soil* was the topic of S1. The following sentence would be a good replacement for S4, which would thus continue the logical structure developed in S1–S3. S5 There are also naturally occurring amounts of potentially toxic substances *in the soil* whose fate in the terrestrial environment is still poorly known.

The formula is thus:

1. S1: main topic (*soil*) introduces subtopic 1 (*pollution*)
2. S2: subtopic 1 is specified by introducing subtopic 2 (*millions of chemicals*).
3. S3: subtopic 2 is specified introducing subtopic 3 (*impact of these chemicals*).
4. S4: a further / related aspect of subtopic 3 is introduced via subtopic 4 (*impact of toxic substances, i.e. chemicals, is poorly understood*).
5. etc.

Basically each sentence is link in a chain. A full chain is a paragraph. And a series of linked chains makes up a section. This concept of a chain of logical progression is not common to all languages.

9 Present and explain ideas in the same (logical) sequence

Readability can be increased massively if you take some time to think about the best way to present information.

Memory can be subdivided into various types: long-term memory, which involves retaining information for over a minute, and short-term memory, in which information is remembered for a minute or less, for example, the memory required to perform a simple calculation such as $5 \cdot 7 \cdot 3$. Another type of shortterm memory is also recognized: sensory memory, for example we see a video as a continuous scene rather than a series of still images. Research shows sex differences in episodic (i.e. long term) memory: women tend to remember better verbal situations, whereas men have a better recollection of events relating to visuals and space. Long-term memory can be further subdivided into recent memory, which involves new learning, and remote memory, which involves old information.

Memory is the capacity to store and recall new information. It can be subdivided into two main types: short-term and long-term. Short-term memory involves remembering information for a minute or less, for example, the memory required to perform a simple calculation such as $5 \cdot 7 \cdot 3$. Another type of short-term memory is sensory memory, for example, we see a video as a continuous scene rather than a series of still images. Longterm memory can be further subdivided into recent memory, which involves new learning, and remote memory, which involves old information. Interestingly, research shows sex differences in remote memory: women tend to remember better verbal situations, whereas men have a better recollection of events relating to visuals and space.

In the OV, the beginning of the first sentence gives the illusion to the reader that the various types of memory will be introduced in a logical order. In reality a rather random selection of information is given, with no clear sequence. This

makes it hard for the reader to follow. The RV uses shorter sentences and follows a much more logical series of steps:

(1) definition of memory given; (2) clear indication of the number of types of memories (OV *various* types, RV *two main* types); (3) short-term memory mentioned first, as later in the paragraph long-term memory will be developed in more detail; (4) additional information about short-term memory (the discussion of short-term memory ends here); (5) returns to second topic (long-term memory), which is then subdivided into *recent* and *remote*; (6) interesting fact about remote memory.

In the RV, each sentence extends the information given in the previous sentence, and the reader can sense the logical progression. The author presents a list of topics at the beginning of a paragraph that he intends to discuss further in the later part of the paragraph. He then deals with the topics in the same order and format as he initially presented them: first short-term memory, then long-term.

10 Don't force the reader to have to change their perspective

Your aim is to provide readers with a step-by-step approach to enable them to understand your reasoning. It must be clear from the beginning of your sentence what this logical progression is. This means that at mid point or end point in a sentence, readers should not have to change their perspective of this logical progression. OVs 1–5 below are all correct English, but they don't help the reader to follow your logical flow. original version (ov) revised version (rv).

1 It is important to remark that our components are of a traditional design. *However*, we want to stress that the way the components are assembled is very innovative. *Although* our components are of a traditional design, the way they are assembled is very innovative.

2 Working in this domain entails modifying the algorithms as *we are dealing* with complex numbers. *Since we are dealing* with complex numbers, working in this domain also entails modifying the algorithms.

3 Therefore, the rescaled parameters seem to be appropriate for characterizing the

properties, *from a statistical point of view*. Therefore, *from a statistical point of view*, the rescaled parameters seem to be appropriate for characterizing the properties.

4 The number of times this happens when the user is online is generally *very few*.

This *rarely* happens when the user is online.

5 Documentation on this particular matter is almost *completely lacking*. There is *virtually no documentation* on this particular matter.

6 Consequently we found this particular type of service not interesting. Consequently we did not find this particular type of service interesting. The RVs all provide signals to the reader about what they can expect next.

In OV1 readers initially think that *traditional design* is the key information that the author wants to give them. The author then introduces new information that completely contrasts with the preceding information. In such cases, you need to forewarn your readers of such contrasts by using a linker that introduces a qualification, such as *although*, at the beginning of the phrase (as in RV1). In RV2 and RV3 the author immediately tells readers the point of view he wants them to assume, whereas in OV2 and OV3 this key information is only given at the end of the sentence. The strategy adopted in RV2 also enables you to present the information in chronological order: (1) what we already know (2) new information. In the OVs 4–6, readers initially think that something affirmative is being said, but then they have to readjust their thinking when the negation is introduced at the end of the sentence. English tends to express negative ideas with a negation. This helps the reader to understand immediately that something negative is being said (RV4 and RV5). OV6 is incorrect English because the verb and the negation (*not*) have been separated. Generally *not* is located immediately before the verb.

11 Use a consistent numbering system to list phases, states, parts etc.

When you need to describe the various stages in a procedure, methodology, project and so on, it helps to use a numbering system. For example, *first(ly)*, *second(ly)*, *third(ly)*, *finally*. It is also important to continue your numbering system in the same way that you started it, and not to abandon it. Compare these

two versions: original version revised version Our methodology can be divided into three main parts: first of all the characterization of demographic changes between 2000 and 2010, in order to obtain a scenario for the future with regard to population shifts. The results from this first part were used as inputs to obtain maps for 2010 to 2015. The resulting maps and input maps regarding climatic and political characteristics were inserted into our model in order to predict future patterns.

Our methodology can be divided into three main stages. *Firstly*, we characterized demographic changes between 2000 and 2010, in order to obtain a future scenario for population shifts. *Secondly*, we used the results from the first part as inputs to obtain maps for 2010 to 2015. *Finally*, the resulting maps along with input maps regarding climatic and political characteristics were inserted into our model in order to predict future patterns.

The OV is a little misleading. The colon in the first sentence gives the reader the impression that the author is going to mention all three stages together within the same sentence. The second two stages are not clearly marked. The RV separates the OV's first sentence into two parts. In the RV, first the author announces that there are three stages. Then she talks about these three stages in three separate sentences, which begin with a number indicator. This also makes the paragraph visually easier to follow.

12 Begin a new paragraph when you talk about your study and your key findings

If you have phrases such as *This study shows that* / *Our findings highlight* / *These results indicate that* in the middle of a long paragraph, readers may not even notice the sentence. Thus you lose a good opportunity to get the reader to focus on your findings. So whenever you want to highlight the importance of your study or findings, begin a new paragraph.

13 Break up long paragraphs

The only advantage of a long paragraph is for the writer, not for the reader. It enables writers to save time because they avoid having to think about where they

could break the paragraph up to aid reader comprehension. But breaking up long paragraphs is extremely important.

Firstly, long blocks of text are visually unappealing for readers, and tiring for their eyes. They fail to meet the basic rule of readability – make things as easy as possible for your reader. Evidence of this can be found in newspapers. If you look at newspapers from 100 years ago, they were basically big blocks of text that took a great deal of effort to read. Today many online newspapers have one sentence per paragraph, with lots of white space between each paragraph.

Secondly, your points and the related logical sequence of these points will be much more clearly identifiable for the reader if they are in a separate paragraph.

Thirdly, you will find that you will write more clearly if you use shorter paragraphs. This is because it will force you to think about what the main point of your paragraph is and how to express this point in the simplest way. If you just have one long paragraph, the tendency is just to have one long flow of frequently disjointed thoughts. This tendency is known in English as ‘rambling’.

Fourthly, having shorter paragraphs enables you (and your co-authors) to quickly identify if you need to add extra information, and allows you to do this without having to extend an already long paragraph. Likewise, it enables you to identify paragraphs that could be cut if you find you are short of space. The third and fourth points are also valid reasons for using short sentences. The maximum length of a paragraph in a well-written research paper is about 15 lines. But most paragraphs should be shorter. If you have already written more than 8–12 lines or 4–6 sentences, then you may need to re-read what you have written and think about where you could start a new paragraph.

When you begin to talk about something that is even only slightly distinct from what you have mentioned in the previous 4–6 sentences, then this is a good opportunity to begin a new paragraph. For example, when you have been talking about how another author has approached the problem of X, and you then want to make a comparison with your own approach. The topic (i.e. X) is the same, but the focus is different. Likewise, if you have been comparing X and Y, and you have

spent a few sentences exclusively on X, then when you start on Y you can use a new paragraph.

14 Look for the markers that indicate where you could begin a new sentence

The typical phrases used to connect one sentence to the next in order to create a logical progression of thought. These typical phrases also act as markers to indicate that you could begin a new paragraph.

typical phrases function of the phrase

In order to do this / To this end / With this mind To state the purpose of something. For instance, you outline a requirement, and then you begin to say how you could meet this requirement

Then / Following this / Afterwards To indicate a temporal relationship

For example, / An example of this is / In fact, / Unlike / Nevertheless, To give an example or supporting/negating evidence. By ‘example’ I don’t mean just a list of items, but a complete example or evidence that supports or negates what you have just been saying and that requires several sentences to explain

In addition / Another way to do / An additional feature of To add additional points. For instance, if you are focusing just on one thing (e.g. X) and you talk about X’s attributes

On the other hand / However / In contrast To qualify what you have just said: i.e. to indicate an exception or the two sides of an argument

Due to / Since / Although To give reasons for something

Thus / Therefore / Consequently / Because of this To indicate a consequence

This means that / This highlights that / These considerations imply that / In conclusion / In sum To announce and give a mini conclusion about what you have said in the previous sentences

Figure 1 shows / As can be seen in Table 2 To talk about figures, tables etc.

Firstly, secondly, finally To introduce elements in a list

As far as X is concerned, / In relation to X,

In the case of / With regard to / As noted earlier To introduce a new element; to recall something mentioned earlier

It is worth noting that / Interestingly To add some additional information or make some comment, not necessarily directly about something you have mentioned before.

For example, when you use *firstly*, *secondly* etc., you only need to begin a new paragraph if the sentence that begins *firstly* is then followed by another two or more sentences. If you only need one sentence for each item, then you don't need to begin a new paragraph.

There is no minimum length to a paragraph. A paragraph can occasionally be just one sentence. However, a series of paragraphs containing only one or two short sentences would be a little strange.

Where you begin a new paragraph will also depend on which section you are writing. In the review of the literature, you may want to begin a new paragraph when (i) you begin to talk about a different phase in the logical build up of research in your field, or (ii) you start talking about another author. In the Methods, it may help the reader to identify the various components or understand the various steps, if these components or steps are in separate (probably quite short) paragraphs.

15 Concluding a paragraph: avoid redundancy

If your writing is clear, you don't need to help the reader too much. This means that the beginning of a paragraph should move on from where the previous paragraph ended. So there is no need for a summary sentence between the two paragraphs, but just a clear and logical link in terms of advancing one idea to the next.

So, avoid making constant mini-summaries, some readers might begin to get bored and start skipping whole paragraphs. A good test of whether you need mini summaries, is to remove them, and show the resulting paper to a colleague. If the colleague can follow your argumentation clearly and makes no comment about summaries being needed, you can remove them definitively. Many authors only use a mini summary at the end of the Introduction.

Inside a Scientific Paragraph

1. The Lead Sentence

A typical scientific paragraph begins by stating its point, so the lead sentence should tell us the focus of the paragraph. In the two-paragraph example above, the first lead sentence, *“The body uses hormones to coordinate the metabolism of its many far-flung cells,”* tells us that the first paragraph is about hormones as long-distance messengers. The second lead sentence, *“Insulin is a protein that is made in beta cells, which are clustered inside the pancreas,”* tells us that the second paragraph is about a specific hormone, insulin.

2. The Subsequent Sentences

The remaining 2–3 sentences in each paragraph expand on the focal point that was identified in the lead sentence. Inside the paragraph, the sentences may:

- Give examples of the focal point.
- Give more details about the focal point.
- Remind readers that the focal point is a member of a more general class of similar things.
- Highlight an implication of the focal point.

In the example above, the first lead sentence tells us that the focal point of the paragraph is: • HORMONES = LONG-DISTANCE MESSENGERS

The second sentence gives details of both sides of this equation:

- HORMONE = CHEMICAL
- HORMONAL MESSENGERS TRAVEL VIA THE BLOODSTREAM

Finally, the third sentence gives specific examples:

- INSULIN = HORMONE
- INSULIN’S MESSAGE = “TAKE UP, USE, AND STORE GLUCOSE”

3. Internal Flow

A scientist should be able to read your paragraphs without pausing. To give your writing this flow, each sentence of a paragraph should set the stage for the following sentence. Each internal sentence should be an extension of its predecessor.

This can be done by making the subject or object from sentence number one the subject or object of sentence number two. By sharing its predecessor's subject or object, the second sentence continues the discussion and connects new ideas to those that have been established previously.

For example, in the first paragraph of the example above, 'hormone' is an object in sentence number one, and it is then used as the subject of sentence number two:

- "The body uses *hormones* to coordinate the metabolism of its many far-flung cells. A *hormone* is a chemical that is carried in the bloodstream and that gives a message to cells it contacts."

Likewise, 'hormone' and 'message' are a subject and an object in sentence number two, and 'message' is used as a subject and 'hormone messenger' is used as an object in sentence number three:

- 'A *hormone* is a chemical that is carried in the bloodstream and that gives a *message* to cells it contacts. For sugar metabolism, one of the *hormone messengers* is insulin, and its *message* is "take up, use, and store glucose." '

- Connect Succeeding Paragraphs

You can smooth the connection between paragraphs by making the lead sentence of each paragraph refer to the previous paragraph. The flow between paragraphs is most natural if the subject of the lead sentence is a subject or an object in the last sentence of the preceding paragraph. In our example above, 'insulin' makes the bridge between the two paragraphs:

- 'The body uses hormones to coordinate the metabolism of its many far-flung cells. A hormone is a chemical that is carried in the bloodstream and that gives a message to cells it contacts. For sugar metabolism, *insulin* is a hormone messenger, and its message is "take up, use, and store glucose."
- '*Insulin* is a protein that is made in beta cells, which are clustered inside the pancreas. When the level of glucose in the blood becomes too high, the beta cells secrete extra insulin molecules into the bloodstream. After a meal, for instance, the pancreas puts a large dose of insulin into the blood.'

From sentence to sentence and from paragraph to paragraph, the flow of your argument should be linear:

$A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C, C \rightarrow \dots$

Linear logic is the easiest for a reader to follow, so build your paper of paragraphs using simple linear logic. In the end, when they are strung together, these paragraphs should present a one-dimensional, step-by-step explanation of your experimental results.

ADVICE TO SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES

Scientific logic is the same in all languages. If you are more comfortable using a language other than English, then write your paper in your own language first. After it is complete, translate it, or have someone else translate it, into English.

To make the final translation clearer, try to follow these suggestions when first writing your manuscript in your native language.

1. Words

- Use simple verbs: write ‘use’ not ‘employ.’
- Turn adjectives into numbers: write ‘2’ not ‘several.’

2. Phrases

- Don’t use similes or metaphors, because they do not always translate properly. For example, write, “the mixture could not be poured” not “the mixture was as thick as glue.”

3. Sentences

- Make each sentence short.
- Put only one idea into each sentence.
- Ignore the sound and the rhythm of the sentence in your native language, and don’t try for smooth, flowing speech. Simple writing is easier to translate accurately than writing that sounds good to your ear.

4. Paragraphs

- Make paragraphs short.
- In each paragraph, arrange the sentences in direct logical order.

5. An English-Speaking Editor

- After your paper has been translated, it is important to have it edited by a person who speaks English comfortably.

WRITING A SCIENTIFIC TEXT

1. BEGIN TO WRITE WHILE YOU EXPERIMENT

When you first sit down to write, you will not have a clean line of reasoning that explains your data. In the beginning, you may still be uncertain as to which are the most useful conclusions that can be argued from your observations. You may not even have identified the parts of your data that are the strongest, the clearest, or the most thoroughly documented. With these or other issues still vague, it would be hard to write your paper linearly, beginning with the first paragraph of your *Introduction* and then adding paragraph after paragraph until you finally finish writing the last sentence of your *Conclusion*.

A great deal of intellectual work must be done before a tightly reasoned research paper can be completed. Rather than do all this mental work before you begin writing, however, you can discover the logic while you write. The process of writing a research paper can be exploratory, and it can even be a part of the research project.

Paper writing is an effective way to do the intellectual part of your research. As you write, you will organize your data, you will formulate explanations, and you will uncover connections between your results and the results of other scientists. Writing is a way to build the logical structure of and the scientific context for your experiments.

2. START BROADLY, WORK ON THE DETAILS LATER

As you are creating the structure of your paper, it is not worthwhile to worry about the polish of your writing. When you begin work on your manuscript, put your polishing tools aside and step back from the details. Instead, look at your

embryonic paper from a distance, as if through the wrong end of a telescope, so that you can see the broad sweep of your research. Then, start your work by blocking out thick chunks of ideas and arranging these chunks in a simple linear order. With a string of blocks of ideas, your next step is to sculpt these rough chunks. As you progress, shape finer and finer details, and find and highlight smaller and smaller interconnections. Meanwhile, be satisfied working with rough, imperfect sentences. Only at the very end, when the manuscript has settled into an organized linear narrative, should you polish the language.

As you take this global-to-local approach, work on one layer at a time, and do the actual work by breaking your writing into separate tasks. During one work session, collect piles of raw material—lists of ideas, notes, and facts. In another session, add logical connections by attaching elements of the lists together into statements. At a later session, introduce an additional level of logical organization by assembling the statements into rough paragraphs. Only the final sessions should be devoted to finding the precise wording that will make your paper readable.

When you begin writing, you will not have a clear vision of your paper, but this should not scare you. Without knowing the final shape of the text, you can dive fearlessly into the writing, because, by using a global-to-local strategy, the logical structure of your paper will emerge on its own.

3. A MAGNIFIED VIEW OF THE WRITING PROCESS

3.1. Use the Skeletal Outlines

Begin writing your paper one section at a time. Each section of a scientific paper has a stereotyped internal structure, a skeletal outline.

The skeleton of the *Introduction* section of a scientific paper is:

A. Background

1. Currently Accepted General Statements

2. Available Supporting Data

B. Gap

C. Your Plan of Attack

An *Introduction* begins by restating a general and well-accepted idea. From this known information, the section then leads readers to the particular unknown area, the scientific gap, that the paper plans to explore. The *Introduction* is a specialized historical essay, so the *Currently Accepted General Statements* subsection, which begins the *Introduction*, typically looks into the past.

3.2. Pile in Ideas

You should take your outline and fill the empty spaces under each heading. List all the related ideas that come to mind. Don't worry about completeness or logic, and don't bother to write sentences. Continue brainstorming and putting down notes for the entire outline of the section that you are writing. Write all the ideas and facts that come into your mind, and don't stop until each heading is followed by at least three words or phrases.

3.3. Collect Information from Outside Resources

Next, go to your references—your books, articles, and notes. If you are working on a part of your manuscript that is built largely from outside information, such as the *Introduction* or the *Discussion*, you will use books, articles, and databases. If you are working on a section built largely from your experiments, such as the *Materials and Methods* or the *Results*, you will be using your research records. Search each reference for relevant information, and add these facts (with a note about their sources) under the appropriate headings of your outline.

3.4. Form Rough Sentences

Now complete the ideas. Take the words or phrases in your lists and replace them with full sentences, adding any information that is necessary to make a precise and informative statement. To write a complete and understandable sentence often requires some careful thinking, and you may need to consult your references again to fill your sentences with accurate details. Continue writing full sentences for the entire outline of the section on which you are working.

3.5. Arrange the Sentences into Themes

You now have a list of complete statements. Your next task is to organize the statements into paragraphs. In your finished paper, each paragraph will make a

single point. The first step toward building focused paragraphs is to collect statements that concern a common subject or theme. Therefore, group related sentences and give each group a *Temporary Theme Label*, a *TTL*.

3.6. Make Your Themed Lists into Rough Paragraphs

Now, take each themed group, and turn it into a rough paragraph. The typical scientific paragraph starts with a summary sentence, and the succeeding sentences expand the summary, step-by-step, so begin building paragraphs by writing the summary sentences.

The *Temporary Theme Label* was a first attempt at grouping your statements according to common topics. As you now review each themed group of statements, look again for the elemental common denominator. Throw away the original *Temporary Theme Label*, and read the group of statements anew, asking, “What is the best summary of this particular set of statements?” Then, write that summary as a simple sentence. This new summary sentence will be the *Lead Sentence (LS)* of your paragraph. Follow the *Lead Sentence* with the remaining sentences in an order that feels logical.

3.7. Put Together One Paragraph for Each Topic

After a rest, pick up your draft again, with the goal of working through the entire outline of the section under construction, topic by topic. Each topic now contains a set of rough paragraphs. Pick a topic and consolidate its paragraphs:

- First, decide which paragraph most directly addresses the main issue, and put this paragraph under the topic’s title.
- Second, among your goals are directness and brevity, therefore if any of the remaining paragraphs deal with issues peripheral to the main point of the paper, toss them out.
- Third, try to merge the remaining paragraphs into the first paragraph. If that is too awkward, try to consolidate all the sentences into no more than two paragraphs, even if, at this stage, those paragraphs are long, cumbersome, or difficult to read.

3.8. Shape a Working Draft

3.8.1. List Simple Sentences

To clean and tighten the large, rough paragraphs, you must build them afresh: it is time to go back to lists. Take each paragraph and list its sentences in order. If a sentence is complex, break it into two or three consecutive simple sentences. Make each sentence spare and declarative, and make them transitive statements of the form: *Jane ate ginger cookies*. Use few and well-chosen adjectives, and try to avoid adverbs.

3.8.2. Remove Nonessentials

A well-written scientific paper is crisp and to-the-point. This is a good time to look critically at your text and to remove extraneous sentences. Check each sentence against the point of the paragraph. Toss out any sentence that:

- Is tangential, with details unnecessary for a clear presentation.
- Has the same basic content as other sentences.
- Contains only non-scientific color or details of human interest.

3.8.3. Arrange Your Ideas in a Natural Sequence

Now, take each pared-down list and reorder the remaining sentences so that every sentence follows logically from the preceding sentence. If one of the sentences introduces a new idea, consider it to be the beginning of a new list and separate it from its predecessor by an empty line.

3.8.4. Reassemble Paragraphs

You will now have one or more lists of sentences, each representing a single idea. Look at each list, and decide whether its main idea is necessary for this particular subsection of the skeletal outline. If the idea is out of place, then find the part of the outline where it belongs, and move it there.

3.9. Smooth Transitions

At long last, you have a draft of a section of your paper. Your draft will be a set of paragraphs organized in the form of the section's stereotyped skeleton. Your last task is to make the draft clean, readable, and logically consistent. Start from the beginning of the section, read the sentences to yourself, and listen with your inner ear. Fix awkward words or phrases. Smooth the transitions between sentences, fill in missing links between ideas, and remove repetitive words and phrases.

3.10. Polishing

3.10.1. Rework the Entire Draft

Pick up the draft of your manuscript, and work through the whole thing, one paragraph at a time.

For each paragraph, ask: • Does it describe a single idea? • Is it self-contained?

• Does it start with a summary statement? • Do the following sentences explain, expand, and develop the initial summary statement? • Are there extraneous comments?

Face each problem, and do your best to fix it.

3.10.2.1. Cut, Trim, and Simplify

In one of your work sessions, look only at the length of the paragraphs. A common problem is putting too many ideas into one, long paragraph. Break up big paragraphs into two or three smaller ones, each of which is short and focused on a single point.

At another session, search for nonessential words and cut them out ruthlessly. For instance, if you find the sentence, “He thoroughly investigated many avenues of staining,” then trim it to be, “He tried many stains.” Adverbs tend to be expendable. “We carefully pipetted,” can be simply “We pipetted,” and “The data largely support the hypothesis,” should be “The data support the hypothesis at a confidence level of ...”.

3.10.2.2. Add Active Verbs

Use a work session to invigorate your verbs. The meaning of a sentence is clearer when its verb is specific and active.

For instance, the sentence: • “*Insulin secretion is controlled by the amount of glucose to which beta cells are exposed.*” is muddy. The verb phrase ‘is controlled’ is intransitive, and this makes us wait until the end of the sentence to discover the actor, i.e., who is doing the controlling. In addition, ‘control’ is a minimally informative verb, and we will learn more if we are told the kind or the mechanism of the control. An active verb tied to a specific mechanism will give a more

informative sentence, such as: • “*High concentrations of glucose stimulate beta cells to secrete insulin.*”

Whenever you find a generic intransitive verb, try to rewrite the sentence with a more specific active verb and with details about the action.

3.10.2.3. Use Precise Adjectives

When you use an adjective, it should be specific and informative, and one of your polishing sessions should be devoted to sharpening your adjectives. First, try to find numbers to replace any adjectives that have a range of specific appearances. For instance, “*Subject A was fat*” should be, “Subject A was tall and weighed 150 kg” or “Subject A had a body mass index (BMI) of 30.0 kg/m².”

When you cannot use numbers, upgrade your adjectives from vague and generic to precise and specific. For instance, words such as ‘good’ or ‘important’ are empty and uninformative. Replace bland adjectives with specifics; for example, instead of writing ‘good’ tell the particular kind of ‘good’ that you have in mind, such as, ‘easily detected with’, ‘high contrast’, ‘non-fading’ or ‘easily-applied’.

