The Academic English Writing Manual

For ENGL 434 & Writing Tutors

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> If I waited for perfection, I would never write a word.
> – Margaret Atwood

Contents

A. The writing process

Common ESL writing issues for Koreans

The following are the kinds of problems that Koreans are likely to have in writing in English as a second language[1], and thus, the kinds of things to look for and comment on in grading papers.

General strategies

1. **Less planning.** Students may not plan the essay well beforehand, leading to an essay that is not well organized or inadequately developed.

2. **More laborious, but less efficient writing.** Students tend to get lost in the details, e.g., by spending more time consulting dictionaries, and less time thinking about good contents, ideas, or organization of the essay.

3. **Less reviewing, drafting, or revising.** Students should treat paper writing as a process of drafting and revising multiple times before turning in a finished product. Instead, they may do minimal revision and rush to hand in a paper.

Grammatical and lexical errors

1. **Simpler sentences.** Students tend to avoid complex sentences, and use many simpler sentences, which can lead to a more informal, simple tone, and less smoothness or sophistication in the flow of ideas.

2. **More strong modals.** Students may overuse stronger modal verbs like *should* or *must*, and less often verbs like *might, may, could*. Also, Koreans tend to overuse could for past tense, when it is not commonly used as a past form of can in contemporary English.

3. **More coordination, less subordination.** Students more often form longer sentences by joining main clauses with coordinating conjunctions (*and, but, so, or…*), and less often with subordinating conjunctions (*though, whereas, after, thereby, so that…*). Writing with many coordinated sentences and few subordinate clauses leads to a more informal style and flow, and less sophisticated expression of ideas.

4. **Simple noun phrases.** Student writers may use simple noun phrases with little or no modification with adjectives, prepositional phrases, or other modifying expressions. For example, a student might write "the experiment that was successful…" instead of "the successful experiment;" or "the experiment that was done on the mice that were genetically modified" instead of "the experiment with the genetically modified mice."

5. **Articles.** Students may use fewer definite articles (*the*) and indefinite articles (*a, an*), or make other article errors. Articles are notoriously difficult, are not so well understood linguistically, and can depend on the particular nuances that a writer wants to convey.

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1 Many of these are from Silva, Tony. 1993. Toward an understanding of the distinct nature of L2 writing: The ESL research and its implications. *TESOL Quarterly, 2*7, 657-677. These are also applicable to presentations and other tasks by East Asian students.

6. **Less passive voice, and incorrect passives.** Overall, students may use fewer passive voice verbs (e.g., "was conducted") in academic contexts where they are fairly common. Asian students tend to incorrectly make some verbs passive that cannot be passive (e.g., "was existed, was appeared").

7. **Fewer transitionals.** Asian writers tend to use less variety of transitional or connective words (conjunctions and other words like *though, however, while, whereas, furthermore,* to link ideas, words, and clauses). Asians also overuse common transitionals like *but, and, so, or;* they may also overuse *there is / there are* phrases for introducing new topics.

8. **Repetition.** Koreans may use fewer synonyms, and instead may repeat the same words in subsequent sentences.

9. **Simpler or vaguer words.** Second-language writers tend to overuse simpler and vaguer vocabulary. This may be due to a limited command of sophisticated academic vocabulary, and not knowing the nuances of more sophisticated words and how to use them in context. Some commonly overused word types are:

   • Simple verbs, such as *be, have, give, do, get* (for example, *instead of give, one can use contribute, donate, yield*, or others).

   • Informal phrasal verbs, e.g., *get out* instead of more formal Latin words such as *remove, extricate.*

   • Simple nouns like *man, women, people* instead of more specific terms like *subjects, participants.*

   • Simple adjectives like *good, bad*, instead of more specific, meaningful terms.

Text features

1. **Overall argumentation.** Some may argue indirectly for their main idea, without stating the main point (thesis) at the beginning, and without following a sequential development of claims or arguments to support the thesis. Some may instead follow a traditional Korean indirect style. However, in English essays, the writer is expected to state the thesis first, and develop supporting arguments in the body of the essay.

2. **Introductions.** A clear, specific thesis may be lacking, or may be too general to effectively cover in a single paper. The introductory paragraph may begin with overly general background information that is too familiar or not directly pertinent to the thesis.

3. **Argumentation.** Claims made in the paper may lack sufficiently convincing evidence, data, proof, examples, or other supporting information to back up the claims. Not enough claims may be presented to support the paper's thesis. The writer may include a lot of data, without explaining the relevance of the data, or making explicit connections between the data and his/her claims – an information dump.

4. **Source use.** Students may use more terminology without properly defining or explaining the terms or concepts. They may have difficulty incorporating information from sources smoothly into their texts – there may be abrupt shifts between their ideas and source information. They may fail to make enough use of referring to primary sources to support and develop their ideas. They may rely too heavily on quotations or footnotes. Finally, they may rely too much on authority – they may rely on appealing to the ideas of a famous scholar for support, rather than providing direct evidence; they may even do so, not realizing that the scholar's ideas may actually be controversial or not always accepted in the field.

The writing process

Traditional writing classes viewed writing as a product. The teacher gives an assignment, the students go home, produce a paper, and turn it in. What happens in between was given little attention. Nowadays language teachers recognize the importance of the process of writing – how a writer goes about planning the essay, pre-writing methods, drafting, and multiple stages of revisions (ideally), and finally, a final version.

For you, it would be helpful to introspect on your your own writing process, and then guide those you tutor to do so as an initial exercise, before you two start working on an actual assignment. Describe your writing process from start to finish, including the following:

- How do you go about doing a major writing task, in English or Korean, at school or work?
- How do you get started?
- How do you get comfortable?
- How do you brainstorm ideas and organize them?
- How, how often, and how much you revise your paper?
- How similar or different is your writing process for different kinds of projects?
- How similar or different is your writing process for English versus Korean assignments?
- If you have writer's block, explain how you deal with it, and perhaps what causes it (e.g., perfectionism, lack of ideas, too much information to deal with, or negative voices from your past that you've internalized).

Writer's block refers to the difficulty that one has in getting started on a writing assignment, e.g., when a person experiences a mental block and cannot focus, cannot get started writing, cannot organize his/her ideas, cannot get past the introduction, or such. Writers can learn to reflect on the possible causes of writer's block, which is usually due to the reasons in the next section.

Pre-writing and pre-writing techniques

1. Writer's block

Writer's block may be caused by these factors.

1.1. Negative voices from the past

These are negative messages, discouragement, harsh treatment, etc. from past teachers, especially language or writing teachers (or other teachers, or parents, or others). These are voices that we internalize, and which cause us tension and anxiety when we try to write. Somewhere in the back of your mind, these voices may be barking at you, sending negative messages about you and your ability to write; or you are afraid that whomever you are writing for will also react similarly. This may require identifying the sources of the "voices" and moving beyond them.

1.2. Affective filters

If something else is on your mind (an argument you had with someone, or some other source of emotional stress), this burdens your cognitive processing, attention, cognitive abilities, your ability to make connections among concepts, the ability to engage in systematic or analytical thinking, and the ability to engage your creative processes. You may have to take a break, resolve the conflict, relax, take a walk, talk with someone, or whatever helps you take your mind off things. Maybe the best thing is to compartmentalize – put problems in a different mental compartment and forget about them while you focus on the writing task.

The affective filter may also be due to the mental demands of writing in a second language, especially if you feel a lack of confidence or motivation in your second language.

You may find it helpful to also use visualization techniques – either relaxing by visualizing yourself in a peaceful place, for example, or by visualizing yourself thinking and writing successfully on your writing task.

1.3. Perfectionism

The desire to be perfect, or the belief that others expect you to be perfect. This may come from childhood, from how you were raised, or from pressure that parents and/or teachers have put on you in your past studies. This leads people to have unhealthy and unrealistic expectations of themselves. When they need to write, they are burdened by expectations they have about their writing, or by what they think the readers (teachers, supervisors, etc.) may think of them and their writing or language ability. This may require:

1. Over the long term, dealing with the psychological issues or considering how people in your past conditioned you to be a perfectionist;
2. For the shorter term, getting more writing practice or instruction; and
3. For the immediate writing needs, some brainstorming and free-writing techniques, particularly where you simply forget about who you are writing for and any expectations about how well it is written, for your first draft.

1.4. Lack of information; or an overly broad topic

If you find yourself stuck, you may need to find more information on the topic before you can develop good ideas for the assignment. Conversely, you may be stuck because you're trying to take on too much – an overly broad topic, or too much general information. In that case, you need to identify a more specific topic, and maybe get more specific information on it, before you can proceed.

2. Brainstorming

Try these, and teach these to your students.

2.1. Free writing

Forget about apathy, self-criticism, resentment, anxiety about deadlines, fear of failure, your expectations of yourself, others' expectations of you, or other forms of resistance. Just put something on paper (or the computer screen) in raw form. Then you can go back later to revise it and put it in presentable form. First,

- Write whatever comes to mind, no matter how raw or incomplete the ideas or sentences are.
- Pay no attention to grammar, spelling, punctuation, neatness, or style. Nobody else needs to read what you produce here. The correctness and quality of what you write do not matter; the act of writing does.
- Don't worry about complete sentences or making sense to other readers.
- Deliberately forget about who you are writing for – audience, potential readers, their expectations, and even your own expectations for nice, polished writing.
- Give yourself a time limit. Write for one or ten or twenty minutes, and then stop.
- Keep your hand moving until the time is up. Do not pause to stare into space or to read what you've written. Write quickly but not in a hurry.
- If you get off the topic or run out of ideas, keep writing anyway. If necessary, write nonsense or whatever comes into your head, or simply scribble: anything to keep the hand moving.
- If you feel bored or uncomfortable as you're writing, ask yourself what's bothering you—and write about that. Sometimes your creative energy is like water in a kinked hose, and before thoughts can flow on the topic at hand, you have to straighten the hose by attending to whatever is preoccupying you.
- When the time is up, look over what you've written, and mark passages that contain ideas or phrases that might be worth keeping or elaborating on in a subsequent free-writing session.

- Don't worry about making ideas, connections between ideas, and logical flow clear at first. But you should do that later when you revise it.

After you have something on paper or on the screen, then revise it later:

- Revise it later by first making ideas, connections, and logical flow clear to yourself on paper, then by making them clear enough to potential readers.
- Revise logical flow, grammar and wording in several stages with the audience in mind.

2.2. Talking – social brainstorming

Try talking to a friend about the writing task – brainstorming together can be productive and less stressful. You can also try talking to yourself or a family pet to brainstorm, as long as friends and family members don't conclude that you're in need of counseling or other "help".

2.3. Concept maps

Known as mental maps, concept maps, semantic maps (though this properly refers to something else in computer science and related fields) or such. Just put down words and phrases on paper, draw connections between them, and fill in connections with descriptions of the relationships between ideas. For example[2]:
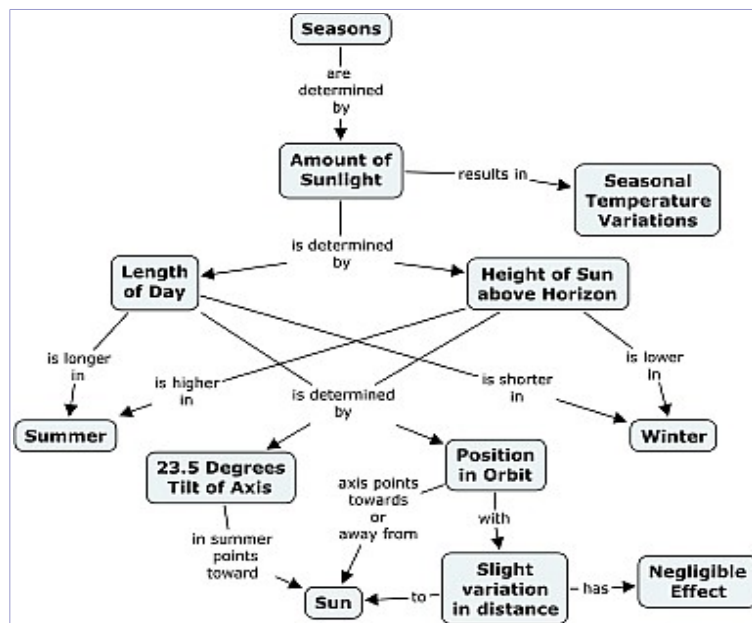
A concept map on seasons

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2   These examples are from:
    http://cmap.ihmc.us/Publications/ResearchPapers/TheoryCmaps/TheoryUnderlying ConceptMaps.htm.
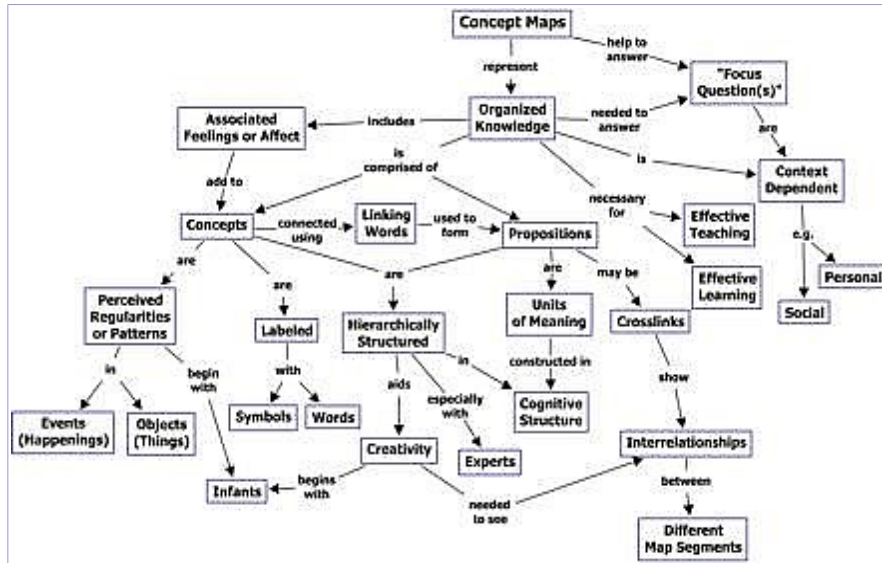
A concept map on the features of concept maps
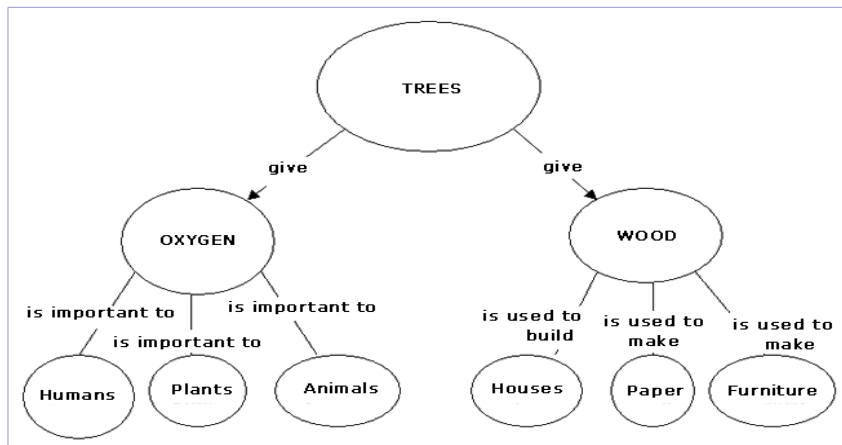
A hierarchical concept map[3]

Other methods of graphically brainstorming: a simple flow chart, a Venn diagram, and a tree diagram[4].
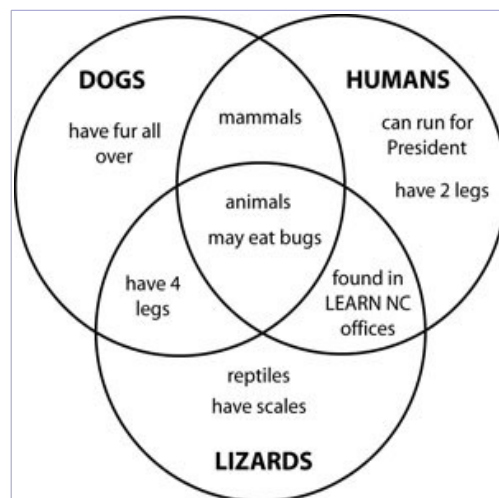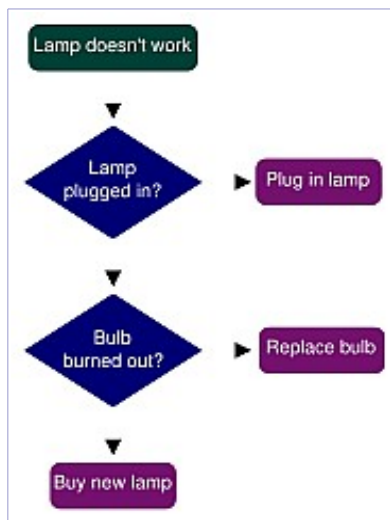
3 From http://ecrp.uiuc.edu/v8n2/ birbili.html.
4 Flow chart from www.wikipedia.org; Venn diagram from http://www.learnnc.org/reference/Venn+diagram; tree diagram from http://flylib.com/books/en/4.222.1.106/1/.
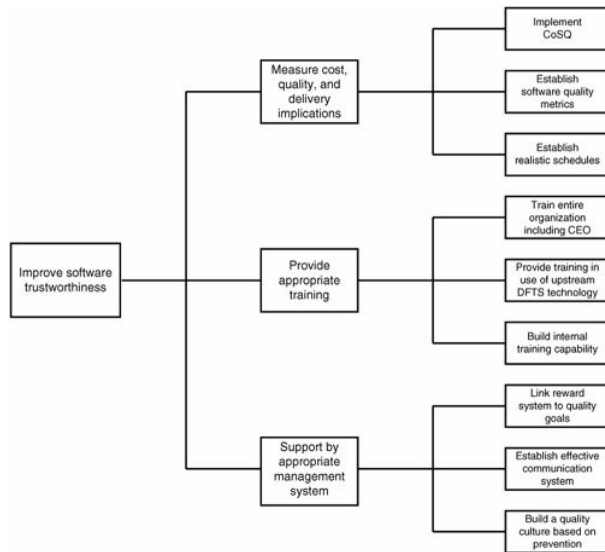
2.4. Outlining

Outlining can be good for generating ideas, as well as for organizing ideas after brainstorming. This allows you to arrange things according to relationships and degree of importance, with less important items under larger, more important concepts or categories that they are related to.

An outline is an important step, whether in actual practice one outlines mentally, or sketches an outline on paper, in a text document, or in one's slides. One should organize an outline around 3-5 main points, and each main point with 3-5 subpoints, and so on. An essay or presentation will be more coherent and easy to follow if the student follows the "3-5" principle. This is because human working memory can best keep in mind 3-5 items, so it will be easier for readers or listeners to follow the flow of an essay or presentation. An outline looks like so, though the lettering and numbering style is up to the student.

Introduction
Main point #1
Main point #2
Main point #3
Main point #4
Conclusion

Which can be further elaborated...

Introduction	C. Main point #3
A. Main point #1	1. Subpoint 1
1. Subpoint 1	2. Subpoint 2
2. Supoint 2	3. Subpoint 3
3. Subpoint 3	3. Subpoint 4
B. Main point #2	D. Main point #4
1. Subpoint 1	1. Subpoint 1
2. Subpoint 2	2. Supoint 2
3. Subpoint 3	3. Subpoint 3
4. Subpoint 4	E. Conclusion
5. Subpoint 5	

Each subpoint would then have supporting details – evidence, facts, data, examples, argumentation, or such – to support it. In the following facetious outline, for example, each point would be supported with examples or explanations of how and why each idea would be effective.

I. Ways of tricking my writing teacher in writing my essay (when I don't have much to write)
  A. format tricks
    1. extra large line spacing
    2. large fonts
    3. extra-wide font width
    4. large margins
  B. content tricks
    1. teacher won't read whole essay
      a. copy and paste same paragraphs over and over
      b. repeat same ideas over and over with synonyms
    2. teacher likely to read whole essay
      a. say nice things about the teacher in the essay
      b. include money (as ~~gift~~ expression of your appreciation) with essay when handing it in

To take advantage of this, the student should make these main points explicit in the introduction. In an essay, after the thesis statement, the main points to follow can be summarized, and in a presentation, an overview of the topic and main supporting points can be provided in an introduction.

- Essay thesis statement: The current college entrance exam is linguistically invalid and needs to be replaced, because X, Y, and Z. [= summary of main points]
- Presentation introduction: I will argue that the current college entrance exam is linguistically invalid and needs to be replaced. This is because [1] X..., [2] Y..., and [3] Z... [= summary of main points]

Steps in the revision process

Start large, end small[5]

Revision may mean changing the shape and reasoning in your paper. It often means adding or deleting sentences and paragraphs, shifting them around, and reshaping them as you go. Before dealing with details of style and language (editing), be sure you have presented ideas that are clear and forceful. Make notes as you go through these questions, and stop after each section to make the desired revisions.

1. First check whether you have fulfilled the intention of the assignment. Look again at the assignment instructions, and revise your work according to these basic criteria:

   • Have you performed the kind of thinking the assignment sheet asked for (e.g., analyze, argue, compare, explore)?

   • Have you written the genre of document called for (e.g., book review, critique, personal response, field notes, research report, lab report, essay)?

   • Have you used concepts and methods of reasoning discussed in the course? Don't be shy about using theoretical terms from the course (as long as you show that you understand them when you discuss them). Also, beware of just retelling stories or listing information.

   • Have you given adequate evidence for your argument or interpretation? Be sure that the reader can understand why and how your ideas are important. For example, note where your paragraphs go after their topic sentences. Looking at your topic sentences in sequence will show what kinds of ideas you have emphasized. Watch out for repetitions of general ideas. Make sure your ideas progress into detailed reasoning, usually including sources that are referenced.

2. Then look at overall organization. It's worthwhile to print out everything so that you can view the entire document. Then consider these questions, and revise to get the answers you want:

   • Does your introduction make clear where the rest of the paper is headed? If the paper is argument-based, you will likely use a thesis statement. Research papers often start with a statement of the research question. (Ask a clear-headed friend to give you a specific prediction of what he or she expects after reading only the first few paragraphs of your paper, without giving a vague answer.)

   • Is each section in the right place to fulfill your purpose? It might help to make a reverse outline: take the key idea from each paragraph or section and set it down in a list so you can see the logical structure of your essay. Does it cohere together? Is it all necessary? What's missing? Revise to fill in gaps and take out irrelevant material.

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5   Adapted from http://www.utoronto.ca/writing/revising.html.

- Have you drawn connections between the sections? Look again at your topic sentences to see if they link back to what has just been said as well as looking forward to the next point. Find ways to draw ideas together explicitly. Use logical statements, not just a sprinkling of connecting words.
- Would a person reading your conclusion know what question you had asked and how you had arrived at your answer?

3. Now polish and edit your style by moving to smaller matters such as word choice, sentence structure, grammar, punctuation, and spelling. You may already have passages that you know need further work. This is where you can use computer programs (with care) and reference material such as handbooks and handouts. Here are some tips

- Read passages aloud to see if you have achieved the emphasis you want. Look for places to use short sentences to draw attention to key ideas, questions, or argumentative statements. If you can't read a sentence aloud all the way through with a normal speaking voice and expression, try cutting it into two or more clauses or separate sentences.
- Be sure to use spell check, but also read it all through (don't always trust the word processor's suggestions).
- Don't depend on a thesaurus or dictionary. It will supply you with lists of words in the same general category as the one you have tried – but most of them won't make sense. Use plain, clear words instead; or consult a thesaurus, and look for examples of how new words are used in real contexts.
- Don't depend on a grammar checker. Even the best ones still miss errors, and can give incorrect advice. If you know that you overuse slang or the passive voice, you may find some of the "hits" and advice useful, but be sure to make your own choice of replacement phrases.

4. Follow basic expectations for appearance:

- For major essays or research papers, include a cover page with the paper title, the course name, your name, the date, and the instructor's name. Don't bother with colored paper, plastic covers, fancy print, or decorations. Do not include a cover page for regular homework assignments or exams.
- Number your pages at the bottom or in the top right-hand corner. You may omit the number for the first page of your paper (since it will be headed by the title), starting in with 2 on the second page
- Double-space your text (or at least 1.5 line spacing). Leave 2-2.5 cm margins on all sides; use a standard font in 12-point size, or 11-point Arial or equivalent; staple the pages.

5. Put the reference list or bibliography on a separate page at the end, following a standard documentation format, such as APA (in social sciences), MLA (in some humanities fields), IEEE (in engineering), CBE (in biology), or others – there are many such systems, and which one is used depends on one's field or subfield.

Peer editing guidelines

The following guidelines are for peer editing in writing classes.

Exchange drafts with your classmates and read your classmate's paper. Check the paper's contents, and find what aspects are well done, and what can be improved. Then offer your classmate suggestions and advice about improving the paper. You may also correct errors in grammar, punctuation, sentence structure, and spelling (mechanics), particularly those that interfere with the paper's meaning and the writer's ability to communicate his/her ideas, but keep in mind that the more important considerations are the contents. So check primarily for the following aspects:

- **Audience:** Is the writing appropriate to an academic audience, in terms of tone, style, ideas, grammar, etc.?
- **Purpose:** Is the writer's purpose clear?
- **Topic:** Are the topic and controlling ideas clear and specific?
- **Introduction:** Is the introduction specific enough (avoiding overly common or general background information)? Is there a clear, specific thesis, which tells you precisely what the paper is about, and how the writer will develop the thesis throughout the paper?
- **Structure and organization:** Is the paper well organized? Are sections and main ideas organized well? Is this structure clear as you read the paper? Do the topic sentences support the thesis well?
- **Flow:** Do the ideas flow clearly and logically, from the topic sentence, to supporting sentences, to the conclusion? Are paragraphs and sentences well developed, or are they fragmented, too short, or choppy?
- **Support:** Does the paragraph support the topic sentence well? Does it show good evidence, examples, or development of ideas? Does it contain sufficient information that is clear and directly relevant to the topic?
- **Specificity:** Are all the sentences clear, specific, and detailed?
- **Conclusion:** Does the concluding sentence wrap up the paragraph well, without just repeating the topic sentences or thesis?
- **Transitions:** Does the writer effectively use conjunctions and adverbs as transitions between sentences and between ideas?
- **Effectiveness:** Does the paper do a good job of informing or persuading you?
- **Wording:** Is the wording clear, and in appropriate academic and formal style? Are there errors in wording that interfere with the meaning?

Give your peers suggestions and positive criticism for improvement, but do not rewrite the paper for him/her.

Peer evaluation sheet

Read your classmate's paper, evaluate it, offer suggestions, and record your evaluations below.

Writer's name:

Audience and purpose: Is the writing appropriate for an academic audience? Is the writer's purpose clear?

Topic: Is the topic sentence (and main idea) clear and specific? How might they be improved?

Support: Does the paragraph support the topic sentence well? Does it have strong evidence, good examples, or strong supporting ideas?

Specificity: Are ideas and sentences specific and clear enough? What could be improved?

Flow: Do ideas and sentences flow logically from one to another? Are sentences well developed? Do sentences have good transitions? Does the paper have an effective conclusion?

Grammar and mechanics: Are there significant problems with mechanics or grammar? You may mark errors in the paper — spelling, grammar, punctuation, sentence structure, etc. But don't worry too much about minor errors – focus more on significant problems that affect communication and understanding of ideas.

Consider and discuss the following.

1. Does the paper effectively persuade or inform you? Why?

2. What are the best aspects of the paper?

3. What are some areas that need improvement?

4. What grade would you give this paper? Explain.

Editing and proof-reading symbols

For marking papers, you might want to use some proof-reading abbreviations. You may not need all of these, but these are types of errors to look for; and you'll probably want to create your own symbols that are meaningful to you and your students.

symbol	error
abbr	don't use abbreviation; or incorrect abbreviation
agr	grammatical agreement error, such as noun-verb agr. > My feet is feeling cold.
awk	awkward expression - ungrammatical, unclear, misworded, etc.
cap	capitalization error (or –cap: item should not be capitalized) > Then She went to the united kingdom to study Chemistry.
cs	comma splice (clauses connected by only comma without conj.) > Clinton is in the White House, Republicans control the Senate.
col	colloquial (informal, conversational) style
frag	fragment, incomplete sentence / clause > Because he is so wealthy.
punct	punctuation wrong or missing
qt	unnecessary or incorrect use of quotation marks
rep	repetitive or redundant wording
ro	run-on (fused) sentence - clauses / phrases joined without needed punctuation, conj., transitions
self-ref	self-referential (referring to the author or to the writing itself unnecessarily)
sp	spelling error
trans	transition (connective) word wrong or missing
vc	voice – incorrect active or passive voice
vf	verb form incorrect > She go to the store.
vt	verb tense wrong or inconsistent, or inconsistent tense shift > He became famous and goes to L.A.
wc	incorrect, unclear, or awkward word choice or wording*
wf	incorrect word form (e.g., confusion of adj. & adv. form, or noun & verb form) > She is a success business woman, who easy writes well.
wo	transposed items – wrong word order > a banana yellow

|	separate, write separately; space needed > as she waits|(at the bus|station);　　　　　　> as Smith|(1996) points out
||	parallelism lacking – grammatically inconsistent structures > I like swimming and to hike
( ) [ ]	for highlighting phrases - I may highlight sections with ( ) or [ ] to comment on them
(/)	optional; suggested deletion** > (the) = maybe delete 'the'
^	missing item needed – missing article, pronoun, prep. > on ^grass = insert 'the'
xy͜	transposed items – wrong word order > a banana ͜yellow
͜	write together, connect > driv͜e way
/	delete (or \ or strike-through)
?	meaning unclear, or illegible
→ |	proper tab space, paragraph indentation needed
¶	paragraph – e.g., new paragraph needed, or ¶ format issues

*I sometimes simply underline minor word choice or wording issues.

The following markings are used for grammatical terms or categories:

adj.	adjective	INF	infinitive – e.g., use / don't use one here
adv.	adverb	IO	indirect object missing or incorrect
AUX	auxiliary verb missing or incorrect	N, NP	noun, noun phrase
conj	conjunction wrong or missing	prep	preposition wrong or missing
DO	direct object missing or incorrect	prn	pronoun error; pronoun missing
GER	gerund – e.g., use / don't use one here	SUBJ	sentence subject unclear, incorrect, or missing

e.g.:　　^VERB = verb missing, insert a verb here

Latin abbreviations:

e.g.	for example	[*exempliae gratia*]
i.e.	that is, in other words	[*id est*]
cf.	compare, compared to	[*conferre*]
NB	pay attention, take note	[*nota bene*]

Proper paragraph format

This is what proper page and paragraph format looks for written assignments.

Tony Blair
Composition 3B
02 October 2010

↑ top edge of paper; 2-2.5cm margins on all sides

{ heading with name, course, & date (or on a separate title front page)

{ 1-2 cm space between heading and title
{title, centered

Paper title

{ space

→ | ¶ *indentation*

      Following proper paragraph format makes the paper easier for readers to read and for teachers to grade. You need a proper heading, and then some space before the title. The title should be relevant, not too mundane, but not too showy or exaggerated; the title can be put in bold font, *or* slightly larger font, but not much larger than the paragraph text. Then skip down an extra line and start the paragraph by indenting one tab space. The margins should be 2 – 2.5cm on all four sides of the page, and papers with multiple pages should have page numbers at the bottom. Papers should be double-spaced, or at least at 1.5 line spacing. Type in a normal 12-point size font (or 11-point for large fonts like Arial). Don't use much **boldface**, because that is distracting, or makes it harder to read. Don't overuse *italic print* or "quotation marks;" don't use quotation marks, bold, or italics to highlight terms – use quotes for quotations); DON'T CAPITALIZE EVERYTHING, and don't use fonts that are too big, too small, obnoxious looking, or hard to read, and no font changes within the paper – use one consistent font. Also, put a space after a period before the next sentence, and always put a space before an opening parenthesis in English (like this); only math based or technical notation systems would have no spaces, like $f(x)$ or $\forall(x,y)$. Finally, be sure to check your spelling and punctuation; use the spell checker on your computer. If you do these things, your teacher's life will be easier.

Composition evaluation guide

This rubric may be helpful for evaluating and assessing essays.

features	low fail: D	narrow fail: C	adequate pass: B	good pass: B+	high pass: A
ORGANIZATION: Degree to which logical flow of ideas and an explicit plan are clear and connected	No plan, insufficient length to ascertain organization	Attempted plan is noticeable, inadequate paragraphing	Plan is clear; some cohesion and coherence.	Plan is clear, most points connected; coherent; various uses of cohesive devices	Excellent us of format elements with all points connected and signified with transitions and/or other cohesive devices
CONTENT: Degree to which the main points/ elements are elaborated and/ or explained by evidence and detailed reasons	No support; insufficient length and/or extensive plagiarized passages, too short to evaluate	Attempted elaboration; maybe a list of related specifics; some plagiarism, inadequate length	Some points elaborated; some acknowledge ment of sources	Most points elaborated; argument is developed in a clear and logical manner, characterized by adequate generalizations	All major points elaborated; arguments developed in a clear and logical manner with proper use of sources; sophisticated generalizations and conclusions
CONVENTIONS: Use of grammatical conventions of standard English (usage, sentence construction, spelling, and ¶ format).	Many errors, almost unreadable, confusing, unclear; problems in sentence construction; insufficient length	Some major and many minor errors; confusion; sentence construction not mastered.	Developed; few major errors, some minor ones, meaning unimpaired; mastery of sentence construction	A few minor errors, but no more than one major error	No major errors, a few minor errors; more sophisticated sentence constructions
VOCABULARY, STYLE: Degree to which the student has mastered register, sentence variation, and word/idiom use.	Very poor, essential translation, no sentence variety.	Limited range; frequent errors in word/ idiom choice; form & usage that confuse meaning; some sentence variety.	Adequate range of word/idiom choice and sentence variety, some errors that do not obscure meaning.	Few word form errors, occasionally misused words/idioms; appropriate tone & style; varied sentence structure.	Sophisticated range; effective word/idiom choice & usage; word form mastery; appropriate style; varied sentence structure.

B. Rhetorical structure & argumentation
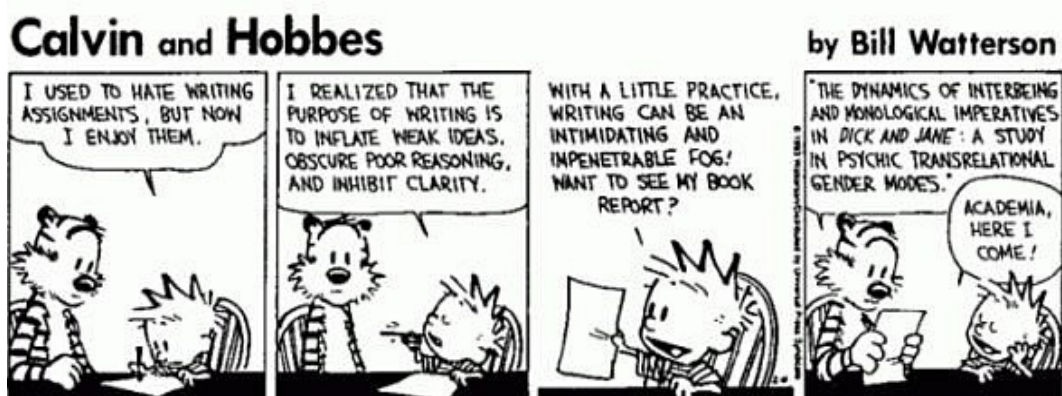
Rhetorical style and structure

1. English vs. Korean rhetorical structure

'Rhetoric' in popular parlance refers to exaggerated or insincere use of language, e.g., political rhetoric. In academia, however, the original meaning is intended – the use of language to inform and persuade audiences, be it in public speaking or writing. Academic writing and speaking is informative, but often at the same time persuasive in some way. A talk may be advocating a particular view or course of action, but one may also try to persuade the listeners that a particular experiment is interesting or that it proves what it is intended to prove; that a particular topic is relevant; or that a particular theorem is true.

Koreans and other East Asians have encountered difficulties in English academic presentations or writing, because of [1] inexperience in crafting well organized presentations, and [2] different expectations and cultural patterns in expressing and developing ideas in academic and persuasive speaking and writing. This is illustrated in the following (albeit somewhat simplistic and over-generalized) comparison of the two cultural patterns in rhetoric[6].

A classic depiction of the English rhetorical style (left)
versus the East Asian style (right), from Kaplan (1966).

The English style is described as "linear" while the East Asian style is more indirect[7]. The typical English style follows a structure more or less like this. This cultural difference causes problems for East Asian students in several areas.

- Introductions tend to be overly general or vague. Korean students follow a traditional Confucian style, where the writer or speaker wants to make the audience feel comfortable and establish good rapport with the audience. However, a proper English introduction should be explicit and direct, being more directly related to and leading directly to the main point of the talk. For example, if talking about English language teaching policy, East Asian students might give a vague, general introduction about how hard English is, or why English is important, which is common, obvious information that would be considered irrelevant in an academic English context. Instead, one should start with information that directly relates to the main idea.

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6   From: Kaplan, R. B. (1966). Cultural thought patterns in inter-cultural education. *Language Learning, 16*, 1-20.

7   Linguists take a descriptive approach to language, so they would simply describe English and Asian rhetorical patterns and their differences. This is not evaluative (claiming that one is better) or prescriptive (prescribing or imposing a "correct" style); they would view rhetorical styles of different cultures as equally valid.

- Speakers and writers may not identify the main point of a talk or paper, especially in the introduction where it is needed.

- Speakers and writers, if giving a presentation that is somehow persuasive in nature, fail to specifically identify their main point or argument in the introduction. It may be stated directly or indirectly in the conclusion. In Western style, however, this should be stated clearly in the introduction.

- They may fail to give sufficient evidence for the ideas, claims or arguments made in the presentation. Some may rely too much on scholarly authority, e.g., by merely quoting from or citing major scholars, which alone fails to persuade an academic audience. Convincing evidence is needed to support one's claims.

- Inexperienced native or ESL speakers and writers may resort to emotionalistic arguments and other fallacies, instead of proper argumentation, evidence, or support.

- They may summarize both sides of an issue throughout the presentation, without clearly stating their own main points or main ideas. Again, this is from the Confucian tradition of maintaining rapport with the audience and not arguing against what potential audience members believe. The Western style focuses on ideas, not people (the audience) and the need to develop one's ideas or argue for one's position clearly.

- They may fail to anticipate and deal with likely objections to their ideas, contrary opinions, and arguments that skeptics and opponents might make. In the English or Western style, one needs to anticipate objections and work in one's one counter-arguments to potential objections while explaining one's ideas.

These are issues to look for and address in helping students. The following sections explain English rhetorical structure, for which students may need clarification. A structured set of 3-5 main points is an ideal framework or starting point for students. Structuring a presentation around 3-5 main points (not counting the introduction and conclusion) is ideal, as that is easiest for listeners to follow and remember. This is because human memory can best hold about five items in working memory. For example:

I. Introduction

1. Specific background info leading to the thesis
2. Thesis: specific position or objective
3. Possible outline or plan of main arguments to be developed

(e.g.) "American English alone should not be used as the basis for world English [←argument], because that would not only limit global English to one dialect, and breed possible resentment toward English, but would also hinder linguistic innovation. [←plan]"

II. Body

A. Main idea / argument 1
1. subpoint 1
a. supporting evidence / argumentation
2. subpoint 2
a. supporting evidence / argumentation
3. subpoint 3
a. supporting evidence / argumentation

> B. Main idea / argument 2
>
>   ...
>
> C. Main idea / argument 3
>
>   ...
>
> **III. Conclusion**
>
> Wrap-up, summary / review of main argumentation, or comment on the relevance of the writer's main point(s)

2. Types of rhetorical support

Writing or presentations, formal or informal, may consist of contents that are [1] informative or descriptive; [2] argumentative or persuasive (also called 'rhetoric'); or [3] creative, subjective, personal (often informal or non-academic). Academic writing is generally both informative, but also argumentative; this is true for most fields. A researcher publishes not only new information and ideas, but also attempts to persuade readers about some point, such as:

- This theory or idea is correct, or is better than other proposals
- The data support or prove a particular hypothesis
- Theory X can be applied to a new domain or to solving a problem
- This experiment is interesting and worthwhile
- These data are worthwhile

Propositions or claims made – the arguments or points, in other words – require some kind of support or evidence. It may be either of a primary source (from the author's own research or analysis) or secondary (information cited from another source besides the author). Depending on the kind of academic research or writing, it can consist of some of these types of support below. Often these might fall into broad categories of quantitative or qualitative data; in some fields, the argumentation may be primarily theoretical.

1. **Quantitative data.** This is data that can be easily quantified, counted, and reported – measured and counted, as by numerical and statistical means. This is often the type of data in science, engineering, and some social sciences (e.g., how many electrons are in a given space? how much do Canadians spend per year on maple syrup? how much does teaching method X help students learn, as measured by test scores?). This would include various kinds of experimental and statistical evidence, including experimental and statistical comparison of groups.

2. **Qualitative data.** This refers to information that is observed, and is not so easily counted or quantified; the researcher makes decisions about how to classify things, or examine them holistically. This type of evidence is common in education and some social science fields (e.g., how do children behave in a certain stressful situation? do people learn a language better with teaching methods A or B?). This would include observational studies and subjective or theoretically based interpretation of observational data. Common examples of this are seen in ethnographic research, where one observes individuals or people, how they interact, etc., such as work by some anthropologists, sociologists, language researchers, and education researchers.

3. **Theoretical arguments.** Some arguments may be primarily theoretical, based on logical argumentation[8] of ideas and facts, with limited reference to empirical data (qualitative data such as observational data or actual case examples; or quantitative data), except maybe hypothetical examples or examples from the writer's own mind or experience. Examples include philosophy, some area of math, and theoretical linguistics.

Support in body paragraphs may be quantitative, qualitative, theoretical, or some combination thereof, depending on the academic field, the researchers, or the particular type of research area. Within different fields, there are different kinds of specific qualitative or quantitative evidence and support, such as these:

- statistical or numerical data
- experimental data
- observational data
- comparison data (e.g., conclusions from statistical comparison of two groups)
- ethnographic data[9] – based on observation of qualitative data like human social interactions
- examples
- anecdotes
- historical evidence
- historical narrative, or background
- quotations

- the authority of other scholars
- legal (forensic) argumentation
- theoretical analysis or discussion
- syllogism (e.g., in philosophy) or other logical argumentation
- mathematical proofs or arguments
- logical inferences
- analogy, metaphor
- more subjective inferences, arguments, impressions, etc.
- summary
- others...?

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8   Logical argumentation can roughly be described as inductive (examining data to come to a conclusion), deductive (examining known facts or premises to arrive at a conclusion, as in logical syllogisms), or optimization (or abduction – concluding one possibility as the best among several alternatives).

9   'Ethno-' means people, from Greek; here it can refer to observing and recording data ('-graphic') about individuals or several people, e.g., when an anthropologist observes people in their daily lives and social interactions.

Contrastive rhetoric: ESL examples

Here is a letter by a Korean high school teacher to a campus newspaper at Berkeley University to request pen pals for his students. Is this an appropriate letter, or are there problems with it?

Editor:

It is my great pleasure to write to you. I expect you will be pleased to accept my appeal regarding overseas pen pals for our students.

I am an English teacher in a noted high school in Seoul, Korea. This school has about 1,500 students of both sexes. I am eagerly seeking foreign students who would like to correspond with our students. There are many Korean students who would like to exchange letters and friendship with foreign pen friends. And they frequently request me to let them have foreign pen friends.

Throughout my foreign language teaching career, I've noticed this would help not only their English and emotional life, but also expand their knowledge of foreign lands. This would also promote world-wide friendship and mutual relationship as well as serving as a true foundation of world peace.

I feel it necessary to publish this simple wish among the boys and girls of the world. Therefore, I courteously request you to run this letter in a corner of your valuable paper.

The only information I need of a student is his or her name, address, sex, age, hobbies and picture if possible. I expect to receive many letters from your readers wishing to correspond with our students.

I will appreciate it very much if you let me have the chance to do this for my students. This would be a warm and thoughtful favor. Awaiting good news, I remain,

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from *Berkeley Voice* (campus newspaper, Berkeley University, Berkeley, California), 23 Nov. 1983

Here is a reader's letter to the editor of a popular periodical. What issues are apparent here?

The Americans economically exploit every country but particularly in developing countries such as Thailand. This is done via political pressure, aggressive foreign policy and economic might. I started to think like this when I understood what the Americans did in Vietnam. Their history of intruding in the business of other countries continues in various ways today. In the past few weeks the media has been reporting how the Americans are placing import tariffs on a lot fo our exports, yet they are comparatively free to export anything they like to our country. Their policies directly affect our farmers and many have become bankrupt. I recently saw a documentary on the US and the point that I remember is that 40 million Americans live in poverty. This is because there is no real protection for American workers as their economy relies on the availability of cheap labour. I am always surprised to see developed countries like the US and UK where there is such a wide gap between the people who have everything and the people who have nothing.

– reader's letter to *Nation,* c. 1998

Paragraph styles

Look at examples of the following paragraph styles in your textbook or articles. Think about why a particular paragraph form is used in those cases. What is the purpose of these paragraph forms? How and where might you use these various types of paragraphs in your academic writing? What kinds of transitionals or connectives would typically be used? (Have students identify which types occur regularly in academic writing in their field, e.g., from scholarly articles or works that they are reading in their courses; have them discuss why they are commonly used; and have them practice these as they do written assignments.)

1. definition

Introducing new or difficult concepts or terms; defining terms in order to establish a syllogism; establishing importance or relevance of an item; establishing a special meaning or relevance of terms as the author will use them in his/her argumentation.

2. descriptive and narrative

Explaining events, or describing a situation, especially with the writer's viewpoint or evaluation implied.

3. chronology

Past background of a topic; establishing the relevance of a topic or issue.

4. example / illustration

How things are to be; describing characteristics; strengths or weakness of an item or concept.

5. classification / categorization

Explaining interrelationships of items as related members of a class or group.

6. cause-effect

Explaining results or implications of an item.

7. process

Explaining or describing an item or concept as a a logical sequence of steps, e.g., reports, experiments.

8. contrast

Describing differences among items, ideas or theories; showing how one item or idea is superior or inferior to another; evaluating ideas or items.

9. comparison

Describing similarities; supporting an idea by establishing similarities with already accepted ideas.

10. analogy

Illustrating a point with an illustration that would be easier for readers to understand, and that conveys relationships among items or ideas as the writer perceives them.

11. critique / evaluation

The writer examines ideas (or other things) to point out strengths and weaknesses, or positives and negatives, of particular ideas, theories, proposals, experiments, devices, or such. This can be done in order to argue for or against one of them, or to show the superiority of his/her own idea.

12. inductive / deductive logic, syllogism

This is the classical type of logical argumentation from one point to another: if X and Y are true, then Z must be true.

13. "optimal / best inference" logic

Arguing for X as the best explanation or conclusion; X works better than other possible explanations, or X best satisfies certain logical requirements that make it the most acceptable option.

14. summary

Providing the reader a concise overview of the logical development of an idea.

Exercise: Rhetorical styles

A helpful exercise is to have your students discuss in pairs or groups the following questions:

- What kinds of evidence or support (e.g., from those above) are typically used in academic articles, lectures, presentations, discussions in your field?
- Why are these typically used, as opposed to others?

For example, in the sciences and many social sciences, only strictly objective, factual data are admissible as forms of evidence, and some of the above types fall into this category of empirical and objective data. In some fields, only statistical and experimental data – quantitative data – are considered trustworthy. In some social science and humanities fields, more subjective data based on personal observations and inferences – qualitative data – are typical. In some fields, purely logical and theoretical arguments are common (e.g., philosophy, theoretical linguistics) – theoretical arguments.

You can have your students bring sample articles from their fields – e.g., scholarly articles or published research articles – and compare them with each other, especially if students bring articles from different fields. Then have your students identify the type of arguments or information needed in their presentations, and why these are used in the field. Then you can have them discuss these together, write short descriptions of how one presents ideas in papers in one's field, or have them do practice exercises focusing on these specific types of support.

Genre analysis

The writing style and rhetorical conventions of your discipline.

1. Writing across the disciplines

Many students may have difficulty because they are in a new field of study at the college level, and have had no training or help in academic writing in the field. The conventions, or standards, of research and writing in the field, are foreign to them, as well as the reasons for such standards. This inductive assignment has each student engage in discovery learning, by bringing 1-2 academic, scholarly papers from his/her field, and learning by comparing their papers with papers from other fields in a group discussion. Then they can give a discussion or write a paper on how to write papers in the field. The following can be given to them as a worksheet.

2. Worksheet

Goal: To become aware of a chosen genre in your field – its structure, style, grammar, and organization.

Materials: One paper from your field of study (for now; later you should find a second paper)

Title and source of article(s):

1. List the sections that your article is divided into (e.g., abstract, introduction, methods, results, discussion, bibliography, appendices).

2. Is there an explicit thesis statement or an implied thesis? What is it? Where is it located? Does the same paragraph delineate the main points supporting the thesis? If so, what are they?

3. Are the research sources or cited sources primary (the writer's own experimental, analytical, or observation data) and/or secondary (other sources)? Is the content mostly factual, interpretive, theoretical, conjecture, or opinion?
   • How much of the contents factual? In what way might it be persuasive, e.g., by an author presenting his/her viewpoint, interpretation, analysis, or opinion?

4. How are sources cited within the paper, and in the bibliography? In the end references section, in what order do items appear in the citations (author, year, titles, etc.)? To what kind of information does this order give prominence?

5. How often is information from sources cited, and how much information is cited? What purpose does cited information serve in the paper? How is it used in the different sections of the paper?

6. How does the author show a clear connection between ideas? That is, what cohesive and structuring devices are used?
   - transitionals (connectives, conjunctions)
   - Are topics of discussion referred to by means of repeating key words; by using synonyms; by paraphrasing concepts or terms that are regularly referred to; or with pronouns or other referring forms (*such, so, this, that, there*, etc.)
   - Does the writer return to previously mentioned items (e.g., with terms like *as for, speaking of...*)?

7. **Structure.** How does the writer use titles, subtitles, headings to organize the development of ideas? Are charts, tables, and graphs used, and in which parts of the paper? Are footnotes and/or endnotes used? If so, for what purpose does the writer use them?

8. **Paragraph styles.** What common paragraph styles occur? For example, are they comparison, contrast, analytical, narrative, descriptive, definition, classification, or listing/example paragraphs? What kind of transitional words are common in these paragraphs? Why do you think these styles are common in this paper?

9. **Language use.** Look at the language forms that are commonly used. Are some of the following forms noticeably more common? If so, where?
   - Is this section written mostly in active or passive voice?
   - Which tenses are most frequently used – past, present, or future? Simple or progressive tenses?
   - Are any particular verb types frequently used, such as modal verbs (*can, could, shall, should, would, must, may...*)?
   - Which pronouns are most frequently used, and why?

- What sentence structures are used, e.g., active or passive sentences, inverted sentences[10]?

10. Types of rhetorical support

Also consider the kind of supporting evidence and arguments that are used as arguments for claims made or ideas proposed by scholars in the field, particularly in academic papers. First, which kind of overall purpose and tone does the article exhibit?

- informative or descriptive
- argumentative or persuasive
- creative, subjective, personal

Academic writing is generally both informative, but also argumentative; this is true for most fields. A researcher publishes not only new information and ideas, but also attempts to persuade readers about some point, such as:

- This theory or idea is correct, or is better than other proposals
- The data support or prove a particular hypothesis
- Theory X can be applied to a new domain or to solving a problem
- This experiment is interesting and worthwhile / These data are worthwhile

More specifically, the kinds of support or evidence for the arguments or ideas presented in the paragraphs and in the whole article may be one of these – which kind(s) of support are used in the article?

- statistical or numerical data
- experimental data
- observational data
- comparison data (e.g., conclusions from statistical comparison of two groups)
- ethnographic data[11] – based on observation human social interactions and activities
- examples
- anecdotes
- historical evidence
- historical narrative, or background
- quotations
- the authority of other scholars
- legal (forensic) argumentation
- theoretical analysis or discussion
- syllogism (e.g., in philosophy) or other logical argumentation
- mathematical proofs or arguments
- logical inferences
- analogy, metaphor
- more subjective inferences, arguments, impressions, etc.
- summary
- others?

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10 Inverted sentences are those with an adverbial, prepositional, or adjectival phrase moved to the beginning of the sentence, with the subject following the verb; e.g., "Into the room sauntered a penguin."

11 'Ethno-' means people, from Greek; here it can refer to observing and recording data ('-graphic') about individuals or several people, e.g., when an anthropologist observes people in their daily lives and social interactions.

Papers that make heavy use of statistical data, experimental data, or statistical analysis of comparative data are typically what we call quantitative research – following strict scientific criteria. Such research is common in science, engineering, and social science fields. Other papers may rely on observational data (including ethnographic data) and the researcher's own interpretation of the data. This is qualitative research, which is common in humanities and social science fields. What kinds are prevalent in your field, particularly in its academic writing? Why would these be preferred?

3. Comparison

Get together with a classmate from a different major than yours (though preferably a somewhat related or similar major) and compare your results. How are they similar? How are they different? Reflect on the various organizational, grammatical, and discourse structures that you have found. Discuss why you think the writer uses these structures regularly, and how typical you think these are for your field. Also consider how and why your article may differ from your classmate's article. What is it about your field that leads to the particular language forms, structures, writing genre, and rhetorical styles in your paper?

Discuss the above aspects of your papers in groups. Each person is to write a short paper on the topic of "How to write an academic paper in [field X]," e.g., "How to write an academic paper in biochemistry."

4. Academic worldviews

This more advanced exercise is for juniors, seniors or graduate students in their fields. For such students with some knowledge of their fields, it can be helpful to reflect more on the nature of their fields, how scholarly work is done in the field, and how one writes about it or presents it. After doing the above genre analysis worksheet, you can have students from different majors form groups and discuss the following:

- How would you explain your field to someone who does not know your field? With your classmates, try to explain what people do in the field, how they do research, and why they use such means to conduct research. Also try to explain why the field and the research are interesting – why should someone care about it? Why is it important, interesting, or helpful to society?

Then you can have them discuss some of the following questions, and then present and/or write a paper about them.

5. How to write an academic paper in your field.

You will write an essay explaining how academic or professional writing is done in your field of study. You might wish to write as if you were writing to younger students or future students in your field. The essay is to be based on the genre analysis assignment, but you will expand on it. Your paper should be at least 4 pages, plus references on a separate page. For the essay, examine at least three articles from your field. If your field seems broad, you may like to focus on a specific subfield or area within your field. You will need to address some of the following (discuss those aspects that are relevant, and in

whatever sequence and form that seems appropriate).

- What kind and how much writing is expected of students in your field, and specifically in your department. If possible, also discuss the kind of writing that would expected in a career in the field, or when one enters graduate school.

- Describe the kinds of research topics and questions that are considered important in the field. What are basic terms, theories, and terms that one would need to know? Describe the academic worldview or paradigm[12], and how that affects the writing style and form.

- What kind of work constitutes research in your field, how is the research done, and why is it preferred in the field? How is it written up? How does the type of research affect the writing style and form?

- What background knowledge do writers assume that their readers already know?

- Explain the general purpose and tone of the writing, and the more common paragraph forms[13], and why they might be commonly used.

- Organization, arrangement, and types of sections used; do various academic articles consistently follow the same structure, or do they vary? How are introductions and conclusions done?

- Format, style, and grammatical conventions – e.g., verb tenses, sentence types, transitionals, grammatical cohesion, etc.; why are some grammatical styles or features are commonly used?

- Argumentation style; logical flow; for example, what kind of evidence or argumentation is used for support? How much does the argumentation depend on the writer's own analysis, his/her own original research data, or other cited information?

- How does one make the writing informative, persuasive, and relevant to others? How does one achieve good logical coherence and flow?

- How might academic writing in your field in English differ from such writing in Korean (or other languages)?

- Contrast and compare the writing in your field with writing in related fields

Be sure to cite the articles from your field that you will be using as examples to illustrate important points.

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12 E.g., the theories, main issues of interest, one's motivation or goals, the general research orientations (theoretical, qualitative, quantitative), and the specific research methods (quantitative experiments, interviews, theoretical arguments, etc.).

13 E.g., analytical, process, descriptive, narrative, example, contrast / comparison ¶'s.

Differences between ordinary and academic writing

The following are more typical of ordinary, colloquial, non-scientific, or non-technical writing, versus academic, technical, and scientific writing.

	ordinary / informal writing	academic / technical writing
structure	Fairly flexible structures	Rigid article or essay structure, e..g., literature review; experimental design, materials and procedures; data results; discussion of results; general discussion
genre	Writing that is more colloquial or conversation in style	Formal, rigid styles like essay, lab report, case study, research paper, thesis, literature review
sentence structure	Simple sentences; sentences combined by coordination (coordinate / independent clauses, 등위절)	Sentences combined more often by subordination (subordinate / dependent clauses – 종속절), and participle phrases
intro-ductions	Introductions are more general; may begin with more common, familiar knowledge, or attention-getting statements	More specific, leading specifically to an explicit thesis statement; intros more informative and concise, and often seem more direct or dry in style
topic sentences	Topic sentences may be at the start or end of a paragraph, or omitted altogether.	Paragraphs usually start with a concise, direct statement of the main point, followed by supporting arguments or evidence
topic transitions	Shifts to new topics sometimes by means of *there is/are* expressions; reshifts to previous topics with expressions like *as to, as for, regarding, as regards, speaking of...*	Shifts to new topics and reshifts done simply by starting sentences with full noun subjects, paragraph breaks, and transitions (*yet, however, in contrast...*); few reshift markers or *there is/are* expressions; relatively less use of expressions like *as to, as for, regarding, as regards, speaking of...*
vocabulary	Simpler and higher-frequency vocabulary; more phrasal verbs	Lower-frequency vocabulary; more complex words, with many multisyllabic words from Latin and Greek
vocabulary usage	Some redundancy or repetition of words or ideas	Highly dense text; very concise; very precise expression; minimal repetition (except for sentence subjects)

	ordinary / informal writing	academic / technical writing
vocabulary choice	Words are used with more common meanings (e.g., 'theory' = conjecture)	Words have more specific, technical meanings (e.g., 'theory' =conceptual framework)
demon-stratives	Demonstratives (*this, that, these, those*) used to refer to immediate antecedents or referents – previously mentioned things or persons	Demonstratives, especially 'this,' often used to refer to discourse referents – previously mentioned ideas, phrases, sentences, e.g.: "<u>this</u> [fact, situation, etc.] merits further study," "<u>this</u> situation / result / matter poses problems for..." and "the common use of X differs from <u>that</u> in academic parlance"
sentence subjects	Sentences begin with animate and personal nouns, personal pronouns (including first or second person pronouns)	Sentences begin with full noun phrases; repetition of full nouns for clarity across sentences; pronouns, if used, are third person
verb choice	More modals, phrasal verbs, common verbs; verbs more often refer to actions (and thus, subjects are agents or doers of actions)	Fewer modals or phrasal verbs; Latinate / Greek verbs; more abstract and relational verbs (e.g., 'correlate, is consistent with) for concepts and conceptual relations
verb forms	More active verbs, *get*-passive (e.g., 'got replaced')	More passive voice (*be*-passive, e.g., 'was replaced')
nouns	Fewer nominalizations	More nominalizations, leading to a denser style (see below)
tone	More personal, even subjective; less formal (e.g., 'cool study' or 'fishy analysis')	More impersonal and authoritative; more formal (e.g., 'rigorous and insightful study' or 'questionable analysis')

1. Technical vocabulary

Many words in academic discourse have more specific and complex meanings than in more ordinary writing. For example, in ordinary parlance, 'theory' means 'conjecture, idea, hypothesis, something that has not been proven'; but in science, a theory is a complex, explanatory, scientific conceptual framework, and a scientific theory can be one that has been proven and accepted, or one that is not yet proven (thus, the theory of evolution is by no means an hypothesis or conjecture, but a proven and universally accepted theory). Likewise, the ordinary use of 'correlation' differs from that of quantitative research, where 'correlation' indicates a statistical relationship that meets certain statistical criteria (like statistical significance). Some terms like 'statistical significance' may be opaque or alien to a person who has not studied statistics or who has not been taught the concept properly. Even ordinary terms like 'gravity' has a different nuance; in ordinary parlance, it is simply a force that makes objects fall, but a physicist's

understanding and usage of the term 'gravity' is more technical and precise. 'Mass' and 'matter' may mean the same thing to non-scientists, but these are very different concepts for physicist.

The following types of vocabulary are also more typical of formal writing.

- Reporting verbs: More formal, specific verbs like *report, note, cite, indicate, claim, posit, discuss, suggest* are used to report what others have written, rather than informal verbs like *say, mention.*
- Classifier / evaluative nouns: *class, type, category, issue, matter, problem*
- Explicit cause – result expressions: *outcome, yield, produce, result, leads to, contributes to, correlates with, effect, finish*
- Objective evaluative expressions: *advantage, disadvantage, problem, advantage, angle, aspect, attempt, branch, category, circumstance, class, consequence, course [of action], criterion, deal, disadvantage, drawback, element. fact, facet, factor, form, item, motive, period, plan, problem, reason. stage, term, type.* Words with a neutral, objective tone are used rather than overly negative or positive terms.

2. Topic sentences

A more informal or less skilled topic sentence is the "self-announcing" topic sentences.

> I want to argue that this policy will not only fail to bring about any positive results, but in fact will ultimately compromise the quality of classroom teaching.

Also, some writers may write in a less fluid style like this.

> Korean texts have been analyzed by applied linguist Eggington. He shows that Korean texts are characterized by indirectness and nonlinear development. A four-part pattern, *ki-sung-chon-kyul*, typical of Korean prose, contributes to the nonlinearity (Conner, 1996:45).

3. Nominalizations

It is more common in technical writing to reduce an entire phrase or idea to a single noun phrase; e.g.:

simple, less formal	nominalization
Gutenberg invented the printing press, which allowed people to disseminate information	Gutenberg's invention of the printing press revolutionized the dissemination of information
we applied...; how we applied...; where we applied...	our application of...
how we directed the research; the direction that our research took	the direction of our research

The following example shows how scientific writing uses nominalizations, passive verbs, and participle phrases. The original[14] on the left compares with the less formal rewording on the right.

more formal (original)	less formal (modified)
Human cellular models of Alzheimer's disease (AD) pathogenesis <u>would enable the investigation of</u> candidate pathogenic mechanisms in AD and <u>the testing and developing of</u> new therapeutic strategies.	Human cellular models of Alzheimer's disease (AD) pathogenesis would <u>enable</u> us to <u>investigate</u> candidate pathogenetic mechanisms in AD, and <u>would enable us to test and develop</u> new therapeutic strategies.
We report <u>the development of</u> AD pathologies in cortical neurons <u>generated from</u> human induced pluripotent stem (iPS) cells <u>derived from</u> patients with Down syndrome.	We report on <u>how we developed</u> AD pathologies in cortical neurons that were <u>generated</u> from human induced pluripotent stem (iPS) cells that were <u>derived</u> from patients with Down syndrome.
These cortical neurons processed the transmembrane APP protein, <u>resulting in</u> secretion of the pathogenic peptide fragment amyloid-β42 (Aβ42).	These cortical neurons processed the transmembrane APP protein, which <u>resulted in</u> secretion of the pathogenic peptide fragment.
<u>Production of</u> Aβ peptides was blocked by a γ-secretase inhibitor.	Aβ peptides <u>were not produced</u>, because they were blocked by a γ-secretase inhibitor.
Finally, hyperphosphorylated tau protein, a pathological hallmark of AD, <u>was found to be localized</u> to cell bodies and dendrites in iPS cell–derived cortical neurons from Down syndrome patients, <u>recapitulating</u> later stages of the AD pathogenic process.	Finally, we <u>found</u> that hyperphosphorylated tau protein, a pathological hallmark of AD, <u>was localized</u> to cell bodies and dendrites in iPS cell–derived cortical neurons from Down syndrome patients. This <u>recapitulates</u> later stages of the AD pathogenic process.

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14 Original text from Y. Shi, P. Kirwan, J. Smith, G. MacLean, S. H. Orkin, F. J. Livesey. (2012). A Human Stem Cell Model of Early Alzheimer's Disease Pathology in Down Syndrome. *Science Translational Medicine, 4*, 124ra29.

Topical structure analysis

As a means of checking the coherence of paragraphs in a student's writing, you can try topical structure analysis (TSA), a technique in writing studies to show the progression of topics from one sentence to the next. Roughly speaking, the topic is what the sentence is about. It may be the grammatical subject of the sentence, but it could also be something else. Topics tend to flow in certain ways, but some students may have overly loose topic flow, with sentences jumping from one topic to another with insufficient transitions, or insufficient development of ideas relating to each topic. In TSA, one scans one or more paragraphs and identifies the different types of topical items:

1. Initial sentence element (ISE) – the first noun or significant word in a sentence, which may not be a grammatical subject, such as a noun within a prepositional phrase (e.g., "Into the *room* sauntered a strange man").
2. Grammatical subject – the grammatical subject of the verb.
3. Topical subject – the idea that the sentence discusses, what the sentence is about – this may or may not be the grammatical subject.