3.10.2.4. Make Sentences Flow

Devote a session to the flow of your sentences. Read each paragraph quickly to see how smoothly the sentences move. Flow problems show up as places that snag your attention and distract from the content. If you find yourself stopping or rereading a passage, then you have stumbled over a problem.

Problem: A sentence seems to pop up out of nowhere.

Solutions:

1. Add a more detailed explanatory introduction at the beginning of the sentence.
2. Put the sentence elsewhere in the text, where it will follow logically from the preceding sentence.

Problem: You stop reading to look back at earlier words or sentences.

Solutions:

1. There may be a pronoun (*it, they, he, she, who, which, that*) that refers to more than one preceding noun. In this case, rearrange the sentence so the reference is

clear—for example, change • “*The pencil lay on the table, and it rocked back and forth.*” To • “*The pencil lay on the table and rocked back and forth.*”

2. The connection between two ideas may be missing. In this case, add a connector.

As examples, here are repolished paragraphs from a variety of scientific articles.

• From a report consolidating evidence on the speed of extinction of North American dinosaurs (Fastovsky and Sheehan, 2005)

Original paragraph

“Like the dinosaur extinction, mammalian evolution in the early Tertiary of North America has been evaluated quantitatively. All agree that earliest Tertiary mammals underwent high rates of speciation leading to a steep increase in rates of diversification during the first 5 m.y. of the Tertiary (Fig. 4). Indeed, seventeen of the eighteen orders of extant placental mammals did not exist before the K-T boundary.”

Polished paragraph

As has been done for the rate of dinosaur extinction, the rate of mammalian evolution has been quantified for the early Tertiary period in North America. These quantification studies suggest that mammals had high rates of speciation early in the Tertiary and that this resulted in the steep increase in the rates of mammalian diversification that have been found during the first 5 million years of the Tertiary (Fig. 4). As a result of this diversification, seventeen of the eighteen current orders of placental mammals arose after the K-T boundary.

The Argumentative Essay

Nearly every piece of academic writing is in some way argumentative. You are required not only to paraphrase other people’s ideas but also to use them to argue in favor of your own opinion. Your decisions about which information to include, whom to quote, which methodology to use should depend on what position you support and what your case is.

It is important to note that your writing should be convincing for your readership. It means you need to develop means or strategies to express your opinion and ideas effectively. Therefore studying argumentation assists you to understand and gradually learn and employ these strategies. The process of producing a clear and convincing argument helps a writer to mature as a thinker and a critic because written argumentation facilitates the development of such important mental skills as developing and organizing ideas, evaluating evidence, observing logical consistency and expressing yourself clearly and laconically.

Micro-level Argumentation – Paragraphing

1. Paragraph - is a group of sentences that support and develop a single idea or one aspect of a large and more complex topic. The paragraph performs three functions:

- it introduces a new topic (or aspect of a topic) and develops it
- visually and logically, it distinguishes the present (new) topic from the previous one and from the following one
- as a result of this, it shows a logical relation between the sentences within the paragraph.

2. The Structure of a Paragraph

Like the essay as a whole, a paragraph has a structure, which includes an introductory or a topic sentence, a development of this topic sentence, and a conclusion. a. ***The topic sentence***

Most paragraphs will have a topic sentence. The topic presents the subject of the paragraph; the remainder of the paragraph then supports and develops that statement with carefully related details. Because it introduces the subject that the paragraph is to develop, the topic sentence is typically the first sentence of the paragraph. It is effective in this position because the reader knows immediately what the paragraph is about.

Example: Much has been written about the social problems caused by the transition to democracy in Central Europe.

(In certain situations, however the topic sentence may appear elsewhere. For example in an argumentative essay in the introductory paragraph, the topic sentence is the thesis statement.

b. *Expansion or restatement*

It is very common after the topic sentence for writers to develop further or expand their main idea. This may also involve a more detailed or qualified restatement of the topic sentence.

Example: Indeed, in the long term, it may be that the social problems of transition will in fact prove more difficult to overcome than either political or economic issues.

c. *Limitation*

Another common strategy after the topic sentence is to immediately limit or narrow the paragraph or a precise aspect of this topic which will be discussed.

Example: Amongst these problems, however, some of the most serious are those experienced by women, whether this be in the family or in the workplace.

d. *Illustration*

A frequent feature of good paragraphs is that having made a claim in the topic sentence and elaborated it, the writer then brings examples or evidence to support his or her claim. This can be very helpful in persuading the reader of the validity of the writer's position. In academic writing, this illustration may well take the form of quotation from or reference to research carried out by others.

Example: Research by Hofstetter and Igel (1995), for example, has shown that women in former East Germany experienced considerably higher rates of depression and resorted more often to psychiatric help in coping with social change than their male counterparts.

e. *Analysis*

Of course it is not enough to simply drop an example. Having given an example, the writer must then analyse and demonstrate what the example proves and what can be learnt from it.

Example: While one can not of course dismiss the possibility that these figures are skewed by men's refusal to seek help for fear of appearing "weak", nevertheless, comparable research in Hungary (Randoni 1997) suggests that the areas in which the greatest social change has occurred, notably the conflict between breadwinning and childrearing, are areas where women are more involved than men.

f. Conclusion

Finally, the writer needs to "finish off" the paragraph, usually concluding with a sentence that either reiterates or states modified from the idea presented by the topic sentence. Effective paragraphs rarely finish with an example.

Example: Clearly then, the study of the social effects of transition should not neglect gender as an important factor for consideration.

3. The Features of a Paragraph

Through the component parts that make up a paragraph there are three features that are common to all good paragraphs. These are coherence, cohesion and adequacy of development.

a) Coherence

The entire paragraph should concern itself with a single focus, as expressed in the topic sentence. If it begins with one focus or major points of discussion, it should not end with another or wonder within different ideas. The sentences should lead on from each other logically so that each one answers the question that comes into the reader's mind when they read the sentence before it. If the reader has to go back to read again two or three times to understand what you have written, this is an indication that the paragraph is not coherent and that sentences do not logically flow from one another.

b) Cohesion

In a cohesive paragraph, each sentence relates clearly to the topic sentence and to the sentences on either side of it. Cohesive devices such as transition words (first, for example, however) or reference words (this, the question, she) make clear to the reader both where the paragraph is going and how each sentence relates

to the others. A cohesive paragraph also highlights the ties between old information and new information to make the structure of ideas or arguments clear to the reader. At the beginning of a new paragraph you should check that any previous pronouns (he, she, it) or definite references (this matter, the problem) which refer backwards in the text can be understood within the paragraph and do not require to go back to the previous paragraph.

c) Adequate development

The topic introduced in the topic sentence should be discussed fully and adequately. Academic writing demands a thorough and careful analysis.

4. Writing Process

Refer immediately and clearly to all the main items involved, ones that are your key words.

When referring to previously mentioned items with “this / these / such,” offer more than just the pronoun:

You can often save words by adding data: “This extremely effective model / program.”

Make the text talk about the text itself.

English loves signposts, or connectives, because they tell readers how to receive new information.

Use not only “First ... second ... third . . . ,” but other types of signposts:

“On the other hand” “Considering this from another angle”

“Similar to the last point is”

Edit to avoid series of short—and thus choppy—sentences:

Link some and embed others within their neighbors.

Elegant (linked and embedded)

Short and choppy

Use the shortest sentences for the strongest statements. (“Every mouse died.”)

Cut out every extra word that performs no task.

Avoid repeating facts. Although planned repetition of words helps linkage, you should avoid synonym-use. Make yourself clear by choosing one term.

Do not indulge in overuse of a synonym dictionary (thesaurus). For instance, “*Method / methodology / procedure /system*” must never mean the same thing. *We will assume that they mean four different things.*

Unit 2. Practical assignments

2.1. Effective English writing

1. Read the following essay which explains the characteristics of effective academic writing.

English Academic Writing

Academic writing is writing completed in a college or university setting for an academic audience consisting of professors, instructors, teaching assistants, and students. There are several features of English academic writing which make it of value for nonnative speakers to learn. Failure to master the rules for effective academic writing in this culture will affect the learner's success in a course. Effective English academic writing has three major characteristics. It has convincing content, clear organization, and effective use of the English language.

First, the writing task has convincing content. To begin with, the content is informative and thought-provoking. The purpose of academic writing is to convey knowledge and understanding of a topic in a persuasive, formal, and objective manner. Such writing is not too general. In order to be convincing, academic writers in Western culture are expected to use specific and logical details, examples, facts, statistics, and case studies to support generalizations. Overly general and illogical content is not well received by professors. Second, the support is relevant. That is, the support relates directly to the thesis, which clearly presents the writer's topic, purpose, method, and opinion in an essay; and topic sentences, which do the same thing for each developmental paragraph in an essay. Writers are taught not to digress by telling stories or making "by the way" statements, which are out of tone with the assignment despite attempts to be creative and entertaining. All of the sentences contain well-thought-out ideas and relevant supporting points. Third, although objective, academic writing can be creative in that the writer is able to demonstrate effective critical-thinking skills. The content, that is, has depth of thought. The writer effectively analyzes the information, interprets the facts, makes judgments,

draws conclusions, summarizes, and defends opinions. Shallow writing is indicative of weak critical-thinking skills, and such papers, often described as "sophomoric," receive low marks. Finally, any writing task has a clear purpose, which helps direct the reader, the audience. This is because the writer has clear objectives and strong control of the content. The message is clear, logical, and to the point. Indeed, papers with strong, unified support which demonstrates effective critical-thinking skills are well received by professors.

In addition to being convincing, effective academic writing in Western culture is well organized according to certain patterns and rules which may vary from culture to culture. The general pattern is described as linear because of the direct relationship between generalizations and their supporting points. Academic papers generally have a deductive approach, in which the generalization is stated first and then supported by specific details, examples, and other kinds of support. Sometimes, however, academic writers use an inductive approach, in which the specific support is given before the generalizations. English academic writing is also organized on the rhetorical level. There are several classical patterns used: narration, description, definition, process, classification, comparison, cause/effect, and argumentation. The pattern chosen is the method by which the writer will convey the content. This involves learning the organizational cues for the patterns and ways to order the support with these rhetorical devices. The success of a paper depends on how well the writer handles these organizational principles.

Finally, good English academic writing demonstrates sophisticated use of the English language. First, academic tasks are clearly written at the sentence level. Organization is important not only at the rhetorical level; it is crucial at the sentence level. Disorganized sentences disrupt the flow of thought in a paper and interfere with the meaning of the passage. Frequent agreement errors, misspellings, incorrect punctuation, and other such problems also demonstrate lack of control of English and distract the reader. Second, style is important. Effective English academic writing demonstrates control over a variety of sentence types. In Western culture, complex and compound-complex sentences, which contain dependent clauses, are

preferred in academic papers. Papers containing too many simple sentences and the conjunctions *for*, *and*, *nor*, *but*, *or*, *yet*, and *so* are considered boring and unimaginative. A wide vocabulary range is another characteristic of effective academic writing. Because information is conveyed in content words, weak (basic) vocabulary demonstrates weak thinking. Since effective sentence organization and vocabulary contribute to the content of a paper, writers who have a command of the English language are more convincing than writers who cannot articulate complex ideas.

In conclusion, if the professor's expectations are not met with regard to content, organization, and language, the papers may not be well received. Mastering the fundamentals of English academic writing will enable nonnative speakers to succeed in their academic studies. [777 words]

(Kaplan, Robert B., " Cultural Thought Patterns in Intercultural Education" *Language Learning*, 2006)

2. Use the previous essay to answer the discussion questions.

1. What is the writer's purpose for this essay?
2. What are the three characteristics of English academic writing? Where are they stated?
3. Briefly define the following:

a) thesis statement	b) topic sentence
c) relevant	d) support
e) "by the way" statement	f) linear pattern
g) deductive approach	h) inductive approach
i) classical rhetorical patterns	j) sophomoric

4. Is the essay convincing? Did the writer succeed in persuading you to understand the value of learning about English academic writing?
5. Has reading this essay changed your expectations about English academic writing?
6. What problems might you experience as you are getting used to the English rhetorical system and professors' expectations? Why?

3. Read the definitions of different kinds of written assignments, analyze each case.

An essay is usually written for a teacher and may be written as a follow-up to a class activity. It should be well organized, with an introduction, clear development and an appropriate conclusion. The main purpose of the task is the development of an argument and/or discussion of issues surrounding a certain topic. Candidates will usually be expected to give reasons for their opinions.

A report is usually written for a superior (e.g. a boss or college principal) or a peer group (e.g. club members or colleagues). Candidates will be expected to give some factual information and make suggestions or recommendations. A report should be clearly organized and may include headings. Students need to be taught a report format, with the use of headings where appropriate. They should also work on specific vocabulary areas such as transport, leisure and entertainment, and learn how to make suggestions and recommendations.

A proposal is written for a superior (e.g. a boss or college principal) or a peer group (e.g. club members or colleagues). Candidates will be expected to make one or more suggestions, supported by some factual information, in order to persuade the reader of a course of action. A proposal should be clearly organized and may include headings. Proposals are often structured in a similar way to reports and should be clearly organized under headings.

A review is usually written for an English-language magazine, newspaper or website. The main purpose is to describe and express a personal opinion about something which the writer has experienced (e.g. a film, a holiday, a product, a website, etc.) and to give the reader a clear impression of what the item discussed is like. Description and explanation are key functions for this task, and a review will normally include a recommendation to the reader.

An article is usually written for an English-language magazine or newspaper, and the reader is assumed to have similar interests to the writer. The main purpose is to interest and engage the reader, so there should be some opinion or comment.

A competition entry is written for a judge or panel of judges. Candidates will usually be expected to nominate somebody for something or propose themselves for selection for something (e.g. a grant to study). A competition entry will include some degree of persuasion and give reason(s) why the candidate's choice is best.

An annotated bibliography is a short summary of several sources, usually books or articles. For each source, the writer begins with full publication information. Then the writer summarizes the source. The summary can be as long or as short as the prompt dictates.

4. Starting to write an essay you should know the audience you are writing for. State why it is important.

The Academic Audience

Another feature of effective academic writing is control of audience and tone, or formality. The audience is comprised of the reader(s) the writer is targeting or addressing a message to. In an academic course, the reader will be the professor and often the other students. In addition, there are other academic situations in which the assignment may directly or indirectly state who the audience will be. For example, a master's degree candidate writing comprehensive exams knows that the audience consists of a committee of professors in his or her major. Also, a student applying for a scholarship usually has to write a statement of purpose, which will be read by the committee granting the scholarships. In each of these cases, the writing should be formal (serious and objective) and contain pertinent information the committee needs to know regarding why the candidate deserves to pass the comprehensive exam or get the scholarship. On the other hand, the same students writing letters to friends should choose an informal (intimate and friendly) style to describe their daily routines, personal problems, or travel plans.

As these cases show, addressing the audience with the correct level of formality helps the writers to connect with and persuade (or win) the audience. However, if the writers choose the wrong level of formality and language, they will probably alienate (or lose) their audiences. The committee members will consider the

candidates disrespectful or immature (not academic material) if the language is too informal. In the same way, if the students use formal or technical language in their letters to friends, they may sound arrogant or condescending (superior to others).

5. Use the previous text to answer the following questions.

1. What are different situations when one might need to write an academic paper?
2. What are the characteristics of the formal writing?
3. What are the characteristics of the informal writing?
4. Why is it so important for the writer to analyze the audience?
5. What helps the writer to connect with and to persuade the audience?
6. Do you know any techniques to win the audience immediately?

6. Choose the correct words out of the given list to answer the following question: «When planning a paper addressed to a certain audience what factors are you to consider identifying the audience?». Explain your choice.

the audience's age, hobbies, marital status, sex, social status, level of education, special interests or needs, profession, nationality, knowledge of French, weight, cultural or racial background, family members, feelings and attitudes, relationship to you, occupation.

Levels of Formality

There are different degrees of formality, but these descriptions should help you find the right level for academic writing. Academic writing can be technical, especially when the audience and situation require specialized knowledge. Formal academic writing is usually less technical because the audience and/or level of knowledge may be more general. Personal writing, however, can range from informal to colloquial, depending on the relationship the writer has with the reader and the situation. The closer the relationship between the writer and the audience,

the more relaxed the language is. Therefore, the most informal discourse is colloquial (conversational).

The range of formality

Technical → Formal → Informal → Colloquial

	Technical / Formal (Academic)	Informal / Colloquial (Personal)
Audience	professors	close friends and family
Tone	formal, objective, serious	informal, intimate, friendly
Vocabulary	academic, a wide range, concise, accurate	slang, idioms, contracted forms
Style	complex (subordination), sentence variety	may content frequent simple or compound sentences
Language	few, if any, errors	may content fragments, run-on sentences, misspellings, punctuation errors
Content	depth of thought, unified, tight, succinct	conversational, may be repetitive
Organization	clear, coherent, well planed	may be less structured then formal writing

7. Answer the following questions.

1. What are different levels of formality?
2. Why is formal academic writing less technical?
3. Is personal writing colloquial or formal? Why?
4. Can you give some examples of technical academic writing?
5. Why is it so important to know about different levels of formality?
6. What are the characteristics of formal writing (audience, tone, vocabulary...)?
7. What are the characteristics of informal writing (audience, tone, vocabulary ...)?

8. Determine appropriate levels of formality.

- What level of formality should be used in each of these writing tasks? Is it technical, formal, informal, or colloquial?
- Use the chart "The Range of Formality" to help you decide.

Examples

Your brother writes to you about his experiences as a college freshman. colloquial

You need to write a note for your professor, saying you had stopped by her office and want to make an appointment. formal

1. You need to write a seminar report for colleagues in your major field (other educators, other engineers, other sociologists).
2. Your friend needs to write a letter to his father, who fairly understands and with whom he is fairly close, explaining his poor grades.
3. You need to write a letter to your sponsor, explaining your poor grades and asking for more.
4. It is summer vacation, and you are writing a letter to your American roommate, who has not traveled much, persuading him or her to come to visit you in your country.
6. Your roommate is completing a term paper (a lengthy paper which usually takes several weeks and library research to complete) for a lower-level economics class.
7. You are writing comments on a peer review form for a classmate.
8. Your professor is writing an article on historical linguistics for The TESOL Journal.
9. You are writing about how to build a suspension bridge for an upper-level civil engineering course.

The following chart provides examples of the types of expressions you should and should not use in academic writing.

Colloquial vs. Formal English

In academic writing use formal, not colloquial (spoken) language.

Colloquial English	Formal English
Contractions	Full Forms
don't	do not
gonna	going to
there're	here are
Slang, Idioms	Formal Words
guy	person
kids	children
stuff, junk	personal items, objects
drives me nuts	is upsetting, upsets me
Spoken Transitions	Formal Transitions
anyway, anyhow	moreover, furthermore
Vague Expressions	Specific Expressions
something like that	tell who, what, where, when, why,
(Any expression with thing)	how much, and how many
Basic Vocabulary	Preferred Vocabulary
big	enormous, large, huge, immense
good	effective, suitable, beneficial
so	as a result, consequently
but	however, on the other hand
and	moreover, furthermore, in addition

5. Analyze the use of audience and tone.

Study Robert Kaplan's research on the cultural differences in writing (<https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1966.tb00804.x>) and think how will you teach a composition course for native speakers. Read the following Essay Test Question and the three Essay Test Answers that follow. On a separate sheet of paper, analyze each Essay Test Answer for audience, tone, vocabulary, style, language content, and organization.

Example Audience: *Other American students (we ... us).*

Essay Test Question

As you learned from the Kaplan article, people in different cultures have different approaches to writing. What do nonnative speakers need to know about the format rules in this culture? Write an essay in which you explain to nonnative speakers the rules for academic writing at universities in this culture. Be specific and informative.

Essay Test Answer 1

Professors in this culture have specific format rules. First, they want papers to be neat. This is true in other cultures too. But in our culture, we have to remember little things. Such as put the holes on the left, not the right. We also have to skip lines and leave the margin empty. Because the paper will be easy to read. Moreover, professors here want us to use only the front of the paper, not the back. We aren't supposed to flip the page over wrong. So what should be the top is used as the bottom, this is confusing.

Second, a composition is supposed to be like a picture. The words are the picture and the margin is the frame. We think this is beautiful. But maybe people in other cultures think something else is beautiful. Cultures are different, nobody is right or wrong. Also, if my paper is sloppy, it looks like I did it at the last minute. Professors here expect us to pay attention to details. Not just with format but with spelling, capitalization, and punctuation. For example, one of my professors gave me a C, I had too many mistakes.

Third, we have to type the right way. If a paper is typed wrong, our grade goes down. We have to double-space and leave spaces on the side. We also have to use

font 12, not 15. If we use a computer to write our papers and print them, we have to make sure we tear the pages apart and put them in order. Professors do not like to do that for us. I think if nonnative speakers know these rules, they will do well with format. But they need to have interesting content, too. Because a paper won't get a good grade just because it looks nice.

In conclusion, it won't be hard for nonnative speakers to learn these rules; they are easier than thinking of ideas. [324 words]

Essay Test Answer 2

Cultural differences regarding the presentation of an academic paper may not be significant, but nonnative speakers should be aware of the format rules they will be expected to follow in academic courses.

First, effective academic writing in any culture looks polished and professional. In other words, it is well presented, not sloppy or illegible. Literally, the word "paragraph" means "picture of words." The completed writing assignment is pleasing to the eye and easy to read. Good writers care as much about the paper's appearance as its message. Writing a good paper takes effort, and the "format" of the paper is the wrapping on the gift. The professor will be more willing to appreciate the message if the presentation is pleasing to the eye. Such a paper demonstrates the writer's eye for detail in the completion of the paper, whereas a sloppy paper indicates a slipshod job, perhaps a last-minute attempt. A paper that looks professional will not necessarily get an "A" in a university here, but a carelessly assembled, messy paper will be lucky to get a "D," especially if the content is poor.

Although good academic writers in most cultures have high standards with respect to the presentation of their writing, the format rules they follow may vary in other cultures. To begin with, the use of holes, lines, margins, and the paper space are different from culture to culture. For example, in some cultures, writers prefer the paper holes on the right, not the left. Thus, their front page is the back of the page in this culture. Moreover, writers in other cultures may not like to waste

paper, so they fill all the space on a page, including the margins. Professors here, however, will expect empty margins and double spacing to allow room for comments and aid readability. Also, the pages should be clearly numbered and in order, and the back of the paper should not be used. If the back is used, the writing should not be upside down. The paper, therefore, should not be flipped over from the bottom; the top of the back page should correspond to the top of the front page, not the bottom. Finally, there are other format rules to learn regarding typed papers. Typed papers should be double-spaced in font 12. The margins should be adequate also. Professors expect the pages to be numbered, torn apart if printed, and handed in the correct order.

In conclusion, nonnative speakers need to realize that, regardless of neatness, the format they are used to may be distracting to a professor here. Learning these rules is easier than learning how to compose a paper. [441 words]

Essay Test Answer 3

I'm going to write about the format rules for writing in school. I think good writing looks neat. What I mean is that it is not a piece of junk. My composition teacher said my paragraphs should be pictures. The paper is cool to look at. Easy to read if I do, I guess. I used to write yucky papers. But now I don't. Do you? I hear that format things are different everywhere. People use lines and stuff different all over the world. Weird. I guess people from other countries need to learn the same things as me. If they don't, they might turn their teacher off. Even if they are neat. Writing good papers are a pain. The "format" of the paper is a big deal. For my teachers, they will like my papers better if they look good. I care about the little things. That's what they think. A sloppy paper makes it look like I pulled an all-nighter. That's what I learned in my composition class. I want to write well. So that I don't get an F. Also, I shouldn't beat around the bush. I think that's all. [199

words]

10. Dwell on the following questions.

1. Which Essay Test Answer sounds the most academic in tone? Why?
2. Which one has the most formal and sophisticated vocabulary? Why?
3. Which one has the best control of style and language? Why?
4. Which one has the most effective content and organization? Why?

6. Translate informal language.

- Review Essay Test Answers 2 and 3 (on format rules for academic writing assignments).
- Match the informal phrases based on Essay Test Answer 3 on the left with the formal translations based on Essay Test Answer 2 on the right.

7. Watch the video “Crafting sentences”

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?reload=9&v=Q0QvBk6yDPM> be ready to answer how the teacher taught her first graders to write a complete sentence/ a complete thought.

8. **Writing a paper for a university professor requires a greater level of stylistic polish than writing a letter to your friend.** Write a short organized response to this statement by explaining three or four major reasons. Give arguments to support your discussion. (150-200 words, every other line).

Different types of connection

It is the responsibilities of the writer in English to make it clear to the reader how various parts of the paragraph are connected. These connections can be made

explicit grammatically and lexically by the use of different reference words. Every text has a structure. It is not just a random collection of sentences. The parts that make up the text are related in a meaningful way to each other. In order to make these relationships in the text clear, it is necessary to show how the sentences are related. Words like "it", "this", "that", "here", "there" etc. refer to other parts of the text. You need to understand how to use these connections or links.

There are four main types of links used in academic texts: **reference, ellipsis and substitution, conjunction and cohesion (lexical).**

Reference

Certain items of language in English have the property of reference. That is, they do not have meaning themselves, but they refer to something else for their meaning.

For example. *The scientific study of memory began in the early 1870s when a German philosopher, Hermann Ebbinghaus, came up with the revolutionary idea that memory could be studied experimentally. In doing so he broke away from a 2000-year-old tradition that firmly assigned the study of memory to the philosopher rather than to the scientist. He argued that the philosophers had come up with a wide range of possible interpretations of memory but had produced no way of deciding which amongst these theories offered the best explanation of memory. He aimed to collect objective experimental evidence of the way in which memory worked in the hope that this would allow him to choose between the various theories.*

In this text "he" and "him" refers to "Hermann Ebbinghaus". In order to create such a text, you need to use these words correctly in the text.

For example. These theories all stem from some underlying assumptions about people. To a large extent unproven, they tend to represent the dominant mood or climate of opinion at that time. Schein has classified them as follows, and it is interesting to note that the categories follow each other in a sort of historical procession, starting from the time of the industrial revolution.

Other words used in this way are "him", "it", "this", "that", "these", "those", "here", "there" etc.

Substitution and ellipsis

Substitution is the replacement of one item by another and ellipsis is the omission of the item. If writers wish to avoid repeating a word, they can use substitution or ellipsis.

For example. *The scientific study of memory began in the early 1870s when a German philosopher, Hermann Ebbinghaus, came up with the revolutionary idea that memory could be studied experimentally. In doing so he broke away from a 2000-year-old tradition that firmly assigned the study of memory to the philosopher rather than to the scientist. He argued that the philosophers had come up with a wide range of possible interpretations of memory but had produced no way of deciding which amongst these theories offered the best explanation of memory. He aimed to collect objective experimental evidence of the way in which memory worked in the hope that this would allow him to choose between the various theories.*

The writer has substituted "studying memory experimentally" with "so". Other words that can be used are "one", "ones", "do", "so", "not".

Ellipsis is substitution by zero.

For example. *Some of the water which falls as rain flows on the surface as streams. Another part is evaporated. The remainder sinks into the ground and is known as ground water.*

"Another part" means "Another part of the water" and "The remainder" means "The remainder of the water".

Conjunction

Conjunction shows meaningful relationships between clauses. It shows how what follows is connected to what has gone before.

For example. *The whole Cabinet agreed that there should be a cut in the amount that the unemployed were receiving; where they disagreed was in whether this should include a cut in the standard rate of benefit. The opposition parties, however, were unwilling to accept any programme of economies which did not involve a cut in the standard rate of benefit.*

The word "however" shows that this statement is opposite to the ideas that have come before. Other words used are "for example", "as a consequence of this", "firstly", "furthermore", "in spite of this", etc.

Lexical cohesion

This is a way of achieving a cohesive effect by the use of particular vocabulary items. You can refer to the same idea by using the same or different words.

For example. *Patients who repeatedly take overdoses pose considerable management difficulties. The problem-orientated approach is not usually effective with such patients. When a patient seems to be developing a pattern of chronic repeats, it is recommended that all staff engaged in his or her care meet to reconstruct each attempt in order to determine whether there appears to be a motive common to each act.*

For cohesion to occur, it is not necessary for each word to refer to exactly the same item or even be grammatically equivalent. All the words related to "debt" contribute to the cohesion.

For example. *In each of these cases the basic problem is the same: a will has been made, and in it a debtor is left a legacy of liberation from what he owes the testator. The question is, if he has subsequently borrowed more from the testator, up to what point he has been released from his debts. It is best to begin with the second case. Here there is a straightforward legacy to the debtor of a sum of money and also of the amount of his debt to the testator. This is followed by a clause in which there is a general damnation and also a general trust that the legacies in the will be paid. The debtor goes on to borrow more money, and the*

*question is whether that is taken to be included in the legacy too. The response is that since the words relate to the past, later **debts** are not included.*

Other commonly used are "repetition", "synonyms" and "near synonyms", "collocations", "super/sub-ordinate relationships" (e.g. fruit/apple, animal/cat) etc.

Anaphoric nouns

Another useful way to show the connection between the ideas in a paragraph is what is called anaphoric nouns. Look at the following text:

For example. *Moulds do not usually grow fast, and conditions had to be found in which large quantities of Penicillium notatum could be produced as quickly as they were wanted. The solution to **this problem** was helped by N. G. Heatley, a young biochemist also from Hopkins's laboratory in Cambridge, who had been prevented by the outbreak of war from going to work in the Carlsberg laboratories in Copenhagen.*

The phrase "this problem" summarizes the text in the first sentence and thus provides the connection between the two sentences.

For example. *Genetics deals with how genes are passed on from parents to their offspring. A great deal is known about the mechanisms governing **this process**.*

The phrase "this process" summarizes the first sentence.

The phrase: This/these + noun is very useful in showing the connection between sentences and therefore in making sure that the paragraph flows. Other nouns typically used in this way are: "account, advice, answer, argument, assertion, assumption, claim, comment, conclusion, criticism, description, difficulty, discussion, distinction, emphasis, estimate, example, explanation, fall, finding, idea, improvement, increase, observation, proof, proposal, reference, rejection, report, rise, situation, suggestion, view, warning".

(<http://www.uefap.com/writing/exercise/parag/paragex12.htm>)

Exercises (<http://www.uefap.com/writing/exercise/parag/paragex12.htm>)

9. Identify the references in the following text:

We all tend to complain about our memories. Despite the elegance of the human memory system, it is not infallible, and we have to learn to live with its fallibility. It seems to be socially much more acceptable to complain of a poor memory, and it is somehow much more acceptable to blame a social lapse on 'a terrible memory', than to attribute it to stupidity or insensitivity. But how much do we know about our own memories? Obviously we need to remember our memory lapses in order to know just how bad our memories are. Indeed one of the most amnesic patients I have ever tested was a lady suffering from Korsakoff's syndrome, memory loss following chronic alcoholism. The test involved presenting her with lists of words; after each list she would comment with surprise on her inability to recall the words, saying: «I pride myself on my memory! ». She appeared to have forgotten just how bad her memory was.

14. Identify examples of substitution and ellipsis in the following texts:

1. The human memory system is remarkably efficient, but it is of course extremely fallible. That being so, it makes sense to take full advantage of memory aids to minimize the disruption caused by such lapses. If external aids are used, it is sensible to use them consistently and systematically - always put appointments in your diary, always add wanted items to a shopping list, and so on. If you use internal aids such as mnemonics, you must be prepared to invest a reasonable amount of time in mastering them and practicing them. Mnemonics are like tools and cannot be used until forged. Overall, however, as William James pointed out (the italics are mine):«Of two men with the same outward experiences and the same amount of mere native tenacity, the one who thinks over his experiences most and weaves them into systematic relations with each other will be the one with the best memory».

2. This conflict between tariff reformers and free traders was to lead to the "agreement to differ" convention in January 1932, and the resignation of the Liberals from the government in September 1932; but, until they resigned, the National Government was a genuine coalition in the sense in which that term is used on the continent: a government comprising independent yet conflicting elements allied together, a government within which party conflict was not superseded but rather contained - in short, a power-sharing government, albeit a seriously unbalanced one.

3. The number of different words relating to "camel" is said to be about six thousand. There are terms to refer to riding camels, milk camels and slaughter camels; other terms to indicate the pedigree and geographical origin of the camel; and still others to differentiate camels in different stages of pregnancy and to specify innumerable other characteristics important to a people so dependent upon camels in their daily life.

4. There were, broadly, two interrelated reasons for this, the first relating to Britain's economic and imperial difficulties, the second to the internal dissension in all three parties.

15. Identify examples of conjunction in the text

These two forms of dissent coalesced in the demand for a stronger approach to the Tory nostrum of tariff reform. In addition, trouble threatened from the mercurial figure of Winston Churchill, who had resigned from the Shadow Cabinet in January 1931 in protest at Baldwin's acceptance of eventual self-government for India.

16. Identify examples of lexical cohesion in the following text:

The clamor of complaint about teaching in higher education and, more especially, about teaching methods in universities and technical colleges, serves to

direct attention away from the important reorientation which has recently begun. The complaints, of course, are not unjustified. In dealing piece-meal with problems arising from rapidly developing subject matter, many teachers have allowed courses to become over-crowded, or too specialized, or they have presented students with a number of apparently unrelated courses failing to stress common principles. Many, again, have not developed new teaching methods to deal adequately with larger numbers of students, and the new audio-visual techniques tend to remain in the province of relatively few enthusiasts despite their great potential for class and individual teaching.

Coherence

"To cohere" means "to stick together"; "to be connected naturally or logically, by a common principle; to be consistent"; and "to become or stay united in action; to be in accord." Effective English writing is coherent; that is, the sentences follow each other smoothly and logically. In addition, the relationships between the ideas in the composition are clear to the reader. For example, the reader is able to locate the main ideas and sort out the examples. The time relationships and other forms of chronological order (steps, stages) are also clear. Old ideas link with new ideas, and pronouns are used correctly. Vocabulary, moreover, is well chosen to aid in the development of the content at every level.

(Adapted from <http://www.uefap.com/writing/exercise/parag/paragex12.htm>)

17. Read the information about types of coherence
<http://libguides.lmu.edu/c.php?g=324079&p=2174104>

Answer the following questions.

1. What does the term «to cohere» mean?
2. Can you give your comments on the expression «Effective English writing is coherent»?
3. What are the characteristic features of effective academic writing from the point of view of coherence?

4. What is logical and flow coherence?
5. What is lexical coherence?

18. Writing Activity

Flow and Logical/Lexical Coherence Scrambled Essay (taken from <http://libguides.lmu.edu/c.php?g=324079&p=2174104>)

Unscramble the essay below. First, put the sentences in order within each paragraph. Then put the paragraphs in order. The first paragraph, the introduction, is in correct order. Look for topic sentences and supporting sentences for each paragraph. Pay close attention to key words and phrases that will clue you in to their placement in the essay. In the end, the unscrambled essay should sound logical and coherent. If you get stuck or need assistance, ask your tutor. Feel free to cut and paste the sentences/paragraphs.

Japan and the United States: Different but Alike

The culture of a place is an integral part of its society whether that place is a remote Indian village in Brazil or a highly industrialized city in Western Europe. The culture of Japan fascinates people in the United States because, at first glance, it seems so different. Everything that characterizes the United States—newness, racial heterogeneity, vast territory, informality, and an ethic of individualism—is absent in Japan. There, one finds an ancient and homogenous society, an ethic that emphasizes the importance of groups, and a tradition of formal behavior governing every aspect of daily living, from drinking tea to saying hello. On the surface at least, U.S. and Japanese societies seem totally opposite.

Also, while the normal Japanese workweek is six days, many people in the United States who want to get ahead voluntarily work on Saturday and/or Sunday in addition to their normal five-day workweek.

A final similarity is that both Japanese and people in the United States have always emphasized the importance of work, and both are paying penalties for their commitment to it: increasing stress and weakening family bonds.

People in the United States, especially those in business and in the professions, regularly put in twelve or more hours a day at their jobs, just as many Japanese executives do.

In addition, both Japan and the United States are consumer societies.

Vending machines selling everything from fresh flowers to hot coffee are as popular in Japan as they are in the United States, and fast-food noodle shops are as common in Japan as McDonald's restaurants in the United States.

To U.S. eyes, they seem just like Macy's and Neiman Marcus at home. Both societies have developed the art of business and commerce, of buying and selling, of advertising and mass producing, to the highest levels.

Few sights are more reassuring to people from the United States than the tens of thousands of busy stores in Japan, especially the beautiful, well-stocked department stores.

The people of both countries love to shop and are enthusiastic consumers of convenience products and fast foods.

It will be interesting to see where this reciprocal fascination leads in the future.

Furthermore, their differences probably contribute as much as their similarities toward the mutual interest the two countries have in each other.

Japan and the United States: different, yet alike.

Although the two societies differ in many areas such as racial heterogeneity versus racial homogeneity, individualism versus group cooperation, and informal versus formal forms of behavior, they share more than one common experience.

In addition, while North Americans' sense of size and scale developed out of the vastness of the continent, Japanese genius lies in the diminutive and miniature.

Other areas of difference between Japan and the United States involve issues of group interaction and sense of space.

People in the United States admire and reward a person who rises above the crowd; in contrast, a Japanese proverb says, "The nail that sticks up gets hammered down."

Whereas people in the United States pride themselves on individualism and informality, Japanese value groups and formality.

For example, the United States builds airplanes, while Japan produces transistors.

All areas of government and society are controlled by the Japanese majority. One obvious difference is the people.

In contrast, although the United States is a country with originally European roots, its liberal immigration policies have resulted in its becoming a heterogeneous society of many ethnicities—Europeans, Africans, Asians, and Latinos.

Japan is a homogenous society of one nationality and a few under-represented minority groups, such as the ethnic Chinese and Koreans.

All are represented in all areas of U.S. society, including business, education, and politics.

In spite of these differences, these two apparently opposite cultures share several important experiences.

Source:

Oshima, Alice and Ann Hogue. *Writing Academic English*. 4th ed. White Plains, NY: Longman, 2006. Print.

Academic writing consists of writers borrowing and integrating the ideas and research of other sources to clarify and support their own ideas. Writers integrate these sources into academic papers via the techniques of summary, paraphrase, and direct quotation, utilizing APA citation (author-publication year) to identify the source. In addition to APA citation, however, writers must also employ signal phrases to make clear distinctions between their voice and ideas and the voices and ideas of others borrowed for support. When signal phrases are carefully chosen and effectively employed, the audience will clearly know when a source is speaking and when the writer is speaking. Signal phrases make the distinction between writer and source clear for the audience. Signal phrases utilize APA citation along with past tense verbs.

Here are some examples of common signal phrases used in summary and paraphrase: *As Smith (2004) noted, Jones (2001) concluded, According to Stevens (2002), McHugh (2003) contrasted this idea, Moreover, Smith (2004) added, Elliot and Pruett (2008) argued...*

It is the responsibilities of the writer in English to make it clear to the reader how various parts of the paragraph are connected. These connections can be made explicit by the use of different signaling words. For example, if you want to tell your reader that your line of argument is going to change, make it clear.

For example. The Bristol 167 was to be Britain's great new advance on American types such as the Lockheed Constellation and Douglas DC-6, which did not have the range to fly the Atlantic non-stop. It was also to be the largest aircraft ever built in Britain. However, even by the end of the war, the design had run into serious difficulties.

Writers should try to vary the choice of signal phrase verbs to maintain variety and reader interest, but writers should also choose the verb that appropriately characterizes the context of the idea being borrowed. For example, if a source was clearly disputing an idea or claim, then *disputed* would be the appropriate verb choice. Here is a list of common signal phrase verbs writers may use:

Acknowledged

Believed

Declared

Granted

Observed

Reported

Added

Claimed

Denied

Addressed

Disputed

Reasoned

Argued

Emphasized

Refuted

Asserted

Endorsed

Rejected

Offered

Illustrated

Responded

Admitted

Commented

Disclosed

Implied

Pointed out

Suggested

Compared

Insisted

Testified

Confirmed

Negated

Thought

Contended

Noted

Wrote

(<http://www.capella.edu/interactivemedia/onlineWritingCenter/downloads/handoutSignalPhrases2009.pdf>)

Signaling Words

Time/order at first, eventually, finally, first, firstly, in the end, in the first place, lastly, later, next, second, secondly, to begin with	Contrast/opposite ideas but, despite, in spite of, even so, however, in contrast, in spite of this, nevertheless, on the contrary, on the other hand, still, whereas, yet
Comparison/similar ideas In comparison, in the same way, similarly	Condition in that case, then
Cause and effect accordingly, as a result, because, consequently, for this reason, hence, in consequence, in order to, owing to this, since, so, therefore, thus	Addition apart from this, as well as, besides, furthermore, in addition, moreover, nor, not only...but also, too, what is more
Generalization as a rule, for the most part, generally, in general, normally, on the whole, in most cases, usually	Examples for example, for instance, such as, thus, as follows
Stating the obvious after all, as one might expect, clearly, it goes without saying, naturally, obviously, of course	Attitude admittedly, certainly, fortunately, luckily, oddly enough, undoubtedly, unfortunately
Summary/conclusion finally, in brief, in conclusion, in short, overall, so, then, to conclude, to sum up	Explanation/equivalence in other words, namely, that is to say, this means, to be more precise, to put it another way
Condition in that case, then	Support actually, as a matter of fact, in fact, indeed
Contradiction actually, as a matter of fact, in fact	Emphasis chiefly, especially, in detail, in particular,

Exercises

19. Identify the signaling words in the following paragraph.

Because language plays such an important role in teaching, Bellack and his colleagues chose to examine in some detail the "language game" in the classroom. They contended that "teaching is similar to most games in at least two respects. It is a form of social activity in which the players (teachers and students) fill different

but complementary roles. Furthermore, teaching is governed by certain ground rules that guide the actions or moves made by the participants". By studying the language game, then, Bellack intended to identify the various types of verbal moves made by teachers and students and the rules they followed in making these moves. As a result, they could investigate the functions these verbal moves served and examine the meanings that were being communicated.

(Lorin Anderson & Robert Burns (1989) *Research in classrooms*, p. 278)

20. In the following article on Nuclear Hazards the signaling words and phrases are missing. Replace them and check your answers.

There are three separate sources of hazard related to the use of nuclear reactions to supply us with energy. _____, the radioactive material must travel from its place of manufacture to the power station. _____ the power stations themselves are solidly built, the containers used for the transport of the material are not. _____, there are normally only two methods of transport available, _____ road or rail, and both of these involve close contact with the general public, _____ the routes are bound to pass near, or even through, heavily populated areas. _____, there is the problem of waste. All nuclear power stations produce wastes which in most cases will remain radioactive for thousands of years. It is impossible to de-activate these wastes, and _____ they must be stored in one of the ingenious but cumbersome ways that scientists have invented. _____ they may be buried under the ground, dropped into disused mineshafts, or sunk in the sea. _____ these methods do not solve the problem; they merely store it, _____ an earthquake could crack open the containers like nuts. _____ there is the problem of accidental exposure due to a leak or an explosion at the power station. As with the other two hazards, this is extremely unlikely and _____ does not provide a serious objection to the nuclear programme, _____ it can happen, as the inhabitants of Harrisburg will tell you. Separately, and during short periods, these three types of risk are no

great cause for concern. Taken together, _____, and especially over much longer periods, the probability of a disaster is extremely high.

(<http://www.uefap.com/writing/exercise/parag/paragex12.htm>)

21. Look at the signaling words below. Sort them out in nine groups:

consequently, undoubtedly, but, fortunately, in most cases, in other words, not only...but also, on the other hand, actually, because of this, in addition, in fact, more importantly, although, in consequence, thus, in detail, notably, particularly, nevertheless, finally, certainly, accordingly, what is more, on the whole, in particular, for example, yet, also, usually, oddly enough, for this reason, owing to this, in conclusion, moreover, normally, as a matter of fact, therefore, so, in contrast, mainly, moreover, in spite of, mainly, too, unfortunately, in addition, furthermore, especially, indeed, hence, accordingly, thus, generally

1. *to signal a change in ideas:* in contrast,
2. *to signal a reinforcement of ideas:* moreover,
3. *to signal a conclusion:* thus,
4. *to signal attitude:* fortunately,
5. *to signal addition:* what is more,
6. *to signal emphasis:* mainly,
7. *to signal support:* in fact,
8. *to signal cause and effect:* accordingly,
9. *to signal generalization:* as a rule,

22. Read the information about MLA style

(<https://www.iup.edu/writingcenter/writing-resources/research-and-documentation/mla-style/>)

and be ready to answer the questions

1. How and when to cite using MLA documentation?
2. What are the MLA's in-text citations?
3. What are the peculiarities of citing online material?

Citation in MLA Style

(<https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/747/01/>)

MLA or Modern Language Association style which is most commonly used to write papers and cite sources within liberal arts and humanities.

Creating a Works Cited list using the eighth edition

MLA has turned to a style of documentation that is based on a general method that may be applied to every possible source, to many different types of writing. But since texts have become increasingly mobile, and the same document may be found in several different sources, following a set of fixed rules is no longer sufficient.

The current system is based on a few principles, rather than an extensive list of specific rules. While the handbook still gives examples of how to cite sources, it is organized according to the process of documentation, rather than by the sources themselves. This process teaches writers a flexible method that is universally applicable. Once you are familiar with the method, you can use it to document any type of source, for any type of paper, in any field.

Here is an overview of the process: When deciding how to cite your source, start by consulting the list of core elements. These are the general pieces of information that MLA suggests including in each Works Cited entry. In your citation, the elements should be listed in the following order:

- Author.
- Title of source.
- Title of container,
- Other contributors,
- Version,
- Number,
- Publisher,
- Publication date,
- Location.

Each element should be followed by the punctuation mark shown here. Earlier editions of the handbook included the place of publication, and required punctuation such as journal editions in parentheses, and colons after issue numbers. In the current version, punctuation is simpler (just commas and periods separate the elements), and information about the source is kept to the basics.

Let us consider all the elements in citation.

Author

Begin the entry with the author's last name, followed by a comma and the rest of the name, as presented in the work. End this element with a period.

Said, Edward W. *Culture and Imperialism*. Knopf, 1994.

Title of source

The title of the source should follow the author's name. Depending upon the type of source, it should be listed in italics or quotation marks.

A book should be in italics:

Henley, Patricia. *The Hummingbird House*. MacMurray, 1999.

A website should be in italics:

Lundman, Susan. "How to Make Vegetarian Chili." *eHow*, www.ehow.com/how_10727_make-vegetarian-chili.html.*

A periodical (journal, magazine, newspaper) article should be in quotation marks:

Bagchi, Alaknanda. "Conflicting Nationalisms: The Voice of the Subaltern in Mahasweta Devi's Bashai Tudu." *Tulsa Studies in Women's Literature*, vol. 15, no. 1, 1996, pp. 41-50.

A song or piece of music on an album should be in quotation marks:

Beyoncé. "Pray You Catch Me." *Lemonade*, Parkwood Entertainment, 2016, www.beyonce.com/album/lemonade-visual-album/.

Title of container

Unlike earlier versions, the eighth edition refers to containers, which are the larger wholes in which the source is located. For example, if you want to cite a poem that is listed in a collection of poems, the individual poem is the source,

while the larger collection is the container. The title of the container is usually italicized and followed by a comma, since the information that follows next describes the container.

Kincaid, Jamaica. "Girl." *The Vintage Book of Contemporary American Short Stories*, edited by Tobias Wolff, Vintage, 1994, pp. 306-07.

The container may also be a television series, which is made up of episodes.

"94 Meetings." *Parks and Recreation*, created by Greg Daniels and Michael Schur, performance by Amy Poehler, season 2, episode 21, Deedle-Dee Productions and Universal Media Studios, 2010.

The container may also be a website, which contains articles, postings, and other works.

Zinkievich, Craig. Interview by Gareth Von Kallenbach. *Skewed & Reviewed*, 27 Apr. 2009, www.arcgames.com/en/games/star-trek-online/news/detail/1056940-skewed-%2526-reviewed-interviews-craig. Accessed 15 Mar. 2009.

In some cases, a container might be within a larger container. You might have read a book of short stories on *Google Books*, or watched a television series on *Netflix*. You might have found the electronic version of a journal on JSTOR. It is important to cite these containers within containers so that your readers can find the exact source that you used.

"94 Meetings." *Parks and Recreation*, season 2, episode 21, NBC, 29 Apr. 2010. *Netflix*, www.netflix.com/watch/70152031?trackId=200256157&tctx=0%2C20%2C0974d361-27cd-44de-9c2a-2d9d868b9f64-12120962.

Langhamer, Claire. "Love and Courtship in Mid-Twentieth-Century England." *Historical Journal*, vol. 50, no. 1, 2007, pp. 173-96. *ProQuest*, doi:10.1017/S0018246X06005966. Accessed 27 May 2009.

Other contributors

In addition to the author, there may be other contributors to the source who should be credited, such as editors, illustrators, translators, etc. If their

contributions are relevant to your research, or necessary to identify the source, include their names in your documentation.

Note: In the eighth edition, terms like editor, illustrator, translator, etc., are no longer abbreviated.

Foucault, Michel. *Madness and Civilization: A History of Insanity in the Age of Reason*. Translated by Richard Howard, Vintage-Random House, 1988.

Woolf, Virginia. *Jacob's Room*. Annotated and with an introduction by Vara Neverow, Harcourt, Inc., 2008.

Version

If a source is listed as an edition or version of a work, include it in your citation.

The Bible. Authorized King James Version, Oxford UP, 1998.

Crowley, Sharon, and Debra Hawhee. *Ancient Rhetorics for Contemporary Students*. 3rd ed., Pearson, 2004.

Number

If a source is part of a numbered sequence, such as a multi-volume book, or journal with both volume and issue numbers, those numbers must be listed in your citation.

Dolby, Nadine. "Research in Youth Culture and Policy: Current Conditions and Future Directions." *Social Work and Society: The International Online-Only Journal*, vol. 6, no. 2, 2008, www.socwork.net/sws/article/view/60/362. Accessed 20 May 2009.

"94 Meetings." *Parks and Recreation*, created by Greg Daniels and Michael Schur, performance by Amy Poehler, season 2, episode 21, Deedle-Dee Productions and Universal Media Studios, 2010.

Quintilian. *Institutio Oratoria*. Translated by H. E. Butler, vol. 2, Loeb-Harvard UP, 1980.

Publisher

The publisher produces or distributes the source to the public. If there is more than one publisher, and they are all relevant to your research, list them in your citation, separated by a forward slash (/).

Klee, Paul. *Twittering Machine*. 1922. Museum of Modern Art, New York. *The Artchive*, www.artchive.com/artchive/K/klee/twittering_machine.jpg.html. Accessed May 2006.

Women's Health: Problems of the Digestive System. American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists, 2006.

Daniels, Greg and Michael Schur, creators. *Parks and Recreation*. Deedle-Dee Productions and Universal Media Studios, 2015.

Note: the publisher's name need not be included in the following sources: periodicals, works published by their author or editor, a website whose title is the same name as its publisher, a website that makes works available but does not actually publish them (such as *YouTube*, *WordPress*, or *JSTOR*).