This exercise is mainly for self-awareness, for improving writers' coherence. There might be some variation in writing across different academic fields and different genres, so it would be helpful to use TSA to analyze and compare one's writing style with the style of typical articles in one's field.

After marking the different topics of sentences, one can look at how topics of different sentences are related, and how the paragraph flows from one topic to the next.

1. Parallel progression (PP) – sentence topics are semantically identical (identical topics, even if synonyms are used); two consecutive sentences or clauses have the same topical subject.
2. Sequential progression (SP) – the newer element of a sentence or clause (usually in the predicate) serves as the topical element of the consecutive sentence or clause.
3. Extended parallel progression (EPP) – a topical subject occurs in two sentences or clauses that are not consecutive, i.e. a topic is resumed after one or more intervening sentences.

In this example (Almaden, 2006), ISE's are in italics, grammatical subjects are underlined, and other topics are in boldface.

> *For example*, **one project** I set involved the class devising a board game on a nursery rhyme or folk tale for younger children. (2) ***The class*** were reasonably enthusiastic about this until they realized that the younger children were fictional, (3) i.e., ***they*** would be playing these games with real children apart from each other. (4) *I* felt a certain amount of shame here, for I realized that the reason there would be no audience was because I had already decided that **those games** would not be 'good enough' for public consumption. (5) *I* have frequently arranged **real audiences** for other classes, but only when I have been confident that the finished product would show the class, the school, and most shamefully of all, myself, in a good light. (6) ***My other error*** was not to impose a structure to the work of a deadline by which to finish. (7) *Because these were **low-ability students***, [EPP] my reasoning ran, they would need more time to complete the activity, (8) *and in the way of these things*, **the children** simply filled the available time with low-level busy work-colouring in the board, and making the dice and counters, rather than the more challenging activities such as negotiating group responsibilities, discussing the game or devising the rules. (Holden, 1995)

Introductions and conclusions

1. Introductions

Introductory paragraphs in academic writing often have the following structure, where one starts with specific background information that leads directly to a thesis. While background components of Korean essays tend to be broader and more general, this section of English essays needs to be more specific and directly related to the thesis, without information that would be obvious or common knowledge for readers.

1. Background: Specific background information leading specifically to the thesis

2. Thesis: A specific position or objective

3. Plan: A short possible outline or summary of the main arguments to be developed – usually constituting one clause or sentence following the thesis, e.g.:

> American English alone should not be used as the basis for world English [←argument], because that would not only limit global English to one dialect, and breed possible resentment toward English, but would also hinder linguistic innovation. [←plan]

Effective introductions in a formal lecture or presentation usually one or more of the following elements.

1. **Overview.** Explain the main points and topics to be covered in the lecture or lesson. This helps students to follow the flow of the lecture / lesson. It is best to organize the lesson around 3-5 main points, as human working memory can keep track of up to 5 main items at once. Thus, this kind of structure is easier for others to follow and remember.

2. **Rationale.** Explain why the lecture topic and/or main points are relevant or interesting – why should the listeners care about this?

3. **Bridge.** Remind students of what you talked about last time, and make a connection between the previous class material and today's topic.

2. Specific introduction styles for college writing

An effective introduction may consist of one or more of the following elements. (Note that some of these examples are slightly more informal.)

1. Provide specific background information on the topic.

> Hawthorne's Young Goodman Brown depicts a man whose faith is tested in a dream journey into the woods, where the devil shows him that everyone he thought to be good was actually evil. At the crucial moment, when the devil is about to baptize him, he calls out for his wife, Faith. Upon doing so, the hellish vision passes. From this we can see that Hawthorne is communicating to the reader that we should resist temptation and live moral lives, but on a deeper level, is conveying skepticism about certain Puritan religious beliefs.

2. Explain the importance of the topic, or of your research on the topic.

> This analysis of competing theories of the original tribal homelands will help linguists and archaeologists in determining the origin and relationship of their languages.

3. Use a clear, specific example to get the reader's attention and interest.

> A professor once frequented an Indian restaurant, with no idea of the connection between the restaurant and his research area of business ethics. Then he found that the restaurant had been employing slave laborers – teenagers brought from India on false promises of well paying jobs, who instead found themselves abused and forced to work for little or no money. This discovery transformed an otherwise normal professor into a leading, passionate human rights activist.

4. Attract the reader's attention by relating the topic to a current event or controversy.

> The current controversy over Nike products is merely the latest example of clothing items produced by sweatshop labor.

5. Start with a statement making the reader take a new look at a familiar situation.

> American consumers may bemoan the taxes imposed on gasoline, yet fail to realize how incredibly low these taxes are compared to most industrialized nations, and the benefits that higher gas taxes lead to, such as better road infrastructure financed and maintained by such gas taxes.

6. Limit the subject by proceeding from a general situation to a specific instance.

> Households currently endure an inflation rate of 9% on food. No geographical region in North America has escaped this alarming inflation of prices on everything form groceries to durable consumer goods. But one of the hardest hit areas is the Canadian maritime provinces.

7. Use an initial quotation as a keynote for the rest of the paper (more common in humanities fields; very rare in science and related fields).

> The Danish philosopher Kierkegaard, in describing the soul confronting its existential condition, noted that ".....”

> *Caution*: Don't abuse this form by quoting material that isn't crucial to the paper or presentation, or by quoting from dictionaries, encyclopedias, or other common sources, e.g., "Webster's Dictionary defines treason as…" Dictionary definitions usually sound trite or uninformative.

8. Clarify a key term by an initial definition. Observe the cautionary note above.

> Cognitive linguistics represents an attempt to apply cognitive psychological principles to explaining human language, and as such, represents a bold departure from the traditional theoretical approaches to linguistics.

9. Dramatize an issue with striking facts or statistics.

> One out of every eight residents of this city will be robbed or assaulted this year.

10. Heighten the point with a striking contrast.

> African-Americans can expect to live roughly 9.3 fewer years than white Americans.

11. Establish your qualifications for dealing with the subject by using a biographical or personal statement; but avoid being overly subjective (this is less formal, probably more suited to lower level undergraduate courses).

> After 9 years of teaching, we have come to the conclusion that the part of the semester on cognitive grammar is the most rewarding for both students and the teacher.

12. Assume the attack by denying a currently accepted assumption.

> For the last three decades, 200 million Americans have wearily followed the antics of politicians in Washington. Most viewers now cynically declare that the American dream has been shattered. Nevertheless, recent events in Washington do not in fact support this conclusion. Rather, the outcries and investigations over Watergate, Iran-Contra, and DNP fund-raising fiascos indicate a high level of morality in our government.

13. A rhetorical question.

> The case history of this company naturally raises the following question: Can the company survive another financial meltdown when its leadership lacks a clear vision?

14. Wake up the apathetic reader with a well-phrases, cautiously worded, controversial question. *Caution*: Avoid questions or statements that are too obvious, obscure, exaggerated, biased, or inflammatory.

> Is it the right of a concerned legislative branch to impeach and remove a president whose policies are leading the country to a point that the citizens believe to be destructive?

3. Conclusions

1. A memorable restatement of the central idea or important points, stated in a fresh way, and not redundantly.
2. A brief, final anecdote that reinforces the central idea without an explicit restatement.
3. A careful estimate of the significance of the conclusions reached in the paper.
4. A specific, credible forecast or warning based on facts developed in the paper (without exaggeration or being too dramatic).
5. An essential condition for future progress.
6. A suggestion for corrective action. *Caution*: This action must develop logically from your paper or presentation, rather than something entirely new; and it must not be to sweeping, vague, unreasonable, or simplistic.
7. A return from the specific to the general, relating the paper's findings to a general trend or idea.
8. Other final thought(s) that flow logically from the paper, and that provide a sense of closure or "wrapping up".

4. Common errors in introductions and conclusions

1. A non-committal platitude; overly general or vague statements:

> This problem deserves the serious attention of every concerned researcher.

2. Unfounded optimistic predictions:

> But the future seems very bright.

3. An undeveloped idea as a panacea:

> The restoration of proper discipline in the nation's schools will make juvenile delinquency a thing of the past.

4. A conclusion that raises new problems, or weaken or distract from the point of the paper.

> Of course, the proposed solution has obvious disadvantages for those concerned with …..

5. Clichés. Especially avoid common Korean cliches about the importance of English, how the world is a global village, or such.

> But every cloud has a silver lining.

6. Overly vague statements:

> In modern society we have to learn to adapt to technology.

7. For more formal academic writing or speaking, avoid first person examples or discussion ("I, we, my, our") or second person ("you, your"). In informal writing, first and second person may be desirable, as well as a more informal tone. The pronoun 'you' and other uses of second person (like imperative verbs) to be avoided in academic writing. First person is avoided, though occasional use of 'we' may be acceptable in humanities writing and sometimes in the social sciences.

8. Avoid language that establishes a non-professional tone in academic writing. On the other hand, avoid a tone that sounds artificial, stilted, ostentatious, or hyper-formal. In business writing, a certain degree of seriousness is expected, but not to the point of sounding aloof.

Writing samples: Introductions

Examine and compare the following writing samples, which are introduction sections from university essays (first-year graduate students) by Korean writers at an American university. Evaluate the quality of these essay introductions, and point out stylistic problems that you see. For example, are these sufficiently clear, specific and focused? In what ways do some of the Korean samples differ from standard English academic writing?

1. [no title]

This paper is written based on the change of architectural theory after Industrial Revolution. Industrial Revolution makes many changes in architecture theory and technology as in other fields. Many theories and technologies in architecture are produced and is adopted to contemporary architecture. However, some architects insist to maintain their traditional method to approach the building design and some progressive architects argue to adopt new method to build the building. So I will mention the conflict between tradition and progress in first chapter, in second chapter, I will write the transparency in architecture related to painting skill, and finally, I will show the critical regionalism in architecture. Every field will be developed and changed along with time. The ethic and custom in human society are also changed as time passes through. My opinion is that we have to maintain the neutral position in the change of architecture. Everyone does not support bias thinking and we have to think of the diversity in everything. These items lead me to think of diversity in architecture, and make me think wider.

The conflict between tradition and progress

The conflict between the tradition and the progress is continuing from the past to today and will be continued in the future. There is also no exception for the architecture. Modern technology and science are developed in a fright speed and these achievements of the western civilization make a traditional society and an ethic system change much. Many people in various fields of such society are trying to define their characters anew and architecture is also trying to find their role and is oscillating in the many trends. Progressive architects believe in the techno-scientific future that could make us do what we cannot do now. Conservative architects believe that a return to the past can bring us back the lost value and the third group concentrates on the internal order of architecture independent of outside world. We cannot ignore both tradition and progress. There are many examples that show us the conflict between tradition and progress.

2. Low pressure synthesis of diamond on graphite, Si and Fe substrate: Approached by Charged Cluster Model

The effect of substrate on low-pressure synthesis of diamond was investigated. Diamond was deposited on graphite, Si and Fe substrates by hot filament CVD. We could find etching of graphite with simultaneous deposition of diamond on graphite substrate, deposition of diamond on Si substrate, and rapid deposition of graphite on Fe substrate. Growth mechanism by atomic unit or atomic hydrogen hypothesis could not explain the rapid growth and powder like shape of graphite deposition on Fe substrate, and diamond deposition with simultaneous etching of graphite on graphite substrate. But, based on the charged cluster model of which the growth unit is is cluster, we could successfully explain it without thermodynamic paradox

3. Integration of Game Attributes into Travel Decision-Aid Systems

Introduction

The emergence of technology such as the Internet has changed not only the way of communication and information searching procedure, but also the nature of the tourism marketplace. Recent research on travel information search process has emphasized hedonic needs, in addition to functional needs, as a driving force of travel information search (Vogt and Fesenmaier, 1998; Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Bloch et al, 1986). In this sense, how to make the information search process fun while providing demanded information is a challenge for researchers and system developers. Computer games have long been one of the most significant beneficiary fields of the ever-developing computer technology. Computer games, like play and other types of games, are known to be a response to the needs for entertainment, compensation, and/or escape from reality and are more oriented toward hedonic needs than functional needs (Brougere, 1999). This study is motivated by the expectation that game attributes, which enables the user to deeply involve in the process, would provide valuable guidelines for developing a more effective Travel Decision-aid System (TDAS). The concept of 'flow' which was originally introduced by Csikszentmihalyi (1975) is used to incorporate gaming processes and information search processes into Travel Decision-aid Systems. The following discusses the characteristics of travel information search process and game attributes, an integrated model will be proposed and three propositions are suggested to highlight the importance of game attributes and flow experience for designing Travel Decision-aid Systems. Guidelines for design will be suggested in the last section.

4. Signal-Stability Based Hybrid Routing Protocol

Ad hoc networks are multi-hop wireless networks, which consist of mobile nodes without any centralized control or established communication infrastructure. Because ad hoc networks do not rely on the existing infrastructure and organize for themselves, they have been researched at many areas such as military communication, rescue missions, communicational conferences, and sensor networks. After self-configuring, each node of an ad hoc network communicates with other nodes within its communication range. In order to send a packet to a destination node outside of its range, a sending node forwards a packet to its neighbors within its direct communication range. Then the node received the packet forwards the packet along the routing path. A node of ad hoc network acts as not only an end system but also a router at the same time.

In the mobile ad hoc network, unlike a fixed ad hoc network, a node moves arbitrarily without any notification. Routing protocols for existing wired networks do not support these high topology changes[1][3][4]. As a result, routing is one of the most important tasks to provide service on the quite dynamic topology.

Introductions: Different genres

Here are three text samples of good introductions from different genres – different types of academic writing in different fields. How do these differ in style?

1. Lab report: Speed of Sound in Water

Abstract. This experiment was designed to measure the speed of sound in water and determine how changes in the properties of the water affect the speed of sound. First, the speed of sound in water at room temperature was measured using a "time of flight" method. Then the sound was measured at different temperatures to determine the change in the speed due to temperature. The speed of sound from part 1 of the experiment was 1479.7 m/s. In part 2 the speed of sound was found to vary from 1419.75 m/s at 10.8°C to 1581.03 m/s at 33.10°C.

2. Moral Perfection in "Young Goodman Brown"

Hawthorne's "Young Goodman Brown" explores the conflict between good and evil. Young Goodman Brown has his religious faith tested during a journey into the woods. In what may or may not have been a dream, he shown by the devil that everyone he believed to be good is evil We must look at how Goodman Brown reacts and how he is affected in order to determine what Hawthorne thins about morality. At the crucial instant, then the devil is about to baptize him, Brown calls out for Faith, his wife, teller her to resist the temptation. he is really calling out for faith, as in faith in God. When he does this, the hellish vision passes, and he is alone in the woods. From this, I think we can conclude that Hawthorne believes that people should try to resist temptation and live moral lives. At the same time, however, he also expresses skepticism toward Puritan religious attitudes and practice.

3. Food Irradiation: An Ideas Whose Time Has Come

In almost every part of the world people daily to protect their vital food supplies from spoilage. For most Americans, the threats of heat, damp, insect infestation, bacterial contamination, and rot may seem distant. yet while there is no precise information on just how much of the world's food supply is lost to spoilage, it is clear that the losses are enormous, especially in less developed countries that can least afford the waste. In addition, may of these countries have warm climates that encourage the growth of organisms causing spoilage and that speed up the normal deterioration process (Thorne). Because the world's population is growing at a rapid pace, we need to find viable solutions to the problem of waste and decay.

Effective persuasion and argumentation

This seminar will discuss ways of presenting one's ideas and arguments effectively in academic English, particularly in academic writing.

1. Getting started

Argumentation: Presenting a claim (thesis, argument) and supporting it with reasons and evidence. All arguments are, either implicitly or explicitly, comparisons of two hypotheses that attempt to explain the same facts, observations, or ideas.

Goal: Persuading, or at least showing that the thesis is reasonable

1.1. Basic structure

One or more of the basic types of logic and logical argumentation are typically used in developing one's claims.

Inductive

- empirical, data driven (observations)
- inferencing
- analogy, example

Deductive

- syllogism / logical reasoning
- correlation
- cause & effect
- scientific method

Optimization

- best explanation
- abduction (inferring that X is the best explanation)

2. Arguments

2.1. Explicit comparison of hypotheses

In some papers, you want to explicitly compare two different hypotheses or explanations.

1. Identify the properties or predictions of each hypothesis that distinguish it from the other.
2. Describe those features or properties.
3. Explain which are correct and incorrect.

The structure of the essay (or paper section) will look something like this.

1. A description, summary or explanation of the hypotheses.
2. An explanation of the differences between the two hypotheses, such as different predictions.
3. Examination of the evidence that confirms or disproves these predictions.
4. An evaluation of which hypothesis is correct or better – more consistent with the evidence.

3. Weak arguments – common problems

1. Too much information
2. Overly broad topic
3. Not enough information
4. Non-academic rhetorical structure

3.1. Logical fallacies

- Emotional arguments, emotional appeals, emotional language
- Overgeneralization
- Exaggerated claims that cannot be proven
- Cherry-picking evidence or arguments – picking only those that support your view and ignoring other evidence to the contrary
- Strawman: misrepresenting the opposing viewpoint, or exaggerated or unwarranted claims about the other position or its implications

4. Counter-argumentation

A counterargument is a response to an objection (be it a real objection, or potential objection that readers might have). This is standard in much academic writing, lecturing and presentations. One must anticipate potential objections or criticisms to the points that one is trying to make, and then address them. Failure to do so will lead to a weak presentation of your ideas, and may fail to connect with or convince the readers or listeners. Counterarguments may take the following forms.

1. Attempting to completely disprove or refute the objection
2. Dismissing it or showing that it is not relevant
3. Argue that your opponent's evidence does not really support the claims
4. Argue against your opponent's logic
5. Argue against the underlying assumptions of the objection
6. Concessive arguments – granting some validity to the objection, while providing your countering viewpoint: "While X may be so, it is also true that..." or "Although they reported that..., other studies have shown that..."
7. Counterexamples – in some fields, good counterexamples can take down a strong claim.
8. Contrast and comparison, e.g., your idea (experiment, data, etc.) with others' data or ideas; your experiment versus someone else's; your product with previous products

Keep in mind the following tips.

1. Avoid over-summarizing differing or opposing views that would be familiar to the readers.

2. Avoid making overly strong counter-arguments that are not convincingly supported by strong evidence or other support – otherwise, use more concessive sentences

3. Frame the potential objections in subordinate clauses (or other backgrounding structures) when possible, to de-emphasize them in the flow of thought. Contrast markers (*although, though, however, but, while, despite, in contrast, yet, to the contrary*) are commonly used to cite these objections and then answer them, e.g., *Although X has claimed that..., our data show that this is this does not hold when...*

4. More detailed summaries of opposing viewpoints may belong in a literature review section of a thesis or major paper.

5. Avoid logical fallacies or incorrect statements (see above).

5. Example

Should the university require most courses to be taught in English (EMI policy)?

Should S' be required to take X amount of EMI courses?

Let's imagine a research paper about this topic[15].

→ Specific arguments: in favor of; against it; for modifying it – if so, how?

5.1. Scope

• Topic: EMI at all of KU, in a particular dept. / field, in all of Korean colleges / universities

• Pedagogy, language acquisition, psychology, economics, students' point-of-view (POV) faculty POV

• Empirically driven vs. opinion driven

• Type of info, evidence available / to be used

• Types of sources of info

5.2. Introduction

Some relevant background info, which is reasonably informative to a knowledgeable reader.

5.3. Thesis & outline

• A main thesis statement that is to be developed in the essay – a clear, concise, focused claim.

• An outline or summary of 3-5 main points that support the thesis, which will be developed as body paragraphs.

---

15 S' = students; EMI = English mediated instruction;

A.

B.

C.

…

5.4. Arguments (body)

Then you sketch out arguments for and against your thesis, and revise your outline or paper accordingly.

pros (arguments in favor)	cons (arguments against)
- Language immersion - Promotes English ability - Importance of English for academics, research - Importance of English for career - Globalization, multicultural benefits - May lead high school S' to prepare by focusing on relevant English skills - Some improvement in S' English skills has occurred - Stimulates S' to learn English skills - Content based English learning - Foreign students → learning benefits - Foreign students → rankings - Courses in English → rankings	- English is irrelevant to many departments - Variations in S' proficiency levels - Better educated students have unfair advantage - S' comprehension levels - Impairs understanding of contents (lectures, readings) - Impairs S performance (class participation, assignments, exams) - S' aren't ready - Basic proficiency needed first - Emotional effects on S' - Doesn't help English learning - Rankings metrics are flawed or misused - S' attitudes

Essays with counter-arguments

1. Academic English argumentation

Academic writing generally expresses a point of view or a position, and is thus generally argumentative. It may be in the form of a critique, a persuasive essay, or a review. Even content that we don't think of as argumentative is material that is, or once was, debated in the academic world. Sometimes professors may ask you to defend or articulate a view or interpretation, for the sake of your understanding of the material, to develop your analytical skills, or to show that you understand the material. Even informative papers about accepted scientific facts may require providing evidence or proof for the facts presented, and are thus argumentative as well. Other scientific papers may present factual findings (e.g., results of an experiment), but with the purpose of proving their truthfulness, validity, or their scientific worth, i.e., that the research reported is of scientific value.

Such papers involving making claims, in the form of the main objective or thesis of the paper (usually a thesis statement in the introductory paragraph), as well as main supporting arguments, which are often expressed as topic sentences in the body paragraphs. Each of your various claims must be supported with evidence and/or further explanation. Support or evidence can include supporting data, supporting details, examples, information or ideas from other sources, theoretical arguments, persuasive explanation, or other kinds of support, depending on the academic field. In the process, you must anticipate and address potential counter-arguments. Here you must take the perspective of a skeptical reader, and try to formulate counter-arguments against your claims, and then address them.

1.1. Counter-argumentation style

Korean writers traditionally followed a more indirect argumentation style, which follows a pattern roughly like this:

1a. General introduction	(intro ¶)
1b. Statement of the issue	(intro ¶)
2. Summary of one side of the issue	(first body section)
3. Summary of opposing side	(second body section)
4. Writer's evaluation and position	(final body section and/or conclusion ¶)

However, this style is much less effective in English or Western academic writing. A general introduction will seem non-relevant and non-informative to Western academic readers, so the introduction should begin with a specific introduction, such as background

information that is specific to the main topic and thesis statement, or that is otherwise specific and interesting enough to gain the reader's attention.

The style whereby arguments for one side, then the opposing side, are summarized, is much less common in English academic writing, and runs the risk of sounding general and lacking coherence to native English readers. This is because summarizing arguments for each side may sound like general information, and thus less informative, and this fails to present the author's main arguments in the process. The writer instead summarizes two positions, without making clear his/her rhetorical objectives, his/her own positions, and his/her own specific claims. For an English academic reader, this line of thought will be difficult to follow, and the reader may think that the writer has nothing specific or interesting to say, or is avoiding commitment to a particular position or rhetorical objective.

Instead, English essays lay out a specific position in the introduction (thesis statement) and specific supporting arguments in each of the following body paragraphs. In the process of presenting specific arguments, within each paragraph or section the writer then notes and addresses potential counter-arguments to his/her arguments. In fact, most often this is done within body paragraphs, in the context of a related argument. More generally, though, there are several ways of dealing with counter-arguments in the organization of the essay.

2. Framing of main arguments

Frame specific arguments to address potential counter-arguments, without necessarily mentioning those counter-arguments explicitly – especially if those counter-arguments are fairly obvious or commonly known to the readers or potential audience. This is the most common method, and it avoids repeated ideas or specific information that the reader may already be familiar with.

For example, the following two topic sentences anticipate claims made by some politicians about economics and government; an educated, politically aware person would probably recognize that these sentences directly contradict some commonly argued claims by advocates of neoliberal economic policies; even though their neoliberal claims are not stated, these sentences implicitly argue against them.

> The neoliberal laissez-faire economic policies of American conservatives falsely assume that humans are rational economic agents who act in their best long-term interests.
>
> ...
>
> These political philosophies also operate on false assumptions about the virtue of human nature, and ignore the realities and complexities of human moral behavior and decision making processes.

3. Within body paragraphs

After the topic sentences (and often after some sentences providing positive arguments for the topic sentence), then you can turn to a potential counter-argument related to the topic sentence, and deal with that.*

A mixed market economy with sufficient government controls and regulation is more consistent with the realities of human nature. Humans often make economic decisions based on short-term goals and simple heuristic decision making mechanisms. ==Although libertarian conservatives believe that markets act as rational entities that "police themselves", in that human agents act in their own self-interest to preserve market stability==, their self-interest actually leads to non-rational behavior that is focused on short-term gains. This, then, leads to reliance on quick psychological heuristics in decision making, which bypass careful, analytical, thoughtful decision making. … ==Conservatives also mistakenly view markets as an organic entity==, which ignores modern understandings of markets as fluctuating dynamic systems that adhere to complex mathematical and behavioral patterns, as understood in game theory and chaos theory.

4. Separate paragraph

After a body paragraph presenting positive arguments for a claim, a separate, full paragraph may follow up by presenting and dealing with a counter-argument, much like the within-paragraph examples above. Also, a final body paragraph or section before the conclusion may likewise envision a major counter-argument and deal with it there. For example, one of these statement from above could be turned into a separate paragraph:

Although libertarian conservatives believe that markets act as rational entities that "police themselves", in that human agents act in their own self-interest to preserve market stability, their self-interest actually leads to non-rational behavior that is focused on short-term gains.

Conservatives also mistakenly view markets as organic entities, which ignores modern understandings of markets as fluctuating dynamic systems that adhere to complex mathematical and behavioral patterns, as understood in game theory and chaos theory.

5. Introductions

In the introduction, before the thesis statement, such that addressing an opposing argument becomes the rationale for the essay or thesis itself. (See example below.)

5.1. Example

The following sample[16] shows counter-arguments highlighted within the introduction and one body paragraph. (Note that this has some more informal elements and word choice, e.g., a rather generally worded initial sentence in the introduction, and vague, general words like "bad".)

5.2. Argumentative essay: The Dangers of Dams (freshman level example)

Introduction (Uses counter-argument to make lead into a clear thesis argument) **Thesis statement** (Includes three main arguments which will in turn become three body topics)	Around the world, there are hundreds of dams of different sizes. <u>Dams are used for irrigation, flood defenses, water supply, and hydroelectric power. Despite these positive elements, however, there are also many bad elements related to dams</u>. Dams have a negative global impact because they eat up valuable land resources, ruin wildlife habitats, effects endangered species, and create damaging greenhouse gases.

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16 From is from http://www.fanshawec.ca/assets/the~learning~centre~-~tlc/sample1argument.pdf.

First argument (Presents the counter opinion; incorporates the use of research to	Firstly, dams take up areas of land rich with valuable resources. Dams require large areas of land as flood plains for the reservoir of water. Man-made lakes are created this way often at the cost of valuable farmland, livable land, and plentiful forests. Although there are enjoyable aspects of a man-made lake, these lakes are not always practical. In Texas, a proposed reservoir could take over 50,000 acres of forest and family farms ("Texas Water"). Not only will local populations lose natural resources, but people will also lose income due to a loss of exportable materials.
Second argument (Firmly indicates 2nd supporting	Secondly, dams ruin natural habitats for wildlife. Dam reservoirs hold water and release water slowly through a forced opening. Water lying dormant in one area begins to heat on the surface. Eventually, the water stagnates due to a lack of movement and becomes low in oxygen supply. Plants that need this oxygen for survival die off. In addition, fish that depend on the flow of the river as a form of transportation to spawning areas are not able to move past the reservoir. This disruption affects the ecosystem with dire consequences for the food chain.
Third argument (Firmly indicates 3rd supporting argument with a smooth transition into final argument)	Thirdly, endangered species are further threatened by a dam system. Natural systems are often so significantly affected by dams that they are either destroyed or negatively modified. Weeds that flourish in low-oxygenated areas begin to choke up the water system and absorb the remaining valuable resources. In the Amazon River's Balbina reservoir, "even the introduction of a herd of grazing manatees has failed to staunch the spread of weeds" (Pearce). These weeds eventually begin to rot leading to the devastating effects of greenhouse gases.
Fourth argument (Linked directly to argument two)	Greenhouse gases dangerously affect the atmosphere through climate change. According to Bioscience, a North American science journal, "reservoirs create one-fifth of all man-made methane in the atmosphere". Climatic change drastically effects life on earth. Polar ice caps, for example, are melting because of rising global temperatures. Coastal cities are beginning to lose land as the water levels rise in the ocean. Horrendous tidal waves have formed because of the shift in atmospheric conditions. These occurrences come together to create the greenhouse effect, which is in desperate need of reversal. According to the World Commission on Dams, "there is no justification for claiming that hydroelectricity does not contribute significantly to global warming". With such data available, the creation of dams seems deadly.
Conclusion (Offers a possible solution to the problem)	Today, society is learning of the dangers that come with hydroelectric dams. As alternatives, solar and wind power are both green energy sources that have no foreseeable dangers. It is hopeful that these sources can come into use in the future to replace the need for dams.

6. Transitionals and expressions

Counter-arguments can be referred to and refuted with expressions like these:

Although   {summary of idea}, …. {your refutation}

It {may/could/might} be {argued/asserted/claimed/contended/maintained/said} that… However, …

One / Some {claim, etc.} that… However, ….

It is sometimes claimed / etc….

It {is / has been} {argued, etc.} that … However, …

Counter-arguments should be discussed in an objective tone, so unprofessional or aggressive language should be avoided, e.g., referring to counter-claims or ideas as "foolish, dumb" or such. An essay writer usually problematizes them, that is, the counter-arguments are discussed objectively as problems. In your refutation the essay should objectively explain why the opposition is wrong, your position is better, or where the opposition's argument falls short.

6.1. More examples

Here's a brief example on end-of-life issues[17].

argument	The primary focus in medical end-of-life decisions should be on patient consent, rather than doctor intention, because it is not a breach against a patient's rights if s/he consents to the termination of their life.
counter-argument	Terminally ill patients are likely to be depressed, and therefore unable to consent to their hastened death in a balanced or acceptable way.
refutation	Depression can be managed. The relevance of depression must be made on a case-by-case basis. Depression does not warrant a general rule prohibiting patients from consenting to a hastened death.

Here is a sketch of another possible example.

Title, intro, thesis statement	**"Learning" English** Korean parents, caught up in the spirit of educational competitiveness, devote considerable resources to ensuring that their children will learn English, from an increasingly earlier age. However, the push for learning English has become increasingly counter-productive, and may negatively impact their ability to learn English meaningfully, as well as other negative effects on their learning motivation, learning habits, and self-esteem.

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17 From http://www.monash.edu.au/lls/llonline/writing/law/legal-process/2.3.3.xml.

Argument 1	Korean children are sent to private learning academies and private tutors, where they increasingly focus on memorizing grammar rules and vocabulary. [*More statistical evidence will be provided here, from governmental sources or other studies.*] Parents believe that their children are learning English, when in fact, they are merely learning facts about English. [*Further points will be elaborated here, first about the nature of language learning, and then the inadequacy of the contents that are often memorized by children as supposedly "English".*]
Argument 2	A number of observational examples show that middle and high school children who have learned English in a mechanical, rote-based manner are unable to use their knowledge in any meaningful way, in conversational interactions in the classroom, or especially outside the classroom when they encounter foreigners. [*Various examples from observational studies are provided here.*]
Counter-argument / Rebuttal 1	Some might claim that this kind of focus on studying English will enable students to succeed in college and in their careers. However, the focus on rote learning of non-communicative knowledge of English in fact leaves students very poorly prepared for the demands of college and careers. Increasingly, Korean universities are moving toward English-mediated courses [EMC] or English-mediate instruction, where courses are taught in English, be it by a Korean or foreign professor. The traditional approach leaves students without practical comprehension skills or communication skills, and thus, they will have serious difficulties adjusting to real English in a real context. [*More data and details here*] The same will carry over to their future careers, where they will have difficulties communicating with non-Koreans, or in dealing with English-language materials or contexts in their vocation. [*More data and details here*]
Counter-argument / Rebuttals 2 & 3	Some will point to data from test scores. However, no meaningful correlation can be found between test scores (TOEFL, TOEIC, or the Korean *sunung* college entrance exam) with the increasing financial resources or study times devoted to studying English. [*More data and details here*] More significantly, however, is the lack of linguistic validity to these exams – these typical exams do not provide reliable measures of meaningful, communicative English ability, and such exams are not trusted by many in language education or linguistics. [*More data and details here*]
Conclusion	[Summary of problem and implication for Korean educational policy]

Argumentative phrases for formal essays

These are common expressions for framing one's ideas[18]. The asterisks [*] indicate expressions that are not preferred in academic English, e.g., due to their informality. First person, especially *I*, is generally to be avoided in most formal academic writing.