Publication date

The same source may have been published on more than one date, such as an online version of an original source. For example, a television series might have aired on a broadcast network on one date, but released on *Netflix* on a different date. When the source has more than one date, it is sufficient to use the date that is most relevant to your use of it. If you're unsure about which date to use, go with the date of the source's original publication.

In the following example, Mutant Enemy is the primary production company, and "Hush" was released in 1999. This is the way to create a general citation for a television episode.

"Hush." *Buffy the Vampire Slayer*, created by Joss Whedon, performance by Sarah Michelle Gellar, season 4, Mutant Enemy, 1999.

However, if you are discussing, for example, the historical context in which the episode originally aired, you should cite the full date. Because you are specifying the date of airing, you would then use WB Television Network (rather

than Mutant Enemy), because it was the network (rather than the production company) that aired the episode on the date you're citing.

"Hush." *Buffy the Vampire Slayer*, created by Joss Whedon, performance by Sarah Michelle Gellar, season 4, episode 10, WB Television Network, 14 Dec. 1999.

Location

You should be as specific as possible in identifying a work's location. An essay in a book, or an article in journal should include page numbers.

Adiche, Chimamanda Ngozi. "On Monday of Last Week." *The Thing around Your Neck*, Alfred A. Knopf, 2009, pp. 74-94.

The location of an online work should include a URL.

Wheelis, Mark. "Investigating Disease Outbreaks Under a Protocol to the Biological and Toxin Weapons Convention." *Emerging Infectious Diseases*, vol. 6, no. 6, 2000, pp. 595-600, wwwnc.cdc.gov/eid/article/6/6/00-0607_article. Accessed 8 Feb. 2009.

A physical object that you experienced firsthand should identify the place of location.

Matisse, Henri. *The Swimming Pool*. 1952, Museum of Modern Art, New York.

Optional elements

The eighth edition is designed to be as streamlined as possible. The author should include any information that helps readers easily identify the source, without including unnecessary information that may be distracting. The following is a list of select optional elements that should be part of a documented source at the writer's discretion.

Date of original publication:

If a source has been published on more than one date, the writer may want to include both dates if it will provide the reader with necessary or helpful information.

Erdrich, Louise. *Love Medicine*. 1984. Perennial-Harper, 1993.

City of publication:

The seventh edition handbook required the city in which a publisher is located, but the eighth edition states that this is only necessary in particular instances, such as in a work published before 1900. Since pre-1900 works were usually associated with the city in which they were published, your documentation may substitute the city name for the publisher's name.

Thoreau, Henry David. *Excursions*. Boston, 1863.

Date of access:

When you cite an online source, the *MLA Handbook* recommends including a date of access on which you accessed the material, since an online work may change or move at any time.

Bernstein, Mark. "10 Tips on Writing the Living Web." *A List Apart: For People Who Make Websites*, 16 Aug. 2002, alistapart.com/article/writeliving. Accessed 4 May 2009.

URLs:

As mentioned above, while the eighth edition recommends including URLs when you cite online sources, you should always check with your instructor or editor and include URLs at their discretion.

DOIs:

A DOI, or digital object identifier, is a series of digits and letters that leads to the location of an online source. Articles in journals are often assigned DOIs to ensure that the source is locatable, even if the URL changes. If your source is listed with a DOI, use that instead of a URL.

Alonso, Alvaro, and Julio A. Camargo. "Toxicity of Nitrite to Three Species of Freshwater Invertebrates." *Environmental Toxicology*, vol. 21, no. 1, 3 Feb. 2006, pp. 90-94. *Wiley Online Library*, doi: 10.1002/tox.20155.

Creating in-text citations

The in-text citation is a brief reference within your text that indicates the source you consulted. It should properly attribute any ideas, paraphrases, or direct quotations to your source, and should direct readers to the entry in the list of works

cited. For the most part, an in-text citation is the author's name and page number (or just the page number, if the author is named in the sentence) in parentheses:

Imperialism is "the practice, the theory, and the attitudes of a dominating metropolitan center ruling a distant territory" (Said 9).

or

According to Edward W. Said, imperialism is defined by "the practice, the theory, and the attitudes of a dominating metropolitan center ruling a distant territory" (9).

Work Cited

Said, Edward W. *Culture and Imperialism*. Knopf, 1994.

When creating in-text citations for media that has a runtime, such as a movie or podcast, include the range of hours, minutes and seconds you plan to reference, like so (00:02:15-00:02:35).

Again, your goal is to attribute your source and provide your reader with a reference without interrupting your text. Your readers should be able to follow the flow of your argument without becoming distracted by extra information.

Exercises

23. Look at the sentences below, each of which contains an incorrectly formatted in-text citation (designed by Jennifer Janecek). Specify the error made in each sentence; then, write a new sentence in which the in-text citation is correctly formatted.

1. The parlor metaphor of writing describes writing as entering into a conversation, as in arriving late and a parlor and talking to guests who have been there long before you have (7).
2. In "Argument as Emergence, Rhetoric as Love," Jim Corder explains that "Everyone is an argument." (1)
3. David Sedaris's *Me Talk Pretty One Day* takes place at a school in Paris (Sedaris 1).

4. The opening lines of the novel are "Lolita, light of my life, fire of my loins" (Nabokov, 1).
5. The opening lines of the novel are "Lolita, light of my life, fire of my loins" (Lolita 1).

24. Make corrections to the in-text citation. If the citation is correct, write "correct" underneath the direct or indirect quote. For exercises 5-10, write the given quote into a sentence using a signal phrase. You may write signal phrases for direct or indirect quotations that include all or part of the information provided in the quoted material. For all 10 exercises, the source information is provided, but make up the page number for the quote from within the page range given. (<http://www.write.com/writing-guides/style-guide-writing/mla/how-to-use-in-text-citations-in-mla-format/how-to-use-in-text-citations-in-mla-format-worksheet/>)

Source from Sample Works Cited for exercises 1-5:

Ivancevich, John M.; Matteson, Michael T.; Freedman, Sara M.; Phillips, James S. "Worksite Stress Management Interventions." *American Psychologist* Vol 45.2 (1990): 252-261. Print.

1. "Despite the general agreement that stress plays a role in everyday life, there continues to be substantial controversy about how stress can be managed at the worksite" (Ivancevich et el 252).
2. According to Ivancevich and other researchers, "during the last decade, our knowledge of stress management interventions has increased substantially" (vol 45, pg 252).
3. "Despite the general agreement that stress plays a role in everyday life, there continues to be substantial controversy about how stress can be managed at the worksite. ... and deficiencies in the literature exist" (Ivancevich, Matteson, Freedman, and Phillips, 252-261).
4. Ivancevich et el determined through research that the best way to approach stress management in the workplace varies across the board even though it is

generally agreed upon that the stress itself is a problem. Current research provides some insight, but it does not lay the subject to rest (252).

5. The research indicates that “knowledge of stress management interventions has increased substantially” over the last 10 years (Ivancevich, 252).

25. Include a parenthetical in-text citations at the end of each quote, paraphrase, or summarized passage below.

1. Provide a parenthetical citation at the end of the quoted material below from page 6 in this anonymous source: “The Impact of Global Warming in North America.” GLOBAL WARMING: Early Signs. 1999. Web. 23 Mar. 2009.

We see so many global warming hotspots in North America likely because this region has “more readily accessible climatic data and more comprehensive programs to monitor and study environmental change.”

2. Provide the first author's last name (that's listed first in this source) followed by et al. or list all the last names in a parenthetical citation at the end of the quoted material below from page 25 in the following source: Stein, Norman, Mindy Lubber, Stuart L. Koman, and Kathy Kelly. Family Therapy: A Systems Approach. Boston: Allyn, 1990. Print.

“Help your step children find their own identity in their own space. You can do this by allowing them to decorate their space the way they want. Even better, you can make it a project for the both of you.”

3. Provide a parenthetical citation for a source with one author from page 3 in the following source: Burke, Kenneth. Language as Symbolic Action: Essays on Life, Literature, and Method. Berkeley: U of California P, 1966. Print.

A. Human beings have been described by Kenneth Burke as "symbol-using animals."

B. Human beings have been described as "symbol-using animals."

26. Apply the MLA format for the “Works Cited” page for the following sources.

1. For the following online source, you will need to list it in the correct order for the MLA format.

Author: Wolfgang Jung and Nathan Nelson

Page Range: 642-44

Essay/Article Title; “Nature’s Rotary Electromotors”

Title of Website, Project, or Online Book: Science Online

Journal Title: Science

Medium of Publication: Web

Date of Publication: April 29, 2005

Date Accessed: March 5, 2009

2. For the following book by one author, you will need to list it in the correct order for the MLA format.

Author: Patricia Henley

Publisher: MacMurray

Book Title: The Hummingbird House

Date of Publication: 1999

City of Publication: Denver

Medium of Publication: Print

27. Insert double and single quotations marks when needed.

1. In *Araby* by James Joyce, the boy reveals his epiphany at the end: *I saw myself as a creature driven and derided by vanity; and my eyes burned with anguish and anger* (5).

2. According to Sammy in *A & P* by John Updike, “*That’s all right,*” Lengel said. “*But this isn’t the beach*” when Queenie tells him that she only came to pick-up a jar of herring snack for her mother (37).

3. Edwin Arlington Robinson demonstrates irony when he writes, *And Richard Cory, one calm summer night, / Went home and put a bullet in his head* (15-16).

In summarizing texts, you will want to gather the main points by condensing the information to $\frac{1}{4}$ the original text.

Consider the following steps to help you:

- Skim the text to get a general idea of the topic
- Delete unnecessary or redundant material
- Find the main ideas (Who, What, Where, When, Why, How?) in the text
Find or create a topic sentence (for each paragraph or section).
- Substitute general or "umbrella" terms when appropriate (for example, trees instead of oak, maple, and pine).

Abraham Lincoln wrote this letter to *Mrs. Bixby* during the Civil War, and it was featured in the World War II movie *Saving Private Ryan*.

November 21, 1864

Dear Madam,

I have been shown in the files of the War Department a statement of the Adjutant General of Massachusetts that you are the mother of five sons who have died gloriously on the field of battle.

I feel how weak and fruitless must be any word of mine which should attempt to beguile you from the grief of a loss so overwhelming. But I cannot refrain from tendering you the consolation that may be found in the thanks of the Republic they died to save.

I pray that our Heavenly Father may assuage the anguish of your bereavement, and leave you only the cherished memory of the loved and lost, and the solemn pride that must be yours to have laid so costly a sacrifice upon the altar of freedom.

Yours, very sincerely and respectfully,

Abraham Lincoln

28. Read the letter and underline key words while omitting unnecessary details. Use a dictionary if you do not understand a term.

29. In your own words, write one sentence for each stanza that gathers a main point being presented on the what, who, where, when, why and how of this poem?

Paragraph 1: _____

Paragraph 2: _____

Paragraph 3: _____

30. In one or two sentences, summarize this poem in your own words by reviewing your main points above.

31. Write a paraphrase of each of the following passages. Try not to look back at the original passage and remember to cite the source in the MLA format for each one.

1. "The Antarctic is the vast source of cold on our planet, just as the sun is the source of our heat, and it exerts tremendous control on our climate," [Jacques] Cousteau told the camera. "The cold ocean water around Antarctica flows north to mix with warmer water from the tropics, and its upwellings help to cool both the surface water and our atmosphere. Yet the fragility of this regulating system is now threatened by human activity." From "Captain Cousteau," Audubon (May 1990):17.

2. "The twenties were the years when drinking was against the law, and the law was a bad joke because everyone knew of a local bar where liquor could be had. They were the years when organized crime ruled the cities, and the police seemed powerless to do anything against it. Classical music was forgotten while jazz spread throughout the land, and men like Bix Beiderbecke, Louis Armstrong, and Count Basie became the heroes of the young. The flapper was born in the twenties, and with her bobbed hair and short skirts, she symbolized, perhaps more than anyone or anything else, America's break with the past." From Kathleen Yancey, *English 102 Supplemental Guide* (1989): 25.

3. "Of the more than 1000 bicycling deaths each year, three-fourths are caused by head injuries. Half of those killed are school-age children. One study concluded that wearing a bike helmet can reduce the risk of head injury by 85 percent. In an accident, a bike helmet absorbs the shock and cushions the head." From "Bike Helmets: Unused Lifesavers," *Consumer Reports* (May 1990): 348.

(https://featuredartistnetwork.com/uploads/CSN_ENG_102_MLA_FORMA_T_EXERCISES.pdf)

2.2. Thinking Critically while Writing

Thinking critically is the ability to interpret, analyse and evaluate ideas and arguments. Reflective thinking as opposed to unreflective thinking when one jumps to conclusions and makes snap decisions.

Critical thinking requires the interpretation and evaluation of observations, communications and other sources of information.

Critical thinking is essentially an active process. Information and ideas are not just received, they are processed, analysed and carefully evaluated by looking for reasons and evidence that substantiate the information.

Central feature of critical thinking is arguments and how to analyse and evaluate them.

You are required to produce an **argument** in almost every form of assessment at university.

The concept of arguments in ordinary life are associated with unpleasant exchanges. In critical thinking, the word "argument", goes much further than a disagreement, there must be an attempt to persuade and convince the reader of your position.

It can be difficult to write an argument because the concept in university work is unfamiliar. (Turner, Ireland, Krenus, & Pointon, 2008).

The argument is taken for granted in university assessment tasks. Even if the question does not explicitly indicate the need for one, it is implied that an argument must be presented (Turner et al, 2008).

Words and phrasing (verbs/operative words) such as “discuss”, “analyse”, “evaluate the claim”, “critically evaluate”, “to what extent” are all alerts to the need for an argument. Arguments must have reasons, and are meant to be persuasive and convincing (Brink-Budgen, 2000).

Here are two main types of arguments in academic essays: basic and complex.

A **basic argument** consists of a position statement, linked to a series of supporting points. For example:

“The Lord of the Rings is a great film because the story is riveting, the characters are brilliant and the settings spectacular” (Turner et al, 2008, p. 90).

A **complex argument** both supports a position statement and rejects or modifies an opposing one. In other words a complex argument consists of a combination of the basic argument structures: position statement, supporting points and opposing points of view. For example:

“Some people do not like The Lord of the Rings (*opposing point of view*), as it is very long (*supporting point for the opposing point of view*). However, despite its length, it is a great film (*author's position*) because the story is riveting, the

characters are brilliant and the settings spectacular (*supporting points for author's position*)" (Turner et al, 2008, p. 90).

32. What do you know about descriptive and critical writing? Is there any difference? Comment on the following table.

Descriptive Writing

1. States what happened
2. States what something is like
3. Explains what a theory tells
4. Explains how something works
5. State different components
6. Note the method used
7. State options

Critical Analytical Writing

1. Identifies the significance
2. Evaluates weakness and strength
3. Shows why something is relevant
4. Indicates why something will work best
5. Weighs the importance of components
6. Identify whether method is appropriate
7. Give reason for selection each option

Both descriptive and analytical writing have their place. descriptive writing: give background information and analytical writing: show critical thinking skills.

Skilled writers: weave small amounts of descriptive writing into critical writing. (Cottrell, 2008).

33. Read texts A and B. Identify whether they are examples of descriptive or analytical writing. Give reasons.

Text A: Scientists do not agree about the extent to which creativity can be linked to activity in the right hemisphere of the brain. It is known that the biochemistry of the two hemispheres of the brain is different.

For example, there is more of the neurotransmitter, norepinephrine, in the right hemisphere than the left (Oke *et al.*, 1978). Norepinephrine is associated with increased alertness to visual stimuli. It has been suggested by Springer and Deutsch (1981) that this may lead to increased right-hemisphere specialization for visual and spatial perception.

However, this link is not yet proven. It is not yet clear whether one hemisphere of the brain can be responsible for any creative task. Moreover,

although it might seem reasonable to assume that responsiveness to visual stimulus may be an important factor of creativity, this has also not yet been proved.

Text B: In the west, all life forms are divided into one of two categories: plant or animal. Animals move and take in food. Plants are rooted into the earth in some way and lack locomotion. They photosynthesise their food. Zoologist study animals, and botanists study plants. Bacteria were classified as plants because many kinds of bacteria photosynthesis their food.

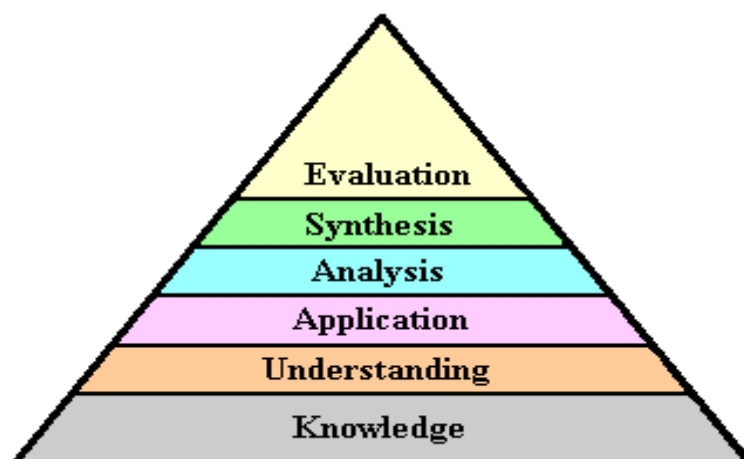
However, they also have locomotion. Recent research has shown that there are many different varieties of bacteria. Some are able to survive at extreme temperatures and in the absence of oxygen. Most plants cannot usually survive in those conditions. Therefore, even though bacteria photosynthesise, they are not now regarded as plants.

34. Watch the video which explains the nature of and the need for critical thinking (<http://nirmukta.com/2010/01/03/critical-thinking-a-video-by-qualiasoup-on-youtube/>). **Do you have anything to add as to this topic?**

Writing critically

In 1956, Bloom developed a classification of levels of intellectual behavior which is considered important in learning. Bloom's Taxonomy is a classification of the different objectives and skills that educators set for their students (learning objectives). The taxonomy was proposed in 1956 by an educational psychologist at the University of Chicago. The terminology has been recently updated to include the following six levels of learning. These 6 levels can be used to structure the learning objectives, lessons, and assessments of any course. Bloom identified six levels within the cognitive domain, from the simple recall or recognition of facts, as the lowest level, through increasingly more complex and abstract levels, to the highest level which is classified as evaluation. Most university level writing needs

to involve writing at this high level (<https://tips.uark.edu/using-blooms-taxonomy/>).



This six categories can be thought of as degrees of difficulty. That is, the first one must be mastered before the next one can be taken.

<i>Category</i>	<i>Key Words</i>	<i>Associated Questions</i>	<i>Typical Question Instructions</i>
<u>Evaluation</u> : Makes judgments about the value of ideas or materials for a given purpose in a given context. Presents and defends opinions by making judgments about information, validity of ideas or quality of work based on a set of criteria. Compares and discriminates between ideas. Recognises subjectivity.	e.g. appraises, compares, concludes, contrasts, criticizes, critiques, defends, describes, discriminates, evaluates, explains, interprets, justifies, relates, summarizes, supports.	Do you agree with the actions/outcomes...? What is your opinion of...? How would you prove/disprove...? Evaluate the outcome....	advise assess estimate evaluate judge rate recommend
<u>Synthesis</u> : Puts parts together to form a whole, with emphasis on creating a new meaning or structure - compiles	e.g. categorizes, combines, compiles, composes, creates, devises, designs, explains, generates, modifies, organizes,	What changes would you make to solve...? What would happen if...? Can you elaborate on the reason...?	arrange compose construct create design formulate manage

information together in a different way by combining elements in a new pattern or proposing alternative solutions. Generalises from facts.	plans, rearranges, reconstructs, relates, reorganizes, revises, rewrites, summarizes, tells, writes.		organize plan prepare set up
<u>Analysis</u> : Examines and breaks information into parts by identifying motives or causes; making inferences and finding evidence to support generalizations. Includes analysis of elements, relationships and organizational principles. Recognizes hidden meanings. Distinguishes between facts and inferences.	e.g. analyses, breaks down, compares, contrasts, diagrams, deconstructs, differentiates, discriminates, distinguishes, identifies, illustrates, infers, outlines, relates, selects, separates.	What are the parts or features of...? How is _____ related to...? Can you show connection between...? How would you compare/contrast...?	analyze calculate categorize compare contrast criticize debate differentiate discuss distinguish examine experiment inspect
<u>Application</u> : Uses a concept in a new situation. Applies what was learned in the classroom into novel situations. Applies general ideas to concrete situations. Applies what is discussed in one paper to another paper. Predicts probable effects. Solves problems by	e.g. applies changes, computes, constructs, demonstrates, discovers, manipulates, modifies, operates, predicts, prepares, produces, relates, shows, solves, uses.	How would you use...? What examples can you find to...? Can you relate this information to the present situation?	apply demonstrate dramatize employ illustrate interpret operate practice schedule sketch use

applying acquired knowledge, facts, techniques and rules in a different way.			
<u>Comprehension:</u> Demonstrates understanding of facts and ideas by organizing, comparing, translating, interpreting, giving descriptions and stating main ideas. States a problem in own words. Knows what is being communicated and can make use of materials or ideas without necessarily relating it to other materials or seeing further implications. It includes: translation of verbal material into symbolic statements; interpretation of data; extrapolation - trends and tendencies.	e.g. comprehends, converts, defends, distinguishes, estimates, explains, extends, generalizes, gives examples, infers, interprets, paraphrases, predicts, rewrites, summarizes, translates.	How would you classify the type of...? What was the text about? Can you summarize the author's point of view?	classify describe distinguish explain express identify illustrate locate recognize report restate review tell translate
<u>Knowledge:</u> Recalls data or information. Shows knowledge of previously learned material by recalling facts, terms, basic concepts and answers. Has knowledge of	e.g. defines, describes, identifies, knows, labels, lists, matches, names, outlines, quotes, recalls, recognizes, reproduces, selects, shows, states.	What is...? How is...? Where is...? When did smth happen?	define list name recall record relate repeat state underline

specific facts & terminology; knowledge of ways and means - conventions, trends and sequences, classifications and categories, criteria, methodology; knowledge of universals and abstractions - principles & generalizations, theories and structure.			
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Therefore, in most academic writing it is important to write critically. Simple description is usually not enough, one should make connections between theory and practice, draw links between theories, as well as evaluate theories and research. It means giving your opinions (positive and negative) on the work of others and your own opinions based on what you have learned. Critical evaluation requires evaluating arguments, weighing evidence and developing a set of standards on which to base your evaluation.

When writing critically, you need to:

- Analyze and categorize theories and research;
- Evaluate theories and research;
- Compare and contrast theories and research;
- Select from theories and research;
- Synthesise from theories and research;
- Make logical connections between theory and practice;
- Give opinions (positive and negative);
- Provide evidence for these opinions;
- Indicate gaps in theories and research;
- Weigh evidence and come to conclusions.

35. Study the following information and be ready to answer the questions

(<https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/1024/02/>)

1. What is Bloom's taxonomy?
2. What are two dimensions Bloom's taxonomy is based on?
3. What steps should be made while doing writing exercises according to Bloom's taxonomy?

Bloom's Levels and Associated Verbs*

Lower order cognitive level = LOC

Higher order cognitive level = HOC

LOC or HOC	<i>Bloom's Levels and Associated Verbs</i>
LOC (1)	<i>Knowledge</i> : arrange, define, duplicate, label, list, memorize, name, order, recognize, relate, recall, repeat, reproduce state
LOC (2)	<i>Comprehension</i> : classify, describe, discuss, explain, express, identify, indicate, locate, recognize, report, restate, review, select, translate
LOC or HOC (3)	<i>Application</i> : apply, choose, demonstrate, dramatize, employ, illustrate, interpret, operate, practice, schedule, sketch, solve, use, write
HOC (4)	<i>Analysis</i> : analyze, appraise, calculate, categorize, compare, contrast, criticize, differentiate, discriminate, distinguish, examine, experiment, question, test
HOC (5)	<i>Synthesis</i> : arrange, assemble, collect, compose, construct, create, design, develop, formulate, manage, organize, plan, prepare, propose, set up, write
HOC (6)	<i>Evaluation</i> : appraise, argue, assess, attach, choose, compare, defend, estimate, judge, predict, rate, score, select, support, value, evaluate

Credit: Jenny Knight, University of Colorado, Boulder. October, 2011

* Original by Bloom (1956). Recently, Anderson and Krathwohl, [(2001). A Taxonomy for learning, teaching, and assessing.] have suggested that synthesis should be level 6 and evaluation should be level 6. Many put these two levels into practice simultaneously, using 5/6 as the Bloom's level.

36. Think about a topic you will have next week. On your own, write a draft question that addresses one of the pedagogical goals. Include 3-4 plausible distractors. When you finish, swap with your neighbor and discuss.

37. Look at the learning goals below. On your own, write a draft question that addresses this learning goal. Include 3-4 plausible distractors. When you finish, swap with your neighbor and discuss.

- *Biology:* Recognize the components of a cell and describe why each is necessary for the function of a cell
- *Physics:* Identify the different ways that light can interact with an object (i.e., transmitted, absorbed, reflected).
- *Chemistry:* Explain trends in boiling points in terms of intermolecular interactions
- *Earth science:* Understand the formation of the three major types of rocks (igneous, sedimentary, and metamorphic) and the processes by which they form, relating them by the rock cycle.
- *Math:* Solve a system of linear equations in two variables using algebra or graphing.

John Russell says that students in order to develop critical thinking in writing should consider the writing of an author by asking a few simple questions while reading.

The next time you are reading a book or an opinion piece in a newspaper, try to ask yourself some of the following questions:

- What is the argument that the writer is making?
- What evidence does the writer use?
- How does the writer present their ideas?
- How is the writer connecting their ideas?
- How does the writer evaluate information?