1. Essay opening

1.1. Topic priming
for a long time X, it has been the case that Y

it is/has been (often) asserted / believed / noted that X

most accounts of X state / claim / maintain that Y

according to, X is Y

one of the most controversial/important X's (in the recent literature) is Y

1.2. Topic nomination (naming / identifying a topic): Statement of purpose:
this paper intends / is designed to X

the Basic emphasis / purpose / goal of the paper / article is to X

*I/we / this paper intends to show / demonstrate / illustrate that X

the purpose of this study / analysis / discussion is to X

1.3. Topic nomination: Statement of topic
this paper treats / discusses / claims that X

it is the case that X

*my/our / this paper's argument is essentially that X

*I/we / this paper claims / maintains / contends that X

2. Statement of organization
this paper will compare / contrast / describe / demonstrate that X (first) (by analyzing / comparing / demonstrating) (that Y) (then by _____ing Z, and finally by _____ing A)

in what follows, X will be examined in erms of Y (and Z)

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18 Adapted from an excerpt from Nattinger, J. & DeCarrico, J. 1992. *Lexical Phrase and Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press. pp. 165-6.

3. Body

3.1. assert

it can be claimed / said / assumed that X

it seems certain / likely / doubtful that X

*I/we / this paper maintains / claims that X

3.2. agree

as X perceptively states

*I/we rather / somewhat / strongly agree with / support (the idea that) X

X provides / lends support to Y's argument / claim / conclusion that Z / about Z

3.3. disagree

as X would have us believe,

*I/we rather / somewhat / strongly disagree with X

as X states (somewhat) unclearly / erroneously

X does not support Y's argument / claim / conclusion that Z

although X contends that Y

rather, this paper argues that X

X in no way substantiates / supports Y

X repudiates / disproves / disconfirms / calls Y into question

3.4. compare

both X and Y are (quite) similar in that Z

X resembles Y

X and Y have / share some aspects of Z

X and Y have in common that Z

X is not unlike Y in that / with respect to Z

3.5. contrast

X is (quite) different from Y (in that Z)

X is not the case that / the same as Y

X in no way resembles Y

X contrasts with Y (in that Z)

X is unlike Y in that / with respect to Z

3.6. recommend

it is suggested / recommended that X

this study recommends that X

I / we recommend / suggest that X

3.7. substantiate

as proof / evidence / an example (for this) ...

according to _____

as X says / claims / maintains / demonstrates

X provides evidence / support that Y

X substantiates Y

3.8. classify

X can / may / might be divided / classified into Y (and Z)

X and Y are categories / divisions of Z

3.9. demonstrate:

X demonstrates / shows that Y

X is an illustration of Y

Logical fallacies

Below is a list and brief description of logical fallacies commonly found in persuasive or argumentative writing and speaking Such fallacies were first describe by ancient Greek and Roman writers (especially orators and rhetoric teachers), so some of them have Latin names. Such rhetorical techniques have been used throughout history by orators, scholars, and common people alike. Today they are often used in advertising, politics, and occasionally even in professional and academic persuasive speaking or writing. Some examples may fall under more than one of the categories below. Learn to watch out for use of these fallacies. Unfortunately, these are used by all kinds of people, no matter what is their educational level, social status, political affiliation, etc. Use this knowledge for what Carl Sagan calls "baloney detection" – detecting false, nonsensical, or deceptive claims.

1. Errors of causality (including emotionalistic arguments)

1.1. False cause

(post hoc fallacy; post hoc, ergo propter hoc; reductive fallacy; oversimplification, correlation fallacy)

Simplistic cause-and-effect relationships are given for complex problems or issues; two events are given as cause-and-effect, when the relationship may be much more complicated or non-existent.

> Poverty causes crime. (It's a factor, but not the cause.)
> The welfare system is causing a breakdown in American families.

In the 50's, for example, after some nuclear bomb tests, the US was hit by a severe winter; some claimed that the bomb tests were responsible, even though meteorologists showed that the weather was caused by a predictable shift in the Gulf Stream.

Politicians rely heavily on false cause, e.g., by priding themselves on economic achievements that happened while they were in office, or by blaming incumbents for economic problems that happened during their time in office.

One might claim (facetiously) that eating ice cream causes drowning! In the summer, there are more cases of drownings, and people eat more ice cream. Of course, the real cause is the summer heat, for which people eat ice cream, and for which people go swimming more, hence the increase in drownings. Hence, no correlation exists between ice cream and drowning; ice cream does not cause drowning. The causal relationship is much more complex.

1.2. Ad hominem

(argumentum ad hominem, argument to the person/man)

Such an argument focuses on an individual's personal life or character and ignores real issues; it is common in political campaigning and advertising.

> We shouldn't adopt the proposed health care plan, because its advocates are simply a bunch of socialists.

1.3. Ad populum

(argumentum ad populum, argument to the people)

This is an emotionalistic appeal to common values or deep biases of the masses; it is similar to ad hominem, and likewise is common in politics and advertising.

> This fine, patriotic, church-going American deserves your vote.

Variations of this common in advertising and politics are:

a) snob appeal: Advertisements that appeal to desire for status and wealth, e.g., by associating the product with use by high-status or wealthy people.

b) bandwagon: "Are you the only one on your block who doesn't have a box of Super Choco-Bombs cereal?"

c) flattery: "You are obviously a very intelligent person, so can I get you to take a look at our encyclopedia?"

d) guilty by association: "This man is a communist, because he associates with other known communists."

1.4. Appeal to ignorance (ad ignorantium)

A writer asserts that a claim must be true simply because no one can disprove it; in doing so, the writer evades his/her responsibility and unfairly shifts the burden of proof onto the reader/listener.

> Although doctors say that wearing copper bracelets to improve arthritis problems has no medical basis, they haven't shown that they don't help or cause harm, therefore you should buy them.

1.5. Genetic fallacy

The writer assumes that the nature of character of a person, object or idea can be judged based on its origins.

> She's from Arkansas, so she must be stupid.
>
> He couldn't have done such a thing — he's from a good family.
>
> Acupuncture can't be considered an acceptable medical technique, since it came from ancient China.

1.6. Red herring

According to an old belief, dragging a red smoked herring (a particularly strong-smelling fish) across a trail would divert a pack of hunting dogs from the scent into another

direction. So a red herring is a diversionary tactic that sidetracks an argument and diverts the reader's attention with an irrelevant point.

> For example, if two candidates in a debate are discussing each other's qualifications for holding office, one might introduce a red herring by bringing up questions about the other's alleged socialist or "radical" connections, or travels to a communist country — totally unrelated to the discussion of qualifications.

1.7. Argument from false authority

We should accept a claim simply because some respected person tells us to do so.

> Michael Jordan uses this product, so you should too.
>
> You should believe this, because this famous doctor says it's true.

1.8. Argument from adverse consequences

One is asked not to accept a position because doing so would require them to accept unpleasant consequences that stem from it.

> If you don't believe in Santa Claus, who's going to bring you your Christmas presents? (a threat from a parent to a skeptical child)

1.9. Tu quoque ("you also")

The writer evades an issue or deflects a charge or question by accusing the opponent of the same or something similar.

> Who are you to criticize me for cheating on my taxes when you pad your expense account so lavishly?

1.10. Naturalistic fallacy and moralistic fallacy (appeals to nature)

A claim is made based on the assumption that what is natural (e.g., what occurs in nature or arose via evolution) is inherently good, right or moral, and whatever is not "natural" is wrong or immoral. It may be the case that what is natural is purely neutral morally, or has nothing to do with human morality or truth claims.

> These vitamins are synthetic, not natural, and thus, are inferior. (Vitamins are simply chemicals, so scientists would say that the source does not matter.)
>
> Warfare should be tolerated because it is part of the violent and natural instinct of human nature.

The naturalistic fallacy (claims about what is good) overlaps with the moralistic fallacy (regarding what is moral), that what is morally desirable is to be found in nature.

> If other animal species engage in adultery or don't stay with their partners, then why can't we choose the same lifestyle?

These fallacies also overlap with the "is-ought" problem or fallacy – deducing an "ought" from an "is," i.e., assuming that things should be as they are in nature or in the world. Such fallacies were invoked in the days of social Darwinism – misusing natural selection as a basis for human society.

2. Lexical / semantic fallacies

2.1. Euphemism

Using euphemisms to "soften" or hide the truth, e.g., when the Pentagon speaks of "collateral losses or damage" instead of "civilians killed".

2.2. Misuse of jargon

Impressive jargon or academic vocabulary is used merely to make a weak argument sound impressive.

2.3. Equivocation

Using different definitions of the same words. Those who doubt evolution criticize it as "just a theory," but 'theory' in science does not mean a hypothesis, conjecture, or guess, and it does not necessarily mean something that is unproven. It means an explanatory conceptual framework, a set of ideas, which might have been proven true and still be called a theory. Another famous example was when Bill Clinton was asked if he had been alone with Ms. Lewinsky; he answered was that it depends on what one means by "being alone." Here is an example of changing word meanings within an argument.

> Socrates is a man. All men are pigs. Thus, Socrates is a pig.

2.4. Hyperbole

Exaggerated words, emotionalistic wording, or extreme examples are selected to make a point.

2.5. Weasel words

Biased wording used to present doubtful, controversial or arguable ideas as if they were facts, with wording like "some / many scientists agree that..." (but who? - which scientists? - no specific credible scientists are cited).

3. Logical and syllogistic errors

3.1. False syllogism

A conclusion based on faulty assumptions

> Socrates is a man.
> All men are pigs.
> ∴ Socrates is a pig.

3.2. begging the question (loaded assertion, circular reasoning/argument)

A writer "begs the question" by assuming a premise to the argument to be already proved or disproved without providing evidence for this assumption — a sort of circular reasoning.

> Since evolution is simply a theory, and has never been observably proven, public schools should teach any other theory of origins alongside evolution.

Are you going to listen to this liar, or impeach him like you should?!

(His reputation as a liar here is asserted, not proven.)

3.3. either/or fallacy (black/white fallacy, false dilemma fallacy, fallacy of insufficient options)

Writers and speakers often try to force their audience to choose between two conflicting alternatives by suggesting that no other options or middle ground exist — an unfair oversimplification of options.

America — love it or leave it!

Those who reject socialism are merely neo-fascists.

If you don't like our capitalist system, you're some kind of communist!"

3.4. loaded question (complex question)

A question is worded unfairly so that any kind of answer will support the writer's assumptions.

Have you stopped beating your wife?

How long have you been consorting with known Mafia types?

How often have you been cheating on your taxes?

3.5. non-sequitur ("it doesn't follow")

One point or argument does not follow logically from the preceding one, i.e., no logical relationship exists between two or more supposedly connected ideas.

He has my vote for senator, because he has the best run campaign.

(What does a campaign organization have to do with qualifications?)

3.6. comment on the obvious

A statement which is obvious, but is very general or uninformative, and does not actually prove any point.

If we don't do anything about the drug problem, millions of Americans will continue to suffer from drug addiction, drug-related crime, and other social hazards.

(While this is unarguably true, this obvious statement does not support the writer's arguments in favor of his/her proposed policies or solutions.)

3.7. tautology

An empty statement composed of simpler statements so that makes it is logically true whether the simpler statements are true or false (x=x, not x=y); e.g., "Either it will rain tomorrow or it will not rain tomorrow".

If we don't succeed, we will fail.

4. Errors of evidence

4.1. hasty generalization

This is a conclusion based on too little evidence or unrepresentative evidence.

> If the team is losing, the coach should be fired.
>
> He always screws up important projects. ("always" may not be true — just sometimes)

4.2. insufficient statistical evidence

The statistics cited do not support the conclusion; or the sample size of the study is too small to make meaningful conclusions; or samples or statistics are arbitrarily selected; or one study is cited when more studies are needed to confirm the results.

4.3. observational selection

Noticing only the observations that tend to form the patterns that one wants to see and ignoring those that either don't fit of form undesirable patterns.

5. Complex fallacies

5.1. false analogy

The writer draws a comparison between two essentially unlike things, based on too few similarities. Just because they are alike in a few respects, they must supposedly be similar in other respects as well. Analogies can only illustrate a point, not prove it.

> Non-human primates care for their young and protect their weak members. Why then must contemporary humans go excessively beyond this, with their Social Security, child care, welfare, national health care, etc., to protect every conceivable class of weak or infirm?

(To be consistent, one must ask why we speak to each other when apes do not.)

5.2. special pleading

This is an extended fallacy in which one presents an unfairly one-sided view of an issue. Although the particular points may be valid, the whole argumentation is biased and fails to consider opposing valid points.

For example, some famous and intelligent writers like Mark Twain and Jean Paul Sartre have argued against religion by focusing solely on all the negative aspects (religious extremism, the Crusades, wrongs committed by organized religion, religious fundamentalism, the prevalence of suffering and evil in the world, etc), without conceding any good points to religion (humanitarian benefits, ethical and moral teachings, positive social and personal benefits, etc.).

5.3. strawman argument

One argues against a theory or idea not by objectively criticizing the idea, but by attacking a misrepresentation of it. An incorrect and distorted representation of the idea is set up,

like a fake strawman, and attacked. Or if a theory exists in several different versions or interpretations among its adherents, a critic attacks one particular version of the theory and then claims to have discredited the entire theory.

For example, controversy has raged in psychology and linguistics over whether human language ability is an innate or environmentally acquired. Opponents of innateness have sometimes attacked only one version of innateness theory without considering other versions, or have misrepresented the theory to attack it.

5.4. slippery slope

One creates an irrational fear that by accepting a valid argument you will be drawn in turn toward similar, but less valid ones, until you are persuaded to accept completely unacceptable arguments. In other words, if you accept one argument, this automatically leads to accepting more serious claims.

> If you accept a nationalized health care system, you'll be on the road toward socialism, and then communism.

C. Using and citing sources
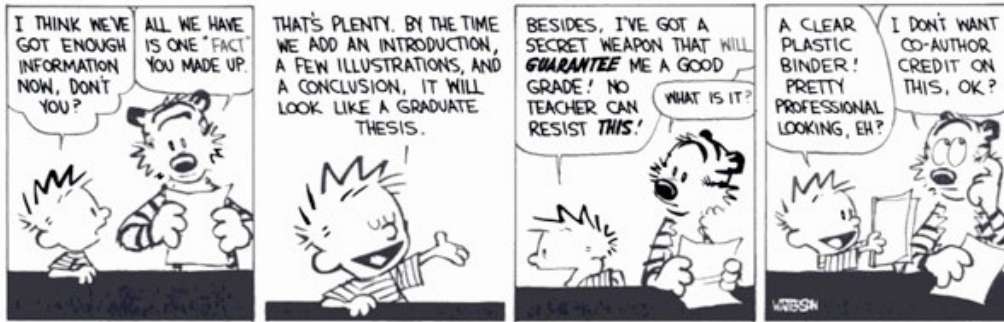
Source use

The following are problematic for many neophytes in academic writing. These problems are compounded by language and cultural issues of non-native writers of English, i.e., those writing in English as a second language.

1. Plagiarism and fabrication

What happened to these people?

Cyril Burt   Hwang Woo-suk   Shin Jeong-ah   Jan Hendrik   Karl-Theodor   Diederik Stapel
                                              Schön   Guttenberg

- Other examples?

- Consequences?

2. Data mining and lack of integration

Some engage in data mining or data trawling – dumping information from sources found on search engines, without meaningfully reading and understanding the text of the source. Students simply paraphrase what they find from search engine results, or simply read the article abstract and introduction, without reading most of the article.

This leads to a paper that reads like an information dump. The writing lacks coherence, and ideas are not developed. Material is simply pasted (dumped) into the paper without meaningful discussion and analysis of the information.

This also leads easily to citation bling – too many references cited unnecessarily, and thus, citations are included simply for decoration.
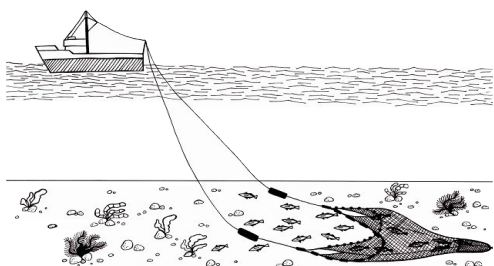
Trawling

Info dump

Bling

3. Inappropriate, non-academic sources

Citing Wikipedia, dictionaries, or popular sources ruins the credibility of an academic paper. You should use academic sources, which are, to some degree, peer reviewed; i.e., writings by scholars that are vetted and approved by other scholars, which provides some degree of quality control. These include [1] articles from academic journals, with international journals being the best sources; [2] monographs, or scholarly books on a specific research topic; and [3] edited volumes – collections of articles in a book overseen by an academic editor. There are other kinds of academic sources that you do not want to rely on too much, because the degree of vetting is lower, such as [1] conference presentations and proceedings; [2] technical reports from reputable institutions; [3] articles from journals that are not indexed[19], and [4] doctoral dissertations[20].

To find academic sources, you should use the following search engines rather than the normal Google or Naver searches. These academic search engines restrict searches to likely academic sources on university web sites and publishers' web sites.

- scholar.google.com

- riss.co.kr

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19 The better international journals are indexed by top-tier entities like the SSCI (Social Science Citation Index), SCI (Science Citation Index), and A&HCI (Arts & Humanities Citation Index), which are published by Thompson-Reuters. The next level or second-tier journals are those indexed by entities like Scopus, MLA and others. Then there are KCI (Korean Citation Index) journals, which are third-tier quality. Journals that do not appear in these citation indexes are lower quality journals that are easy to publish in due to a lack of serious peer review and quality controls.

20 Master's theses are thus not very reliable, unless perhaps they have some good, original data.

Paraphrasing, summarizing, and quoting

1. Definitions[21]

Paraphrase: A rewording or restatement, with the purpose of explaining or clarifying it. Usually one would paraphrase a phrase, a sentence, a few sentences, or a paragraph of an article (rarely more than a paragraph). In academic writing, summaries are preferable. A paraphrase should not include the wording of the original passage, nor should it follow the same sentence structure as the original passage.

Summary: A condensed, reworded summary of part of an article – restating a portion of a text in a shortened form. A summary should bring out the main ideas of the passage, but it does not need to follow the same order as the original text. A summary should be clear, concise, and accurate in representing the original text.

To quote means to copy exactly a portion of a text, with the purpose of presenting the author's actual words.

Paraphrased, summarized, or quoted information must be accompanied by a citation, or in-text reference to the source from which you took the information, just as quoted material must be. Failure to provide citation will be interpreted by others as plagiarism, even if you list the source in your bibliography.

2. Paraphrases and summaries
- Quote material that supports the assertions you make in your paper.
- Quote authorities who disagree with a position you are advocating or who offer alternative explanations or contradictory data.
- Present and discuss the essential details of the passage
- Includes main idea / argument and supporting main ideas

3. Changes in sentence structure
- You need not follow the same order as the original text; things may be re-arranged, depending on your purposes
- Wording and non-essential wording should be changed or modified, except for key words, e.g., technical terms
- Phrases and sentences that are unique phrases coined by the author should be in quotes, or at least followed directly by an in-text citation, e.g., if the author uses unique phrases that are important to his/her ideas
- A paraphrase, summary, or quotation must be cited with an in-text citation

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21 This handout is adapted from the following: http://www.bridgewater.edu/WritingCenter, http://www.coconino.edu/library/handouts, http://owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/research/r_quotprsum.html.

- Longer paraphrases / summaries can have a lead-in / transitional, e.g., "according to", "research by (Smith, 1990) found that…"
- Use reporting verbs (X observed, noted, discussed, explained, claimed, reported...)
- Only summarize / paraphrase content that is essential – not the whole paper
- Summarize / rephrase in your own words
- Change function words; change content words that are non-essential, e.g., words other than those essential for describing the main idea
- Don't copy and paste
- Avoid patchwriting – copying, pasting, and changing only a few words
- Clearly distinguish between content of original source, and your own comments (e.g., with a transitional word, e.g., 'however / thus/ then, as a result…'). If you shift back to a summary of the original source, recite at least the author's name
- The length of a paraphrase or summary should depend on how important the original content is to your paper.
- Only paraphrase / summarize material that you understand.
- Make sure you understand the meaning of the original passage. Note how the writer may be using words / phrases that are unfamiliar to you, technical phrases, or special terms.
- Find synonyms for content words (other than special terms that are essential or unique).
- Integrate the summary / paraphrase with the rest of your paper's contents to make it coherent, with proper, sensible flow of ideas.

4. Transitions (connectives)

Try the following words to integrate summarized or cited material in a talk. For more, see www.tinyurl.com/kentlee7/writing.htm.

Contrast	in contrast, on the contrary, on the other hand, still, however, yet, but, nevertheless, despite, even so, even though, whereas
Comparison	similarly, in the same way, as, just as
Examples, illustrations	for example, for instance, to illustrate, to show, in particular, specifically, that is, in addition, moreover
Causes or effects	as a result, accordingly, therefore, then, because, so thus, consequently, hence, since
Conclusions or summaries	in conclusion, finally, in summary, evidently, clearly, of course, to sum up, therefore
Lead-in	according to X, another study found, X reports/reported that, other studies have shown...

5. Quotations

- Don't overuse quotations
- Do not quote simply to fill up space
- Do not quote because you don't understand the author's ideas or wording enough to be able to paraphrase / summarize them
- Usually the ideas, not the wording, is important in our field, so paraphrases / summaries are most typical

Quotations are rarely used in science and related fields, but more often in humanities fields. Its use, especially in the social sciences, is limited to the following:

- When the author says something in a distinctive, unique, or memorable way
- The language of the passage is particularly elegant or powerful or memorable.
- You wish to confirm the credibility of your argument by enlisting the support of an authority on your topic.
- The passage is worthy of further analysis.
- You wish to argue with someone else's position in considerable detail

6. Citations

Don't cite common knowledge – items known to any intelligent educated audience, e.g., "Children learn language from parents" or "English is a lingua franca." Don't use common cliches, like how the world is becoming globalized, or how important English is today. Don't cite items known to students and scholars in the field, e.g.,

- Language learning is subject to critical period effects (if talking to people who know linguistics or child psychology)
- Psychologists rejected behaviorism in the 1960's and 70's (if speaking to psychology majors).

Do cite:

- Statistical information from a particular study
- Items not commonly known to readers
- Findings and ideas from researchers – their published research findings, theories, and ideas, i.e., their intellectual property
- Specific, unique, or technical phrases borrowed from other papers

6.1. Example of paraphrasing

From a definition of color blindness:

Original text	Paraphrase
"...visual defect resulting in the inability to distinguish colors. About 8% of men and 0.5% of women experience some difficulty in color perception. Color blindness is usually an inherited sex-linked characteristic, transmitted through, but	Color blindness, affecting approximately 8% of men and .5% of women, is a condition characterized by difficulty in telling one one color from another, most often hereditary but in

recessive in, females. Acquired color blindness results from certain degenerative diseases of the eyes. Most of those with defective color vision are only partially color-blind to red and green, i.e., they have a limited ability to distinguish reddish and greenish shades. Those who are completely color-blind to red and green see both colors as a shade of yellow. Completely color-blind individuals can recognize only black, white, and shades of gray. (*Columbia Encyclopedia, 6th ed.*)	some cases caused by disease. The majority of color-blind people cannot distinguish some shades of red and green, but those who cannot perceive those colors at all see red and green objects as yellow. There are people who cannot see color at all and perceive all objects in a range of black through gray to white. (*Columbia Encyclopedia,* 6th ed.)

7. Common Errors in Paraphrasing

If you follow the sentence structure of your source, only changing words here and there, you are not paraphrasing but plagiarizing. This practice has often been accepted by teachers in reports that students have prepared in early grades and may not be recognized as plagiarism.

7.1. Inadequate Paraphrase, Classified as Plagiarism

Color blindness is a visual deficiency shown in a lack of ability to distinguish colors. Some degree of difficulty in perceiving colors is found in 8% of men and 0.5% of women, and is almost always an inherited sex-linked characteristic that is transmitted throughout females but recessive in them. . .

Example #2

original:	*citation*:	citation:
Students frequently overuse direct quotation in taking notes, and as a result they overuse quotations in the final [research] paper. Probably only about 10% of your final manuscript should appear as directly quoted matter. Therefore, you should strive to limit the amount of exact transcribing of source materials while taking notes.[22]	In research papers students often quote excessively, failing to keep quoted material down to a desirable level. Since the problem usually originates during note taking, it is essential to minimize the material recorded verbatim (Lester 46-47).	Students should take just a few notes in direct quotation from sources to help minimize the amount of quoted material in a research paper (Lester 46-47).

Plagiarized version:

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22 Source: Lester, James D. *Writing Research Papers.* 2nd ed. (1976): 46-47.

Students often use too many direct quotations when they take notes, resulting in too many of them in the final research paper. In fact, probably only about 10% of the final copy should consist of directly quoted material. So it is important to limit the amount of source material copied while taking notes.

8. Examples of summarizing

Original text	Summary
"visual defect resulting in the inability to distinguish colors. About 8% of men and 0.5% of women experience some difficulty in color perception. Color blindness is usually an inherited sex-linked characteristic, transmitted through, but recessive in, females. Acquired color blindness results from certain degenerative diseases of the eyes. Most of those with defective color vision are only partially color-blind to red and green, i.e., they have a limited ability to distinguish reddish and greenish shades. Those who are completely color-blind to red and green see both colors as a shade of yellow. Completely color-blind individuals can recognize only black, white, and shades of gray. (*Columbia Encyclopedia, 6th ed.*)	Color blindness, usually a sex-linked hereditary condition more common in men than women and sometimes the result of eye disease, involves limited ability or sometimes complete inability to tell red from green. In a much rarer form of color blindness, the individual sees no colors at all.

8.1. Common Errors in Summarizing

If your summary is as long as the original text, it is not a summary. It is important that your summary accurately represents the text; do not change the ideas of the original text by leaving out significant points.

8.2. Example of Quoting

Original text	Quotation, integrated
"visual defect resulting in the inability to distinguish colors. About 8% of men and 0.5% of women experience some difficulty in color perception. Color blindness is usually an inherited sex-linked characteristic, transmitted through, but recessive in, females. Acquired color blindness results from certain degenerative diseases of the eyes. Most of those with defective color vision are only partially color-blind to red and green, i.e., they have a limited ability to distinguish reddish and greenish shades. Those who are completely color-blind to red and green see both colors as a shade of yellow. Completely color-blind individuals can recognize only black, white, and shades of gray. (*Columbia Encyclopedia, 6th ed.*)	Color blindness is a "visual defect resulting in the inability to distinguish colors" (*Columbia Encyclopedia*, 6th ed.). Most often it is a hereditary condition that involves only some shades of red and green, but people with complete red-green color blindness see yellow instead, and some people have no color perception at all. (*Columbia Encyclopedia,* 6th ed.)

8.3. Common Errors in Quoting:

If you misquote your source, you are not making fully ethical use of that source. Be sure to closely check every word and punctuation mark in the original text. Do not quote very long passages; consider using a combination of quoting, summarizing, and paraphrasing to represent the argument or information presented in the original text.

Paraphrasing techniques

The following are methods typically used by skilled writers in paraphrasing and summarizing information cited in their academic papers. Writers generally begin by condensing and restructuring sentences and phrases, and in the process, retaining some information while omitting other information. In the process, they also change content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives) when possible, e.g., by substituting synonyms. As an initial consideration, though, we will also look at verb tenses, as choice of verb tense is a question that novice writers face in academic writing.

1. Selecting and omitting information

When citing and using information from a source for their own academic writings, novice writers may make the mistake of including too much information from the source, including unnecessary details and items that are not relevant to the purpose of the paper. Experienced writers leave out less important information from the source article, such as:

- background information, historical background, or theoretical background that the potential readers would likely know already
- minor details of experimental design and procedures
- statistical results of experiments
- details of the author's line of reasoning in his/her analysis
- any information that is not relevant to the main point of the writer's paper

Instead, the main findings, conclusions, or implications are usually the focus of the summarized / paraphrased information. Based on what is included or omitted, writers then condense and restructure sentences.

2. Verb tenses

Think about the verb tenses used in your field in when using information from sources. For each type of section or genre, what function do cited sources play in the paper, and what verb tenses are used when you paraphrase and use information from sources? Note: the tenses that are more commonly used may vary by field.

1. introductions
2. historical background
3. theoretical discussion
4. literature reviews (of past studies & research)
5. research hypotheses or research questions
6. experimental design & procedures

7. experimental results
8. discussion sections
9. literary analysis
10. qualitative analysis of data
11. implications / applications
12. conclusion / summary

Why are these tenses commonly used in such sections in your field? The main linguistic functions of these forms are explained below. How are these functions relevant to the verb forms used in writing in your field?

tense	example	function
Simple present	*X develops rapidly* *X causes Y*	general or theoretical[23] statements, assertions, or truths; general beliefs; theoretical claims, or statements within a theoretical context; claims that are generally accepted in a field or theoretical framework
Present progressive (continuous)	*X is developing*	Present trends, on-going events (not so common in academic writing)
Perfect (present perfect)	*Few studies have examined this issue in detail.*	Showing current relevance of recent past events (recent, from the writer's perspective); more vivid descriptions of near past events with current consequences
Simple past	*The study subjects chose one of the two doors.*	Specific points in the past; narratives and historical discussion; past research or discoveries
Pluperfect (past perfect)	*After they had experimented with engines, they went on to try aerodynamics.*	Completion of one action by a certain date, or in the distant past, relative to other past events (more common in writing than in spoken English)
Future	*We will study this further*	Future or expected trends, findings, or events
Immediate future	*The government is going to have to enact better regulations*	Intentions; expected actions in the near future (more informal; not very common in academic writing)
Passive verbs	*The experiment was conducted as follows:* *50 subjects were recruited and instructed to...* *X was found to cause...*	Emphasizes actions or events; de-emphasizes or ignores those performing the actions, i.e., the agent or doer (especially common in scientific writing, where the agent is often not important)
Modal verbs	*can, may, might, should, must...*	Potentiality, possibility, hypothetical situations, uncertainty

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23 'Theory' does not necessarily mean 'not proven' or 'not true,' especially in academic contexts. In science and other fields, a theory is an explanatory framework, a set of claims or propositions designed to explain something, as opposed a 'law' or 'rule', which are simple descriptive statements.

3. Pronouns and reformulation expressions

Consider the following options for completing this paragraph[24]. Which sound better?

> In the past, flood impact assessments have focused primarily on the economic losses resulting from a flood. Now, however, emphasis is also being placed on potential environmental benefits.

a. <u>It</u> will result in a more complete picture of the gains of losses from a flood.

b. <u>This</u> will result in a more complete picture of the gains of losses from a flood.

c. <u>This expansion</u> will result in a more complete picture of the gains of losses from a flood.

d. <u>This expansion of focus</u> will result in a more complete picture of the gains of losses from a flood.

e. <u>This expansion in assessment focus</u> will result in a more complete picture of the gains of losses from a flood.

f. <u>This expansion in assessment with regard to flooding</u> will result in a more complete picture of the gains of losses from a flood.

What are possible ways of completing these items[25]?

1. Haigney concludes from his study that driving performance decreases when drivers use their cell phones. _____ is consistent with recent reviews of the literature on driving distractions.

2. Although it seems that the construction of new roads and widening of existing roads should reduce traffic congestion, recent research has shown that these activities actually lead to increases in traffic. _____ is known as the "induced traffic" effect.

This is often used as a reformulation marker instead of repeating a noun phrase; in such cases, *this* sounds better in formal English than *it* – as in *this situation / event / condition / fact*. One may use *this*, or *this* plus a contextually appropriate word (*this situation / difficulty / view / finding / process /* etc.).

4. Content words

Content words are those that carry the main meaning or content of a sentence – nouns, main verbs, adjectives, and major adverbs. Other, more minor words are known as function words. Often, entire sentences or ideas can be summarized with a few content words. Some content words can be replaced with synonyms or other expressions.

4.1. Synonyms

As much as possible, experienced writers replace content words with synonyms,

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24 Exercise from Swales & Feak (2004:37).
25 From Swlaes & Feak (2004:35-36).

particularly important nouns and verbs, along with condensing and restructuring sentences. Being able to use synonyms requires a good knowledge of vocabulary[26], and sometimes, a good thesaurus[27].

However, many field-specific terms – i.e., nomenclature, jargon, specific terminology, technical terms, and such – often have no appropriate synonyms and cannot be changed.