Asking these questions will give you a point to start understanding how other people think. It will also help you to think about how you can write better – and practice your critical thinking skills.

General strategies for critical writing:

- Read critically
- Be fair and reasonable. Take into account accepted standards of judgement used in your discipline.
- Use evidence taken from sources which are considered authoritative in the field
- Consider viewpoints from a range of perspectives (e.g. male and female, different socioeconomic and ethnic groups).

38. Read the book “The Concept and Practice of Critical Thinking in Academic Writing: An Investigation of International Students’ Perceptions and Writing Experiences”

(https://englishagenda.britishcouncil.org/sites/default/files/filefield_paths/m_vyncke_0_1.pdf) and prepare a summary to it. In groups divide the topics covered in the book and prepare tips for students how to improve their writing.

39. Write a short response to the following statement: Being creative means expressing your personality. Good creative writing opens the window to who you are. Support the discussion fully with specific examples, details and personal experience (200-250 words every other line).

2.3. The Process of Writing

A Preview

Another way you will use your critical-thinking skills in your academic course work is in writing. Completing an academic writing assignment is a thinking process which involves several activities.

The writing process

Activity	Description
Brainstorming	Gathering/Generating/Planning ideas
Organizing	Making a formal plan (outline)
Writing	Composing the paragraph or the essay
Revising	Making major changes
Proofreading and editing	Fixing minor errors

This process of writing begins with the assignment. The assignment may be oral or written out in detail. Some assignments may be clearly delivered and offer you a great deal of direction, while others may offer too much leeway, causing you to feel lost at first. Some assignments will be extended, allowing you a few weeks to complete them (e.g., term papers, theses, lab reports). However, other assignments may be due within a week or two (e.g., short papers, journal entries). Perhaps the most intense writing assignment is the essay test, which may have a strict time limit.

Regardless of the various time limits, all assignments must be followed precisely. It is important for you to read the assignments carefully and understand them. If you misread an assignment, your final paper may be off focus or off topic. Such papers may fail based on content even if the organization, grammar, and

presentation are excellent. It follows that you must never change an assignment to suit your interests or knowledge. For example, if you cannot answer a question on an essay test, do not rewrite the question. Answer the professor's question in the best way you can because you might be given partial credit. However, if you change the question, you might not get any credit.

Following an assignment involves understanding its wording and design. Here are some common terms used in academic writing assignments.

Analyze

An analysis is the study or examination of the parts of something or aspects of an idea. How do the parts function? What is their purpose or importance? How do the ideas relate to one another? What is your personal opinion or judgment?

Argue

Argument requires taking a position in favor of or in opposition to an issue. State your position and defend it. Explain what should be done about a problem. Be sure to indicate that you understand the opposing viewpoint(s). (Argumentation is stronger than a response.)

Classify

Classification involves arranging or organizing things into categories (kinds or types). Define each category and illustrate it.

Compare and Contrast

Comparison involves examining qualities and characteristics in order to find similarities between two or more things; contrasting requires analysis of the differences between them. The assignment should clarify whether the focus is to be on similarities, differences, or both.

Define

Defining involves giving the formal definition of a term or thing by stating the term, class (or category) to which it belongs, and the features that distinguish it from other members of that class. It may also require writing an extended definition, which would include examples, details, and explanations.

Describe/Explain/Discuss

These terms are used broadly and require complete and detailed answers to a topic. You may have to describe a place or physical structure of some kind, give a chronological (time order) explanation, enumerate or list major points, examine causes or define a process, and compare or contrast. The other vocabulary in the assignment will guide you.

Enumerate

Enumeration is a general term for listing, classifying, and recounting one by one the major points. This term is basic to almost all rhetorical methods, especially comparison/contrast, process, cause, effect, exemplification, and classification.

Evaluate

In an evaluation, you have to analyze a text or work and judge its merits or correctness as well as its shortcomings. You may also need to examine advantages and disadvantages and give personal opinions on each side.

Explain

To write an effective explanation, provide support to clarify your points. Tell *how* and *why*. Anticipate the reader's questions and provide detailed answers. Look at causes and/or effects, or describe a process.

Illustrate

To write an effective illustration, supply a representative number of relevant examples. The examples can be hypothetical or specific and may include personal experience. Effective illustrations are highly valued in academic writing assignments.

Respond/Comment

Response assignments are thought papers in which you react with your personal interpretation of the text material. Agree or disagree and support your position with personal experience and/or references to assigned readings.

Summarize

In a summary, restate what the author's major points are in your own words. Do not add your own main points or opinions in a summary. Also, do not judge or evaluate the author's main points. A summary is a short report, not a critique.

Trace/Outline

When tracing or outlining the development of something, you need to provide an overview of historical events in chronological order or the major points of an issue.

40. Read the information on Key Terms in Academic Writing (<https://www.esc.edu/online-writing-center/resources/academic-writing/key-terms/>). Think what notions can you add.

41. Answer the questions:

1. How can you use your critical skills in your academic course work?
2. What activities does academic writing involve?
3. Do you know what a brainstorming means?
4. Have you ever participated in a brainstorming when solving some problems?
5. What is the difference between oral assignment and written out in detail?
6. Why is it so important to follow the assignment task precisely?
7. What are some common terms used in academic writing assignments?
8. Can you give a full characteristic of each term used in academic writing assignments?

Ex. 42. Underline the key words. What do the following short assignments require? How would you complete them?

For example. *In what (ways) do porpoises (differ from) dolphins?*

ways: enumeration; differ from: contrast

I would enumerate the differences between dolphins and porpoises

1. Explain how a caterpillar becomes a butterfly.
2. Discuss three major reasons that people who leave the security of their home cultures to move to another culture to study are heroes. Provide examples, details, and personal experience.
3. Enumerate the causes and effects of women's liberation.

4. Trace the development of satellites.
5. Enumerate the major features of effective academic writing. Discuss them in detail.

Instructions in Assignments

Instructions in assignments are usually given with imperatives (command forms). Moreover, you may be given limits on how many subtopics you can have. Pay attention to such expressions as "two or three," "areas," "reasons," "causes," "effects," "similarities," "differences," and other rhetorical terms which signal the method of development. Also, pay close attention to the use of *and* and *or*. *And* directs you to address all of the assignment tasks, but *or* directs you to make a choice. If the assignment is to make a choice, you must do so.

Here are some examples:

Discuss two *or* three reasons for...

(You have a choice of two or three reasons. Do not discuss four.)

Analyze the causes *and* effects of. . .

(You must discuss both the causes and effects.)

Discuss the advantages *or* disadvantages of...

(You must choose advantages or disadvantages. Do not discuss both.)

Define "pecking order" *and* give examples . . .

(You must not only define the term; you need to give examples as well.)

Read the model essay *and* answer the questions that follow.

(You must do both tasks: read the essay and answer the questions.)

Example of Assignment Analysis:

Because the laser is such a powerful device, some people used to fear it. However, recently, scientists have found that the laser has a variety of applications (*lead-in*). Discuss four important areas where lasers have been used to the benefit of society. Use specific and convincing examples and details to support your discussion (*assignment task*).

The lead-in in the above assignment shows two opinions about the laser:

- Some people fear the laser because it is powerful.
- The laser is a good device which has several uses.

The assignment task limits the focus to the second opinion, the benefits of the laser to society. The essay must explore four areas of life in which the laser has helped people, not why people may fear the laser. There must also be specific and convincing examples and details.

Ex. 43. Analyze longer writing assignments.

On a separate sheet of paper, analyze each of the following assignments.

- Which part is the lead-in?
 - Which part is the assignment task?
 - What does the assignment require?
1. Self-respect is the respect people have for themselves. People's success in life may depend on how much self-respect (self-esteem, self-regard) they have. How will having (or not having) self-respect help (or hinder) students in their academic pursuits? Discuss two or three ways self-respect (or the lack of it) can affect students' success. Provide specific support.
 2. Studying in a university is challenging. Some students excel, some do an adequate job, but others fail. Why do some students do well? Discuss two or three major characteristics (qualities) of good students. Provide specific details, examples, and your own personal experience or that of someone you know.
 3. Languages are living as long as they are spoken. Thus, they gradually change over time. Despite the fact that the English spoken today reflects current popular usage, contemporary grammar books still prescribe formal, standard rules which do not seem to apply to current usage. What problems, if any, does this create for you as a language learner? Discuss two or three problems with specific examples and details.

Ex. 44. Study the information presented in the Internet (<https://zapier.com/blog/writing-mistakes/>) and prepare your own tips how to avoid mistakes in writing.

Ex. 45. Watch the video (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=pZgyY_pNyrA) and analyze the information.

Ex. 46. Analyze students' essays.

Use the assignment and the Student Essays to answer the following questions.

Assignment: Computers have become an important part of educational process.

Write convincing illustration to this statement. Use specific and convincing examples and details.

Student Essay 1

Computer as a multipurpose universal instrument of education.

In our days computers have become an important component part of all spheres of science. There are a lot of advantages of this device which makes any work associated with the theory, calculations and modeling more easily and quickly. Especially computers find industrial application in academic life.

The main feature of all kind of computers is the ability to making calculations. Now it is not necessary to spend much time for converting and counting of equations, functions and other. All of the mathematic operations are made automatically by the machine. It is very useful for students because they are obliged to do some kind of works which contains a routine calculations, lab works, etc. For example software package called MathCAD enable to solve many mathematical tasks of any complexity.

Another function of the computer is a capability to create models of systems and processes. Any person can create a virtual object or operation with it and watch how it will be works. Frequently in aviation it is very difficult and expensive to make a prototype of the plane. That is why a constructor should make a model of the aircraft by the computer before creating a real one. In the labs of Institute of civil aviation students make virtual objects from electrical systems to the accidents during flight of the airplanes.

One more important thing is the information storage. Every day people who are engaged in science have a deal with some kind information. Libraries, archives, storehouses are require a lot of space and costs. But now all necessary information can be saved in the hard driver in size with a palm. Also it can be extract or copy for a second. There is no necessary to carry many books, papers, cartridges, pictures. Lecturers use a projector instead of posters, show presentations, videos, which improve the effectiveness of lectures. Students get a possibility to correct their works without rewriting of all of material.

In conclusion, computer has many other advantages like internet, entertainments and different tools, but all of these functions are directed to improve our academic life and make it easier, let people work harder, more effective and fast.

Student Essay 2

In contemporary life almost all activity of people is artlessly associated with a computer, wherever it is – at production, in a bank, in a shop, even in a car and at home. All in much is connected with use of quickness and simplicity of a computer. This attainment of engineering engages also the process of education. All that is connected with education should possess traffic rapidity, true and full data accessing. But what would be, if computer progress had bypassed academic life?

There wouldn't be such simplicity and rate of necessary study literature accessing. So, in libraries, all book data bases have been entered in the computer, as well as data bases regarding students, who are making use of it. I have appreciated it myself, when I was searching near a half hour the textbook, which I needed, without use of computer data base.

Internet access would be impossible in that case. Internet is now the most reliable and speedy way of data exchange and it is difficult without it as if we have no hands, eyes and ears. Neither postman is able to deliver necessary information in any place of the world within several seconds, but Internet!

And the most important, at least for engineer profession, there wouldn't be calculation simplicity. All that would take a lot of time for a student of an engineering university to solve large and complicated tasks is calculated for several seconds and even quickly with the help of a computer. I can confirm that from my experience, as far as all my yearly essays had been done solely with the help of a computer!

So, now it is clear, what a computer means for academic life: rapidly, easy and reliable. The process of education would be much difficult without these criteria, however, one cannot rely on education only by means of a computer, because there is probability to become a lazy student, the main thing one should remember- a computer is not a substitution of student's knowledge that is an aid for it receiving.

Ex. 47 Questions for discussion

4. Do the essays address the assignment task? Why or why not?

Essay 1 _____

Essay 2 _____

5. What does each writer do well?

Essay 1 _____

Essay 2 _____

6. What grade do you think each essay received? Why?

Essay 1 _____

Essay 2 _____

7. What does each writer need to do to improve the essay?

Essay 1 _____

Essay 2 _____

Ex. 48 Writing assignment

With the development of online communication, people will never be alone and will always be able to make new friends. To what extent do you agree?

Writing Process

Brainstorming (Generating/Collecting/Planning ideas)

1. List possible ideas that follow the assignment focus, and make lists and clusters to "get the juices flowing."
2. Determine your focus at this point (limit your topic) if the assignment does not do so for you.
3. Consider whom you are targeting as your audience at all times.
4. Examine the ideas and choose the most convincing ones.
5. Gather and evaluate information to support the ideas. Make final selections.

Organizing (Refining/Formalizing plan)

1. Determine how you will present your ideas (rhetorical method).
2. Make an outline or chart in which you clearly determine your thesis or topic statement, your subtopics (main points), and specific support.
3. Make changes; add or delete ideas.
4. Put the plan aside and take a break. New ideas will occur to you while you are resting.
5. Revise the plan some more.
6. Get feedback from your professor or peers (peer review).
7. Revise the plan.

Writing (Composing in longhand or on computer)

1. Compose the first draft of the paper. Follow the plan while composing.
2. Try to write without stopping frequently to look up words or revise for fluency.
3. New ideas may occur to you. Make changes as needed to include any improvements.
4. Put the paper aside for a while and take a break so that you can look at it again with a fresh eye.
5. Get feedback from your professor or peers (peer review).

Revising (Making major changes)

1. Return to the paper with an objective eye.
2. Be a critical thinker. Evaluate the paper. Is it effective?
3. Make major changes in the content, organization, and order of support.
4. Make the sentences more complex and smooth.

You may end up writing more than one draft to attain the final product.

Proofreading and editing (Making minor changes to mechanics)

1. Correct grammar errors.
2. Check for errors in spelling, punctuation, and capitalization.
3. Check format (margins, use of lines, labeling and paper type).

Ex. 49 Enumerate and describe each stage of the process of writing.

Time Management of the Writing Process

You learned that as a college or university student, you are very busy trying to juggle all of your course work in order to get all of your assignments done on time. Writing a paper may take more time than you think it will. Due to all of the activities involved in the process of writing, you do not want to wait until the last minute to start a paper. Pulling an "all-nighter" or trying to write the paper the morning it is due may well lead to bad results. Not only is such an approach stressful, it is usually unsuccessful. The quality and appearance of the final product reveal the haste in which the paper was done, giving the professor a bad impression. Professors expect papers to be complete, well organized, and clearly presented.

It is a good idea to start the prewriting activities soon after getting an assignment; if you plan time in your daily and/or weekly schedule to complete the assignment, you will feel less stressed and more satisfied with the product. Doing a little bit every day instead of procrastinating will make you a more productive and successful student.

Determining time management of the writing process

Now concentrate on the writing activities. Compare the amount of time you think each activity would take for both out-of-class and in-class writing assignments.

- By yourself, complete Chart 1 by calculating the percentage of time you would need in each activity.
- Then compare your answers to your partners'.
- Figure out the group's average in each area on Chart 2.
- Report to the group and answer the questions.

Chart 1 Your Own Percentages

	Out-of-Class	In-Class
Brainstorming		
Organizing		
Writing		
Revising		
Proofreading / Editing		
	100%	100%

Chart 2 Your Group's Averages

	Out-of-Class	In-Class
Brainstorming		
Organizing		
Writing		
Revising		
Proofreading / Editing		
	100%	100%

Ex.50 Discuss these questions with the group

1. How do the percentages differ in class vs. out of class? Why?
2. Which activity do you think is the most important in each case? Why?
3. Which activities take the least amount of time? Why?
4. Will you be making any changes to your approach to completing assignments? If so, explain.

Ex. 51 Brainstorming for a writing assignment

To practice analyzing an assignment and determining the audience, do the following.

- Study the following model assignment carefully.

- Discuss the questions that follow.
- Complete the assignment by choosing one of the brainstorming methods.

Model Assignment

The International Student Organization (ISO) at your university publishes a newsletter read by students, professors, and administrators. The ISO would like short articles (1 to 2 typed pages, double-spaced) written by nonnative speakers on the benefits they gain by studying in the U.S. or The United Kingdom of Great Britain.

Brainstorm for a few minutes alone. Make lists, clusters, and/or charts to find ideas for the article you want to write. After working alone for a few minutes, share your notes with partners. Each of you should discuss your notes and revise them (add or discard ideas) as new ideas occur to you.

Ex. 51 Questions for discussion

1. Which part is the lead-in? What is the situation? Who is the audience?
2. Which part is the assignment task? How many things do you have to do? List the imperative verbs.
3. What is the topic? List the important words in the topic.
4. What level of formality (and point of view) should be used in the article?
5. How long should the article be?
6. How should the article be presented (format)?
7. Do you have to write the article yet? Why or why not?

Ex. 52 Methods of Brainstorming

Choose one of the following brainstorming methods to generate (create) ideas for the in-class assignment.

Method 1: Listing ideas is one way to brainstorm. First, list the ideas as they occur to you.

Method 2. Clustering. If you are a visual learner, you might want to "cluster" your thoughts. Follow the link https://web2.uvcs.uvic.ca/elc/sample/beginner/wt/wt_04.htm to find how to make a cluster.

Method 3. Charting. Charts are useful if you know your main points and you want an informal way to move from general to specific. Follow the link <https://www.fusioncharts.com/charting-best-practices/5-tips-for-writing-chart-captions/> to find how to make a charter.

Ex. 53 Watch the video <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2fo13d1b7HA> **and be ready to analyze five stages of writing.**

Ex. 54 Writing assignment

Writing the first draft in class

Use your brainstorming notes from the previous assignment to organize and write a short article on the benefits of studying in the U.S. or The United Kingdom of Great Britain or any other country you like.

- Choose three major benefits.
- Support your discussion with examples and details.
- Use the guidelines for in-class assignments in the following chart. Try to finish in the time given. (Calculate how many minutes to allow for each writing activity.)

Ex. 55 Answer the question: Why do you think peer-reviewing requires critical-thinking skills?

Peer review and revision

Peer-reviewing is an integral part of the writing process. When professors write textbooks and articles, they seek out their colleagues for feedback in order to revise effectively. Likewise, when you complete writing assignments in this text, you will seek out the opinions of your peers to improve the paper.

Peer-reviewing will help you grow as a writer and as a critical thinker. To begin with, peer-reviewing requires critical-thinking skills because you have to analyze the paper. In your peer reviews, you will have to identify the effective areas as well as the areas which need improvement. You may wonder how qualified you are to do this. After all, you are not a teacher. Nonetheless, you are a reader, and you will be helping your classmates tremendously if you target the unclear areas in their papers. In addition, by evaluating models and your peers' papers, you will become a better writer because you will see what works and what does not, and you will have frequent practice applying the rules for effective academic writing.

Although this activity may be hard at first, you will get better at it. Your confidence will build as you make progress with both your analytical skills and writing. The final benefit is the improvement you will see in your classmates' writing as the term or semester progresses. For example, the first time you peer-review, you may notice that your partners' compositions are short and not well organized. However, at the end of the term, both you and your partners will probably be able to compose interesting and well-organized essays.

Ground Rules for Peer-Reviewing

There are different approaches to peer review, but it is usually done before the final draft is due. In general, students exchange papers, complete the peer reviews, and discuss them. Because some people may feel intimidated by peer-reviewing and discussing their papers, you should follow certain ground rules and use strategies for clarification. These guidelines for effective group dynamics will help to build trust among group members.

1. Do not take charge or monopolize; share time with others. Help draw shy group members into the conversation. Everyone should participate.
2. Acknowledge what the writer did effectively before discussing the weak areas.
3. Defend your opinions tactfully. In other words, do not take the other students' observations and suggestions personally.

4. Be objective. Do not make fun of the writer's ideas, and do not criticize the writer for having opinions different from yours. Your task is to evaluate how well the writer defends the opinions.
5. Compromise to resolve differences of opinion. Do not let a difference of opinion hold up the group process.
6. Ask for repetition if you are unsure of what your partner said.
7. Be honest. Do not say the paper is good if there are problems. The writer wants to do a good job and deserves an honest reaction.
8. Be a good listener. Do not cut people off (interrupt).
9. Remember that you are not only giving advice, but also learning about your own writing and that of others.

Strategies for Clarification

Language in group discussions is unplanned and thus imperfect at times. People do not always have time to correct a grammar mistake or pick the best words. During a discussion, it may be difficult to understand everything that is said because of someone's speaking speed, grammar, and vocabulary choices. If you have problems communicating in your peer review groups for these reasons, use the following expressions.

If you do not understand, ask for clarification.

- I didn't catch that.
- Could you repeat that please?
- Could you say that another way?
- What did you say?
- I still don't quite know what you mean. Could you put it another way?

If you want to see if someone understands, check in these ways.

- Do you see/know what I mean?
- Are you following me?
- Are you with me?

If you think someone does not understand, restate what you have just said. Use different words.

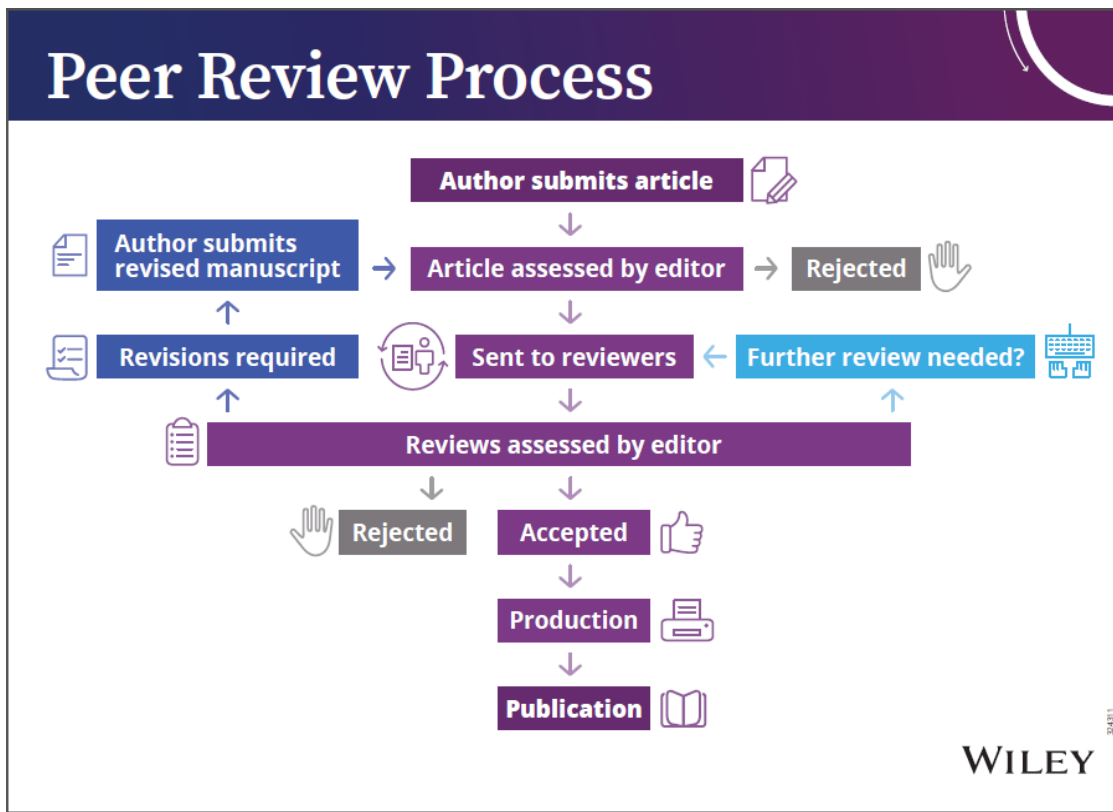
- Let me try again.
- I'll say it another way.
- In other words, . . . (paraphrase)

If someone is not getting a chance to talk, include the person in the discussion and use his or her name.

- What do you think ...?
- What about you...?
- What's your opinion... ?

After a peer review session, you should study the comments your peers (and instructor) made and plan changes. The number of changes you make will depend on the number of problems your peers and instructor pointed out. This process of making changes is called *revision*. Revision involves making major changes in content and organization in order to improve the paper.

The peer review process for academic articles



(<https://authorservices.wiley.com/Reviewers/journal-reviewers/what-is-peer-review/the-peer-review-process.html>)

10 Steps for Peer Review

1. Submission of Paper

The corresponding or submitting author submits the paper to the journal. This is usually via an online system such as Scholar-One Manuscripts. Occasionally, journals may accept submissions by email.

2. Editorial Office Assessment

The journal checks the paper's composition and arrangement against the journal's Author Guidelines to make sure it includes the required sections and stylizations. The quality of the paper is not assessed at this point.

3. Appraisal by the Editor-in-Chief (EIC)

The EIC checks that the paper is appropriate for the journal and is sufficiently original and interesting. If not, the paper may be rejected without being reviewed any further.

4. EIC Assigns an Associate Editor (AE)

Some journals have Associate Editors who handle the peer review. If they do, they would be assigned at this stage.

5. Invitation to Reviewers

The handling editor sends invitations to individuals he or she believes would be appropriate reviewers. As responses are received, further invitations are issued, if necessary, until the required number of acceptances is obtained – commonly this is 2, but there is some variation between journals.

6. Response to Invitations

Potential reviewers consider the invitation against their own expertise, conflicts of interest and availability. They then accept or decline. If possible, when declining, they might also suggest alternative reviewers.

7. Review is Conducted

The reviewer sets time aside to read the paper several times. The first read is used to form an initial impression of the work. If major problems are found at this stage, the reviewer may feel comfortable rejecting the paper without further work. Otherwise they will read the paper several more times, taking notes so as to build a detailed point-by-point review. The review is then submitted to the journal, with a recommendation to accept or reject it – or else with a request for revision (usually flagged as either major or minor) before it is reconsidered.