Also, the use of synonyms varies from field to field. In many science and related fields, the writing style is dense and technical, and it is difficult to use synonyms, so key words may simply be repeated regularly.

4.2. Serial verb phrases

Several sentences can be condensed into one sentence with multiple verb phrases.

> They <u>observed</u> English classes at a number of secondary schools in Seoul, <u>coded</u> the teacher and student behavior, and <u>administered</u> questionnaires to the students.

4.3. Passive verbs

Passive verbs put more emphasis on what was done or what happened, and leaves out the agents or doers of the action. Thus, longer descriptions of "X did ..." and "we did ..." and such can be reworded more succinctly as "X was done, and Y was performed."

> English teachers <u>were recruited</u>, their English classes at various schools <u>were observed</u>, teacher and student behaviors <u>were coded</u>, and questionnaires <u>were administered</u> to the students.

4.4. Reporting verbs

Reporting verbs indicate cited information and ideas, e.g.[28]:

> X suggests / reported / observed / recommends / implied / etc.

4.5. Attributive[29] adjectives

Some information can be reduced to descriptive adjectives and noun phrases.

> A <u>standard counterbalanced experimental</u> design was used. [substituting for several sentences describing how the experiment was done]
>
> This <u>recent</u> proposal...
>
> Such <u>economic</u> disparity...

5. Nominalizations [명사화, 名詞化]

Entire phrases, ideas and even sentences can often be reduced to shorter noun phrases or even single nouns, and this is common in technical and academic writing. For example:

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26 There is no simple or easy way to build vocabulary knowledge. The best method is probably doing a lot of reading in one's own field, and reading in other fields, as well as more general forms of reading, and doing so regularly and over a long period of time.

27 Thesaurus: a synonym dictionary; the best one is www.thesaurus.com.

28 For more on the grammatical patterns of such verbs, see the longer reporting verb handout at www.kentlee7.com > Writing aids.

29 Attributive adjective [한정적 형용사]: An adjective placed directly before and directly modifying a noun (e.g., 'a successful experiment'), cf. a predicate adjective [술부 형용사] after a linking verb ('the experiment was successful').

a. Obviously the government is concerned about some users' reactions to its move to impose restrictions on Internet usage.

This version (a) is appropriate for academic writing, and is denser than the more colloquial version in (b):

b. Obviously the government is concerned about how some users will react if it tries to impose restrictions on Internet usage.

Also compare, e.g.:

simple	nominalization
The military invented the ARPANET, which allowed people to disseminate information like never before	The military's invention of the ARPANET revolutionized the dissemination of information
they applied...; how they applied...; where they applied...	their application of...
how we directed; the direction that our research took	the direction of our research

6. Foregrounding and backgrounding

Some material can be summarized more briefly, and also phrased in certain grammatical structures to de-emphasize it (backgrounding), so that it leads up to the more important content; the more important information can be put in a main clause for more emphasis. Subordinate clauses are particularly useful for backgrounding less critical information to connect with and lead up to important information in the main clause.

6.1. Prepositional phrases

For the sake of equity and fairness in educational opportunities, students are randomly assigned to a school in their district, and teachers are regularly rotated among schools throughout the metropolitan area.

6.2. Participle phrases

Finding past motivation studies based solely on questionnaire data inadequate, Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) used a hybrid observational and survey study paradigm.

6.3. Infinitive and gerund phrases

To provide equal educational opportunities, ...

Implementing a rotation system was found to be effective...

6.4. Subordinate clauses

Although they decided upon a one-factor solution based on the PCA results, the second eigenvalue may be too close to significance to dismiss right away.

> Since they found past studies based solely on questionnaire data inadequate, Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) decided on a hybrid observational and survey study paradigm.

6.5. Resumption markers

Occasionally, a writer needs to repeat familiar information, e.g., [1] to remind the reader of something mentioned previously, in order to return to a previous topic or line of thought; or [2] to remind the reader of fairly familiar information in order to segue into a new line of reasoning or topic. The potential repetitiveness of kind of topic shift is "hedged" or marked with a subordinating conjunction (*Although X has argued at length that...*) or a resumption marker (*as mentioned, the aforementioned X, as regards, as to, regarding*). The information should not be overly familiar, and it should be stated as concisely as possible to avoid being too redundant. In formal writing, the phrases *as regards, as to, as for, regarding* should not be used too often, as this can sound colloquial or redundant.

> As discussed in the previous section, many physicists have pointed out serious side effects, even fatal risks, of warp drive engines. However, we would like to propose alternatives to the warp drive that would avoid these dangers.

7. Transitionals

As above, transitional or connective[30] words not only facilitate logical flow and connections among ideas, phrases, and clauses, but they also can help to manage the information being cited.

> Some have claimed that theory Y offers a better explanation than theory X. For example, Smith (2008) found that... Further evidence is offered by Jones (2009), who observed that... In fact, most recent studies have provided stronger evidence for Y.

> Since they found past studies based solely on questionnaire data inadequate, …

Sometimes it is necessary to critique, criticize, or take issue with others' claims or findings. Contrastive connectives like *however, although, whereas* and others can help to frame such information and distinguish between the cited information and your own critique.

Although they decided upon a one-factor solution based on the PCA results, the second eigenvalue may be too close to significance to dismiss right away.

> The researchers reported the results of a factor analysis of the survey data, and concluded that one underlying factor (a general class motivation factor) was apparent from the survey data. However, their reported eigenvalue of 1.8 for the first factor was twice the value for a possible second factor" – yet a second factor of c. 0.9 might also be significant.

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30 These may be called transitionals, transition words, connectors, connectives, etc., and are used to connect words, clauses, ideas, and sentences. These include coordinating conjunctions (*as, so, and, but*), subordinating conjunctions (*since, because, although*), conjunctive adverbs (*therefore, furthermore*) and other words. For lists and handouts on transitionals, see my website, and look under 'Writing aids': http://www.bit.ly/kentlee7.

8. Citation systems

In using sources, we cite the source in the body of the paper itself, the so-called in-text (or inline) citation, as in this example in the APA citation system, which is used in the social sciences.

> To this effect, we designed a highly structured observation scheme following the model of Spada and Fröhlich's (1995) COLT.

In the humanities, the MLA or Chicago systems are often used, which also have author and year in parentheses. In some science and engineering fields, in-text numbering systems like IEEE or CBE are used, which look more like this, or with the numbers in superscript, which correspond to the numbered references at the end of the paper.

> These radiation effects pose serious problems for warp drive propulsion (*1*). Similarly, Odie *et al.* (*2*) report a detailed experiment that tested the assumption that …

> The large-scale use of dilithium crystals as a warp-drive fuel source is still problematic due to production issues[1,2]. Specifically, Kirk[3] reports molecular disintegration in the pre-production process …

For longer discussion of a source, we often cite it at first, followed by several phrases or sentences of continuous discussion of the same source(s), until a transitional word signals (e.g., *thus, that is, as a result*, or many others) a shift to the writer's own comments or critique, or to discussion of another source.

> A recent study by Smith (2008) confirms the validity of this approach. This study was conducted … [*blah blah blah*] …. Another study by Jones (2009) replicated the Smith study with an enhanced experimental design to further confirm this effect. The Jones study … [*blah blah blah*] …. More recently, Fink (2010) and Stein (2010) conducted a similar experiment with … [*blah blah blah*] …. Thus, the preponderance of the evidence confirms the X approach, and disconfirms theory Y.

Finally, the end of the paper contains a so-called references or works cited section ('works cited' is more common in the humanities) listing full bibliographic information for the works cited. Information on how to use these systems can be found on the web sites of the professional organizations that developed them, or on other websites with academic writing aids, which you can find from a Google search[31].

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31 For APA and MLA, a good place to start is the Purdue English Online Writers' Lab: owl.english.purdue.edu.

Food for thought: Plagiarism and ethics.

Discuss what you would do if you were a teacher in the following situations.

1. A student copies part of an article from the Internet for part of his/her essay in your class. (You are able to find out fairly easily, for example, by typing in key phrases into Google from parts of the essay that seem suspicious, and find the article online that s/he copied from.) What would you do if:

   (a) it is a major essay for an undergraduate course,

   (b) a short assignment in an undergraduate course, or

   (c) a major research paper in a graduate course.

2. A student commits plagiarism by copying from an Internet article. When you confront the student, s/he claims that it is considered acceptable in his/her culture, and thus s/he should not be punished.

3. A student steals ideas from other researchers in writing his/her Ph.D. dissertation. What would you do if these ideas were

   (a) already published in academic journals, or

   (b) ideas from lectures by other professors in the department, or even from fellow students who have ideas that they haven't published yet.

4. A student in an undergraduate course turns in an entire essay that was plagiarized, and in fact was written by another student a couple of years ago.

5. A graduate student performs research which s/he uses for his/her dissertation; however, apparently the experiments did not turn out right, but s/he made up phony results (faked the data) so that it looks like the desired results were found, and published them in the dissertation.

Plagiarism exercise

To avoid plagiarism, it is important to properly paraphrase or summarize information from the source, and to properly give credit for the source of the information in your paper (e.g., by means of footnotes or other reference citation system). Take a look at the original newspaper article, and compare it with excerpts from several student essays using he information from the source. Identify if these samples contain plagiarism, and how serious the plagiarism is. If you were a teacher, how would you handle these cases?

Original article

Gloom Over Tropical Forests

by Philip Shabecoff, *New York Times*, 8 June 1990.

Tropical forests, which play a vital role in regulating the global climate, are disappearing much more rapidly than previously estimated, according to an international research group. Each year recently, 40 million to 50 million acres (16 million to 20 million hectares) of tropical forest have been lost as trees are cut for timber and land is cleared for agriculture and development, the World Resources Institute said in its 1990 report. According to the study, the rate of loss in most countries was nearly 50 percent more in 1987 than in 1980. The report said 1.9 billion acres of tropical forest remained.

Student sample A

The world is losing its valuable forests at an alarming pace. The Earth's forests, which are an important factor in the Earth's climate, were disappearing more quickly in 1987 than previously estimated in 1980. Recently, 40 million to 50 million acres of tropical forest have been lost each year. This is because some forests are cut for timber and some are cleared for other purposes. The group says 1.9 billion acres of tropic forest remain.[1]

[1] P. Shabecoff, *New York Times*, June 8, 1990, p. 3.

____ The student committed no plagiarism, i.e., no wrong use of the source.

____ The student committed some plagiarism, i.e., some wrong use of the source.

____ The student committed a great amount of plagiarism, i.e., a great amount of wrong use of the source.

Sample B

> Tropical forests, which play a vital role in regulating the global climate, are disappearing much more rapidly than previously estimated, according to an international research group. Each year recently, 40 million to 50 million acres (16 million to 20 million hectares) of tropical forest have been lost as trees are cut for timber and land is cleared for agriculture and development, the World Resources Institute said in its 1990 report. According to the study, the rate of loss in most countries was nearly 50 percent more in 1987 than in 1980. The report said 1.9 billion acres of tropical forest remained.[1]
>
> [1] P. Shabecoff, *New York Times*, June 8, 1990, p. 3.

___ The student committed no plagiarism, i.e., no wrong use of the source.

___ The student committed some plagiarism, i.e., some wrong use of the source.

___ The student committed a great amount of plagiarism, i.e., a great amount of wrong use of the source.

Sample C

> The world is losing its valuable forests at an alarming pace. According to recent research done by an international research team, the Earth is losing up to 50 million acres of forests each year. According to the investigation, the rate of loss increased by 50% from 1980 to 1987. The 1990 report indicates 1.9 billion acres of forest remain on Earth. A major concern is that this loss may greatly affect patterns of climate.

___ The student committed no plagiarism, i.e., no wrong use of the source.

___ The student committed some plagiarism, i.e., some wrong use of the source.

___ The student committed a great amount of plagiarism, i.e., a great amount of wrong use of the source.

Sample D

> The world is losing its valuable forests at an alarming pace. Forests, which are an important factor in climatic patterns, are being rapidly cut back for timber, agricultural needs, and development. Studies over the past decade indicate that the rate of loss increased by 50% between 1980 and 1987. At present there is less than two billion acres of forest remaining, and about 40 to 50 million acres are lost annually, according to the World Resources Institute.[1]
>
> [1] P. Shabecoff, *New York Times*, June 8, 1990, p. 3.

___ The student committed no plagiarism, i.e., no wrong use of the source.

___ The student committed some plagiarism, i.e., some wrong use of the source.

___ The student committed a great amount of plagiarism, i.e., a great amount of wrong use of the source.

Sample E

The world is losing its valuable forests at an alarming pace. Philip Shabecoff, summarizing a report based on a recent study done by the World Resources Institute, states, "Each year recently 40 million to 50 million acres...of tropical forest have been lost as trees are cut for timber and land is cleared for agriculture and development" (*New York Times*, 8 June 1990, p. 3). According to the same study, the Earth now has less than two billion acres of forest, and the rate of loss is increasing. The loss of forests can affect global climate.

___ The student committed no plagiarism, i.e., no wrong use of the source.

___ The student committed some plagiarism, i.e., some wrong use of the source.

___ The student committed a great amount of plagiarism, i.e., a great amount of wrong use of the source.

Sample F

The world is losing its valuable forests at an alarming pace. A recent article in the New York Times gives the findings of the World Resources Institute. The findings in this 1990 report are that "at present each year between 40 million and 50 million acres of forest disappear because people cut them down for wood or remove them to make the land ready for other requirements and only 1.9 billion acres remain[1]" Losing so much forest land might affect the climate and cause serious problems.

[1] P. Shabecoff, *New York Times*, June 8, 1990, p. 3.

___ The student committed no plagiarism, i.e., no wrong use of the source.

___ The student committed some plagiarism, i.e., some wrong use of the source.

___ The student committed a great amount of plagiarism, i.e., a great amount of wrong use of the source.

Summary question: Which of the samples represent the worst case of plagiarism, and why?

Comments

Sample A is appropriately referenced and reworded, though it might be better to put the footnote at the beginning of the cited information, or to introduce it with "according to…" Sample B is referenced, but wording is a copy-and-paste job; little attempt was made to reword it in the writer's own words. Thus, this is significant plagiarism. Sample C is reworded, but without citing the original source. Thus, this is significant plagiarism. Sample D and E show appropriate source citation and rewording; Sample D uses a footnote citation style, while Sample E uses an in-text citation style, probably the MLA system. Sample F shows appropriate source citation and rewording, but inaccurate source use. The quote is not at all an accurate quote from the original. Incorrectly quoting, summarizing, or paraphrasing source information is ethically problematic. Direct quotations are often unnecessary, as in this case, and if it is a rewording, then quotation marks should not be used. Samples B and C represent significant plagiarism, each for different reasons.

These exercises and questions are based on:

G.D. Deckert. 1993. "Perspectives on Plagiarism from ESL Students in Hong Kong." *Journal of Second Language Writing, 2*, 131-148.

Plagiarism exercise (social sciences)

Look at the original text in the boxes[32], and then the samples based on the original. Discuss whether the students' writing samples are paraphrases or summaries, or some form of plagiarism. If so, what kind of plagiarism is it, and how serious is it? How could it be fixed?

1. Example #1a – excerpt from original journal article.

> In South Korea, the site of our research project, there is a conscious effort to provide equal educational opportunities for secondary school children (Seth, 2002). Students who reside in a specific local education district are allocated to a school within the district through a lottery system, and teachers, vice-principals, and principals in state schools are rotated within their provincial or metropolitan (not just local) education district, usually every four years.

Example #1b – student writing sample.

> In South Korea, there is a conscious effort to provide equal educational opportunities for secondary school children. Students in each district are assigned to a school in the district through a lottery system; teachers, principles and vice-principals in state schools are rotated among schools throughout the entire metropolitan area, usually every four years.

Example #1c – second student writing sample.

> In South Korea, students are randomly assigned to a school in their district, and teachers are regularly rotated among schools throughout the metropolitan area (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008).

2. Example #2a – original.

> ...However, these studies relied solely on teachers' self-reports about how important they considered certain strategies and how often they used them; they were not based on documentation of the actual nature of the participating teachers' motivational practice—which would have been more objective—nor on any classroom student behavior to which such practice might have been linked.
>
> The current research aims to fill this gap by providing empirical data obtained in a large-scale investigation of 40 ESOL classrooms in South Korea, which involved more

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32 The contents of this exercise are based on the following article:

Guilloteaux, M. J., & Dörnyei, Z. (2008). Motivating language learners: a classroom-oriented investigation of the effects of motivational strategies on student motivation. *TESOL Quarterly, 42*, 55-77.

than 1,300 learners and examined the link between the teachers' motivational teaching practice and their students' language learning motivation. A novel feature of our study is that, in contrast to the usual practice of L2 motivation research, which relies on self-report questionnaires, our research paradigm includes a salient class-room observation component. For this purpose, we developed a new classroom observation instrument, ...

In the current study, we set out to examine empirically how a teacher's motivational teaching practice affects his or her students' motivated learning behavior, as manifested by the amount of attention the students pay in class and the extent of their participation and volunteering in tasks. When we designed the study, we realized that the standard data gathering technique of L2 motivation research—namely, the administration of questionnaires—would not be sufficient to assess this process. We therefore decided to carry out a large-scale classroom observation study with a motivational focus, with the intention of producing generalizable results and of obtaining varied and rich quantitative data concerning both the teacher and the students. To this effect, we designed a highly structured observation scheme following the model of Spada and Fröhlich's (1995) COLT. We supplemented this instrument with a student questionnaire and a teacher appraisal form.

At the beginning of the study, we faced an important decision: Should we visit each site more than once, or should we increase the sample size to the level that is appropriate to produce statistically significant results? The former option would have enhanced the picture we obtained of each class but would have reduced the number of L2 classes that we could include in our sample. Therefore, partly because we wanted to combine the observational data with a student survey, we chose the second option and included 40 learner groups in our study, with a student population of more than 1,300. It followed from such a design that, instead of focusing on the impact of specific strategies used by specific teachers, which would have required a more intensive and preferably longitudinal investigation, we focused on examining the quality of the teachers' overall motivational teaching practice by generating a composite index of the rich observational data.

Example #2b – student writing.

Finding past motivation studies based solely on questionnaire data inadequate, Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) used a hybrid observational and survey study paradigm. They observed English classes at a number of secondary schools in Seoul, coded the teacher and student behavior, and administered questionnaires to the students. The authors deliberated between a more specific longitudinal study of a smaller number of subjects, or a more extensive study of a larger number of L2 classes based on one-time observations; they opted for the latter for a larger-scope study. However, there was no reason both approaches could not have been done for a two-part study – a large-scale study like the one reported, and a smaller, more detailed longitudinal study as a follow-up study.

3. Example #3a – original.

> Motivation is one of the most important concepts in psychology. Theories concerning motivation attempt to explain nothing less than why humans behave and think as they do. The notion is also of great importance in language education. Teachers and students commonly use the term to explain what causes success or failure in learning. Indeed, motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate second or foreign language (L2) learning and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process. Without sufficient motivation, individuals with the most remarkable abilities cannot accomplish long-term goals. Similarly, appropriate curricula and good teaching are not enough on their own to ensure student achievement—students also need to have a modicum of motivation (for recent reviews, see Dörnyei, 2005; Ushioda, in press).

Example #3b – student writing.

> Theories of motivation attempt to explain nothing less than why humans behave and think as they do (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). The concept is also of important in language education, since teachers and students commonly use the term to explain what causes success or failure in learning. Motivation provides the primary force for beginning second or foreign language (L2) learning and later the driving force to sustain the long and difficult learning process. Without sufficient motivation, individuals with even the highest abilities cannot accomplish long-term goals. Similarly, appropriate curricula and good teaching are not enough on their own to ensure student achievement—students also need to have a modicum of motivation (for recent reviews, see Dörnyei, 2005; Ushioda, in press).

4. Example #4a – original.

> A principal component analysis confirmed our prediction because it yielded a one-factor solution (with the first factor having an eigenvalue of 1.8 that was twice as large as the eigenvalue of a possible second factor), which explained 60% of the total variance. Consequently, we used this factor score as the self-reported student motivation index.

Example #4b – student writing.

> A principal component analysis confirmed their prediction because it yielded a one-factor solution; this single factor score was decided upon as the self-reported student motivation index.

Example #4c – second student writing.

> The researchers reported the results of a factor analysis of the survey data, and concluded that one underlying factor (a general class motivation factor) was apparent from the survey data. However, they reported an eigenvalue of 1.8 for the first factor, being "twice as large as the eigenvalue of a possible second factor", but a second factor of c. 0.9 could also be significant.

5. Example #5a – original.

> Traditionally, motivational psychologists have been more concerned about what motivation is than about how we can use this knowledge to motivate learners. Recently, however, more and more researchers have decided to examine the pedagogical implications of research by conceptualizing motivational strategies (for reviews in educational psychology, see, e.g., Brophy, 2004; Ginsberg & Wlodkowski, 2000; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002; within the area of language education, see, e.g., Alison & Halliwell, 2002; Dörnyei, 2001, 2006; Williams & Burden, 1997). Thus, motivation research has reached a level of maturity such that theoretical advances have started to inform methodological developments. This article has been written in that vein.

Example #5b – student writing.

> As Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) note, past psychologists often studied the characteristics of motivation itself, rather than for application to educational contexts such as motivating students. However, the latter area has begun to receive more attention in recent years, such that theoretical and research findings have been made of the type that also have more direct application for pedagogy. Some have examined its pedagogical implications in terms of motivational strategies (in educational psychology, e.g., Brophy, 2004; Ginsberg & Wlodkowski, 2000; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002; in language education, e.g., Alison & Halliwell, 2002; Dörnyei, 2001, 2006; Williams & Burden, 1997).

Example #5c – second student writing.

> ...Past researchers have examined the implications of motivational strategies for teaching in educational psychology (see Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) for references).

Example #5d – third student writing.

> ...Past researchers have examined the implications of motivational strategies for teaching in educational psychology (e.g., Brophy (2004) and others, as cited in Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008)).

1. Exercise

Look back at #2a and 2b, and discuss the following.

- How much of the original content appears in the paraphrase?
- What structural (grammatical, lexical) changes occur in the process?
- How does the writer decide what to retain and what to ignore?
- How does the writer then make use of the material?
- How does the writer distinguish the information from the source from his/her own ideas?

1.1. Comments on Example 1

Example 1b is a serious example of plagiarism, on two counts: (1) the student has copied and pasted the wording with few changes, and (2) did not cite the original source; s/he is writing this as if these were his/her own words and ideas.

Example 1c shows better rewording, and is fortunately shorter than the original passage. However, s/he cited the information as if it were from Guilloteaux and Dörnyei, but the information is actually from the Seth article that they cited. This should be cited as a secondary citation, i.e., the student should cite Seth as cited by Guilloteaux and Dörnyei, if the original Seth article is unavailable, e.g., "…(Seth, 2002, as cited in Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008)." She could also simply leave out the Seth information and avoid the problem altogether, since this fact is not really informative or interesting. S/he also misspelled one instance of 'principal' – one should be careful about using sources correctly and accurately.

1.2. Comments on Example 2

The student has appropriately cited the original article, and has appropriately reworded and summarized the original passage. The summary is much shorter than the original; and only the details relevant to the student's paper are included, and non-essential details have been omitted.

1.3. Comments on Example 3

Although the student cited the source in 3b, s/he has not attempted to paraphrase or summarize the information – much of the wording is the same. The last two sources (the Dörnyei and Ushioda articles mentioned in the last line) should be cited as secondary citations, or should be omitted. The writer of 3c has appropriately reworded the passage and provided appropriate source citation.

1.4. Comments on Example 4

The student in 4b simply copied from the original, with little attempt to change the wording (we'll assume that it would be clear from the context that s/he is still citing the Guilloteaux and Dörnyei paper). Example 4c shows proper rewording of the original, plus the student writer's critique of the researchers' analysis – this shows very appropriate use of an original source; one should not just summarize what the researchers have said,

but provide meaningful critique or comments on it. Note that technical terms like 'principal component analysis' usually cannot be paraphrased.

1.5. Comments on Example 5

In 5a, the student cited the source, but did not make enough changes in the wording – some phrases are the same as the original. S/He also copied source citations from the original article – all the names from the fourth and fifth lines of the original should have been cited as secondary sources, or should have been omitted if they are not important for the student writer's purposes. However, for multiple secondary sources like this, a more convenient method would be to do what the writers did in 5c and 5d. These last two examples also show appropriate summarizing – the original is distilled down to only the bare essentials, i.e., to only what would be relevant for the student's paper.

1.6. Example 2: Comparison

The next page shows a comparison of the original text of Example 2, and the summary.

Example – original

1 ...However, these studies relied solely on teachers' self-reports about how important they considered certain strategies and how often they used them; they were not based on documentation of the actual nature of the participating teachers' motivational practice—which would have been more objective—nor on any classroom student behavior to which such practice might have been linked.

2 The current research aims to fill this gap by providing empirical data obtained in a large-scale investigation of 40 ESOL classrooms in South Korea, which involved more than 1,300 learners and examined the link between the teachers' motivational teaching practice and their students' language learning motivation. A novel feature of our study is that, in contrast to the usual practice of L2 motivation research, which relies on self-report questionnaires, our research paradigm includes a salient class-room observation component. For this purpose, we developed a new classroom observation instrument, ...

3 In the current study, we set out to examine empirically how a teacher's motivational teaching practice affects his or her students' motivated learning behavior, as manifested by the amount of attention the students pay in class and the extent of their participation and volunteering in tasks. When we designed the study, we realized that the standard data gathering technique of L2 motivation research—namely, the administration of questionnaires—would not be sufficient to assess this process. We therefore decided to carry out a large-scale classroom observation study with a motivational focus, with the intention of producing generalizable results and of obtaining varied and rich quantitative data concerning both the teacher and the students.

4 To this effect, we designed a highly structured observation scheme following the model of Spada and Fröhlich's (1995) COLT. We supplemented this instrument with a student questionnaire and a teacher appraisal form.

5 At the beginning of the study, we faced an important decision: Should we visit each site more than once, or should we increase the sample size to the level that is appropriate to produce statistically significant results? The former option would have enhanced the picture we obtained of each class but would have reduced the number of L2 classes that we could include in our sample. Therefore, partly because we wanted to combine the observational data with a student survey, we chose the second option and included 40 learner groups in our study, with a student population of more than 1,300. It followed from such a design that, instead of focusing on the impact of specific strategies used by specific teachers, which would have required a more intensive and preferably longitudinal investigation, we focused on examining the quality of the teachers' overall motivational teaching practice by generating a composite index of the rich observational data.

Example – student writing

1 Finding past motivation studies based solely on questionnaire data inadequate, Guilloteaux and **2** Dörnyei (2008) used a hybrid observational and survey study paradigm. They observed English **3** classes at a number of secondary schools in Seoul, coded the teacher and student behavior, and **4** administered questionnaires to the students. The authors deliberated between a more specific longitudinal study of a smaller number of subjects, or a more extensive study of a larger number of L2 classes based on one-time observations; they opted for the latter for a larger-scope study. **5** However, there was no reason both approaches could not have been done for a two-part study – a large-scale study like the one reported, and a smaller, more detailed longitudinal study as a follow-up study.

Plagiarism exercise (Engineering)

Look at the original text in the boxes[33], and then the samples based on the original. Discuss whether the students' writing samples correctly use the original source, or constitute some form of plagiarism. If so, what kind of plagiarism is it, and how serious is it? How could it be fixed?

1. Original text

> **Original text from:** Dudman, J., 2006. Unwelcome Voices on the Network. *Computer Weekly*, 1 August 2006, 20-21
>
> Voice over IP (VoIP) is taking off with growing numbers of UK businesses running phone calls over the internet. But as authorised VoIP is catching on fast, so too is unauthorised VoIP. Trying to manage IP networks has always been a challenge: peer-to-peer applications such as Kazaa and Napster are renowned for their use of bandwidth. This has been a problem for many organisations, particularly universities, where there may be a heavy load on the network caused by students downloading music, films and games. Until recently, corporate network managers were relatively confident that they could keep bandwidth-hungry applications at bay. But peer-to-peer applications such as BitTorrent's file-sharing software and Groove Networks' Virtual Office may represent more of a challenge, and VoIP applications are also causing concern.

1.1. Student writing 1a

> Network managers face a challenge in ensuring sufficient bandwidth is available for their users. A large amount of network bandwidth is used by software such as peer-to-peer applications, and VoIP (Voice over Internet Protocol), a technology in which phone calls can be made over the Internet. Dudman (*1*) writes of the difficulty of controlling unauthorised use of bandwidth both with peer-to-peer applications and with VoIP.
>
> References
>
> 1. Dudman, J., 2006. Unwelcome Voices on the Network. *Computer Weekly*, 1 August 2006, 20-21

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33 The contents of this exercise are adapted from an exercise from the University of Sheffield, at tlsu.dept.shef.ac.uk/plagiarism/plagiarism_exercises_acse.doc.

1.2. Student writing 1b

Voice over IP (VoIP) is seen in growing numbers of UK businesses running phone calls over the internet. But as authorised VoIP grows, so does unauthorised VoIP. Managing IP networks has always been a challenge, and until recently, corporate network managers were able to keep bandwidth-hungry applications at bay. But peer-to-peer applications such as BitTorrent's file- sharing software and Groove Networks' Virtual Office represent more of a challenge, and VoIP applications are also causing concern.

References

Dudman, J., 2006. Unwelcome Voices on the Network. *Computer Weekly*, 1 August 2006, 20-21

1.3. Student writing 1c

Network managers face a challenge in ensuring sufficient bandwidth is available for their users. A large amount of network bandwidth is used by applications such as peer-to-peer applications, and (VoIP) Voice over Internet Protocol, a technology in which phone calls can be made over the Internet. "But as authorised VoIP is catching on fast, so too is unauthorised VoIP."

2. Original text

Original text from: Close, J., Frederick, D.K., and Newell, J.C. 2002. *Modeling and Analysis of Dynamic Systems.* 3rd ed. New York: Wiley, pp. 2-4

One example of a dynamic system that is familiar to everyone is the automobile. In order to limit the complexity of any model we wish to make of this system, we must omit some of the system's features. And, in fact, many of the parameters may be relatively unimportant for the objective of a particular study. Among many possible concerns are ease of handling on the straightaway or while turning a corner; comfort of the driver; fuel efficiency; stopping ability; crash resistance; and the effects of wind gusts, potholes and other obstacles….

2.1. Student writing 2a

Systems engineers use the power of modelling to demonstrate how the parts of a system work together. However, in order to create an understandable model of a complex system, it may be necessary to start with a model that contains only the parts of the system that are important for the particular study. (Close, Frederick and Newell 2002).

References

Close, J., Frederick, D.K., and Newell, J.C. 2002. *Modeling and Analysis of Dynamic Systems*. 3rd ed. New York: Wiley, pp. 2-4

2.2. Student writing 2b

A model of an automobile system should include all features of the system from the outset, so that the model is not misunderstood. For example, when modelling an automobile system, the engineer should include all mechanical and electronic parts, with the characteristics of each part fully defined. (Close, Frederick and Newell 2002).

References

Close, J., Frederick, D.K., and Newell, J.C. 2002. *Modeling and Analysis of Dynamic Systems*. 3rd ed. New York: Wiley, pp. 2-4

2.3. Student writing 2c

Systems engineers use the power of modelling to demonstrate how the parts of a system work together. "In order to limit the complexity of any model we wish to make of a system, we must omit some of the system's features."

3. Discussion

Look back at the good examples, and discuss the following.

- How much of the original content appears in the paraphrase?
- What structural (grammatical, lexical) changes occur in the process?
- How does the writer decide what to retain and what to ignore?
- How does the writer then make use of the material?

How does the writer distinguish the information from the source from his/her own ideas?

Writing, research, and ethics

The following are actual cases that graduate students, teaching assistants, and researchers have actually experienced at various universities. What are the ethical and practical difficulties involved? What about problems with writing and argumentation? Discuss what you would do in these situations, and what action you would take. How might you prevent such situations before they happen?

1. Giving credit

Ben, a third-year graduate student, had been working on a research project that involved an important new experimental technique. For a national meeting in his discipline, Ben wrote an abstract and gave a brief presentation that mentioned the new technique. After his presentation, he was surprised and pleased when Dr. Freeman, a leading researcher from another university, talked with Ben and asked him extensively about the new technique, which Ben described fully to him. Ben's own advisor often encouraged his students not to keep secrets from other researchers, and Ben was flattered that Dr. Freeman would be so interested in his work.

Six months later, Ben was looking through a journal when he noticed an article by Dr. Freeman, which described an experiment that clearly depended on the technique that Ben had developed. He didn't mind, and was in fact flattered, but when he looked at the references, Ben's name was nowhere to be found. Dr. Freeman took his idea without giving him credit.

2. Plagiarism

Mary, a second-year graduate student, is preparing the written portion of her qualifying exam. She includes entire sentences and paragraphs verbatim from several published papers. She does not use quotation marks, but the sources are suggested by statements like: "(see...for more details)". The faculty members of the exam committee realized there were inconsistencies in the writing styles of different paragraphs, check the sources, and uncover her plagiarism.

Her plagiarism is brought to the attention to the graduate school dean (college head), who expels her from the program with the stipulation that she can reapply for the next academic year.

3. Career in the balance

Francine was just months away from finishing her doctoral dissertation, when she realized that something was seriously wrong with the work of a fellow graduate student, Sylvia. Francine was convinced that Sylvia was not actually making the measurements she claimed to be making. They shared the same lab, but Sylvia rarely seemed to be there. Sometimes Francine saw research materials thrown away unopened. Sylvia was turning in

results to her thesis advisor that seemed to clean to be real.

Francine knew that she would soon need to ask her advisor for letters of recommendation for her job search. If she raised the issue now, she was sure that it would affect the recommendation letters. Sylvia was a favorite student of her advisor, but Francine also knew that if she waited to raise these issues with him, the question would arise as to when she first suspected the problems and waited. Both Francine and her advisor were using Sylvia's research data for their own research, and if her results were inaccurate, both needed to know as soon as possible.

4. Responding to writing

Jan is a teaching assistant who teaches a writing course for undergraduate students. Her course emphasizes argumentation and expression of ideas. One of her most outspoken students, Trevor, likes to dominate class discussions, expound his very conservative viewpoints, and even challenge the teacher. In one of the writing assignments Trevor responds to an essay in the course readings about the politics of nuclear weapons and issues of American military dominance over other countries and cultures.

Trevor hands in an essay that is far more formal and elaborate that what the assignment required. Much of his argumentation of his very conservative political views are well developed. However, he also uses some subjective and emotional arguments, and even some racist arguments in his paper. Jan is understandably outraged by some of the views expressed, but must respond to the writing in a professional manner, grade it, and possibly have a conference with Trevor, which is normally done in the course.

References

#1-3 are from *On Being a Scientist;* #4 is from *Scenarios for Teaching Writing.*

On Being a Scientist, 2nd ed. 1995. National Academy of Sciences. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press.

Anson, Crhis M., Joan Graham, David A. Jolliffe, Nancy S. Shapiro, Carolyn H. Smith. 1993. *Scenarios for Teaching Writing.* Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English.

Citing references in APA style

Here are some common citation forms from the APA (American Psychological Association) style sheet that you can use as for your paper. This style is used for academic writing in the social sciences and education fields, including linguistics. As you use information and sources in the text of your essay, you cite the author or source in the text, with the author's name and publication year in parentheses – the so-called in-text or parenthetical citation. At the end of your paper, you put the full bibliographic information in a 'works cited' or 'references' section.

The in-text citation goes inside the sentence, and if it comes at the end, it still is placed before final punctuation (inside a final period, that is, the period comes after the closing parenthesis of the citation). Multiple references are separated by semi-colons inside the parentheses. In the example below, the names and years can all be inside parentheses, or if the name is directly used in the sentence, then the year immediately follows in parentheses.

> Such widely skewed distributions have been noted by several recent surveys (Wolfson, 1998; Johns et al.; 2001; Manatee, 2004), with some like Wolfson (1998) arguing for a best fit from a logistic distribution, while others (Johns et al., 2001) arguing for a binomial distribution.

In the end references section at the end of a paper or article you'll see the full bibliographic information for these citations. Notice that the year appears in parentheses in the final bibliographic citation, in strict APA in formal publications[34]. The titles of books, magazines, and scholarly journals are italicized, followed by the volume number (for journals or other periodicals) and the page numbers. Titles of articles or chapters are not italicized. Note: when the citation is longer than one line, the second line is indented five spaces or one tab – a hanging indentation format, like below. End references can be single-spaced.

> Wolfson, P. (1998). Economic analysis of geographic proximity effects on GDP of ex-Soviet republics. *Journal of Central Asian Economic Studies, 3,* 138-154.

In the above example, '3' is the volume number, and this is also italicized.

1. A book by one author

> Wolfe, S. M. (1991). *Women's health alert.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Cite this work in your paper as "...(Wolfe, 1991)...", or with the author's name mentioned directly in the sentence with the date in parenthesis, e.g., "...Wolf (1991) has argued that...".

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34 Some journals use modified forms of APA, so you may not see parentheses around years in the end references, and other minor differences.

2. An article by one author

> Lauterberg, R. U. (1983). A statistical analysis of the popularity of North American plural pronoun substitutes. *International Review of Dialect Studies, 38,* 93-107.

This would be cited within the paper as "...(Lauterberg, 1983)..." or, e.g., "...Lauterberg (1983) noted that..."

3. A book or article by two or more authors.

> Zarkin, H., & Colton, R. R. (1963). *Tables for statisticians.* New York: Barnes & Noble.

Two authors: Cite this in your paper as "...(Arkin & Colton, 1963)...", or, e.g., "Arkin and Colton (1963) found that...".

> Monroe, J., Meredith, C., & Fisher, K. (1977). *The science of scientific writing.* Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt.

> Zorg, J., Delitz, K., Regan, R., & Krum, A. (1998). Sociocultural aspects of economic growth in ex-Soviet republics. *Journal of European Economic and Policy Studies, 14,* 556-598.

More than two authors: Cite the first book in your paper as (Monroe, Meredith & Fisher, 1977). For three or more authors, the in-text citation often gives the first author followed by 'et al.' (Latin: *et alia* = 'and others'), e.g., "...(Monroe et al., 1977)..." or "Monroe et al. (1977) reported that..."[35]

4. Article from a journal paginated by volume

> Lauterberg, R. U. (1983). A statistical analysis of the popularity of North American plural pronoun substitutes. *International Review of Dialect Studies, 38,* 93-107.

For such journals, page numbering goes continuously through all issues of the same volume (e.g., if issue 1 ends at page 200, then issue 2 starts at p. 201, and so on). Cite this journal article in your paper as (Lauterberg, 1983).

5. Article from a journal paginated by issue

(This means each issue begins with page 1).

> Plax, M. J. (1982). A rhetorical analysis of post-reunification German parliamentarians. *Textual analysis, 28*(1), 10-17.

The 28 refers to the volume number, and (1) is the issue number – but issue numbers are not required. Cite this article in your paper as (Plax, 1982).

6. Articles from a book with an editor

> Zhou, M. (2005). Syntactic complexities of Martian linguistics. In Brandt, W. & Schroeder, W. (Eds.), *Survey of Martian Linguistics* (pp. 245-499). New Jersey: Erlbaum Publishers.

The page numbers follow after the book title. In an older version of APA, page numbers were set off from the title by a comma instead of parentheses. The editor (Ed.) or editors (Eds.) are listed by name.

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35 In psychology papers, and in the official, current APA style, the rule for in-text citations is now for 'et al.' to be used for six or more authors, and for five or less, all names are written out, e.g., "...(Smith, Morrow, Jones, Johnson, & Ng, 1999)..."; however, in linguistics and related fields, we usually use 'et al.' for three or more names.

7. Article from a popular periodical.

Springen, K. (1990, December 31). A 100 mile race? No sweat. *Newsweek*, p. 84.

Cite this article in your paper as (Springen, 1990), or, e.g., "...Springen (1990) has noted that...". However, popular media sources are not usually cited in academic papers. For more on informal, popular or non-academic sources and materials, search for APA guides at owl.english.purdue.edu.

8. Direct quotations (also, cited data, reproduced tables or graphs)

One usually reports the ideas, findings, or work of others by paraphrasing and summarizing the relevent information, in one's own words. Occasionally, one might want to provide a direct quotation – though in linguistics and psychology, this is not very commonly done; it is done mainly if the way the original writer stated it is particularly important or noteworthy. In the in-text citation, the page number from which the quotation comes is given after the year, e.g., "...(Marion, 1997:34)..." for a quotation from page 34, or "...(Marion, 1997:34-35)..." for pages 34-35. The end reference will be as usual – page numbers for citations are given in the in-text citation, not in the end references. Shorter quotations can be included in a regular paragraph, but if a quotation would run three lines or more, it is placed in a separate block-indented paragraph (keep in mind that this example is fictitious), with the citation at the end of the quotation, as shown here, or before the quotation in the preceding paragraph:

> Such widely skewed distributions have been noted by several recent surveys (Wolfson, 1998; Johns et al.; 2001; Manatee, 2004), with some like Wolfson (1998) arguing for a best fit from a logistic distribution, while others (Johns et al., 2001) arguing for a binomial distribution. Regarding this phenomenon, After surveying the previous studies, we concluded the following, as stated in our previous report:
>
>> Blah blah blah blah blah blah blah. Blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah. Yada yada yada yada yada yada. Yada yada yada yada yada yada yada yada yada yada (McMahon, 2005:343).

Likewise, if you directly copy any charts, pictures, graphics, figures, or tables another source into your paper should cite the page number in the in-text citation, just as for direct quotations. These could appear in the text of a paragraph, or in a caption below a figure.

9. Electronic and informal sources

The following are not common in academic papers, as they are not peer reviewed sources. For more on electronic and informal sources, as well as popular or non-academic materials, search for APA guides at **owl.english.purdue.edu**.

9.1. (a) No date or author

Cite the web page name in the in-text citation. No periods follow after the URL.

GVU's 8th WWW user survey. (n.d.). Retrieved August 8, 2000, from http://www.cc.gatech.edu/ Gvu/user_survey-1997-10

9.2. (b) Daily newspaper article, electronic version.

Hilts, P.J. (1999, February 16). In forecasting their emotions, most people flunk out. *New York Times*. Retrieved November 21, 2000, from http://www.nytimes.com

9.3. (c) Message from an online discussion group (p. 278)

Lewandowski, A (2000, March 9). Changing names and the effects on professional status for newly married women [MSG7]. Message posted to http://www.theknot.com/discussgroup.

Email or other personal communication (e.g., from a reputable or authoritative person) should be cited as "personal communication" or "p.c." in the text; no end reference is given (APA Manual, section 3.102); e.g., "...according to Hack (p.c.), Silurians use this pronoun commonly...". In less formal papers like term papers, you might likewise cite someone's lecture notes in the same way as "...Hack (lecture notes)...".

In the references section, items like "retrieved from" or the date retrieved or downloaded can sometimes be omitted, especially when APA is followed less strictly.

10. Multiple sources by the same author

Sources by the same author are still separated by semi-colons in the in-text citation, e.g., "...(Zhou, 2003; Zhou, 2004). In the references section, they are listed in reverse chronological order, i.e., starting from the most recent works to earlier works. Hence, in-text: (Zhou, 2004; 2003).

Zhou, M. (2004). Analysis of Martian compound verbs. *Extraterrestrial Linguistics, 14,* 128-132.

Zhou, M. (2003). Aspects of Venutian verb morphology. *Journal of Exobiology and Linguistics, 5,* 11-15.

11. Multiple sources by the same author in the same year

Zhou, M. (2004a). Analysis of Martian compound verbs. *Extraterrestrial Linguistics, 14,* 128-132.

Zhou, M. (2004b). Comparison of North and South Martian dialects. *Journal of Extraterrestrial Language and Sociology, 7,* 101-119.

These are ordered alphabetically by title. These would be cited in the text as "(Zhou, 2004a)" and "(Zhou, 2004b)".

12. Conference papers or proceedings

Deci, E.L., & Ryan, R.M. (1991). A motivational approach to self: Integration in personality. In R. Dientsbier (Ed.), *Nebraska Symposium on Motivation: Vol. 38. Perspectives on Motivation* (pp.237-288). Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.

In-text citation as "...Deci and Ryan (1991)..." or "...(Deci & Ryan, 1991)". This is for papers presented at conferences, which are then published in a collection of conference papers known as conference proceedings. Conference proceedings often represent informal or preliminary reports of someone's research, and are not screened with as much scrutiny as journal articles, so scholarly articles or books are preferred when possible. For some conferences, presenters do not submit an actual paper that is publish,

but mere give an informal or preliminary report of their research. In that case, the format may look like so, though this may vary:

> Decker, Q. (1996). A demotivational approach to teaching Latin. Paper presented at *24th National Conference on Classics Pedagogy*, 01 April 1996, Purdue University, Indiana.

For the end reference style for conference papers and presentations, some journals deviate from the official APA style, so you will see different formats for conference papers.

13. Secondary citations

Sometimes you will find a good piece of information that someone else cites, but you can't find the source that s/he cited. For example, you read of an interesting finding or piece of data discovered by Smith (2002), but the Smith article is not available online or at your library; you only know if it because it is cited by someone else like Jones (2004). This is an indirect or secondary source, and would be cited as a secondary citation in your paper, as below. Both the primary and secondary source information would appear in the end references section.

> An older study found that 80% of stressed words in a corpus were nouns, followed by 12% verbs, and 8% other word classes (Smith, 2002, as cited in Jones, 2004).

> or

> … (Jones, 2004, citing Smith, 2002)

When a number of secondary sources are involved, it may not be worth the effort to list all the secondary citations, as one one author cites a number of other authors for relevant information. In that case, something like this will do:

> …(Jones, 2004, and references therein)

> or

> …(see Jones, 2004 for further references)

Notes.

In research papers and journals, unofficial variations on the APA format are common. For example, the comma in in-text citations is sometimes dropped, as in (Plax 1982); and parentheses are not used around the years in the end references section. Often the authors' full first names are given in the references section, especially in linguistics journals and papers.

For more details on official APA style or other documentation styles, go to the Purdue Owl site [http://owl.english.purdue.edu]. See also other sites like the UNC APA style guide, or the official APA site [http://www.apastyle.org/index.html].

MLA format

In MLA, a similar in-text citation form is used, except without commas; hence, e.g., "(Burke 1999)". The references at the end will look like the following (with examples from the Purdue Owl MLA style guide[36]). Names of books and periodicals may be underlined or italicized. In some fields, footnotes or endnotes are used instead of in-text citations, and footnote /endnote citation style often follows MLA format. For MLA style, the full references are listed in an end references section following the following format.

1. Books

Crowley, Sharon and Debra Hawhee. *Ancient Rhetorics for Contemporary Students*. 3rd ed. New York: Pearson/Longman, 2004.

Encyclopedia of Indiana. New York: Somerset, 1993.

Gleick, James. *Chaos: Making a New Science*. New York: Penguin Books, 1987.

Gillespie, Paula, and Neal Lerner. *The Allyn and Bacon Guide to Peer Tutoring*. Boston: Allyn, 2000.

Wysocki, Anne Frances, Johndan Johnson-Eilola, Cynthia L. Selfe, and Geoffrey Sirc. *Writing New Media: Theory and Applications for Expanding the Teaching of Composition*. Logan, UT: Utah State UP, 2004.

2. Sources by the same author

Palmer, William J. *Dickens and New Historicism*. New York: St. Martin's, 1997.

---. *The Films of the Eighties: A Social History*. Carbondale: Southern Illinois UP, 1993.

3. Articles in a book or anthology

Harris, Muriel. "Talk to Me: Engaging Reluctant Writers." *A Tutor's Guide: Helping Writers One to One*. Ed. Ben Rafoth. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann, 2000. 24-34.

Swanson, Gunnar. "Graphic Design Education as a Liberal Art: Design and Knowledge in the University and The 'Real World.'" *The Education of a Graphic Designer*. Ed. Steven Heller. New York: Allworth Press, 1998. 13-24.

4. Articles in journals or magazines

Bagchi, Alaknanda. "Conflicting Nationalisms: The Voice of the Subaltern in Mahasweta Devi's *Bashai Tudu*." *Tulsa Studies in Women's Literature* 15.1 (1996): 41-50.

Poniewozik, James. "TV Makes a Too-Close Call." *Time* 20 Nov. 2000: 70-71.

Buchman, Dana. "A Special Education." *Good Housekeeping* Mar. 2006: 143-8.

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36 See http://owl.english.purdue.edu.

5. Articles in newspapers

Brubaker, Bill. "New Health Center Targets County's Uninsured Patients." *Washington Post* 24 May 2007: LZ01.

Krugman, Andrew. "Fear of Eating." *New York Times* 21 May 2007 late ed.: A1.

Trembacki, Paul. "Brees Hopes to Win Heisman for Team." *Purdue Exponent* [West Lafayette, IN] 5 Dec. 2000: 20.

For more on MLA, footnote, or endnote style, see the Purdue English Department's Online Writing Lab: http://owl.english.purdue.edu.

6. Oher systems

Some other systems are similar to MLA, such as the Chicago Manual or Chicago Style (CM) in the humanities, and so-called Turabian style, which is a variant of CM.

Chicago Manual (humanities):

http://www.chicagomanualofstyle.org/tools_citationguide.html

ASA (American Sociological Association):

http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/583/01/

Searching for academic sources in Google Scholar

Searching for sources for your papers in Google will yield a number of irrelevant results – popular websites, popular publications, blogs, commercial sites, and otherwise irrelevant or non-reputable sites. You can use Google Scholar, which limits searches to academic sites – university websites and academic publishers (companies that publish academic
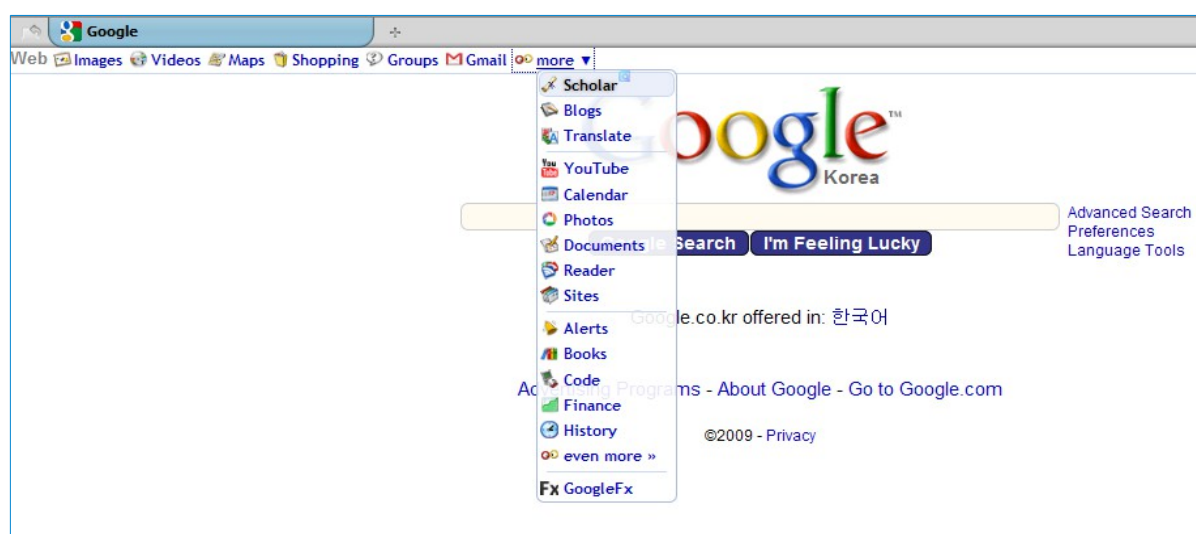
books and journals). You can go directly to scholar.google.com, or from the main Google site, under "more".

This takes you to the GS (Google Scholar) main search page. In the search box, enter your search terms. If you enter terms in quotation marks, it will search for that specific string of words appearing together in documents – an exact phrase search. For example, simply entering *grammaticality judgment test* without quotes will produce any results with the words *grammaticality* and *judgment* and *test* – any kind of test or judgment, not the kind you want; if you enter *"grammaticality judgment test"* in quotes, it searches for only that combination of words appearing together.
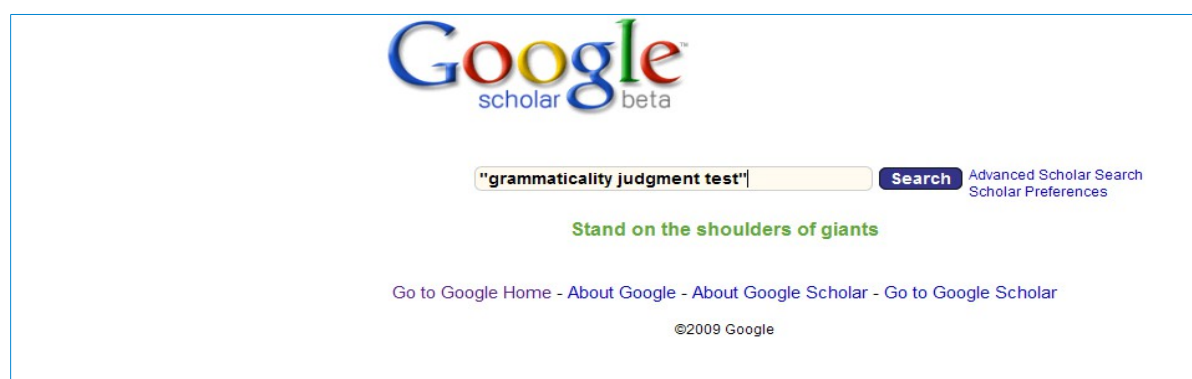
This is what the results look like. The article title appears at the top of each entry, then the author, and then the journal or source. You may have to play with different combinations of search terms to narrow or expand your search properly.

The second result has [PDF] to the right, which indicates a direct link to a PDF copy of the article (which I have indicated with notes in red). Those with [PDF] on the left (near the bottom) may also be a direct link, or it might take you to another page with a series of possible links to the article. You may sometimes see 'BL Direct' or something similar at

the bottom – this is a database company that catalogs research articles; these are usually not freely accessible. Also at the bottom of the entry you see "All 10 versions" - if the direct PDF link doesn't take you to a freely accessible version of the paper, click on this link ("All X versions") for other possible links to the articles. Sometimes multiple links exist for the same article, if the article has been indexed by different database and indexing companies, or appears on multiple websites (if you're lucky, one may be on the researcher's website or another website with free articles, along with other similar articles).

Sometimes authors may have Word or RTF versions of an article on their website. In that case, you'll need to search further to see if the article was actually published in a journal or elsewhere. The Word or RTF file could be a pre-publication draft, or a research paper that has been submitted to a journal for possible publication, or a research paper that was never submitted for publication – the author simply posted it on his/her website. If it seems to be the last case, or you cannot tell what it is, you'll need to be cautious – this probably hasn't been vetted by other scholars (like an article published in a journal that has undergone peer review), and it may not be worth using for your research paper; it may or may not be a worthwhile source.

Unfortunately, you sometimes cannot find a free version of the PDF. You'll come across a page like this, asking you to purchase the article. This is from JSTOR, which is a company that indexes a number of scholarly journals in the humanities and social sciences; others are Eric, Ovid, Ingentia, etc. Or you may find something like this from the website of the journal itself or its publishing company (Benjamins, Oxford, Elsevier, Erlbaum, etc.), demanding some unreasonable payment for a PDF of the article. If you really need it, try first to find it from an electronic database at your university library. If the library doesn't have it, ask your professor, who might be able to find you a copy.

Also, you could go a Google search for the author's academic website and find if s/he has posted a free PDF copy on the site. Or email the author personally and beg nicely for an electronic copy of the article – s/he probably won't mind.

From a GS search, you might occasionally find a link to a PS file, or a postscript file. This can be downloaded and converted to PDF in order to view and print it. To convert a PS file to PDF, you need either the full Adobe Acrobat program for creating PDFs, or search for a free PDF conversion program like the free Ghostscript+Ghostview package[37].

Sometimes the GS results might include Google Books links – links books that have been scanned by Google (next picture). For copyright reasons, the books cannot be downloaded or printed, and only certain pages are available. If the book is not available at your library, you may have to glean what you can from parts of a scanned Google book.

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37 Do a regular Google search for Ghostcript and Ghostview. First install Ghostscript (a PDF creation engine), then Ghostview or GSView, a program to view and convert PDF and PS files).
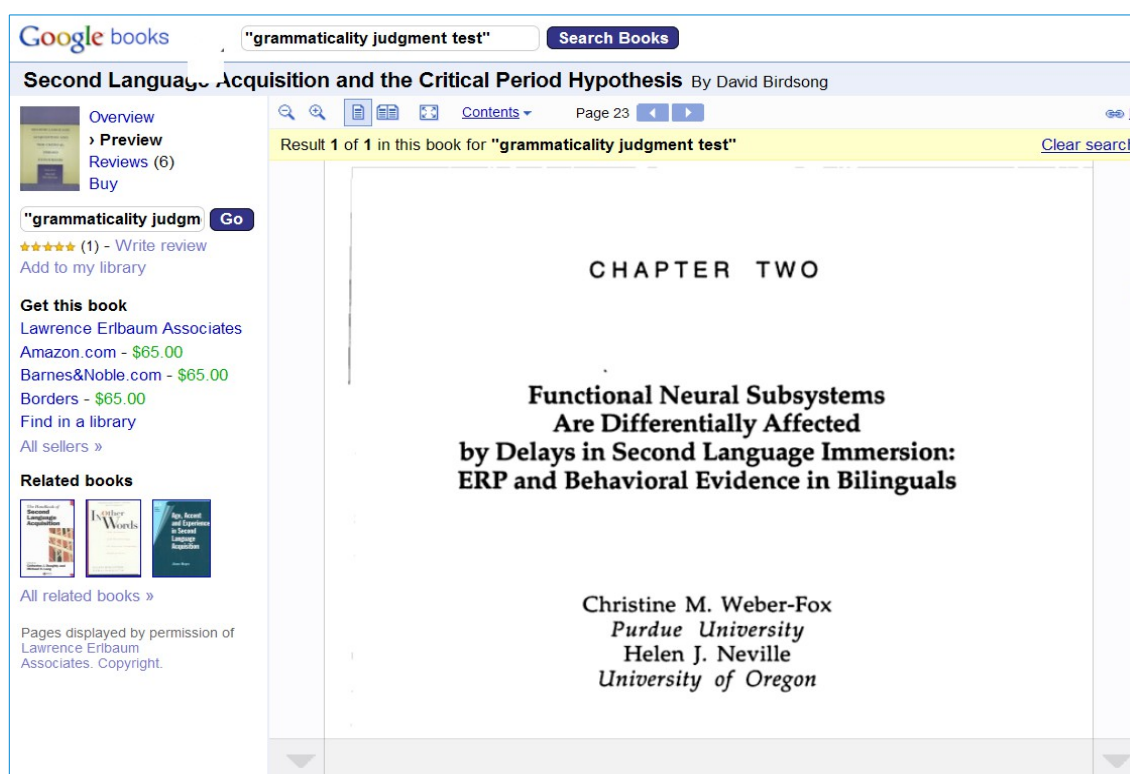
1. More on search terms

In your search, try playing with different combinations of key words to find what you like, for example:

> "discourse completion task" english korean pragmatics
>
> "discourse completion task" english L2 "hedge marker"
>
> "discourse completion task" english L2 korean "hedge marker"

Sometimes you need to search for two related terms together, in which case you can use the Boolean OR operator:

> "perfect tense" pedagogy OR instruction english L2
>
> "perfect tense" pedagogy OR instruction english L2 OR "second language"
>
> "universal grammar" OR UG "phonological acquisition"

The first example searchers for either 'pedagogy' or 'instruction' of the English perfect tense; the second search string looks for this and for either 'L2' or 'second language'. The third example looks for the phrase 'universal grammar' or its common abbreviation, UG.

The screenshot below shows a search for 'pragmatic' or 'pragmatics'. Sometimes Google suggests alternative key words ("Did you mean…"), which in the above example were not relevant.

Google typically disregards minor function words like *to, the, a, it, of, for,* and, and others. Sometimes you want to search for one of these minor words, and you can force Google to do so by putting a plus sign before it. The following search forces it to include 'of' in a search for the phrase "age +of acquisition".

To the right of the search box you'll see 'Advanced Scholar Search', which provides more options (next picture), including options for specifying dates, publications, authors, and general subject areas (the subject area options may not always display). This advanced search page is different from the advanced search page in regular Google. See also the Advanced Search Tips on the top right of the advanced search page.

The 'exact phrase' box is the same as using quotation marks for an exact phrase. There is an option for "without the words...". You can also do this in the regular search box with a minus sign before the word. The following searches for second language reading models, but excludes results with the term 'connectionism'.

"reading models" "second language" –connectionism

A few more tricks can be used in Google and Google scholar. If you get a lot of non-PDF file results (like plain web pages, MS Word files, etc.), you can narrow the search and exclude many non-PDF-related links like so:

"reading models" "second language" filetype:pdf

Or you can exclude a certain filetype, like MS Word (.doc) files, with the minus sign before the filetype term in the search box:

"reading models" "second language" -filetype:doc

You can also limit your searches to particular web domains; this string limits the search to particular web domains. The first example below limits the search to University of Illinois websites, and the second for Rutgers University in New Jersey:

"reading models" "second language" site:illinois.edu

"reading models" "second language" site:rutgers.edu

All the above tricks can also be used in regular Google searches, as well as in Google Scholar. These tricks should also work for searching your inbox if you have Gmail[38].

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38 Gmail also offers other search syntax that are more powerful than search functions in other email programs, such as: has:attachment, filename:, from:, to:, and others (do a Google search for "Gmail search syntax" for more information).

D. Coherence & cohesion
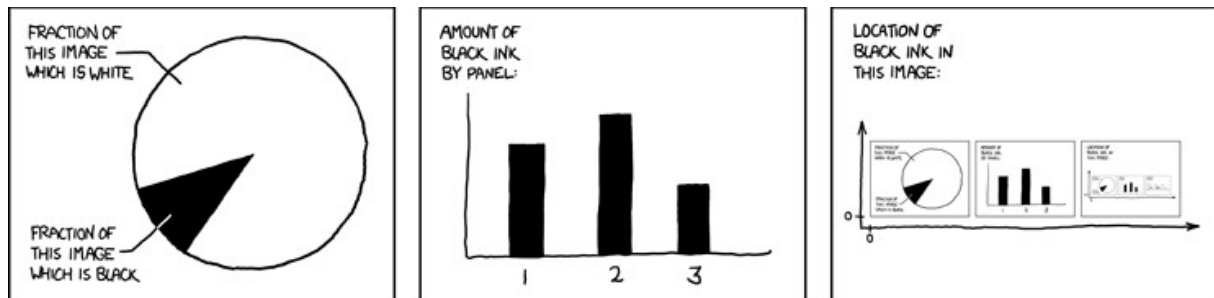
Transitionals: Introduction

Consider the following two versions of a paragraph[39]. Which one flows better, and why? What kind of meaning relationships does each connector express between the ideas that it links?

(1) Lasers have found widespread application in medicine. Lasers play an important role in the treatment of eye disease and the prevention of blindness. They eye is ideally suited for laser surgery. Most of the eye tissue is transparent. The frequency and focus of the laser beam can be adjusted according to the absorption of the tissue. The beam "cuts" inside the eye with minimal damage to the surrounding tissue – even the issue between the laser and the incision. Lasers are effective in treating some causes of blindness. Other treatments are not. The interaction between laser light and eye tissue is not fully understood.

(2) Lasers have found widespread application in medicine. For example, lasers play an important role in the treatment of eye disease and the prevention of blindness. They eye is ideally suited for laser surgery because most of the eye tissue is transparent. Because of this, the frequency and focus of the laser beam can be adjusted according to the absorption of the tissue, so that the beam "cuts" inside the eye with minimal damage to the surrounding tissue – even the issue between the laser and the incision. Lasers are also more effective than other methods in treating some causes of blindness. However, the interaction between laser light and eye tissue is not fully understood.

What would be another way of revising the sentence "other treatments are not" in the original version?

1. Main vs. subordinate clauses

Consider the following versions of these sentences. In what way do the sound differently or flow differently?

1a. I ran the simulation, and then the problem became apparent.

1b. After I ran the simulation, the problem became apparent.

2a. We ran 40 subjects in the experiment, but it yielded no conclusive results.

3b. Although we ran 40 subjects in the experiment, it yielded no conclusive results.

3a. Gender turned out to have a significant effect in past studies, so it was entered as a control variable.

3b. Because gender turned out to have a significant effect in past studies, it was entered as a control variable.

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39 From Swales and Feak (2004:26).

The difference between the A-versions and B-versions are grammatical, and these differences affect the style and flow. The A-versions consist of two conjoined main (independent) clauses, while the B-versions use a subordinate (dependent) clause.

Connectors make for better flow, and sometimes the choice of connectors affects the type of flow. Items 2-4 above contrast two grammatical types: coordinating conjunctions, which simply connect two ideas or phrases, and subordinating conjunctions, which grammatically subordinate one clause to another. Coordinating conjunctions put both phrases in the foreground of the flow, while subordinating conjunctions put less emphasis on one phrase by backgrounding it. Consider the following scene[40]; in the top picture, the trainyard is backgrounded, while it is focused in the bottom. Consider the following optical illusions. What you see depends on what you focus on.