8. Journal Evaluates the Reviews

The handling editor considers all the returned reviews before making an overall decision. If the reviews differ widely, the editor may invite an additional reviewer so as to get an extra opinion before making a decision.

9. The Decision is Communicated

The editor sends a decision email to the author including any relevant reviewer comments. Whether the comments are anonymous or not will depend on the type of peer review that the journal operates.

10. Next Steps

If *accepted*, the paper is sent to production. If the article is *rejected* or sent back for either major or minor *revision*, the handling editor should include constructive comments from the reviewers to help the author improve the article. At this point, reviewers should also be sent an email or letter letting them know the outcome of their review. If the paper was sent back for *revision*, the reviewers should expect to receive a new version, unless they have opted out of further participation. However, where only minor changes were requested this follow-up review might be done by the handling editor.

**Ex. 56 Read the following extract and be ready to answer the question:
What is the difference between topic sentences and thesis statements?**

Just as a single paragraph has a topic sentence which introduces the paragraph topic and the writer's opinion and method, so a thesis statement is the most important element of an essay. Thesis statements contain the writer's limited subject, opinion or attitude, and possibly a list of main points which you will discuss in the body of the essay.

The main idea of each paragraph is usually expressed somewhere in the paragraph by one sentence (the main or topic sentence). This sentence is usually found at the beginning of the paragraph, but can come at the end or even in the middle of the paragraph. The rest of the paragraph generally expands the theme contained in the main sentence, and each idea round the main theme is supported by information and evidence (in the form of illustrations and examples), and by argument.

Example

This is a period when education faces many disturbing circumstances originating outside it. Budgets have been drastically cut throughout the country affecting every type of education. Enrolments are dropping rapidly, because the children of the post-World War II "baby boom" have now completed their

schooling, and we are feeling the full effect of the falling birth rate. So there are fewer opportunities for new teachers, and the average age of teachers is increasing.

The Topic Sentence

The topic sentence is the most general statement of the paragraph. It is the key sentence because it names the subject and the controlling idea: the writer's main idea, opinion, or feeling about that topic.

The topic sentence can come at the beginning or at the end of a paragraph. As a beginning writer, you should write your topic sentence as the first sentence of your paragraph for two reasons. First, it will tell the reader what you are going to say. Second, you can look back at the topic sentence often as you write the supporting sentences. It will help you stick to the subject as you write.

The topic sentence of your paragraph must also have a *controlling idea*. The controlling idea is the main point, opinion or feeling that you have about the subject, and it controls or limits what you will write about it in your paragraph.

Rules for Composing Effective Topic Sentences

1. Topic sentences must be limited and correctly focused on the topic assigned.

Examples

Assignment: Computers are used in almost every area of life, such as business, science, and the home. Choose one area in which computers are used and discuss the benefits.

Problem: Off Topic Pursuing a degree in business is beneficial for several reasons.

(This sentence should introduce one area in which computers are used, not one area in which it is beneficial to get a degree.)

Problem: Off Focus It is easy to learn how to use a computer.

(This sentence is about computers, but the assignment is not to explain how to operate a computer.)

Correct Focus Computers have become essential in the home these days for three major reasons.

(This sentence is about one area in which computers are used these days, so it follows the assignment.)

3. Each topic sentence must be about one topic.

Examples

Ineffective San Francisco has many tourist attractions and is a cosmopolitan city

Effective San Francisco has many tourist attractions that families enjoy seeing.

(Enumeration of Places/Description)

3. Topic sentences must be arguable (express an opinion) and include signals which indicate the method of development and writer's purpose.

Examples

Effective Dolphins and porpoises differ in several major ways.

(Contrast)

Operating a word processor is an easy procedure if you follow these steps.

(Process)

4. Topic sentences must be concise and complete sentences in statement form.

Examples

Incomplete The benefits of television to children. (Fragment)

Complete Television benefits young children in three major ways.

(Enumeration of Benefits/Effects)

Question Why are grades important?

Statement Grades are important for several major reasons.

(Enumeration of

Reasons/Causes)

Not Arguable I want to write about ways to maintain the health.

Arguable Maintaining good health is crucial. People can maintain their health in many ways. (Process/Enumeration of Suggestions)

5. Topic sentences must not be too specific because very specific statements are factual, not argued.

Example

Too Specific Abraham Lincoln was the sixteenth president of the United States.

Effective Abraham Lincoln's most outstanding quality was his honesty.

(Definition)

5. Topic sentences must not be too general because broad statements are difficult to support.

6. Example

Too General Overeating is bad.

Effective Overeating contributes to several health problems.

(Enumeration of Effects)

CONCEPTS TO REMEMBER

1. A single-paragraph composition is based on a topic that is developed by examples, facts, or other specific information.
2. The paragraph should contain a sentence, called a topic sentence, in which the topic of the paragraph is clearly explained.
3. The topic should be explained, or developed, by major points and supporting details that are related to the topic.
4. The paragraph should contain enough specific major points and supporting details to explain, or develop, the topic.
5. The information included in the topic sentence, major points, and supporting details should be accurate.
6. When phrases or sentences of another person are used, the source (author and publication) should be cited.
7. The topic sentence should usually be placed at the beginning of the paragraph.

8. The major points and supporting details should be arranged in an order that is logical and related to the meaning.
9. The concluding information should be stated in the final sentences of the paragraph.

Ex. 57 Study the following pairs of sentences and check the one you think would be an appropriate and clear topic sentence for a paragraph.

1.	<i>Snow skiing on the highest slopes requires skill. +</i>
2.	Snow skiing is fun.
3.	Exercise is healthful.
4.	Jogging is beneficial for several reasons.
5.	Camping is a great outdoor activity.
6.	Camping requires a variety of special equipments.
7.	The legal age for drinking should be twenty-one for several reasons.
8.	Drinking is dangerous to your health.
9.	Small cars are popular.
10.	Driving a VW Rabbit is economical.
11.	Hong Kong is an exciting city.
12.	Hong Kong is a shopper's paradise.
13.	The violence on television can affect children's emotional security.
14.	Watching television is waste of time.
15.	Smoking is a bad habit.
16.	It is difficult to quit smoking for three reasons.

Ex. 58 Underline the statement that would be the best topic sentence of the paragraph.

1.
 - a. My sister spends hours a day on the Internet.

- b. The “Information Highway” is growing every year.
 - c. Most of what I read on the Internet bulletin boards is garbage.
- 2.
- a. Ice cream is a popular food.
 - b. I often eat ice cream as a snack.
 - c. Ice cream contains more chemical additives than almost any other food we eat.
- 3.
- a. The bicycle is the most energy-efficient form of transportation ever invented.
 - b. Someone stole my mountain bike by cutting the chain.
 - c. My cousin rides her bicycle all year round except January and February.
- 4.
- a. Medical drugs can be just as dangerous as street drugs.
 - b. I often take two aspirins when I’m getting cold.
 - c. Drugs sometimes have a negative effect on the human body,
- 5.
- a. Chainsaws make a great deal of noise.
 - b. The chainsaw is the most dangerous tool that can be operated without a permit.
 - c. All chainsaws now have a chain brake to reduce bucking.

Ex.59 Look at the following sentences from a paragraph about the therapeutic uses of garlic. Unfortunately the sentences are not in the correct order. Reorganize these sentences in the proper order.

Cystic fibrosis (CF) is one of the most common genetic disorders. CF is inherited as an autosomal recessive trait and a defective gene causes the body to produce an abnormal amount of very thick, sticky mucus which clogs the lungs and pancreas, interfering with breathing and digestion. This mucus builds up in the breathing passages in the lungs and the pancreas and respiratory complications develop from the blockage of the bronchial passages. Eventually, the cilia which are responsible for clearing the mucus are destroyed. In addition, the mucus traps bacteria which cause infections and permanent damage to the lungs, and may also

block the ducts of the pancreas which contains enzymes necessary for the digestion of food.

Ex. 60 Choose topic sentences for the given assignments

- Study the following assignments and the suggested topic sentences that follow.
 - Circle the letter of the topic sentence that is appropriate for each assignment.
 - Explain your choice.
1. Some students like to study alone, but others enjoy studying groups. Which do you prefer? Discuss two or three advantages of the method you prefer. Include convincing examples, details, and personal experience as support.
 - a. There are several advantages and disadvantages of studying alone.
 - b. There are two major ways to study.
 - c. Studying with others is a good idea for three reasons.

 2. Many people value hard work and success. Working hard brings many rewards, such as status, a good income, and a nice home. Despite these benefits from hard work, working too hard can have serious consequences. What are two or three effects of overworking? Provide convincing examples, details and personal experience as support.
 - a. People overwork for three major reasons.
 - b. Hard work and success are important.
 - c. Overworking can cause two major problems.

Ex. 61 Write topic sentences for the following paragraphs

The following paragraphs are adapted from the article "This Year's Freshmen: A Statistical Profile," from *The Chronicle of Higher Education* (Sec. "Students," 12 January 1996, pp. A34-A35).

- Read each of the following short paragraphs carefully. Read the entire paragraph before deciding on the focus.
- Write a topic sentence that logically introduces each paragraph.

- Follow the rules for effective topic sentences.

1. According to the *Chronicle of Higher Education* (1996), of the American freshmen polled about their activities in 1995, 41% said they had participated in organized demonstrations. Moreover, a mere 22.7% said they had voted in a student election. Only 14.8% had discussed politics, and even fewer, 7.6%, had worked in a political campaign.

2. The report shows that 33.9% of the students polled complained of having been bored in class that year. Also, 65% admitted to not having submitted homework assignments on time. A smaller percentage, about one-fourth of the students polled, complained that they had been too overwhelmed to complete their work. Around one-third, or 34%, claimed they had overslept and missed classes or appointments, and 9.7% said they had felt depressed.

3. First, whereas 83.8% of the freshman women polled had attended a religious service in 1995, 76.9% of the freshman men polled had done so. Also, 87.2% of the freshman women in the survey said they had studied with other students in 1995. However, 81.4% of the freshman men had participated in study groups. More freshman women, 49.6%, had tutored other students than freshman men did, 44.2%. It was also reported that 74.1% of freshman women, as opposed to 65.8% of freshman men, had performed volunteer work. Freshman women, furthermore, were more likely to ask a teacher for advice after class than freshman men were: 21.1% versus 17.7%, respectively. Finally, the *Chronicle* reports that in 1995 more freshman women, 63.3%, had socialized with someone of another racial or ethnic group than freshman men had, 57.9%.

Ex. 62 Watch the video (<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Scxgz4V2zjQ>) and give your comments on the main information.

Convincing and Relevant Support in Writing

Sources of Support

Regardless of where you find your information, you need to choose support that will be interesting if you want to convince the reader. By brainstorming and listing, you can find direction and sort out the information you have. Do not choose just any example or detail. Pick support that you know the most about and that is the most representative, logical, and convincing. Consider the audience and assignment throughout this process. You do not want to lose the focus of the task. The subtopics are the main points in the paragraph. Make sure the subtopics you select:

- follow the topic sentence logically
- are distinctively different (do not overlap)
- belong together (are well matched, at the same level of generality)
- are parallel in form
- are thought-provoking
- are logical and appropriate choices that focus on major and representative ideas.

Ex.63 Evaluate the following subtopics

The following items contain topic sentences and three subtopics. One of the subtopics in each item is weak. Study the examples and explanations.

1. Technology benefits people's lives in three areas.
 - a. Transportation
 - b. Industry
 - c. The kitchen

Explanation: "Kitchen" is too specific. "The home" would be better.

2. Nonnative students have problems on campus.
 - a. Taking notes
 - b. Writing compositions
 - c. Getting along with roommates

Explanation: The first two subtopics are about academic problems, so the last subtopic does not fit the list because it is about a personal problem. "Participating in class discussions" would be better. The topic sentence would be better stated to include "academic problems."

3. In choosing a school, students should carefully consider the following things.
 - a. Caliber of the faculty in their major
 - b. Requirements
 - c. Work load

Explanation: There is overlap in the last two subtopics since both are related to the work that needs to be done to get a degree. "Cost" may be better for point c.

Ex. 64 Think about effective subtopics

- Complete each of the following unfinished subtopic statements with a logical word or phrase that is parallel to the other items (the same grammatical structure).
- Write a suitable topic sentence on the lines provided.

Example

I dislike living in big cities because of the air pollution.

I dislike living in big cities because of the**traffic**.... .

Topic Sentences *I dislike living in big cities because of the air pollution, crime, and traffic. Big cities can be unpleasant place to live for three reasons.*

1. I look forward to the future because I plan to

I look forward to the future because I plan to find a good job.

I look forward to the future because I plan to get married and raise a family.

Topic Sentence

2. A good teacher is well organized.

A good teacher is.....

A good teacher is.....

Topic Sentence

3. With computers, students can compute complex mathematical problems.

With computers, students can

With computers, students can

Topic Sentence

4. In the future, people need to solve the problems caused by pollution.

In the future, people need to

In the future, people need to

Topic Sentence

Unity in Writing (support)

Unity is important at every level of generality. The standard expository paragraph is like a pyramid with the topic sentence at the top or highest level of generality. With each new specific level added for each subtopic, the base of support for the pyramid becomes stronger. Without such support, the pyramid will not stand, and the writer's purpose will not be fulfilled.

Once you have your subtopics, you are ready to develop the next level of generality, the specific support. Remember that you want to dig deeply, so develop support that follows a general-to-specific approach. For every rhetorical pattern, there may be variations in how to structure paragraphs, but effective writers are able to explain and illustrate at various levels. Thus, it is a good idea to keep the following strategy in mind when planning support for an expository paragraph with examples.

The pyramid of support

Topic Sentence

Two or More Subtopics

General Explanation of Each Subtopic

General Examples to Illustrate Each Subtopic

Specific Examples, Facts, Details, Statistics, Personal Experiences

Explanation of Specific Examples, Facts, Details, Statistics, Personal Experiences

A paragraph is unified if each subtopic is a logical division of the paragraph topic and if the specific support for each subtopic is relevant to that subtopic.

Topic Sentence. This is the topic of the paper. Express it in a statement with the focus you have chosen.

Subtopics. These are the main points, which are more specific than the topic. Plan at least two well-expressed main points.

Explanation of Subtopics. This will include a definition and/or a discussion in general terms of each main point. Plan at least two points of explanation; more is better.

General Examples. These are examples of experiences that people have every day. They may include hypothetical examples (*Let's suppose, let's say, imagine that, if*). Plan at least two general examples, but additional examples will provide a more representative range. Include all important details.

Specific Examples. These are specific examples and details of real-life events. This level can include past events and experiences of the writer or other people, case studies, or examples from history (*In my case, Once, The following true story illustrates*). Include all relevant details. Aim for one specific well-developed example or two or more less-developed ones. The examples should contribute to the content and not just repeat the main point word for word.

Ex. 65 Bring your current draft of a composition you are working on. Discuss the problems you had or are having with your choice of topic and subtopic sentences.

- Explain how you solved them or how you are solving them.
- If necessary, brainstorm in small groups to find more effective subtopics.

Outlining Skills

An outline is a formal organized list of the ideas, explanations, details, examples, and other supporting points in a paper. When organizing a paper, it is easier to write an outline than to write the entire paper. If you have to make changes, do not rewrite every word; simply shift the points in the outline around and cut or add support as needed. It is necessary to learn outlining skills because sometimes a professor will ask to preview an outline before the paper is due and then request the final outline with the paper.

Framing a Paragraph

An outline is a visual representation of the levels of generality. First, the symbols used to signify general ideas are different from those for specific ideas. We will approach outlining by showing how one paragraph is built in layers, beginning with the main points under each topic sentence and adding deeper and deeper support.

Layer One: A, B, C

The main ideas (subtopics) in a paragraph are labeled A, B, C, and so on, and must directly relate to the topic sentence. In the outline model that follows, the subtopics are stated in sentences as models of effective subtopic sentences.

Layer Two: 1, 2, and 3

In this level, the supporting points are labeled with Arabic numerals (1, 2, 3, and so on) and the list of supporting points is indented. In this way, the reader can easily identify the supporting points. The rule for unity applies at this level also. Note that in each main division (A, B, C) the supporting points (1 and 2) directly relate to the topic sentence.

Layer Three: a, b, c

This level, consisting of relevant explanations of each subtopic, is labeled with lowercase letters (a, b, c, and so on). This list is also indented. In the following model, the reader can quickly see how the writer plans to discuss each subtopic.

Rules for Outlining

In addition to the rules for labeling the levels of generality in outlines demonstrated above, there are other guidelines for effective outlining.

1. Equivalent Value Rule: Clearly label the parts of the outline with the appropriate symbols for each level of generality. Remember that the support at the same level of generality should be labeled with the same type of symbol.

2. Balanced Support Rule: Plan at least two subdivisions for each division for balanced, well-developed support.

3. Parallel in Form Rule: List the support in parallel form. You can state all the points as sentence or noun phrases. It is a good idea to write out the subtopics as sentences to help with coherence when you write your paper.

4. Indentation Rule: Indent for each new level of generality. Levels that are equal in value should have the same indentation.

Patterns of Paragraph Development

Illustration

The number of workers in the U.S. film industry is quite small. The entire industry occupies only a few square kilometers around Los Angeles and comprises only eight major filmmaking studios. There are only three large talent agencies that represent artists in their business negotiations. There are fewer than 100 important actors, and fewer than 50 major film directors.

Definition

A proverb is a concise statement, in general use, expressing a shrewd perception about everyday life or a universally recognized truth. Most proverbs are rooted in folklore and have been preserved by oral tradition. Proverbs are succinct and often use simple rhyme (“A friend in need is a friend indeed”), irony (“Physician, heal thyself”), metaphor (“Still waters run deep”), and comparison or contrast (“Feed a cold and starve a fever”).

Classifying

There has always been a division between the movie stars who embodied a

single, sharply defined quality (Greta Garbo and Marilyn Monroe, Fred Astaire and Clint Eastwood) and those who were willing to appear heroic or unattractive, and to challenge the audience's expectations in a search for dramatic truth. It is latter breed--Bette Davis and Katherine Hepburn, Spencer Tracy and Marlon Brando among them—who inspire the most talented of today's stars.

Comparison and Contrast

Comparing China and India, both think their economies are going poorly, but the Indians are the more dissatisfied. Both think they will do better next year, with the Chinese much more optimistic. Both also think the world economy will recover next year, again with the Chinese rather more optimistic.

Cause and Effect

The immediate cause of the February Revolution was the collapse of the czarist regime under the strain of World War I. Russian industry lacked the capacity to arm, equip, and supply the millions of men who were sent into the war. Soldiers went hungry, and casualties were enormous. Goods became scarce, and by 1917 famine threatened the large cities. The czar, Emperor Nicholas II, ignored warnings of social and political unrest, and in February 1917 workers occupied the Winter Palace.

Narration

It is nearly four months since Hurricane Mitch swept through Honduras...Edgardo Serrato points to the river, a docile trickle of water in the distance. "That..." he says, then swings round and points to the top of his field, "got up to there." He turns back and indicates the barren, stony landscape on either side of the river. "And that," he says, "used to look like those," pointing to a thick patch of trees downstream. Finally, he sweeps his hand across his field, the soil newly sown with beans, now covered with sand up to half a metre deep. "And this is what it left us."

Argumentation

While censorship is dangerous to a free society, some of the concerned citizens who are in favour of censorship may have valid points when they object that children should not be exposed to television violence. Indeed, often there is too much violence on television. Perhaps the answer is for all networks to establish the same guidelines of self-censorship. If the networks were more responsible and tried to avoid material that is in poor taste, governmental officials, religious groups, and concerned parents might not feel the need to be involved in their decisions at all.

Ex. 66. Define the logical pattern and explain why it is appropriate in the following paragraphs.

Paragraph 1

Sometimes we bury or hide our undesirable emotions. We do this because we have been programmed to do this. By the time we are five years old, our parents have influenced us to be affectionate, tender, angry, or hateful. We moralize our emotions. We tell ourselves it is good to feel grateful, but bad to feel angry or jealous. So we suppress emotions we should release. We get into “value conflicts.” Boys and men are not supposed to cry or show fear. So some men attempt to bury their true feelings and create a false self-image.

Paragraph 2

In the U.S., the age-old problem of excessive drinking is taking a disturbing new turn and affecting new kinds of victims. On a New York subway train, a school-bound 15-year-old holds his books in one hand, a brown paper bag containing a beer bottle in the other. He takes a swing, then passes the bottle to a classmate. In a San Francisco suburb, several high school freshmen show up for class drunk every morning, while others sneak off for a nip or two of whiskey during the lunch recess. On the campuses, the beer bash is fashionable once again, and lowered drinking ages have made liquor the without the hassle.

Paragraph 3

Cocaine has a long history of use and misuse in the United States. At the turn of the century, dozens of nonprescription potions and cure-alls containing cocaine were sold. It was during this time that Coca-Cola was indeed the “real thing.” From 1886, when it was first concocted, until 1906 when the Pure Food and Drug Act was passed, Coca-Cola contained cocaine (which has since been replaced with caffeine). In the 1930s, the popularity of cocaine declined when the cheaper synthetic amphetamines became available. This trend was reversed in the 1960s when a federal crackdown on amphetamine sales made this drug less available and more expensive. Today, cocaine is becoming one of the most widely abused illegal drugs.

Ex. 67 Define the methods used to develop the following paragraphs and explain why this method is appropriate.

Paragraph 1

Every society tries to produce a prevalent psychological type that will best serve its ends, and that type is always prone to certain emotional malfunctions. In early capitalism, which was the producing society, the ideal type was acquisitive, fanatically devoted to hard work and fiercely repressive of sex. The emotional malfunctions to which this type was liable were hysteria and obsession. Later capitalism, today’s capitalism, is a consuming society, and the psychological type it strives to create, in order to build up the largest possible markets., is shallow, easily swayed and characterized much more by self-infatuation than self-respect. The emotional malfunction of this type is narcissism.

Paragraph 2

Now, to be properly enjoyed, a walk in tour should be gone upon alone. If you go in a company, or even in pairs, it is no longer a walking tour in anything but name; it is something else and more in the nature of a picnic. A walking tour should be gone upon alone, because freedom is the essence; because you should be able to stop and go on, and follow this way and that, as the freak takes you; and because

you must have your own pace, and neither trot alongside a champion walker, nor mince in time with a girl. And then you must be open to all impressions and let your thoughts take color from what you see. You should be as a pipe for any wind to play upon. “I cannot see the wit,” says Hazlitt, “of walking and talking at the same time. When I am in the country, I wish to vegetate like the country” – which is the gist of all that can be said upon the matter. There should be no cackle of voices at your elbow to jar on the meditative silence of the morning. And so long as a man is reasoning he cannot surrender himself to that fine intoxication that comes of much motion in the open air, that begins in a sort of dazzle and sluggishness of the brain, and ends in a peace that passes comprehension.

Paragraph 3

It is impossible for Mexicans to produce the humblest thing without form or design. A donkey wears a load of palm leaves arranged on the either flank in great green sunbursts. Merchants hang candles by their wicks to make patterns in both line and color. Market coconuts show white new moonstrips above the dark, fibrous mass. Serapes are thrown with just the right line over the shoulders of ragged peons, muffling them to the eyes. Merchants in the market will compose their tomatoes, oranges, red seeds and even peanuts into little geometric piles. Bundles of husks will be tied in a manner suitable for suspension in an artist’s studio. To the traveler from the north, used to the treatment of cold, dead produce as cold, dead produce, this is a matter of perpetual wonder and delight.

Paragraph 4

The most essential distinction between athletics and education lies in the institution’s own interest in the athlete as distinguished from its interest in its other students. Universities attract students in order to teach them what they do not already know; they recruit athletes only when they are already proficient. Students are educated for something which will be useful to them and to society after graduation; athletes are required to spend their time on activities the usefulness of which disappears upon graduation or soon thereafter. Universities exist to do what they can for students; athletes are required for what they can do for the universities.

This makes the operation of the athletic program in which recruited players are used basically different from an educational interest of colleges and universities.

Paragraph 5

There are many differences between the way American parents raise their children and the way the parents raise children in Saudi Arabia. In the U.S., fathers and mothers are equally responsible for raising their children. Both parents teach the children, play with them, and discipline them equally. Moreover, U.S. parents treat their children like adults and expect them to become both responsible and independent at a very young age. Many children of seven or eight have outside jobs to earn money, and most U.S. teenagers have at least part-time jobs that make them financially independent. In contrast, in my country, Saudi Arabia, parents have separate roles in raising their children, and they are expected to provide for all of their children's needs until the children become adults. For example, it is the father's responsibility to earn enough money to support his family completely, and it is also his duty to make all family decisions. The mother, however, is responsible for the everyday care of the children, and she is also expected to give the children her love and guidance in all things. The result of these differences is that American children, who became adults in childhood, often behave like children when they are adults, but Saudi Arabian children, who have passed through all the stages of childhood, are ready to behave like adults when they reach maturity.

Ex. 68 Writing Assignment

Write about the following topic:

People attend colleges or universities for many different reasons (for example, new experiences, career preparation, increased knowledge etc.). Why do you think people attend colleges or universities? Give reasons for your answer using your own ideas and experience.

You will be given a time limit in which to write a composition on a topic your instructor will provide (2-3pages).

- Plan before you write.

- Allow for time to proofread.
- Use all of the time allowed.

Ex. 69 Peer-reviewing outlines.

- Study the following outlines.
- Evaluate each of them. Imagine the writer is your fellow student. Each outline has its own strengths and weaknesses, do not answer yes to all of the questions.