What you focus on is the foreground of your attention; what is not in focus is background. Likewise, when we read, some phrases receive more attention than others, and this contributes to the flow of the writing and information. Writers can manipulate this by using some connectives to put more focus or emphasis on some items, and can use other connectors to put some items in the background of readers' attention.

Coordinating conjunctions foreground both phrases, while many subordinating conjunctions background the subordinate (dependent) clauses[41]. That is, they draw readers' attention to the main clauses, but less attention to the subordinate clauses. Some adverbial words also work like conjunctions, and these often foreground both phrases[42]. The more common connectors *and, so, but, or* actually provide very weak foregrounding, while many others have more specific meanings and provide stronger foregrounding.

Foregrounding connectors	Backgrounding connectors
furthermore, in addition	as
but, however, yet	although, though, while
so, thus, therefore, for	because, since
meanwhile, during	before, after, while, when

40 From http://www.flickr.com/photos/weweresopretty/1481611575

41 Subordinate or dependence clause: 종속절; main, independent or coordinate clause: 등위절, 주절.

42 These are called conjunctive adverbs, but it is not important to remember which are pure conjunctions and while are conjunctive adverbs, unless you are a linguist.

2. Discourse functions of dependent clauses[43]

Dependent (subordinate, adverbial) clauses can be used with flexibility to express a particular flow and nuance. If the subordinate clause is placed at the beginning of the sentence, it can form a cohesive, organizing link between the text and/or ideas immediately before the clause and the new information that follows. On the other hand, dependent clauses at the ends of sentences provide expansion of the information in the main clause. For example,

> This ability to influence public opinion and mobilize the entire nation against a particular deviant activity … illustrates the vast power of the mass media in defining deviance and mobilizing support for strong social control. Because they need to capture the public interest, the mass media often sensationalize crime and deviance. (Thompson & Hickey, 2002, p. 183)

In this excerpt, the sentence-initial position of the because clause connects the information in the preceding sentence to that in the main clause (e.g., public opinion—public interest, the mass media—they, and vast power—capture). Specifically, adverbial clauses at the beginning of sentences play the role of connectives and transitions between ideas and information in keeping with the-old-information-first-and-the-new-information last pattern. Some researchers have found that the majority of all initial clauses consist of if-conditionals that have the function of organizing discourse and establishing and maintaining topics (Ford & Thompson, 1986). The following example shows how the subordinate clause (adverb clause) expands on the preceding idea in the main clause by providing further examples or support.

> The annihilation of a minority may be unintentional, as when Puritans brought deadly diseases that Native Americans had no immunity to (Thompson & Hickey, 2002, p. 237).

3. Contrastive connectives (transitionals)

Now take a look at the following samples, and identify some of the transitional expressions. Are they always used correctly or in good style?

- But, statistics show the greatest escape rates from poverty by welfare benefits.

- It sounds like that it is very boring place, but, it's very good for students because they are able to concentrate on only their study.

- Even though, the city is close to Chicago, St. Louis and Indianapolis, it is still far enough to go to work everyday from here.

- America and Korea have many cultural differences. Because of this, people who visit America or Korea for the first time are easy to be confused. Although there are many western cultures that Korea has received from America, still there are many different cultures that cannot be changed.

4. 'Because' fragments

Take a look at the following items. In what way are these not good, stylistically.

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43 From Hinkel (2004:247-248).

1. Bilingual education can have a positive influence on young children's cognitive development and academic development in second language learning. Because one study (Cambell & Sais, 1995) found that bilingual children have shown advantages in cognitive and linguistic levels before going to school.

2. The classroom teaching may focus on teaching by rote without students' active attention. Because the interaction could not take place at that situation much.

3. University and adult language learner showed significantly higher scores for the motivated learning behavior. Because they are facing the real world where English is a top priority for a well paying job and to realize their dreams and goals.

The connective 'because' is a subordinating conjunction, which backgrounds the subordinate clause. In formal and academic English, a sentence with only the 'because' clause is grammatically incomplete – a sentence fragment[44]. Thus, these would have to be combined with main clauses to be grammatically complete.

5. Comma issues[45]

What is stylistically problematic with the following sentences?

1. So, to go further, it is necessary to research the effects of cultural factors on English learning, including Korean culture.

2. When Korean students heard English sentences, they automatically translate it into English in their brain. Then, to response, they think what they want to say in Korean, and translate it into English.

3. Then, they might have some problems in making various kinds of English sentences, because they tend to make easy, short sentences to avoid making grammar mistakes.

4. But, statistics show the greatest escape rates from poverty by welfare benefits.

Comma pattern for *so, then, but:*

> There is usually no comma after these words (except for emphasis in very informal writing; or if a clause intervenes between the conjunction and the clause that it refers to, e.g., "But, if you say so, we will postpone the impact analysis until the full team can meet.")

What is stylistically problematic with the following sentences?

1. However when the four skills are advanced together the capacity of language could grow.

2. The result means the preschooler's capacity for language skills are affected by age however at this point they are all preschoolers, so the higher scores for older ages may not be meaningful.

3. Therefore bilingual education in preschooler age is effective.

4. Because Asian and Slavic languages and many African languages have no articles,

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44 Sentence fragments with only a 'because'-clause would be okay in colloquial English.
45 For comma & punctuation, see: http://owl.english.purdue.edu

furthermore, even if there are some languages which have articles or article-like morphemes such as French and Spanish, their usage differs from article usage in English.

5. Participants answered that specific cues were informative for the task. Moreover higher proficiency L2 learners may be more aware of visible speech cues and better able to make use of them as a listening strategy, perhaps because of their L2 interaction experience.

6. However, not many places can boast an official bilingual providence; therefore the study has limited application.

7. However, it is broadly accepted that following the English rhetorical pattern is proper when learning English writing, therefore, L2 learners should learn English writing style and the essays which do not fit into English rhetorical pattern is underestimated.

Comma patterns for *however, therefore, moreover, furthermore:*

If these conjunctions begin a clause or sentence, they are set off with a comma, e.g., "However, we found results contrary to what was previously reported."

A couple of these can be the second word of a clause, and in that case, *however* is usually set off with commas, while commas for *therefore* is optional, usually for emphasis: "That, however, was not the case" and "We therefore decided on a follow-up experiment." See the next section on this.

Some connectors come come after the sentence subject or other phrase, i.e., not in sentence-initial position. How do these affect the flow? (Note that *thus* does not necessarily require commas when non-initial.)

1. As an adult, <u>however</u>, learning a foreign language was his own decision, and so that strong motivation was essential to maintain and achieve his goals.

2. Unlike the traditional research findings, <u>however</u>, instrumentality was not as significant a variable as for other age groups.

3. It is appropriate, <u>then</u>, to attempt to identify some systematic role for bilingualism in the disparate literature on the acquisition of literacy.

4. The historical evidence <u>thus</u> does not support the standard hypothesis.

Here are examples of the usage of these connectors from actual academic writing samples.

1. One argument favors non-word primes, <u>because</u> real word primes also induce competition between two words, an effect that is obviated by non-word primes.

2. Such results would be more consistent with a DRC model, in which the processor takes advantage of whatever kind of information is present in the orthography. <u>Furthermore</u>, such results would also be inconsistent with a pure PDP model, in which every component contributes simultaneously, regardless of function, and

varying effects of component types would not be expected to affect behavioral data.

3. This model, however, is designed primarily for processing multimorphemic words, and has not been applied to single character-level recognition. <u>Moreover</u>, its application to character-level recognition does not seem entirely clear, as it does not seem to make specific predictions about the time course of different types of linguistic information in processing. <u>However</u>, it may yield some insight into the complexity of the linguistic information found in Experiments 1-4.

5. Another option is the multi-route model, namely, the multilevel interactive activation model (Taft et al., 1999), which posits interactive connections between orthography, semantics, phonology, and morphology. This model, <u>however</u>, is designed primarily for processing multimorphemic words, and has not been applied to single character-level recognition.

6. Sentence topics, as informationally old items in a discourse context, are active in working memory, and they are <u>therefore</u> readily more accessible.

Transitionals and other coherence devices

Coherence refers to the flow of ideas, clauses and sentences in writing. In addition to simple words and phrases used as transitionals (conjunctions, conjunctive adverbs, and such), other words and other structures serve transitional functions. In addition to transitionals, some words indicate logical connectedness between items being discussed, or coherence[46]. The most common forms for maintaining this kind of flow are illustrated below.

1. Transitionals

Also called connectives or connectors, these are single words or short phrases that connect ideas, clauses and sentences. Some are pure conjunctions (*but, though, and*), while others were adverbs that came to be used like conjunctions (*furthermore, therefore, thus, however*). Various types are used for managing the flow of ideas and making this clear to readers, such as contrastive markers (*but, although, however*), additive or sequential markers (*and, afterwards, then*), emphatic markers (*even, especially, particularly*), and others.

2. Sentence adverbs

Another kind of transitional word occurs at the beginning of a clause or sentence, and indicates the writer's / speaker's attitude toward, or a general comment on, the sentence topic or content. These are known as sentence or sentential adverbs. These can sometimes come at the end of the sentence, especially in colloquial style, as more of an afterthought without the nuance of emphasis.

> actually, apparently, basically, by the way, briefly, certainly, clearly, conceivably, confidentially, curiously, especially, evidently, fortunately, hopefully, hypothetically, ideally, incidentally, indeed, interestingly, ironically, naturally, oddly, predictably, presumably, regrettably, seriously, strangely, surprisingly, thankfully, theoretically, therefore, truthfully, ultimately, unfortunately, wisely

For example:

> Apparently, an overwhelming majority in the Senate would be assured, if they can win seats in North Carolina, Minnesota, and Mississippi.

> Thankfully, the check arrived on time. Unfortunately, the package had been misdirected to the wrong city, and in the process the contents were damaged.

Compare this to the flow of a sentence like "...the contents were damaged, unfortunately" – in such a sentence, the adverb is added at the end, like an afterthought. A sentence adverb at the end tends to sound more colloquial, and as an afterthought, it has a bit more emphasis, which breaks the flow more.

> <u>Especially</u>, we would like to contain our company's bleeding of cash.

---

46 Parts of the following is adapted from http://www.virtualsalt.com/transits.htm [Harris, Robert. "Evaluating Internet Research Sources." *VirtualSalt*. 15 June 2007. 20 Apr. 2009.].

(Note that *especially* as a sentence adverb at the beginning of a clause or sentence is considered colloquial or informal style; it is not used so commonly like this in formal or academic writing, where it would be better to place it inside the main clause, or to omit it completely.)

2.1. Topical adverbs

Topical adverbs (this is my own name for them – this is not a standard term) are somewhat similar to sentence adverbs, except that they function to identify or qualify the topic of the coming clause. This adverb is similar to a normal adverb within a sentence, but moved to the beginning to make the topic more explicit, to emphasize the speaker's point, to give it more prominence, to shift the topic to a new but somewhat related topic, or to avoid too many other adverbs inside the sentence.

> <u>Economically</u>, this would be infeasible to implement while the markets are too unstable. (cf. "This would be economically infeasible to implement")

> <u>Politically</u>, it would be unwise for the senator to suddenly propose such an outrageously expensive funding project at an economically depressed time as this.

Many words could be used like this, such as these, and many others, such as adverbs related to specific topics or fields of study:

> scientifically, mathematically, artistically, financially, intellectually, philosophically, computationally, psychologically, economically, politically, intellectually, biologically, environmentally, presently, evolutionarily, emotionally

A fairly similar expression is *in terms of X*, for identifying a specific topic or a particular aspect of discussion. However, one should not overuse this, as using it too often can sound mechanical, artificial, or "officialese."

> The idea looks good on paper, but in terms of use of the company's resources, this would not be feasible in the current economic environment.

2.2. Ordinal transitions

These are terms like *first, second, third,* etc. Forms like *first, second, third* are more North American style, while *firstly, secondly, thirdly...* are more British style. One should not mix the British and American terms inconsistently, and in academic writing it is better to avoid the colloquial *first of all.* In English academic writing, these ordinal transitionals are less commonly used, and are more common in less formal writing (or on essay exams). In academic writing, using these regularly can make the writing sound mechanical, artificial or formulaic, so these should be used conservatively, e.g., when explaining more complex or abstract sequences of ideas that may be more difficult for the reader to follow. Otherwise, it is sufficient to start sentences with full noun subjects without these ordinal transition, and the logical flow would generally be sufficiently clear in academic writing.

2.3. There is / are

Sentences beginning with *there is* or *there are* function to introduce new topics (e.g., sentence subjects) to the discussion.

> There's a unicorn in my garden!

There's not much that can be done about this problem.

This is more common in informal writing or conversation. In academic writing, *there is/are* is less commonly used. Instead, academic writers simply start a new sentence with a full noun subject, or begin a new paragraph for a more significant topic shift.

The situation seems serious, but unfortunately, not much can be done about this problem at this time.

3. *There* + intransitive verb

Also used for shifts in topics or in the focus of the flow of the writing; this is more common in academic, formal, and also narrative writing (e.g., for shifting the reader's attention to a new scene or to a new thing that appears in the narrative scene). This is less colloquial than *there is/are* for academic writing purposes. The intransitive verbs that can be used with this are verbs whose meanings have to do with existence (*exist, live, occur, appear, happen, prevail, remain*) and change of state (*disappear, vanish, arrive, die, come, arise*). The sentence subject comes after the verb.

There appears to be a problem here.

There arose such a clamor in the house.

4. Inverted sentences (inversion)

An adjectival, adverbial, participial, or prepositional phrase is placed at the front of the sentence, displacing the subject after the verb. This serves as a segue (transition) from one topic to a new but closely related topic in a narrative, and makes for a smoother and more interesting flow of topics. It is also sometimes used in formal and academic writing as well as narrative writing. This occurs mainly with intransitive verbs and some passive verbs.

Adjective phrase
Participial phrase
Adverb phrase   } + Verb + Subject
Prepositional phrase

You're driving as fast as you like on the highway and feel like the king of the road – then zooming up from behind like a rocket there comes a rival contender, bullying you to get out of the way.

On the sign were written the foreboding words, "No passing zone".

Closely related to *there*-sentences are inverted sentences, such as this one.

Quite frustrated was the little mouse, being unable to get around the house cat.

Inverted sentences can also be used with *there* for a similarly smooth flow to a new, less expected topic or item.

You're driving as fast as you like on the highway and feel like the king of the road – then zooming up from behind like a rocket there comes a rival contender, bullying you to get out of the way.

4.1. Verbs with inversion and *there*-sentences

Sentence inversion and *there* constructions (*there is, there seems...*) occur with intransitive verbs[47] of the following types, and occasionally, certain passive verbs that indicate location rather than action[48]. Inversion is also limited to introducing related topics – items related to the context or inferrable from the context, rather than something entirely new. The *there* construction at the beginning of a sentence or clause is for introducing new items to the discourse. These are often used in narratives, and often in the past tense.

verbs of existence: *be, exist, remain, tend, stand, sit*
verbs of appearance: *appear, disappear, arise, vanish, seem*
change of state: *change, occur, happen, break, die, fall, shrink, condense, freeze, grow*
certain motion verbs: *flow, fall, arrive, come, go, walk, turn, run, return, roll, open, close*
passive location verbs: *be located, be found*

There arose such a clatter, I sprang from the bed to see what was the matter.

There appeared a cheetah in the distance.

There happened to be a hefty fine for such behavior.

In the hallway stood an angry chicken, holding an axe with both wings.

In the middle of the field grew a giant beanstalk, reaching to the sky.

4.2. Topic shift markers

Some words are used to manage shifts to new topics, or shifting back to previously mentioned topics (reshifts). In colloquial English and narratives, *now* can be used for new topics or reshifts; *anyway* can be used colloquially for reshifts. In various kinds of contexts, *as to, as for, as regards, regarding,* etc. can be used for reshifts, but in academic writing these are less common; one should be careful not to overuse these to avoid sounding stylistically too mechanical, artificial, colloquial, or formulaic.

Now, as I was saying...

As for the unresolved matter of late orders, we've decided to consult with the home office.

As regards your proposal, we currently cannot undertake such a complex project.

4.3. Clefts

Clefts take the form *it's the ____ that"* or the wh-cleft, *"what ____ is ____"*. These are used in colloquial English for emphasis or making a contrast; thus, these are not common in academic writing.

Will we milk the goat today? No, <u>it's the yak that</u> I need to milk.

What I need to do is milk is the yak.

---

47 One should keep in mind that some verbs can be transitive or intransitive, with different meanings, e.g., *break, change, increase, decrease,* and many others.

48 These types of verbs share a common linguistic property: they are considered agentless verbs – the subject of the verb is not a volitional agent (performer, doer, actor) of the action, but a non-agent (not doing any action) or non-volitional (not controlling the action). The motion verbs act somewhat like these agentless verbs in these constructions because they also convey a change of state or appearance onto the scene (e.g., *there came a man from Mars* indicates appearance upon the story scene).

4.4. Paragraphs

Paragraph breaks indicate a shift to a new topic. (Hence, using *there* expressions or *first, second*, etc. to begin topic sentences and new paragraphs often sounds redundant in academic writing, when paragraph structure already conveys this flow of thought.)

Common transitionals

This chart shows different kinds of transitional words and phrases – coordinating conjunctions, subordinating conjunctions, adverbials, and prepositions[49].

	coord. conj.	sub. conj.	adverbial and phrasal transitions	prep.
time and sequence	and, or	as, by the time*, as soon as, as long as, before, since, after, until, when, whenever, while	after that/this, afterward, afterwards*, and so forth*, at last, at length, at that time, at the same time (as / that), beforehand, concurrently, currently, earlier, eventually, finally, formerly, from now on, immediately, in addition, in the future, in the meantime, in the meantime*, in the past, last, last but not least*, later, later on, meanwhile, moreover, next, now, presently, previously, recently, shortly, simultaneously, soon, soon afterwards*, still, subsequently, subsequently, then, thereafter, this instant, today, tomorrow, yet	before, since, after, until, during
addition	and, as, also, both... and, either...or, not only... but also, neither... nor	that, who, which, whose, why, what, whatever, whoever, how much/ many,	also, as a matter of fact, besides, by the way*, equally important, finally, first, first of all*, fourth...), further, furthermore, in addition, incidentally, in the first place, last, last of all, likewise, moreover, next, second (second of all*, still, still/yet another, third, too, yet	plus, besides, in addition to
repeti- tion, emphasis, restate- ment			(the) aforementioned, above all, as I said earlier*, as a matter of fact, chiefly, especially, i.e., in essence, in other words, in other words*, namely, once again, on the whole*, particularly, primarily, singularly, still, that is, that is to say*, to put it differently*, to repeat*, to restate*, with attention to,	
exception	other than		except for the fact that, aside from, barring, excluding, besides, except, excepting, except for, exclusive of, outside of, save, with the exception of	
example	as, such as, like		an instance of this...*, as an illustration*, by way of an example*, chiefly, e.g., especially*, first of all*, for example, for instance, for one thing*, including, in particular, more specifically, namely, specifically, such as, that is, this can be seen in*, thus, to demonstrate, to enumerate, to illustrate*,	as, like
reason, purpose	and, for	because, since, so that, in order that, in order to, so as to	all things considered, because of this, for this purpose, for this reason to this end, this/that being the case, to do so, to do this*, to this end, with this in mind, with this object(ive), with this purpose in mind,	because of, due to, in light of (this), given (X)

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49 Asterisks [*] indicate more colloquial, informal, or non-academic expressions.

	coord. conj.	sub. conj.	adverbial and phrasal transitions	prep.
result, cause and effect	so, and, thus	so that, such (a) [noun] that, if...then, therefore, it follows that, because, since	accordingly, apparently, as a consequence, as a result, consequently, due to this, for this reason, hence, it is apparent (that), thereby, therefore, thereupon, thus,	as a consequence of, in light of (this)
manner, similarity	as	as, as if, as though, how, however [= in whichever way that X]	likewise, so, accordingly, comparatively, coupled with, correspondingly, identically, likewise, similar, similarly, together with	based on, depending on, according to
condition	in case	if, as long as, unless [=except if], in case (that), provided that, supposing (that), whether, whether or not*	this/that being the case, it may be (the case)	in (the) case of,
con-cession	but, yet	it may be (the case) that, although, though, however, granted that	of course, naturally, it may be the case that, granted, it is true that, certainly, and yet, even so, even though, nevertheless, otherwise, though, notwithstanding	
contrast	but, yet, or, nor	although, though, even though, while, in spite of the fact that, despite the fact that, however	however, one the one hand...on the other hand, nevertheless, on the contrary, to the contrary, however, still, in contrast, conversely, at the same time, regardless, nevertheless, in contrast, after all, and yet, conversely, instead, rather, still, otherwise, for all that*, though this may be (so / the case)*, alternatively, at the same time*	as opposed to, in contrast to, instead of, in spite of, despite, rather than, regardless (of), in opposition to
compar-ison	just as, just as...so to, or		likewise, similarly, also, again, in the same way/ manner, in comparison, relatively speaking, by the same token*, in like manner, in like fashion	
summary, con-clusion			above all, all things considered, as (I have*) demonstrated/ shown, as a result, as has been demonstrated/ shown, as the data/ facts show, finally, in any event*, in brief, in brief*, in conclusion, in short, in short*, in summary, in the final analysis, in the long run*, last of all*, on the whole*, on the whole*, therefore, thus, to conclude, to sum, to summarize, to sum up*, without a doubt, with this in mind*,	
place, direction			next to, above, behind, beyond, near, across from, to the right/ left, here, there, in between, opposite (to), nearby, at this/that point, surrounding, adjacent to, in the background / foreground, in the forefront, in the distance	

Typical exercises for transitionals

The following are typical textbook exercises for transitionals. Unfortunately, however, the examples in section A are boring, and most importantly, they lack any real context. Isolated, contextless sentences like this are not helpful, since transitionals depend crucially on context.

A. Combine the following with an appropriate conjunction.

1. Ralph takes the train to Busan. He likes to sit by the window.
2. He was the first person to eat a slice of meat between two pieces of bread. The sandwich was named after the Earl of Sandwich.
3. Akila was about to answer the final question. The buzzer sounded.
4. Few soap operas remain on the radio. Daytime television is full of them.

Or with blanks as hints:

5. She connected the speakers _____the room was filled with glorious sound.
6. The chimney spewed black smoke and soot _____ nobody complained to the local environmental agency.

B. Combine and/or rephrase the following[50].

There are differences in math performance between boys and girls. These differences cannot be attributed simply to differences in innate ability. If one were to ask the children themselves, they would probably disagree.

Possible answer: The differences in math performance between boys and girls cannot be attributed simply to differences in innate ability. Still, if one were to ask the children themselves, they would probably disagree.

C. Adapting authentic materials for a more natural context (from a Wikipedia article):

Article modified with poorer flow, for use as a pedagogical exercise.

Louis Armstrong was nicknamed Satchmo. He was an American jazz trumpeter and singer. He came to prominence in the 1920s as an innovative cornet and trumpet player, Armstrong was a foundational influence on jazz. He shifted the music's focus from collective improvisation to solo performers. Armstrong was _____an influential singer, demonstrating great dexterity as an improviser.

---

50 From http://grammar.about.com/od/developingparagraphs/a/exsbsignals.htm

Original article, with natural transitionals..

Louis Armstrong, nicknamed Satchmo, was an American jazz trumpeter and singer. Coming to prominence in the 1920s as an innovative cornet and trumpet player, Armstrong was a foundational influence on jazz, shifting the music's focus from collective improvisation to solo performers. Armstrong was <u>also</u> an influential singer, demonstrating great dexterity as an improviser.

Korean L2 errors in flow and transitionals

Look at the following and identify the stylistic problems with these sentences.

1. Adverb placement
1. They had planned very well and even defeated Pearl Harbor <u>utterly</u>.
2. The information is various from the exchange rate and stock prices and to the current of national economy. <u>Especially</u>, economic predictions are useful to make a plan for long-term economic policy for several reasons.
3. <u>Especially</u> the negative aspect of the violence is living in the mind of young people.

2. Complex sentence structure
4. I ran the simulation, and then the problem became apparent.
5. After I ran the simulation, and then the problem became apparent.

3. Contrastive connectives (transitionals)
6. But, statistics show the greatest escape rates from poverty by welfare benefits.
7. It sounds like that it is very boring place, but, it's very good for students because they are able to concentrate on only their study.
8. Even though, the city is close to Chicago, St. Louis and Indianapolis, it is still far enough to go to work everyday from here.
9. America and Korea have many cultural differences. Because of this, people who visit America or Korea for the first time are easy to be confused. <u>Although</u> there are many western cultures that Korea has received from America, <u>still</u> <u>there are</u> many different cultures that cannot be changed.

4. Other connectives / transitionals
10. <u>In my case</u>, I had severe cultural shock when I went to Canada for almost 8 months.
11. <u>In case of daylight</u>, it is composed equal intensity of color light in visible spectrum.
12. <u>In case of Turkey</u>, if the buildings were designed by proper method, the severe calamity could be reduced.
13. <u>With regard to</u> this symptom, I have same experience.
14. <u>Second</u>, in Korea, <u>there is</u> no specific high-stake for graduating a junior and a high school. ...<u>Third</u>, most of students in U.S.A. has not improved learning in a school.
15. However, it is supposed <u>there is</u> no fundamental limitation to OLEDs efficiencies.

Common problems with connectives

The following are issues that non-native writers of English (especially East Asians) have with English connectives (transitionals).

1. Sequence, repetition, reformulation, and emphasis markers

1.1. Indeed [1], clause-initial

In clause-initial (sentence-initial) position, *indeed* is used to confirm and amplify a previous statement with additional information.

> The forecast indicated a chance of heavy rains. And indeed, it rained hard enough to flood all the wheat fields.

1.2. Indeed [2], inside clause

Used to emphasize a word that it occurs next to.

> Indeed, it did rain as hard as predicted.

> The president is indeed an idiot. / The president is indeed stupid.

> He indeed wrecked the economy.

Also, interrogatively, to obtain confirmation – very formal or British.

> Did you indeed finish the assignment? (very formal)

1.3. In fact, as a matter of fact

These provide additional information to support or clarify as well as to amplify a previous statement; *as a matter of fact*, being more wordy, can be somewhat more informal. (clause initial)

> He is known by some to have questionable intentions in running for seeking the position. In fact, he once confided to a coworker that he wanted the position mainly to enhance his social status.

1.4. Actually

This is more common in informal English than in formal English. Clause internally, it adds emphasis ("He actually ate a bug!"), while clause initially, it acts like a sentence adverb to emphasize the point of the whole clause, often with a contrastive sense: "Actually, I'd like to go to Rome instead."

1.5. Furthermore

This is used to add a further convincing fact or supporting information to convince the reader of a specific, preceding claim. This is a more formal equivalent of the more colloquial term *besides*. In contrast, *in addition to* merely adds additional information or

detail, without the argumentative or persuasive force of *moreover* or *furthermore*. (clause initial)

The campaign is getting nastier, and the candidates are using more aggressive language. Furthermore, their respective party campaign machines are posting unsubstantiated rumors about their opponents on their web sites.

1.6. Moreover

This is used to add a further convincing fact or supporting information to convince the reader of a specific, preceding claim, particularly to add a final persuasive or illustrative detail. It is not used to reformulate a previous idea or to simply emphasize a previous idea, unless it introduces new, supporting information. It occurs clause-initially. This is considered very formal or older in style, and is less commonly used today, even in formal and academic writing.

> The campaign is getting nastier, and the candidates are using more aggressive language. Moreover, some voters are being turned off by things said by supporters of the governor.

1.7. Besides

A colloquial or informal equivalent of *in addition to, furthermore*; not common in formal or academic writing. (clause initial)

> We can't afford to go to Hawaii. Besides, do you know how high the daily expenses would be once we got there?

1.8. Especially

This is an emphatic marker, usually emphasizing a content word in a sentence.

> That was an especially foolish idea.

> They especially want to travel Europe.

It can occur at the beginning of a clause or sentence; however, this gives it a sentence adverb meaning, in addition to its emphatic meaning, thus emphasizing the content of the whole clause. This is used in informal writing or colloquial English, and rather in academic writing. The emphasis on the whole clause breaks the smooth flow of sentences in academic writing style. Instead, it can be replaced with 'in particular / particularly', or 'especially' can be moved into the clause before a content word to modify the content word, or it can be omitted altogether.

> Especially they want to apply for a graduate program in Montreal.

> In particular, they want to apply for a graduate program in Montreal.

> They especially want to apply for a graduate program in Montreal.

1.9. In terms of

With regard to; concerning; as measured or indicated by, on the basis of; in relation to, in reference to, as in. This usage originated in mathematics in the mid-1700's, referring to numerical units. Be careful not to overuse it; some overuse it, leading to an artificial sounding or "officialese" tone.

> How far is it in terms of parsecs?

The book offers nothing in terms of a satisfactory conclusion;

This film offers nothing in terms of satisfactory entertainment.

1.10. In (the) case of

This is less common in writing or spoken English than in Korean. It is more typical of official style or "officialese", as in public notices and signs ("In case of fire, pull this lever"). Korean writers tend to over-use it for topic shifts, for hypothetical examples, or to emphasize the topic / subject of a sentence. Instead, use 'if' for a conditionals or hypothetical examples, or simply omit it altogether and start a sentence with an appropriate prepositional phrase (indicating context, situation, etc.) or a full noun phrase.

◊ In [the] case of U.S. economy, leading indicators point to a recession in the near future.

→ If one considers the U.S. economy, one can see that leading indicators point to a recession in the near future.

→ In / Within / For the U.S. economy, leading indicators point to a recession in the near future.

1.11. Then

'Then' at the beginning of a sentence is not usually followed by a comma

◊ Then, one should consider the implications of this approach.

→ Then one should consider the implications of this approach.

1.12. First, second, ...

Korean ESL writers tend to overuse these order markers (*first, second, third...*), due to how they were taught English writing, especially for essays on standardized exams. However, in academic writing, we use these less often, mainly when it is important to itemize a set of concepts, whose order would not otherwise be clear from the context. Also, one should distinguish between the different styles: *firstly, second(ly),* etc. are British; *first, second,* etc. are more American or general English, and *first of all* is more colloquial.

1.13. Etc., and so on....

Some ESL students (and native writers) tend to overuse these as stylistic "fillers" - *etc., and so on, and so forth*. However, they are not used simply as fillers in academic writing, but only when necessary. Also, if one begins a list with *such as*, *e.g., for example*, then an *etc.* or *and so on* at the end is rather redundant, and should not be used.

1.14. Latin abbreviations

In academic writing, the following Latin abbreviations are commonly used:

e.g.   for example

i.e.   that is, in other words

cf.   compare; compared to

The abbreviations *i.e.* and *e.g.* are preceded and followed by a comma within a clause.

> Astronomers are currently hunting for extra-solar earth-class planets, i.e., planets outside our solar system capable of supporting life. Such planets would be marked by earth-like astronomical characteristics favorable to life, e.g., a mass not more than a few times larger or smaller than earth, and an orbit within at least a couple of astronomical units (AUs) of its star, but not more a few AUs.

2. Contrast markers

Contrastives like 'but' are known as concessives[51] - for example, in a phrase like 'X but Y' the 'but' partially concedes the potential of X, or the expectations or implications that follow from X in the reader's mind, but then provide a contrasting statement to X.

2.1. But

This is a default, general-use contrast marker, but overusing it in writing can sound colloquial, so using a variety of contrast markers is better for formal writing. 'But' is not used with a following comma, except for emphasis – and this is rare in academic writing, and more typical of informal writing or conversational style. In formal writing, instead of 'but'+comma for a stronger contrast, you can use 'however' instead; otherwise, use 'but' without a comma. (In fact, Koreans ESL writers overuse 'but' and 'but'+comma.)

Because 'but' conjoins two main clauses, or links two separate sentences, it gives equal weight or importance to both clauses (unlike the subordinating conjunctions below) – or as some linguists would say, it "foregrounds" both clauses – putting both in the foreground of the reader's attention, with a movement from one to another related "foreground" or equally important set of content or information.

2.2. However

This indicates a stronger contrast than 'but', and likewise, foregrounds both clauses (perhaps it foregrounds the second clause following 'however', since it seems to present a stronger contrast of ideas). It is followed by a comma, and if it connects two clauses in one sentence, it is preceded by a semi-colon.

> He planned to get a lot of work done that day; however, he woke up to find his computer missing.

For stylistic variation, it is possible to put 'however' after the first word of a clause for a smoother or more vivid flow:

> He planned on a fruitful day of on-line trading; he did not, however, anticipate the stock market crashing that day.