Assignment: Much has been said about the role TV plays in people's lives. Some people think TV is a bad influence. Others argue that TV is beneficial to people. What do you think? Discuss the advantages or disadvantages of TV. Provide convincing details, examples, and personal experience.

The Benefits of TV Outline 1

TV is so related to our daily lives that we cannot even imagine the world without it. TV can give us benefits such as entertainment, information, and education.

A. One major benefit of TV is entertainment.

1. Joy
 - a. Large screen
 - b. Stereo sound
2. Various programs
 - a. Movies, sports, comedies, shows, music, soap operas, cartoons
 - b. Choosing favorite programs
3. My favorite programs
 - a. Watching TV being my pleasure
 - b. Live sports relay

B. Another major benefit of TV is information.

1. News
 - a. Community, country, world
 - b. CNN World Today
2. Living
 - a. Weather

- b. Shopping
- c. Utility
- d. Recreation
- e. My weekend plan according to information from TV

C. Finally, TV benefits us because it provides education.

1. Correspondence class

2. Adult education

- a. Why TV?
- b. Learning computers

In conclusion, TV is becoming more beneficial in our daily lives when it is used correctly.

Outline 2

TV plays an important role in broadcasting the daily weather information.

A. Importance of weather information

1. Increased reliability of weather information

- a. improved predictability
- 2. Making a daily plan according to the weather
 - a. Support of making a decision
 - b. Watching the Weather Channel

B. Practical use of the Weather Channel in my life

- 1. Some activities depending on the weather
 - a. Cleaning and drying clothes
 - b. Car wash
 - c. Wearing clothes

2. Memory of a wrong weather report

- a. Rainy picnic

C. Watching warnings on TV about bad weather

- 1. Effects of bad weather
 - a. Temperature

- b. Wind
- c. Rain
- 2. Types of bad weather
 - a. Hurricane
 - b. Tornado

In conclusion, people benefit from the weather information on TV and make use of it in their daily live.

Ex. 70 Watch the video (<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0IFDuhdB2Hk>) and be ready to speak about how to construct good paragraphs and improve writing with better flow and clarity.

Ex. 71 Writing Assignment

The Benefits of TV

Much has been said about the role TV plays in people's lives. Some people think TV is a bad influence. Others argue that TV is beneficial to people. What do you think? Discuss the advantages or disadvantages of TV. Provide convincing details, examples, and personal experience. Use the outlining given in the previous exercise (write at least 300 words).

Ex. 72 Read and analyze the given information

Paraphrasing and summarizing is used to acknowledge another author's ideas. You can extract and summarize important points, while at the same time making it clear from whom and where you have got the ideas you are discussing and what your point of view is. Compare, for example:

Brown (1983, p. 231) claims that a far more effective approach is...

Brown (1983, p. 231) points out that a far more effective approach is...

A far more effective approach is ... (Brown, 1983, p. 231)

The first one is Brown's point of view with no indication about your point of view. The second one is Brown's point of view, which you agree with, and the third is your point of view, which is supported by Brown.

Paraphrasing is writing the ideas of another person in your own words. You need to change the words and the structure but keep the meaning the same. Please remember, though, that even when you paraphrase someone's work, you must acknowledge it.

Example:

Source: It has long been known that Cairo is the most populous city on earth, but no one knew exactly how populous it was until last month.

Paraphrase: Although Cairo has been the world's most heavily populated city for many years, the precise population was not known until four weeks ago.

The following stages may be useful:

1. Read and understand the text.
2. Make a list of the main ideas.
 - a. Find the important ideas - the important words/phrases. In some way mark them - write them down, underline or highlight them.
 - b. Find alternative words/synonyms for these words/phrases - do not change specialized vocabulary and common words.

Example: Memory is the capacity for storing and retrieving information.

Memory is the facility for keeping and recovering data.

3. Change the structure of the text.
 - a. Identify the meaning relationships between the words/ideas - e.g. cause/effect, generalization, contrast.
 - b. Express these relationships in a different way.

Example: *Besides being a theory about the basis and origin of knowledge and the contents of our minds in general, empiricism is also sometimes a methodology.*

Not only is empiricism a theory about the basis and origin of knowledge and the contents of our minds in general, it also sometimes a methodology.

c. Change the grammar of the text: change nouns to verbs, adjectives to adverbs, etc.

Example: *This rewriting of history was not so much a matter of a new start.*

This rewriting of history was not so much a matter of starting again.

- change verbs to nouns

Example: *The Normans invaded in 1066.*

The Norman invasion took place in 1066.

- change active verbs to passive

Example: *We can relate a study of this kind to texts in other media too*

A study of this kind can be related to texts in other media too.

- break up sentences

Example: *In 1851 the average family size was 4.7, roughly the same as it had been in the seventeenth century, but the 1 million couples who married during the 1860s, which the historian G. M. Young described as the best decade in English history to have been brought up in, raised the figure to 6.2.*

In 1851 the average family size was 4.7, roughly the same as it had been in the seventeenth century. However, the 1 million couples who married during the 1860s, which the historian G. M. Young described as the best decade in English history to have been brought up in, raised the figure to 6.2.

- combine sentences

Example: *Tropical forests are defined here as evergreen or partly evergreen forests. They grow in areas receiving not less than 100 mm of precipitation in any month for two out of three years. The mean annual temperature is 24-plus degrees Celsius. The area is essentially frost-free.*

Tropical forests are defined here as evergreen or partly evergreen forests, in areas receiving not less than 100 mm of precipitation in any month for two out of three years, with mean annual temperature of 24-plus degrees Celsius, and essentially frost-free.

4. Rewrite the main ideas in complete sentences. Combine your notes into a piece of continuous writing.
5. Check your work.
 - a. Make sure the meaning is the same.
 - b. Make sure the length is the same.
 - c. Make sure the style is your own.
 - d. Remember to acknowledge other people's work.

6. You also need to change the words and the structure of the text!

Ex. 73 Read the sentences and paraphrase them in your own words.

1. There are a number of methods of joining metal articles together, depending on the type of metal and the strength of the joint which is required.
2. In general, the population was spread irregularly with large numbers in the east and fewer people in the north. There were still, however, even in densely populated areas like Warwickshire, areas of forest with few people.
3. Mankind is always searching for a better life. One way of improving it is to plan work so that it corresponds to the capacities and needs of the worker. Ergonomics is concerned with fitting work to man. It doesn't limit its goal to the elimination of physical hazards to health, but aims at making the work more satisfying to the worker.
4. In most developing countries, two-thirds or more of the people live in rural areas, with few, if any, of the services the city-dweller takes for granted. Water taps in houses, for example, are almost unknown. At best, there may be a village well. Often the only source of water is a lake or a stream, perhaps several kilometers away. The drudgery of water-carrying can take up the better part of every day.
5. The way I see it, people need to be made far more aware of safety in ordinary everyday situations - a classic example, of course, is the child reaching for the bottle of tablets Mum forgot to lock away - and it seems to me that the cinema would be the ideal place in which to get the message across. A film about safety

tucked at the end of the forthcoming attractions and advertisements would then be seen by a large section of the population.

(<http://www.uefap.com/writing/writfram.htm>)

Ex. 74 Watch the video https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=_MwAHsgABHk and prepare tips for students how to paraphrase to avoid using the same words and sentences.

Ex.75 Do you think there are any differences between the processes of paraphrasing and summarizing? Give reasons.

A summary is a shortened version of a text. It contains the main points in the text and is written in your own words. It is a mixture of reducing a long text to a short text and selecting relevant information. A good summary shows that you have understood the text. Please remember, though, that even when you summarize someone's work, you must acknowledge it.

Example

Source: The amphibians, which are the animal class to which our frogs and toads belong, were the first animals to crawl from the sea and inhabit the earth.

Summary: The first animals to leave the sea and live on dry land were the amphibian.

The phrase "which is the animal class to which our frogs and toads belong" is an example, not a main point, and can be deleted. The rest of the text is rewritten in your own words.

The following stages may be useful:

1. Read and understand the text carefully.
2. Think about the purpose of the text.

- a. Ask what the author's purpose is in writing the text?
 - b. What is your purpose in writing your summary?
 - c. Are you summarizing to support your points?
 - d. Or are you summarizing so you can criticize the work before you introduce your main points?
3. Select the relevant information. This depends on your purpose.
 4. Find the main ideas - what is important.
 - a. They may be found in topic sentences.
 - b. Distinguish between main and subsidiary information.
 - c. Delete most details and examples, unimportant information, anecdotes, examples, illustrations, data etc.
 - d. Find alternative words/synonyms for these words/phrases - do not change specialized vocabulary and common words.
 5. Change the structure of the text.
 - a. Identify the meaning relationships between the words/ideas - e.g. cause/effect, generalization, contrast. Express these relationships in a different way.
 - b. Change the grammar of the text: rearrange words and sentences. Change nouns to verbs, adjectives to adverbs, etc., break up long sentences, combine short sentences.
 - c. Simplify the text. Reduce complex sentences to simple sentences, simple sentences to phrases, phrases to single words.
 6. Rewrite the main ideas in complete sentences. Combine your notes into a piece of continuous writing. Use conjunctions and adverbs such as 'therefore', 'however', 'although', 'since', to show the connections between the ideas.
 7. Check your work.
 - a. Make sure your purpose is clear.
 - b. Make sure the meaning is the same.
 - c. Make sure the style is your own.
 - d. Remember to acknowledge other people's work.

4b/c. Distinguish between main and subsidiary information. Delete most details and examples, unimportant information, anecdotes, examples, illustrations, data etc. Simplify the text. Reduce complex sentences to simple sentences, simple sentences to phrases.

Examples:

- a. People whose professional activity lies in the field of politics are not, on the whole, conspicuous for their respect for factual accuracy. **Politicians often lie.**
- b. The climatic conditions prevailing in the British Isles show a pattern of alternating and unpredictable periods of dry and wet weather, accompanied by a similarly irregular cycle of temperature changes. **British weather is changeable.**
- c. It is undeniable that the large majority of non-native learners of English experience a number of problems in attempting to master the phonetic patterns of the language.

Many learners find English pronunciation difficult.

(<http://www.uefap.com/writing/writfram.htm>)

Ex.76 Make a summary of the following text.

Science problems can be roughly classified as analytic and synthetic. In analytic problems we seek the principles of the most profound natural processes, the scientist working always at the edge of the unknown. This is the situation today, for instance, within the two extremes of research in physics - elementary particle physics and astrophysics - both concerned with the properties of matter, one on the smallest, and the other on the grandest scale. Research objectives in these fields are determined by the internal logic of the development of the field itself. Revolutionary shocks to the foundations of scientific ideas can be anticipated from these very areas.

Ex. 77 Watch the video <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VwEl-MiZH0E> and be ready to list the steps for creating a summary.

Argumentative Essay

What is argument?

Definitions from *The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language*, 3rd

Edition:

- putting forth reasons for or against; debating;
- attempting to prove by reasoning; maintain or content;
- giving evidence of; indicate;
- persuading or influence (another), as by presenting reasons.

Formulating an arguable position

An arguable statement should:

- try to convince readers of something or to persuade them to do something;
- focus on a problem or question for which there is no easy or obvious answer;
- present a position about which others may reasonably have different opinions.

Formulating an argumentative thesis

An argumentative thesis is a particular type of thesis statement that has two parts:

- statement about what is (the arguable statement as done above);
- claim about what ought to be (what action should be taken in light of statement).

Establishing credibility

There are three ways to establish credibility

- demonstrating knowledge about the topic (ask how);
- establishing common ground with readers;
- demonstrating fairness to opposing points of view.

Formulating support for the thesis

You need not only present your opinion, but also support it with evidence.

- Using personal experience.
- Giving logical reasons to support your thesis

- giving examples and precedents;
- citing an authority or expert on the topic.
- Showing causes and effects.
- Using inductive and deductive reasoning.
- Giving emotional reasons to support your thesis
- using description;
- using concrete language;
- using figurative language (metaphors, similes, analogies).

Formulating the counterarguments against the thesis

When presenting counterarguments you should:

- Present at least two arguments against your point of view (counterarguments) with evidence.
- Answer these counterarguments with evidence.
- Avoid strong language (“This is a stupid idea”).

ORGANIZING THE ESSAY

The classical system of argumentation

based on that of ancient Greek and Roman orators

The Introduction

- Gains reader’s attention (question, story, quotation).
- Establishes your qualifications to write about topic.
- Establishes common ground with readers.
- Demonstrates fairness.
- States thesis.

The Background (any necessary background information about the topic).

The Arguments

- Reasons in support of thesis (logical/emotional/ethical).
- Reasons presented in order of importance (most important first).

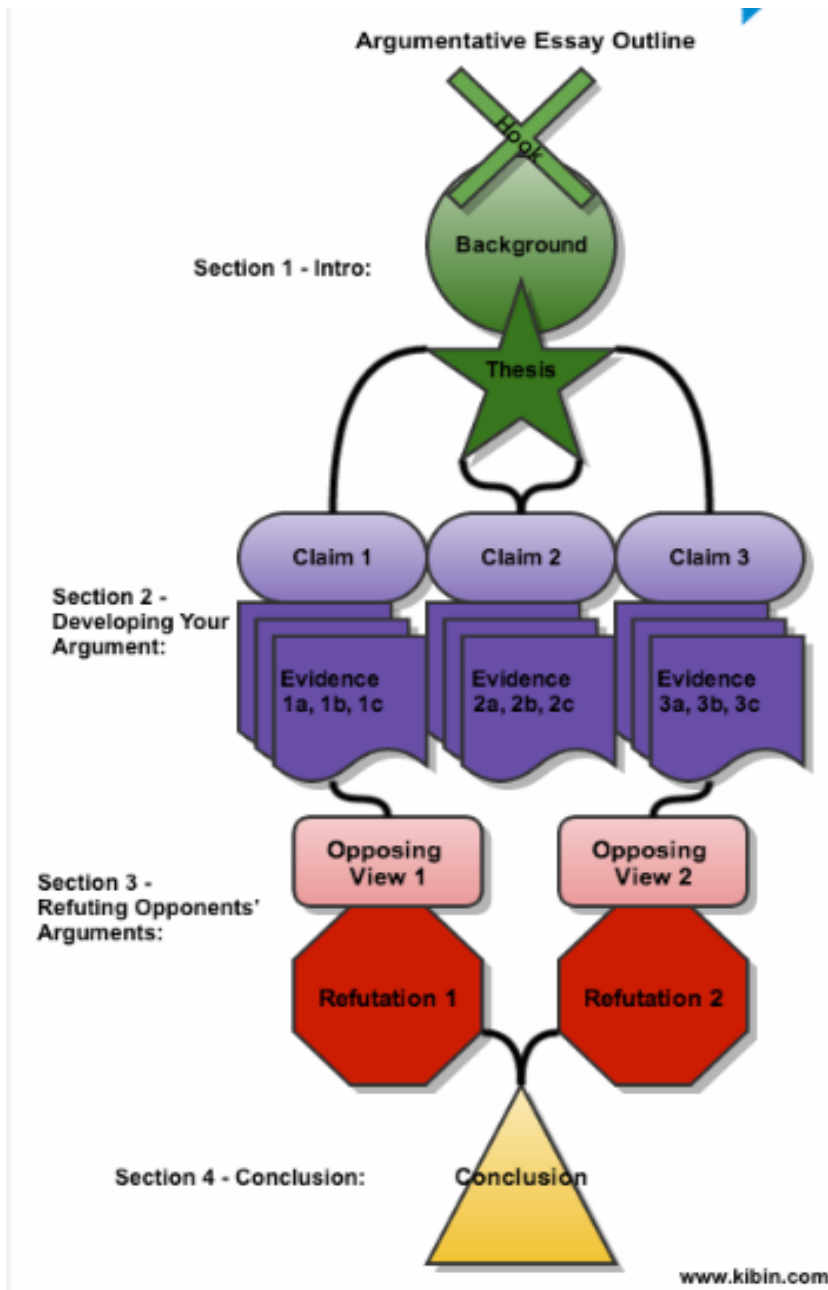
The Counterarguments

- Present alternative points of view.
- Notes reasons for/against these points of view.
- Shows why your view is better.

The Conclusion

- Summarize the argument.
- Elaborate on implications of the thesis (if we do this, then...).
- State what you want readers to think or do.
- Make a strong ethical or emotional appeal.

Table of Argumentative Essay



Ex. 79. Revising the Essay

A. The following essay needs to be revised. It has some problems in each of its paragraphs. Refer to the Essay Checklist as you study the essay paragraph by paragraph. Work with a partner or with a small group. One person in each group should write down the problems in each part of the essay as they are being discussed.

After the group discussion is completed, join in a class discussion to compare your findings with those of the other groups.

Heavy Traffic

The traffic problem is growing in most big cities. There are many overcrowded streets and freeways. Because there are too many cars and other vehicles. There are not enough parking facilities in the busy downtowns areas. However, the heavy traffic problem can be solved in three ways.

More rapid transit systems should be build between the cities and suburbs. Then, people who lives in the suburbs and works in the cities can get to their destinations quick and safely. By using rapid transit systems, commuters will leave their cars at home. This will reduce the number of cars on the freeways. And the streets in the busy downtown areas. Many people like to shop in the department stores in big cities. In Japan the metropolitan areas have excellent railway lines for commuting within the cities. There are also dependable subway systems to connect large city like Tokyo and Osaka.

Car pools are a good way to ease the heavy traffic during the commuter rush hours. A car pool is an arrangement by a group of car owners to take turns driving their car to work and other places. For example. If several people live near one another in the same suburb and work in a big city. Like Boston, Manhattan, or Los Angeles, they can form a car pool. They can take turns driving to the city and back. With more people using car pools. There will be fewer traffic jams and accidents. Public transportation systems within the cities must be improved. People who live in large cities should take buses and streetcars to go downtown. If they leave their cars at home. They can avoid the commuter rush. They can get to their destinations and return home much more quickly.

In conclusion, car pools are necessary.

B. Rewrite the essay above. Correct the organization, paragraphing, sentence structure, and grammar as necessary.

Ex. 80 Watch the video <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tAmgEa1B1vI> and explain what should a student do in order to improve academic essay writing.

Ex. 81 Read the essay <https://www.victoria.ac.nz/lrc/resources/academic-writing/sample-essay.html> and make your own analyses then compare it with the instructor's.

Glossary of Terms Used in Writing Process

Brainstorming: Exercises and techniques that help you find and organize ideas, arguments, and theses for a paper. To see some examples, check out the Writing Center's handout on Brainstorming techniques.

Freewriting: A form of brainstorming where you write without stopping for a period of time.

Draft: The initial version of a paper before revisions and proofreading.

Feedback: Comments on your paper that praise or provide suggestions for improving your draft.

Revising: Correcting or making changes to the paper's thesis, organization, argument or evidence.

Proofreading: Correcting the sentence structure, spelling, and other grammar issues in the paper. This step comes after revising the paper.

Peer Review Workshop: Students get into pairs or groups to write feedback and to talk about improving the paper.

Rubric: A scoring guide that a teacher uses to grade your paper. It usually includes a description of what an excellent, good, or poor score may look like. (e.g. have a clear thesis statement, address the audience appropriately)

Elements of a Paper

Introduction: The first paragraph or section of your paper; it gives important background about the topic. It also includes the thesis statement.

Thesis Statement: A clear statement of the main argument in your paper. It usually appears at the end of the introduction.

Body paragraph: A paragraph in the paper that is neither the introduction nor the conclusion. In an argumentative paper, a body paragraph supports the thesis statement. It contains topic sentences, evidence, and analysis. (See below)

Topic Sentence: A clear statement of the main idea you want a paragraph to convey. It usually comes at the beginning of the paragraph.

Evidence: Any material (e.g.: data or expert sources) that supports or helps prove your thesis.

Source: People or publications that provide evidence to support your thesis. Examples may include journal articles, books, online websites, videos, and people you interview. You must cite your sources when you use them in your paper.

Analysis: When writers provide analysis, they explain how their evidence connects to their thesis.

Counterargument: An argument that disagrees with your position in the paper. You should acknowledge counterarguments, and either accept, accommodate or refute them.

Conclusion: The last paragraph or section in an essay; it restates the thesis and the evidence that supports it. It sometimes also explains the thesis's importance outside of a class.

Genres of Writing

Persuasive Essay or Argumentative Essay: A paper that tries to convince a reader that a certain idea is better than another idea. The paper may try to tell its reader to take action for this idea. Some persuasive essays may use sources and others may not.

Research Paper: An essay that analyzes a number of sources within a field, creating an argument or interpretation of the information within the sources.

Citations/References

These are concepts that relate to the use of sources in a paper.

Source: People or publications that provide evidence to support your thesis. Some examples are journal articles, books, online websites, videos, and people you interview.

In-text Citation: When you reference (or “cite”) a source in the body of your paper, that reference is an in-text citation. To see sample in-text citations, refer to MLA, APA, or Chicago style manuals or Purdue OWL.

Signal phrase: A phrase that leads into a quotation or paraphrase. A signal phrase usually includes the author’s name. Refer to MLA, APA or Chicago style Purdue OWL to see how to cite sentences with signal phrases.

Quoting: The use of someone’s words exactly as they wrote them. Quoting requires quotation marks and an in-text citation.

Paraphrasing: Using different words and sentences to summarize a source’s main idea or argument. Paraphrasing requires an in-text citation.

Bibliography: Located at the end of the paper, it contains a list of all sources cited in the paper. (Also called: Works Cited or References page)

Bibliographic citation: Each source used in the paper is listed in the bibliography. Each source entry is called the bibliographic citation.

Annotated Bibliography: A list of sources you plan to use in a paper. Each source in the list is accompanied by a short summary (“annotation”) of that source, and how it relates to your paper. The annotation may also evaluate the source, its accuracy and quality.

Summary: a brief account of a source’s main points.

Plagiarism: Occurs when the writer uses the ideas or words of another person or publication or other source without crediting, acknowledging or citing that person, publication, or other source.

Patchwriting: is considered a form of plagiarism and you want to avoid this. It is when someone writes passages that are not copied word by word, but have still been borrowed.

Tips for ESL Students on Reviewing and Improving Written Work

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This article covers five practical tips for students to self-review, revise and improve the pre-submission standard of work written in English.

Introduction for Teachers

This worksheet describes five practical ideas to encourage students to improve their writing in English before it arrives on your desk. It is addressed directly to students and where feasible contains working examples of problems we often encounter in our students' writing. You may wish to have the students read it, then act on the advice, or you may isolate given suggestions and raise them in the classroom using the examples given or your own. The latter approach may be better for some students.

Dear Students

As a teacher one of the more frustrating things about checking students' writing is finding small mistakes that are (or should be) so easily picked up before the writing assignment is submitted. Another frustration is seeing words that are just too easy and simplistic--we (teachers) know that you (students) know more than you think you know! This means, you have a deep vocabulary but you don't use it enough. Of course we teachers also understand that writing is difficult and that you want to finish your homework and get on with life. In a race we can have a *false start* and then a *re-start*. You probably took a little while to start your writing: thinking, stopping, rethinking and re-starting based on a clear plan. Finishing your homework is really a *false finish* and as such needs a *re-finish*. If you take a little more time once you have *finished* a writing activity (paragraph, report, essay etc.) there can be a much more satisfactory outcome all round: for yourself, your teachers and your language ability (your grade). It might also be useful beyond your language studies and even beyond university. Here are some practical tips for you to think about and use.

Preparation

Before we start, there are a number of items that you will need:

a set of different colour highlight pens or coloured pencils (five would be a good start) a record-play back source (cassette or MD)

a thesaurus

a friend

a piece of your original writing.

Up-grade Your Vocabulary

Most students write using their existing and largely *surface* vocabulary - words that come to you without much thought. This is understandable because, as you write and think you have to juggle many things in your mind. Your vocabulary is like an iceberg. You can only see 20% of an iceberg above the water, but most of it is below the surface. Similarly you know and recognise many more words than you actively use. You can improve your writing by up-grading, or improving, your vocabulary by *diving under the surface* for better words and expressions.

Select certain highlight pen or pencil colours for certain vocabulary items. For example, yellow for nouns, green for verbs, and other colours for adjectives, transitions and so on. Go through your writing and highlight or underline all the examples you can find. Then, think (consider): "Is that word the best I can do?" Do the words actually (precisely) say (express) what you want to say (convey)? Can you find another, better (superior) word? Either you can think more carefully about words you know or go to a thesaurus. A thesaurus is a book like a dictionary except that it lists words of the same meaning. You can buy (purchase) print versions, Roget's Thesaurus being the most famous, but most electronic dictionaries and computers have them. I thought about many words in this paragraph and put a better word next to them in parenthesis (). One of them was the word *say*. The thesaurus on my computer suggested many words instead of *say*: *state, speak, remark, utter, express, voice, declare, pronounce*. Not all examples in a thesaurus will mean the same thing so you need to cross-reference with a dictionary to make sure it is the meaning you really want.

Try this now. Find a thesaurus and look up these words: *state, speak, remark, utter, express, voice, declare, pronounce.*

Understand Your Problems and Weaknesses

This is fairly simple: understand what kinds of mistakes you make (often very small ones) or habits you have that weaken your writing. If you don't know, look back at any work that has been corrected by a teacher. Often the same mistakes are made? Do you forget or mix up articles (a, an, the)? Are all your sentences about the same length or similar structure? You might also look at whatever writing textbook you have used and list the kinds of things that it focuses on. It might also have checklists you could use. Make a list of these things, keep it somewhere prominent and refer to it when you check your writing.

Listen to Your Writing

As you write and re-read your work, your eye and brain become used to seeing the words. In some cases you become too familiar with your own writing so you miss small mistakes. In fact, *aoccdrnig to rscheearch at an Elingsh uinervtisy, it deosn't mtttaer in what oredr the ltteers in a wrod are, the olny iprmoatnt tihng is taht the frist and lsat ltteer is at the rghit pclae. The rset can be a toatl mses and you can sitll raed it wouthit porbelm.*

Hopefully your spelling is not that bad, but, one way to check is to have someone else read your work. However, that not always possible. Instead, listen to your writing. Read your own writing aloud onto a tape or MD. Even reading it aloud to yourself will help, but you have to vocalise, or say, the words clearly. As you do this you may catch some things. But, the next step is important. Replay your reading-recording to yourself as you follow along by reading your work. As you do you may:

catch small mistakes (articles, tenses, grammar etc.)

realise the *rhythm of your writing* is too monotonous (similar word length etc.)

find you don't move smoothly between ideas and sections (transitions)

see (hear, actually) you have used the same word too much or the words are too simple (vocabulary).

Pause and make corrections to your writing as you listen, and do it a number of times to be sure. At first you may be shy doing this recording and even shocked at hearing yourself speaking in a foreign language. But if you can sing in front of people at least you can do this.

This activity has benefits beyond writing as it makes you aware of your own voice and pronunciation, it also requires you to speak quite loudly and at length. Try doing the recording a few times if you need to. Try to read with expression. Are all the sentences about the same length? This will help you see if you need to vary the length of sentences by using conjunctions (e.g. so, but, and etc.).

Check Spelling in Reverse

This seems obvious and easy to do. Computers can check spelling for you. My computer spell check went crazy over the *Listening to Your Writing* section above. Electronic spell checks are not perfect.

The smell cheque on you computer can only check four worms that are knot collect.

Is something *strange* about that last sentence? My computer does not think so, but there are seven spelling mistakes! Firstly, spell check using your computer, then do it using a thesaurus. One way to do this to avoid the problem discussed in *Listening to Your Writing* above is to read your writing backwards, in reverse. When we read we group words together in our mind. We do not (or should not) read each single word individually, so we might overlook spelling mistakes or omissions in the process. Reading from back to front makes us focus on individual words and we can more easily pick mistakes. Still, you may not catch all the mistakes so this leads us to the last suggestion.

Try this now. Find the seven mistakes and write out the correct sentence.

Find a Friend: Peer Review

.....

It is advisable to have another person read your final product before you submit it. If it is someone in the same class or who has the same assignment you can do it as an exchange. A native speaker of the language would also be helpful, but perhaps too helpful. A native speaker who is not a teacher might tend to do too much work for you and you will not benefit in the long-term. Find a friend who is willing to spend some time on your writing and give you constructive comments, advice and criticism. If you are a friend, be honest about where you think improvements can be made. If you are the writer, be open to criticism and consider the advice you are given. Both of you would benefit from the task of *peer review*, which is what we call this. A *peer* is someone who is *equal* to you such as a classmate or fellow student. Often a peer can give you much more feedback than a teacher who might have many papers to check.

Finally

These are only five basic ideas you could use to improve the quality of your writing before you submit it. Admittedly it adds time to your writing activity. It might be time that you *invest* now rather than time *withdrawn* later by your teacher who asks you to rewrite it! I hope, however, that you can see that being a little harder on yourself after you have 'false finished' a piece of writing will result in a superior product. Earlier I used the *race* analogy: maybe the old story of the rabbit and the tortoise applies here, too. It is better to go slowly and carefully rather than race through things too quickly. Taking your time at the *re-finish* also has other positives. It makes reading your writing much more enjoyable and easier for the reader, and this is usually a teacher who is going to give you a grade. The fewer mistakes I find when I am checking papers the happier I am. I don't mean to say that you should only write to make teachers happy. What I mean is that a polished piece of writing satisfies everyone.

Tips for student – the way to a good composition/essay

What readers look for in writing?

Grammar: articles, pronouns, rules for verbs, agreement.

Mechanics: spelling, punctuation.

Word Choice: vocabulary, idiom, tone.

Syntax: sentence structure, stylistic choices.

Content: relevance, clarity, originality, logic.

Organization: paragraphs, topic and support, cohesion and unity.

Purpose: the reason for writing.

Audience: the readers and what they want or expect.

What is a paragraph?

Paragraph: group of sentences supporting one idea; central idea is usually stated in topic sentence; every sentence is relevant.

5-paragraph essay: Introduction (argument), paragraph 1- support; paragraph 2 - support; paragraph 3 – support; paragraph 4 - conclusion (summary); paragraph 5 - restatement of main points.

Important to remember in your paragraphs

Summarize: be concise, put statements into your own words.

Cite Sources: never copy; always give source of information, if it is not original.

Revise: you can always go back and change your writing; revising is part of the writing process.

Ways to support a topic sentence

Examples: specific instance that explains an idea.

Details: particular parts or characteristics of a whole thing or idea; usually used in description.

Anecdotes: a short, entertaining account of some happening, usually personal. *Facts or Statistics:* objectively verifiable or numerical facts.

Different ways to organize papers

Enumeration: start with a general class, then list all its members or parts (you can begin with “First” and then proceed with “Next”, “Then”, and “Finally”).

Chronology: list events in order of occurrence in time; what happened, first, second, third?

Cause and Effect: explain different phenomena by explaining the “cause” or reason why a situation is how it is, and the “effect,” the result of the cause —

Sentence Connectors for *cause and effect* structure:

cause; as a result, *effect*

cause; consequently, *effect*

cause; therefore, *effect*

cause; because of this, *effect* —Predicate Structures for *cause and effect*:

cause is the reason for *effect*

cause is responsible for *effect*

cause leads to *effect*

cause contributes to *effect*

Definitions and facts

Definition: explains what a particular term means; usually term to be defined, the class to which it belongs, and its distinguishing features.

Circular Definitions: using a word from the same family to define a term (economics: study of the economy).

Over-extended Definitions: definition can be more than the term (if we describe lemonade as a refreshing drink, it defines nothing since there are many different kinds of refreshing drinks).

Restricted Definitions: term can be so much more than the word that defines it (if we describe a table simply as a place where one eats, we're missing important distinguishing features of the table; it can be used to put things, for discussions, for games).

Stipulated Definitions: these are used when 1) of all the possible meanings of the term you will use one, and not the others; 2) you will use the word in a very

special sense not to be found in the dictionary, usually for abstract words like love, friendship, and success.

Facts: evidence that no rational person could refute (Fact: Michael Jordan has won several basketball championships with the Chicago Bulls; Opinion: Michael Jordan is the best basketball player in the world).

Voice: unique way of using language, individual style.

Elements of Voice: sentence structure, diction, tone.

Sentence Structure: way sentences are constructed; some use long, some use short.

Diction: word choice; concrete (dealing with the 5 senses) or abstract (love, peace, abstract terms); formal, dignified and serious (report or business letter), or informal, casual, conversational.

Tone: emotional effect of a piece of writing; the way it makes a reader feel.

Two kinds of meanings in words

Denotation: dictionary meaning.

Connotation: implied meaning of word that transcends dictionary meaning.

All words have denotations, but usually different connotations according to context.

Language

Literal Language: matter of fact, to the point; words mean precisely what they say.

Figurative language: poetic, imaginative; speaks of things as if they were different from what they actually are (simile, metaphor).

Simile: uses *like* or *as* to reveal similarities in things.

Metaphor: speaks of one thing as if it were something else, suggesting a comparison but not stating it directly.

Personification: figure of speech when an animal, a thing, or an idea is given human characteristics.

Idioms: expression that has a different meaning from the sum of the individual words (the exam was a piece of cake).

Slang: newly coined words and phrases with new, specialized meanings (hobo, killjoy, cool).

Cliches: overused phrases that have lost their power (bored to death, as cold as ice).

Jargon: specialized vocabulary used by people engaged in a particular activity (in computers: log on, log in, web search, portal, google).

Sound devices in writing

Repetition: repeated words and phrases (she walked and walked and walked until she couldn't walk anymore).

Rhyme: repeated sounds usually at the end of the line (hat, cat).

Rhythm: pattern of stressed and unstressed syllables (iambic pentameter: "Shall I compare thee to a summer's day?").

Onomatopoeia: using a word or phrase that imitates sound (hiss, buzz, meow).

Alliteration: repeating beginning consonant sounds.

Consonance: repeating internal consonant sounds.

Assonance: repeating vowel sounds.

Omit unnecessary words

A machine should have no unnecessary parts, and a drawing should have no unnecessary lines; every word should tell.

QUESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL WORK

1. Mechanics is a part of writing that readers look at carefully. What are the two main components of mechanics?

2. Punctuate the following sentences correctly with commas and/or semi-colon:

- The countryside although beautiful in the summer looks barren and sad in the winter.
- My mother's brother Paul Duncan came to the party drunk again.

- Nobody knows what Granny is thinking she's probably thinking about going to sleep.

3. When is it necessary to use a semi-colon within a sentence instead of a comma?

4. Which of these sentences uses definite, concrete language?

- The weather is always bad in these months.
- From November through February, the skies are dull gray and ice cold rain falls nearly everyday.

5. The following sentence is vague and unclear. Change it to a sentence with definite, concrete language.

That woman travels a lot.

6. The following sentences have unnecessary words. Cross out the words that should be omitted.

- He is a boy who likes to eat a lot of candy.
- This is a subject that bores everyone.

7. A paragraph is defined by 3 things. Finish the three statements about the paragraph.

.....supporting one idea
central idea is usually stated in.....
all sentences are.....

8. Circle the topic sentence in the following paragraph:

One morning you may wake up to find yourself in a strange place. The curtains aren't the color you remember. The furniture has been moved around. However, it isn't the room that has changed—it is you. You are seeing through different eyes, because you've adopted a new consciousness. From this point on, everything will appear as if you are seeing it for the first time. You will meet familiar people all over again. You will learn what you already know. But you shouldn't be afraid—sit back, get acquainted with this new life, allow your senses to direct you to a new understanding.

9. Put the following sentences in the order of a correct paragraph.

The mother of the red-haired boy brought the fight to an end.

Other children came running to watch.

"Stop it, Johnny, I tell you to stop it," the woman screamed.

In the roadway two children had got into a fight.

A red-haired boy hit another boy in the face.

10. Sentences that don't belong in a paragraph are considered irrelevant.

Cross out the irrelevant sentences in the following paragraph:

Ever since the time of the ancient Greeks, drama has played an important role in men's lives. The Greek comedies and tragedies were a central part in the lives of the citizens in ancient Greece. During the Middle Ages, Bible stories were acted out in churches, and wandering companies of actors performed in the streets. William Shakespeare lived during the Elizabethan period. The English language has changed somewhat since Shakespeare's time. In modern times, drama is brought directly into people's homes through the magic of television. Television also offers people such things as quiz and variety shows.

Different people spend their weekends in different ways. Some enjoy going to the mountains to hike, ski, or just relax. Water skiing is much more difficult than snow skiing. Others prefer going to the beach to enjoy the seashore activities and to get a suntan. Some of these people work very hard during the week; others have more relaxing jobs. Still others like to relax by staying home and reading a good book.

Zoos are popular with all children. They are able to see the examples of wildlife from all continents. In wildlife preserves in Africa, the animals wander about freely without fear of being captured. Perhaps the favorite part of the zoo is the elephant cage. There the elephants entertain the children by spraying themselves with their trunks and doing various tricks. The children are especially delighted when an elephant takes peanuts from them with its trunk.

11. There are four main ways to support a topic sentence. What are they?

12. What is a short, entertaining account of some happening, usually personal?

13. What is a particular part or characteristic of a whole thing, frequently used in description?

14. What is a specific instance that explains an idea?

15. What is a numerical fact?

16. Use an example (one sentence) to support this topic sentence:

There are nine planets within our solar system.

17. Use statistic to (one sentence) to support this topic sentence:

Eating fast food everyday can people to becoming overweight.

18. A definition explains what a particular term means. What are the three components of an effective definition?

19. Identify the three components of these definitions:

- A diary is a book of empty pages, upon which people write their thoughts, feelinss and secret desires.

- A hamburger is a kind of food made of ground beef, and is eaten between bread with onions and ketchup.

- A unicorn if a mythological animal that looks like a white horse and has a horn in the middle of its head.

20. Write definitions for these terms, and identify the components.

- radio
- wardrobe-shoes

21. What is the difference between the writing strategies of comparison and contrast?

22. Compare the following things:

- lamp and television
- novel and DVD

23. Contrast the following things:

- humans and birds
- computers and televisions

24. Define the meaning of the writer's voice.

25. What is diction?

26. What is the difference between concrete and abstract words?

27. Use a concrete description for the abstract sentence:

The girl was very happy with the surprise.

28. What is considered the writer's tone?

29. All following words have the denotation of the word "footwear". What are the connotations of each word?

- high-heels
- hiking boots
- socks
- slippers

30. What is the difference between literal and figurative language?

31. What is a simile?

32. What is a metaphor?

33. Identify which sentence is a simile, which is a metaphor:

- When she told him she would marry him, he looked like a man who had just won the lottery.

- The child was a hurricane, destroying everything in his path.

34. What is personification?

35. Write one example of personification:

36. What is onomatopoeia?

37. What is alliteration? Give an example of alliteration.

38. Which of the writing styles, formal or informal, uses simpler words and contractions more often?

39. Which of the writing styles, formal or informal, uses longer, carefully constructed sentences more often?

40. What is a cliché?

Sample 2

Tips for student – the way to a good composition/essay

Mechanics: Involved in Punctuation and Spelling.

Paragraph: A group of sentences supporting one idea; central idea is located in topic sentence; all sentences are relevant.

4 Ways to Support a Topic Sentence:

Anecdote: Short, entertaining account of some happening, usually personal.

Details: Particular part or characteristic of a whole thing, frequently used in description.

Example: Specific instance that explains an idea.

Statistic: Numerical fact.

Definition: Term to be defined, class to which it belongs, distinguishing characteristics (A rainbow is phenomenon of the atmosphere in which light is refracted through drops of moisture, creating a display of the colors of the spectrum).

Voice: Personal style of writer.

Diction: Word choice (Concrete: *The smell of the old man was like a piece of meat left out on a warm counter.* Abstract: *Love is pain.*)

Connotation/Denotation: Literal meanings (We saw a great actor at the theater last night). Understood meanings (He's a great actor when it comes to courting women).

Literal language: Speaking of something as it actually is (The dog had only three legs, a few missing teeth, and fur that was bald in several places).

Figurative Language: Speaking of something as if it were different from what it actually is (The dog was a great victorious warrior, standing guard over the bone it had stolen from its little fiend).

Stages of the Writing Process

Prewriting: Thinking, research, considering the purpose of your writing and your audience.

Drafting: Getting ideas on paper, not worrying about mistakes, freewriting, learning what you haven't thought about before.

Revising and Proofreading: Evaluating the content, structure and mechanics of your writing, and then making any necessary changes.

Presenting and Publishing: Sharing your completed piece of writing with others.

Aspects of Prewriting:

Choosing a topic (What to write about).

Finding a purpose and audience (Why am I writing about this? Who will read it?).

Choosing a form (Story, poem, play, letter, essay, article, report, speech).

Gathering information/research (What kind of information do I need, and where can I find it?).

Revising and Proofreading

Content, the information presented (Is it true, is it real?).

Structure (Is it clearly written and explained in a logical way?).

Mechanics (Punctuation, capitalization, spelling, grammar).

Ways to Prewrite a Personal Memory

Listing (People, places and things).

Recalling (The time I lost.. .The time I found.. .The time I broke up with my girlfriend...).

Special Days (Birthdays, New Year's, Women's Day).

When Drafting, it is interesting to consider

Narration: Plot, character, setting Description: Sight, touch, taste, smell, hearing.

Dialogue: Show what people are like, rather than tell (Avoid *telling*; show aspects of a character through dialogue).

Defining Abstract Ideas:

Explore the subject in many ways/provide examples

If you are describing or defining courage, choose some particular actions that show courage

Did the man risk his life to save his friends?

Did the woman help the person everyone hated?

Did the boy not do what all his friends wanted him to do?

Other ways to define what you are writing about:

Elaborate on the characteristics, provide more information for the reader—specific, familiar, unfamiliar—vivid details, anecdotes, comparisons

Write an Introduction that makes your reader want to read more, learn more

Introduction: If we didn't have dictionaries, how could we learn what new words mean when we hear or read them?

Elaboration with Vivid Detail: Dictionaries are books with lists of words and their definitions. The words in a dictionary are listed alphabetically so that the reader may find the word he or she needs quickly.

Anecdote: When I first learned how to use a dictionary, I discovered a new world of knowledge. Finally, I could learn how to pronounce those long and difficult words, and what they really meant.

Comparison: A dictionary is similar to an encyclopedia, except that it does not concern itself primarily with geography, history, and culture; rather, it presents the technical meanings of individual words.

Conclusion of definition can be a summary or generalization.

Conclusion: The dictionary is one of the most helpful tools for one learning his own or a foreign language.

Analogies

Analogy: A comparison that uses two essentially different subjects in order to make a point; an analogy can be used to add humor or call attention to an otherwise ordinary topic: “A cup of coffee is like a brief visit from a good friend. When we have coffee, we have a chance to reflect and organize our thoughts, as if

we were speaking to someone close to us. Hot coffee warms us as a friend's kind words would warm our hearts. And when we finish our coffee we feel refreshed, rejuvenated, and ready to continue our daily activities”.

The Use of Analogies: Putting difficult or abstract ideas into familiar words.

- Love is like a carnival ride...
- People are like animals...
- Music is like the kiss of a lover...

When writing your analogy, what point are you trying to make?

Myths

Myth: Story that explains natural phenomenon; represents universal need and gives shape to the world around us; story of cause and effect.

Basic Story Elements of the Myth: Characters, plot, conflict, setting, dialogue, theme.

When Writing a Myth:

Introduce the Hero (Physical characteristics, non-physical characteristics).

Establish the Setting (Desert? Jungle? Forest? Sea?).

Develop the Situation (Problems, conflict).

Dialogue (Shows how characters are rather than telling).

Create an Ending (The effect of the cause — this is why the sky is blue, or why people don't have tails).

Myths ask *why*

Hypotheses

Hypothesis: An educated guess; in writing, hypotheses are addressed as the possible solutions to a variety of questions

Question

Why do people enjoy dessert after a meal? *Possible Hypotheses:*

- Sweet foods like cakes and candy provide a refreshing contrast to a normally salty meal.
- Some people just aren't satisfied after eating meals.

- The body requires more sugar than a meal can provide.
- For most people, the meal is simply an appetizer before the real meal, the dessert.

The writer must *test hypotheses*—may research studies, articles, reports; may also set up formal experiments or interviews; may also closely observe human behavior.

After the hypotheses have been addressed, the writer looks for conclusions and determines whether his hypotheses were correct.

Synthesizing Information

Synthesize: Combining different elements into a new whole.

Masterpieces, inventions, solutions to problems come from the ability to take experiences, prior knowledge, and new information and then analyze and combine (or *synthesize*) all the factors. We synthesize many factors in order to address problems and find solutions.

Exploring Problems

1. What is the problem?
2. Why should the reader care about the problem?
3. What is the extent of the problem?
5. What are the effects of the problem?
6. Is the problem getting worse? How do I know?

Exploring Solutions

1. Is there an ideal solution?
2. Is this solution feasible?
3. What are other possible solutions?
4. What are the merits and drawbacks of these solutions?

Strategies for Writing Problem/Solution Papers

1. *Description and Definition*: Identify the specific characteristics of the problem.

2. *Narration*: Use a story to illustrate the specific characteristics of the problem.

3. *Cause and Effect*: Identify the source of the problem—how would the effects change if a solution was found?

Persuasion:

Writing a convincing paper; we usually persuade in order to make someone take action

Planning a Persuasive Speech

1. Choose a subject; pick an issue about which you have strong feelings.
2. Research your subject; find information that will support your position.
3. List as many reasons as possible; hard facts and specific examples are usually most effective.
4. Consider the arguments on the other side; you must address opposing concerns and defeat them before they hurt your argument.

Writing a Persuasive Speech

1. Open with a clear statement of the issue (anecdotes, statistics, quotations); you can state the issue in a question, or as a direct statement: “Should murderers have punishment by death?” or “Murderers should have punishment by death”.
2. Organize—Cause and effect or order of importance?
3. Present your points clearly and logically; don't get caught up in emotions.
4. Summarize your position; add a “call to action”: “We must do something—what? Educate? Police? Monitor? Write?”
5. Rework ideas for oral presentation; pronouns like *you* or *we* make listeners feel they should respond to the persuasive speech in some way.

Research Report

In order to be interested in a research report, ask question about which you would like the answers.

“How do dogs communicate with one another?”

“What is the economy of Malta like?”

“Do lions eat other animals of the feline family?”

1. List what you already know about the question, then you will have a better idea of what you need to learn.
2. Settle on a thesis statement; explain the purpose of your report—“Perhaps Justin Timberlake is the most popular member of the band N-Sync”. What kind of information is needed to support this thesis statement?
3. Include Bibliography.
4. When recording information, paraphrase (put information in your own words); when taking words from another source in direct quotation, use “”.
5. Avoid plagiarism; document all your sources of information.

An Effective Research Report

1. Begins with a clear introduction that clearly states the topic and purpose of the report.
2. Develops the topic logically, using SPECIFIC details.
3. Contains only accurate and relevant facts.
4. Synthesizes information from a variety of sources into a single, coherent whole.
5. Documents sources clearly and correctly.
6. Uses direct quotations clearly and sparingly, and indicates clearly that they are quotations.
7. Reads smoothly from beginning to end; transitions among different ideas.

Statement of Controlling Purpose

The statement of controlling purpose can help to focus your writing.

Writing that Defines: The purpose of this paper is define the word “fame” and give examples of the various manifestations of fame throughout history and reasons why people from different historical eras were famous.

Writing that Shows Cause and Effect: The purpose of this paper is to explore reasons why a great number of Americans are overweight—the potential causes being fast food, television, the overabundance of cars, videogames.

Writing that Describes: The purpose of this paper is to describe the places of interest in Nikolaev, including its museums, restaurants, and night clubs, for a tourist magazine.

Writing that Persuades: The purpose of this speech is to explain why everyone should wear seat belts when riding in an automobile.

Writing that Analyzes: The purpose of this essay is to analyze American policy concerning Mexican immigration.

Introductions:

Introductions catch the reader's interests; suggests the main idea or states it directly

Include Startling or Interesting Facts: It caught us all by surprise. We hadn't noticed it until John brought us tea as we sat in the kitchen. Mary whispered something to me and nodded in John's direction. I was shocked when I realized that John had two heads, and the second head was angry that we were there.

Provide Detailed, Vivid Description: It is two meters tall and has giant, lifeless eyes that resemble black mirrors. Its arms are thick and hairy, and its fangs are as sharp as ice picks. It is a monster, and it lives under your bed.

Ask a Question: What do you get when you take two cups of melted chocolate, a half-kilo of strawberries, and some powdered sugar? I call it a recipe for paradise.

Anecdote: I remember that day when I got in my first fight. The class bully always wanted money from me, and one day I told him he couldn't have it. He shoved me outside the classroom so I clocked him in the jaw — a good right hand swing that knocked him down and made all the children laugh at him. I felt like a winner for the first time in my life. Of course, after school, while I was walking home, the bully and his five friends caught up with me and beat me up and took all my money anyway.

Begin with a Quotation: "Billy", Bob Dylan once sang, "they don't like you to be so free". Sometimes I feel the same way — there's always someone telling

me what to do, where to go. And what time to sleep. I guess I shouldn 't have stolen all that money from the bank, got caught, and gone to jail.

Address the Reader Directly: Imagine that you're flying above the Earth, watching all the little people and cars going about their daily business. Fun, isn't it? Well, it's now a possibility, thanks to a new technology that allows you to fly by means of a rocket attached to your back.

Take a Stand: We can argue about this all day, but I firmly believe that dogs are better than cats. Dogs are friendlier, obedient, and they like to play — while cats only think of themselves. Cats are selfish, and dogs are selfless. A dog would risk its life to save its master, and if it only could it would do the dishes, vacuum, wash the clothes, and tell you what happened in the latest episode of Clone.

QUESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL WORK

1. What components are involved in mechanics?
2. What is a paragraph, and what information is found in a paragraph?
3. What is an anecdote?
4. When supporting a topic sentence, what is a specific instance that explains an idea?
5. What are the three components of a definition? Give an example of a definition.
6. What is the difference between connotations and denotations?
7. What is the difference between literal language and figurative language?
8. What are two aspects of figurative language commonly used in writing?
9. Prewriting is the first stage of the writing process. What does the writer do during the prewriting stage?
10. What does the writer do during the drafting process?
11. What are three different forms a writer can choose during the prewriting process?
12. What are three components of narration?
13. Why is dialogue helpful and interesting for the reader?

14. Why is a good introduction important for a writer?
15. What are two ways a writer can elaborate on a topic? Give an example of each strategy.
16. What is an analogy, and why do writers use them?
17. What are some characteristics of a myth?
18. What is a hypothesis, and when does the writer use them?
19. How can a writer test his or her hypotheses?
20. When do writers synthesize information?
21. What are two strategies a writer can use to develop a Problem/Solution paper?
22. When do writers use persuasion as a strategy?
23. Why are pronouns like *you* or *we* in persuasive writing particularly effective?
24. What is one way a writer can be interested in his or her own research report?
25. Why is it important to list everything you know about your research report topic before you begin writing?
26. What are four components of an effective research report?
27. Why does a writer develop a statement of controlling purpose?
28. What are three possible variants of statements of controlling purpose?
29. What information is usually contained in the introduction?
30. Give four strategies to writing an effective introduction, and provide examples for each of the strategies.

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