2.3. Although, though

These subordinate one clause, and thus background the clause as information that is secondary to, leading up to, or supporting the contents of the main clause. This presents a different flow of information than with two main clauses or sentences.

> Although he woke up early to go to work, he forgot that it was Sunday.   cf.

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51 These connectives generally indicate what linguists call a "denial of expectation" - the 'but'-phrase partially denies whatever expectations that the previous clause might imply, i.e., it limits, mitigates, or negates implications of the previous phrase.

> He woke up early to go to work, but he forgot that it was Sunday.

Although was created centuries ago as a more emphatic form of *though* (*all+though*); today this difference is probably more subtle, but *although* is still slightly more emphatic. The connective *even though* is not equivalent to *though* or to *even if* (see below under conditionals).

2.4. While

The contrastive use of 'while' derives from its use as a temporal marker (for time phrases, a conjunction equivalent to 'during' or 'when'). This juxtaposes two contrasting situations or conditions, with a subordinate information flow, that is, it backgrounds the information in the 'while'-clause to the content of the main clause.

> While the candidate says she would release her medical records, she still has not.

2.5. Whereas

This is like 'while', but with a stronger emphasis, and like 'however', it foregrounds both clauses or sentences.

> One candidate claims to be a champion of the working class, whereas the other claims that his focus on business and profits will benefit the middle class.

2.6. Yet

This comes from the temporal adverb (as in *not yet*, used as a negative equivalent of *still*: "Is he still running? He hasn't quit yet"). As a conjunction, it is equivalent to *though, still, nevertheless*. As a coordinating conjunction with a main clause, it foregrounds the content of the main clause, so it is perhaps more like *still*. It is preceded by a comma or semi-colon, and is not usually followed by a comma (*yet,*), except for special emphasis or colloquial style.

> The work has been effective, yet it could be improved.

3. Conditionals

3.1. Unless

This is not equivalent to 'if …not', but is more like 'except if' in meaning.

> We couldn't have made it safely unless you had helped us.

3.2. Whether

In academic writing, it is considered redundant to say "whether … or not" - simply "whether" will suffice; "whether or not" is more colloquial style.

> We cannot say whether the situation will improve.

3.3. Even if cf. even though

The adverb *even* functions to emphasize what it modifies in contrast to other possibilities.

E.g.,

> Fire ants attack anything in their path, even large animals.

> Scientists warn that many species could die out, and the rise in global temperatures even threatens mammals.

In these sentences, *even* emphasizes the addition of the noun ('large animals'), verb ('threatens'), or other words that they modify; i.e., the modified term is emphasized as something (perhaps surprisingly) in addition to other things. Thus, in connectives like *even if* and *even though,* the *even* emphasizes information in the clause (in addition or in contrast to something else); *even if* emphasizes or contrasts the hypothetical possibility of what follows in the clause (counterfactual, or contrary to fact), while *even though* emphasizes or contrasts the clause as factual.

> Even if you wanted to take the course, there's no way you could handle such a hard course. [counterfactual]

> Even though you're taking this course, you won't really understand the lectures if you haven't had the prerequisite courses beforehand. [factual]

Topic shift, emphasis & other transitions

Look at the following samples from Korean writers. Some of these are awkward, while others are too informal or mechanical sounding. What issues do you see in these sentences, and why do Korean writers have such difficulties?

1. <u>In my case</u>, I had severe cultural shock when I went to Canada for almost 8 months.
2. <u>In case of daylight</u>, it is composed equal intensity of color light in visible spectrum.
3. <u>In case of Turkey</u>, if the buildings were designed by proper method, the severe calamity could be reduced.
4. <u>With regard to</u> this symptom, I have same experience.
5. <u>Second</u>, in Korea, <u>there is</u> no specific high-stake for graduating a junior and a high school. ...<u>Third</u>, most of students in U.S.A. has not improved learning in a school.
6. However, it is supposed <u>there is</u> no fundamental limitation to OLEDs efficiencies.
7. Although there are many western cultures that Korea has received from America, still <u>there are</u> many different cultures that cannot be changed.
8. The information is various from the exchange rate and stock prices and to the current of national economy. <u>Especially</u>, economic predictions are useful to make a plan for long-term economic policy for several reasons.
9. <u>Especially</u> the negative aspect of the violence is living in the mind of young people.

1. Emphasis markers

The conjunction 특별히 may be used at the beginning of a sentence in formal and academic writing in Korean, but its use sentence-initially is discouraged in formal English writing. Revise the sentences above beginning with *especially* to a more formal style.

1. The information is various from the exchange rate and stock prices and to the current of national economy. <u>Especially</u>, economic predictions are useful to make a plan for long-term economic policy for several reasons.
2. <u>Especially</u> the negative aspect of the violence is living in the mind of young people.
3. Through the journal written by Gardner & Bernaus, new point of view for the motivation was recognized. <u>Especially</u> the teacher motivation is kind of new. The most important factor was the learner's motivation.
4. Since this experiment is designed to assess the participants' understanding, it should allow them to use other ways such as pictures or oral tools. Only permitting writing prevents the accurate evaluation. Especially, students having enough reading proficiency don't need to read the text with comic strips, because it is hard to say that comic strips are always connected with the writing down something.

2. Topic shift and example markers

How often are the following used in formal English writing? What is their function – what kind of transitions are they used for, and when?

- with regard to
- regarding
- as for, as to

- concerning, as concerns
- speaking of
- in terms of

Look at the following; which could be revised to a more formal style?

1. The correlation result indicated that the students who tend to produce more tend to produce better outputs. Students who are more proficient in the L2 considered themselves as more proficient. Regarding the relationship between objective and subjective assessment of L2 proficiency, however, in spite of the correlation, the tendency doesn't always indicate the same directionality.

2. The South Korean Ministry of Education recently published a series of new policies regarding English learning and teaching.

3. Therefore, the South Korean Ministry of Education announced that the English education system, regarding target language use, will attempt and focus on increasing proficiency in L2 communication.

4. The task has face validity for the participants because they are already familiar with hearing lectures in the classroom, even though the topic of the lecture in this research is not familiar. But regarding the fact that the participants are almost Asians, other forms of validity may be weaker because Asians may be more familiar to the topic than others.

5. The first part of this research is the instructional setting. It has tightly controlled experimental variables. As for participants, it consists of a comparison group design. 42 ESL learners (29 female, 13 male) ranging in age from 18 to 27 years volunteering outside of their usual classes are divided into six groups randomly and assigned to one of the three stimulus conditions.

6. Each group of participants is chosen by criterion sampling. Basically, all the participants are residents in the capital city of Hungary. As for secondary school students group, 202 students from two private schools and one public school in a range of average level of teaching and students, in which English is not compulsory foreign language subject, were asked to answer the questionnaire.

Another topic shift marker that Korean writers overuse in English is *case / in case of*, which sound rather colloquial in written English.

1. In my case, I had severe cultural shock when I went to Canada for almost 8 months.
2. In case of daylight, it is composed equal intensity of color light in visible spectrum.
3. In case of Turkey, if the buildings were designed by proper method, the severe calamity could be reduced.

4. Students having enough reading proficiency don¡ ̄t need to read the text with comic strips, because it is hard to say that comic strips are always connected with the writing down something. <u>In this case</u>, they had better read the text without comic strips, because reading the text could be related to their writing directly.

3. Ordinal sequence markers

What is the difference between the following sets of connectives?

1. First, second, third... (e.g.: First, XXX . Second, YYY .)
2. Firstly, secondly, thirdly...
3. First of all, second of all...

Koreans often overuse these. They are less often used in formal academic writing, and would mainly be used when the explanation is complex or abstract, and thus, harder to follow (see below). Within a paragraph for a simple list or explanation of items or ideas, they can often be left out, and the reader can readily follow the logical sequence. But for explanations that may be harder to keep in one's working memory, and thus, are harder to follow, they can be useful, as in this example, where a fairly complex explanation of some experiments covers two paragraphs.

> <u>First</u>, a series of surveys were used to create semantic indices for over 3000 characters. These indices included judgments of the relatedness of semantic radicals to their visual forms (designated as semantic transparency); the semantic relatedness of radicals to character meanings (radical regularity); the variability of radical-character relatedness across characters with the same radical (radical consistency); and <u>finally</u>, the semantic concreteness of radicals and characters, i.e., semantic abstractness or tangibility. The data were <u>then</u> normed to create semantic indices, and multivariate analytical techniques were applied to establish the contribution of various factors to the relative informational content of individual characters. Several new phonological indices were <u>also</u> created for a more detailed examination of phonological regularity, consistency, and frequency effects.

> <u>Next</u>, a series of masked priming experiments was conducted, with the first goal being to determine whether the semantic indices proved to be significant factors contributing to character recognition. The <u>second</u> goal was to more closely examine the relative contribution of various semantic and phonological factors in early character recognition. In the <u>first</u> priming experiment, semantic concreteness, semantic consistency, and other factors were examined, and the <u>second</u> experiment examined a subclass of characters consisting of two semantic components. The <u>third</u> priming experiment examined the effects of phonological regularity and consistency of phonograms (phonetic components) for onsets and rimes, and phonological frequency effects. The <u>final</u> set of experiments tested these various factors with different prime durations, for a more detailed view of the various factors involved, and thus, a partial view of the various factors involved in the time course of character recognition.

4. Reformulation words

Consider the following sample. How well does the underlined item sound – or could this be made more formal?

> This result has implications for expanding the L1 and L2 relationship: L2 can support expanding L1 literacy. <u>It</u> also provides direction for the type of writing instruction that second-language learners, who are considered weak writers, need in order to improve.

Now consider the following options for completing this paragraph[52]. Which sound better?

> In the past, flood impact assessments have focused primarily on the economic losses resulting from a flood. Now, however, emphasis is also being placed on potential environmental benefits.

a. It will result in a more complete picture of the gains of losses from a flood.

b. This will result in a more complete picture of the gains of losses from a flood.

c. This expansion will result in a more complete picture of the gains of losses from a flood.

d. This expansion will result in a more complete picture of the gains of losses from a flood.

e. This expansion of focus will result in a more complete picture of the gains of losses from a flood.

f. This expansion in assessment focus will result in a more complete picture of the gains of losses from a flood.

g. This expansion in assessment with regard to flooding will result in a more complete picture of the gains of losses from a flood.

This is often used as a reformulation marker instead of repeating a noun phrase; in such cases, *this* sounds better in formal English than *it* – as in 'this situation / event / condition / fact'. One may use *this*, or *this* plus a contextually appropriate word (*this situation / difficulty / view / finding / process /* etc.).

What are possible ways of completing these items[53]?

1. Irrigation in sub-Saharan Africa is in most cases performed using a rope and bucket to raise and distribute water from a shallow open well. While _____ has the advantage of being inexpensive, its low capacity and labor-intensive nature is decidedly a disadvantage.

2. Motor vehicle deaths in the U.S. declined from nearly 60,000 in 1966 to just over 40,000 last year, even though Americans drive millions more miles now and millions more vehicles are on the road. The death rate, which was 7.6 deaths per 100 million miles in 1950, declined from 5.5 in 1966 to 1.6 last year. _____ can be attributed to the manufacture of safer vehicles, with features such as airbags and antilock brakes.

3. Haigney concludes from his study that driving performance decreases when drivers use their cell phones. _____ is consistent with recent reviews of the literature on driving distractions.

4. Although it seems that the construction of new roads and widening of existing roads should reduce traffic congestion, recent research has shown that these activities actually lead to increases in traffic. _____ is known as the "induced traffic" effect.

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52 Exercise from Swales & Feak (2004: 37).
53 From Swlaes & Feak (2004:35-36).

5. In 1900 average life expectancy at birth was 47 years for individuals born in developed countries. In 1950 life expectancy was nearly 68. For newborns today life expectancy is about 77 years. , however, does not mean that humans are undergoing some physiological change. Rather, it is the result of advances in medicine and technology.

Finally, here are a few academic writing samples from a native writer.

1. Thus, Chinese character processing might be more computationally costly than for alphabetic glyphs, though this might be offset by the relative efficiency of a logographic system containing phonological and semantic information in a denser, compact character block format. This would be consistent with the finding that the typical perceptual span (meaningful foveal fixation) covers about two characters.

2. However, this lacks specific criteria for classifying transparency. Normed data or statistical survey data would be less subjective. This again treats semantic transparency as a simple unidimensional variable. An index based on a two-dimensional statistical scale would have greater validity, as would a whole set of separate ratings from native speakers for multiple dimensions. This is the case for the standard semantic transparency index for English (Toglia & Battig, 1978), which consists of ratings for seven separate semantic dimensions.

Inversion (Intro)

Which of the underlined sections of the following paragraphs sound better? Do some sound just as good as the others? Why?

1. You're driving along the highway, enjoying the drive. The air feels cool. The sun is warm but not too hot. The road is clear and you can drive as fast as you want. <u>Then another car appears in your rearview mirror</u>, zooming along like a bullet. The maniac comes up from behind and passes you like a rocket.

2. You can drive as fast as you like in the outside lane on a German highway and may feel like the king of the road – until you look in the rear mirror. <u>Zooming in on you like a guided missile comes a rival contender</u>, bullying you to get out of the way.

3. You can drive as fast as you like in the outside lane on a West German highway. But this freedom brings problems of its own. You miss your exit. You lose control on a tiny bump. <u>Zooming in on you like a guided missile comes a rival contender</u>, bullying you to get out of the way.

4. You're driving along the highway, enjoying the drive. The air feels cool. The sun is warm but not too hot. The road is clear and you can drive as fast as you want. <u>Then in your rearview mirror there appears another car</u>, zooming along like a bullet. Like a rocket, the maniac comes up from behind and passes you.

5. You're driving along the highway, enjoying the drive. The air feels cool. The sun is warm but not too hot. The road is clear and you can drive as fast as you want. <u>Then in your rearview mirror appears another car</u>, zooming along like a bullet. Like a rocket, the maniac comes up from behind and passes you.

6 You're driving along the highway, enjoying the drive. But then you notice that your air conditioner doesn't work. The air feels hot and dry, as the hot sun bears down on you. Birds have left deposits on your car hood. Insects are splattering on your windshield like raindrops. <u>Then in your rearview mirror there appears another car</u>. Like a rocket, the maniac comes up from behind and passes you.

Sample #1 contains standard sentences with standard SUBJECT + VERB + PREDICATE word order. Now what is special about the underlined sentences in #2-6? In which cases do sentences with this special kind of word order work well? In which cases do they seem awkward?

The sentences illustrate what we call inversion – placing a prepositional phrase, adverbial phrase, adjectival or participle phrase at the beginning of the sentence, followed by the sentence subject, and then an intransitive verb[54]. If it is a prepositional phrase, it is generally a phrase indicating direction or location, or a time phrase.

Inversion cannot be used to make an abrupt transition to an entirely new subject or item. But as in the above examples, it can help the flow from one sentence to another sentence which introduces something new but related to the preceding context. So in sentences #3 and #6, inversion seems awkward, because the new subject (the zooming car) is not so closely related to the immediate context. In samples #4 and #5, it works well, because it segues or flows from one scene to another different but is a contextually related subject or scene. It makes for a smooth transition in writing and formal speaking between related items.

So inversion is essentially a transitional device. Just like transition words (then, thus, after, etc.) indicate logical relationships between items, inversion can indicate a smooth transition to a new but related item. Compare the sentences with good use of inversion to sentence #1. Notice how much better the inverted sentences sound – they impart a smoother and more logical flow.

Due to its transitional and contextual functions, inversion is commonly used in narrative and descriptive writing. It is also used in academic writing for topic transitionals (see below). Note: Optionally, the subject can be preceded by *there*. There-expressions before a main verb(there is, there appears) is restricted to certain intransitive verbs: (1) verbs of existence, occurrence, and location (*is, exist, stand, seem, tend, happen, occur*), (2) verbs of appearance (*appear, come, arise*), and (3) verbs that indicate a change in state or condition (*die, rise*). Here's a summary of inverted sentence order:

prepositional phrase
adverbial phrase
adjective phrase
participle phrase
} + (*there*) + intransitive verb + subject

Think about how one would use these sentences in context, or what kind of context you might read such sentences.

10. In the corner stood a chicken with a knife, ready to take on the farmer in hand-to-hand combat.

11. Coming up from behind you is a maniac in a chicken suit with a baseball bat.

The first two above might be found in narratives of a strange story (e.g., something similar to *Chicken Run*) or a strange dream.

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54 Intransitive = 자동사.

The following are examples of inversion used for transitional expressions in academic writing. How could you work the following phrases into your writing?

1. Particularly important was ...

2. Much less expected was the finding that ...

3. Rather more significant(ly) was ...

4. Especially noteworthy is the finding that ...

5. Of greater concern / importance is the fact that …

6. More interesting are inverted sentences, like this one.

Inversion (2)

1. Inversion – an academic example

For the first section the following paragraph, discuss the two possible conclusions. Does one sound better, or somehow different, from the other?

> Aging is a process that begins long before retirement. In old age we feel the effects of decades of lifestyle habits. These include healthy living habits as well as experiences in dealing with illness or emotional crises, the ability to resolve conflicts, interests, lucidity and openness towards new things, support offered by family, friends or neighbors, as well as financial savings or housing arrangements. For many of these areas, thinking ahead reduces worries later on[55].

Which ending to the above paragraph sounds better? Or how do these sound different?

1. Social relationships are particularly important, as stable and resilient networks of relationships are elderly people's primary source of practical and emotional support in their daily lives.

2. Particularly important are social relationships, as stable and resilient networks of relationships are elderly people's primary source of practical and emotional support in their daily lives.

Would #2 work as a conclusion to the following paragraph?

3. Aging brings unique challenges and needs. Joints and muscles become sore for no apparent reason. More frequent medical visits and checkups become necessary. Income becomes more limited. Particularly important are social relationships, as stable and resilient networks of relationships are elderly people's primary source of practical and emotional support in their daily lives.

The second option above uses inversion – putting the subject after the verb, and putting another phrase before the verb – an adverb, adjective, participle, or prepositional phrase.

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55 Adapted from http://www.hear-the-world.com/en/experience-hearing.html.

2. More examples

Here are other examples of this structure.

1. You are working on an important research project that you want to finish and get published, as publishing it will likely land you the job that you want. <u>But along comes</u> a rival contender with similar research, threatening to "scoop" you[56].

2. You plan to present some great research findings at a major conference. <u>But lurking at the conference</u> is a rival contender, planning to present similar research, threatening to "scoop" you.

3. Particularly important was the finding that the treatment had no effect at higher doses.

4. Much less expected was the finding that subjects not remember seeing even the stimulus presented at the longest duration.

5. Rather more significant was the interaction effects between the two variables.

6. Especially noteworthy is the finding that patients recovered 20% more quickly in the treatment condition.

7. Of greater concern / importance is the fact that the treatment had adverse effects on patients' moods.

8. More interesting are inverted sentences, like this one.

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56 Scoop: To get an exclusive on a story, to publish something first, to beat others in publishing something new (journalism / newspaper slang).

Information flow in writing

Good writing flow involves managing the flow of old and new information, and conveying nuances of emphasis and contrast. New information is often highlighted or made prominent, clear, and noticeable by putting it at or toward the end of a clause, especially of a main clause (in the verb phrase – the main verb or its object or predicate complement):

> I hate having to go to the immigration office.

This is the standard, default method in English. Other means of highlighting new information include:

1. *There*

There at the beginning of a sentence serves to introduce a new topic or item to the discourse. There is followed by a be-verb or other intransitive verb conveying existence, location, change of state, etc., and then the subject. The structure works better if the subject is followed by a prepositional or adverbial phrase, since it serves to present new topics locationally. It should be used sparingly in academic writing; since it presents new topics, which new paragraphs typically indicate, its overuse can lead to a more abrupt flow or less than formal style. Combined with inversion, however, it is smoother and more appropriate in narrative and descriptive writing.

> Hey, there's a unicorn in my garden!
> There stood an angry chicken with a knife.

2. Subordination

Complex ideas are often unfolded in complex sentences, i.e., sentences consisting of independent (main) and dependent (subordinate and relative) clauses. Not only are the transitional words (conjunctions or conjunctive adverbs) important for linking ideas, but also the flow of complex sentences. Compare the flow in the following examples of simple versus complex sentences.

> The structure works better if the subject is followed by a prepositional or adverbial phrase. This is because it serves to present new topics locationally.   [more   colloquial style]

> The structure works better if the subject is followed by a prepositional or adverbial phrase, since it serves to present new topics locationally.   [more formal style, smoother flow]

However, at times one needs to de-emphasize new information that is not the main point of one's argument; or mention or re-mention information that is less important or old but needs to be stated to build up to the next point. The following techniques or

structures are often used:

3. Inversion

Inversion is placement of an adjective phrase, adverbial phrase, participial phrase, or prepositional phrase at the front of the sentence, followed by the main verb (usually an intransivitive verb conveying existence, location, change of state, etc.), and then the subject.

1. <u>In the corne</u>r stood a chicken with an axe.

2. Scientists in the US find it increasingly difficult to win the minds of the general public. <u>Particularly important in this endeavor</u> <u>is the the need</u> for greater transparency in light of recent scandals.

3. The main results concurred with our hypothesis. <u>Much less expected</u>, however, <u>was the finding</u> that...

4. The recent Stanford scandal has eroded public trust of scientists. <u>More significant</u> <u>are the implications</u> for public trust of evolutionary scientists...

5. The first experiment in fact confirmed the first hypothesis. <u>Especially noteworthy</u> <u>were the results </u> of the follow-up experiment...

6. A main effect for the two independent variables was found. <u>Of greater concern / importance</u> <u>were the interaction</u> between SES and the main variables of interest...

4. Backgrounding by subordination

 Less important information can be de-emphasized by placing it in a subordinate (dependent) clause, especially before the main clause, or in a relative clause or participial phrase.

> There's violence, lots of noise, and assorted ickiness in "Attack of the Clones," <u>including</u> some nasty-looking space caterpillars. But it shouldn't trouble anyone. Wisest move: Jar Jar Binks, <u>who has yet to be strangled</u>, is only around for a couple of minutes.[57]

Nuances of emphasis can be achieved in certain ways:

5. Sentence length

A short sentence after a long sentence or a string of longer sentences can serve to emphasize its content more. Compare the two following examples, where the underlined phrases are the same in meaning but take on a greater emphasis in the second version.

> For a long time, <u>but not any more</u>, Japanese corporations used Southeast Asia merely as a cheap source of raw materials, as a place to dump outdated equipment and overstocked merchandise, and as a training ground for junior executives who needed minor league experience.

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57 From www.cnn.com/2002/SHOWBIZ/Movies/05/15/ca. s02.review.tatara.star.wars/index.html (on various web sites, some Star Wars fans critical of the annoying character have advocated strangling or killing Jar Jar).

For a long time Japanese corporations used Southeast Asia merely as a cheap source of raw materials, as a place to dump outdated equipment and overstocked merchandise, and as a training ground for junior executives who needed minor league experience. <u>But those days have ended</u>.[58]

6. Emphatic words

Certain types of transitionals and adverbs (technically known as focus markers) indicate a special emphasis or contrast on the words that they modify. Some of them may modify an entire verb phrase or sentence.

<u>Even</u> if you killed Jar Jar, he may <u>still</u> come back as a ghost.

<u>Only</u> you can prevent purple singing dinosaurs like Barney from annoying your children.

Linguists refer to such emphatic words as focus markers, e.g.:

also, as for, as to, as well, each, either, else, even, in addition, likewise, similarly, too, (one's) one, exactly, precisely, each, respectively, no, not, only, merely, solely, purely, alone, exclusively, simply, like

7. De-emphasizing transitionals

Some transitionals come naturally at the very beginning of a sentence. However, frequent use of such words can lead to a more abrupt flow between sentences. This can be lessened by placing some transitional words after the subject or first item, in second position, for a smoother flow. (Not all transitionals, especially pure conjunctions, allow this, but adverbs and conjunctive adverbs more often allow it.)

The attacker <u>then</u> proceeded to strangle Mr. Binks.

The second movie, <u>however</u>, only features the annoying character for two minutes.

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58   From http://owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/general/gl_emphasis.html.

Reporting & communication verbs errors

Reporting verbs, and more generally, verbs of communication include words like *state, claim, say, maintain, observe* and many others. The following are sentences from Korean writers, and are typical of the issues that some have with the grammatical forms for English verbs of communication, and related issues.

1. In addition to language teachers, the writer <u>mentioned about</u> L2 learners' attitude toward learning rhetorical pattern of English.

2. To be thorough, other researchers <u>addressed that</u> bilingual children use different reading strategies from monolingual children.

3. In this first research <u>dealt what kind of</u> factors are sufficient things for bilingual education and <u>how is</u> different of the preschooler's characters to make good effect in bilingual education. And this study <u>transported</u> the relation of Korean and English ability to <u>find out</u> the specific factor in bilingual education. The experimental methods <u>are dealt with</u> the character of preschoolers, parents' character including the background of age, educational degree and recognition of English.

4. An article by Kormos & Csizer (2008) is <u>the study about</u> age-related differences in the motivation of learning English as a foreign language in three distinct learner populations in Hungary.

5. Ellis (2008) <u>examined that</u> corrective feedback is effective in EFL context. He investigated that participants gain accuracy in the use of the English indefinite and definite articles through written focused and unfocused CF.

6. Kobayashi, and Rennet (1996) <u>researched about</u> the factors which give effects on the evaluation of L2 composition.

7. Consequently, the hypothesis, <u>it effects that</u> practice leads to highly specific skills in the second language and the important issues relating to the role of planning in task-based performance.

8. The results from the study <u>presents that</u> learners' fluency based on their language production increased as measured by temporal variables.

9. Another study <u>agreed when</u> learners read certain reading text, incidental vocabulary acquisition occurs.

10. The research <u>supports that</u> bilingual literacy programs should take into account more variables such as motivation.

Introduction to reporting verbs

These verbs are used when citing ideas or information from other writers – for reporting, commenting on, or critiquing such information.

"The author _____ that immigration is out of control."

(stated / noted / observed / etc.)

When you use these verbs you are indicating something about the author's statement that follows the verb. Note: some verb (indicated with an asterisk (*), can not be used without making other changes to the sentence.

Non-Evaluative: You are not evaluating the author's statement.

- *state*: you are not making a comment on the author's statement.
- *report*: you are not making a comment on the author's statement.

Evaluation: The verb communicates your evaluation of the writer's statement.

- *claim*: you are saying this is what the author says is true, but imply you might not agree.
- *allege*: you are saying this is what the author says is true, but s/he offers little or no proof.
- *assert*: you are saying this is what the author says, but imply you might not agree.
- *propose*: you are saying that this is what the author says, but you are not convinced.
- *think*: you are saying that this is the opinion of the author, but you do not share this opinion.
- *believe*: you are saying that this is what the author thinks is true, but you are not as certain.

Evaluation and importance: The verb tells the reader the importance the writer gives to the statement in his/her writing.

- *stress or emphasize:* you are saying the author gives a sense of importance to this idea in his/her writing.
- *point out:* you are saying that the author gives some importance to this idea or fact(s) in his/her writing.
- *mention:* you are saying that the author makes this statement, but that it is not an important part of his/her main idea.

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Evaluative and writer's purpose: The verb tells the reader about the writer's purpose with regard to the statement.

- **explain**: you are saying that the author is making this statement clear through his/her writing.
- **describe**: you are saying that the author is giving a picture with his/her words of the statement.
- **argue**: you are saying that the author presents reasons for his/her statement, but you may disagree.
- **illustrate, show**: you are saying that the author shows facts or reasons for his/her statement.
- **reveal**: you are saying that the author shows facts or reasons for his/her statement that were perhaps unknown before.
- **present***: you are saying that the author shows facts or reasons for his/her statement.
- **indicate**: you are saying that the author gives reasons or facts for his or her statement, but this may not be the author's primary purpose.

Evaluation – writer's intent: The verb indicates that this is your understanding of what the writer means, although he/she does not directly say this.

- **suggest**: you are saying that the author wants his/her readers to consider the possibility of this statement being true.
- **imply**: you are saying that the author did not make this statement, but what he/she has written gives you this idea.

Evaluative – writer's doubt: The verb indicates the writer's uncertainty regarding the statement.

- **question**: you are saying that the author is not sure he agrees with this statement.
- **doubt**: you are saying that the author is not sure he agrees with this statement.

Evaluative – writer's disagreement: The verb indicates that the writer disagrees with the statement.

- **disagree[59]**: you are saying that the author does not agree with this statement.
- **dispute**: you are saying that the author does not agree with this statement.
- **contradict**: you are saying the author disagrees with the statement.
- **refute**: you are saying the author proves this statement is inaccurate.
- **denies**: you are saying that the author believes this statement is incorrect.

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59 Other changes in the sentence are needed for using such verbs, especially those indicated with asterisks; e.g., some verbs need to be followed by prepositions (disagree with), direct objects (presented X), how-clauses (showed how to), or the conjunction that (suggest that, show that). For more on the grammatical patterns of such verbs, see the longer reporting verb handout at http://www.bit.ly/kentlee7 > 'Writing aids'.

Reporting & communication verbs: Grammar & usage

Second language learners of English often have difficulty with reporting verbs and verbs of communication, in terms of using those with appropriate meanings, as well as the kinds of grammatical structures that they occur in. These are the more common verbs of reporting or communication in English writing (but this is not intended as a complete list).

1. Verb + *that* (complement clause)

add	comment	explain	observe	reveal
acknowledge	complain	fear	persuade	say
admit	conclude	feel	point out	show
agree	confirm	find	promise	state
allege	consider	guarantee	propose	stress
announce	decide	hope	prove	swear
answer	demonstrate	imply	recognize	suggest
argue	deny	indicate	recommend	suppose
assert	disagree	insist	remark	tell
assume	doubt	insist	remember	threaten
believe	emphasize	mean	repeat	think
boast	estimate	mention	reply	understand
claim	expect	note	report	warn

Sometimes the complement clause marker *that* is omitted, especially in more informal writing, or when the complement clause is short. The verbs *stress* or *emphasize* are not used like *describe* or *mention*, but are used to actually put emphasis on an important point. The verb *mention* (with *that* or with an embedded question, below) is not used like *describe*, but for referring to or briefly explaining a minor point.

> We assumed that the replication experiment would yield similar results.
> We believe (that) similar results would follow. The previous study only mentions a few ideas for …, but does not develop these in any detail.

2. Verb + object / gerund

acknowledge	describe	forget	present	reveal
admit	demand	imply	promise	state
address	deny	indicate	propose	suggest
advise	determine	investigate	question	summarize
argue	doubt	mention	recognize	support
ascertain	emphasize	note	recommend	tell
assert	establish	observe	refute	
claim	examine	point out	request	
contradict	find	prefer	research	

Note: *find out* is colloquial; in formal English, *ascertain, find, determine* are better. The verb *support* needs an object, and cannot take a complement clause (e.g, "...the findings support that the drug can contribute toward liver damage" is ungrammatical).

> Our study examined the effects of cell phone use and nighttime driving concentration.
>
> They proposed doing away with the current speed limits.
>
> We recommend increasing the required number of days in school.
>
> The findings supported the claim that excessive consumption of the drug could lead to liver damage. [Here, *that...* is a relative clause modifying 'consumption', not a complement clause.]

3. Verb + object + *that* (complement clause)

inform	promise	tell

These verbs need a direct object, and are not grammatical with just a *that*-clause

> We informed them that the procedure would be risky.

4. Verb + infinitive

agree	expect	hope	promise	refuse
decide	forget	offer	propose	threaten

> They agreed to stop exporting toys made with cadmium in any part of the manufacturing process.

5. Verb + object + infinitive

advise	command	forbid	persuade	tell
ask	encourage	instruct	remind	warn
beg	expect	invite	teach	

> We persuaded the committee to grant an extension.

6. Verb + preposition + object / gerund

apologize for	complain about	insist on	speak about / on...
comment on / about	disagree with	refer to	warn about

The verb *speak* can take the prepositions *of, about, on, to, regarding, for,* and others. The verb *mention* takes a direct object, (not ☹*mention about* ☹).

> The speaker commented at length on the negative influence of excessive corporate funding.

7. Verb + object + preposition + object / gerund

accuse + of	blame + for	define + as	tell + about / of...
argue for	congratulate + on/for	inform + of	warn + about

> They defined language anxiety as a complex set of perceptions, beliefs and behaviors in the language classroom.

8. Verb + *if / whether* clause

ask	know	remember	say	see
doubt	question			

Note that *whether or not* is colloquial; for formal writing, simply *whether* will suffice.

> We question whether the government's commitment to funding science education is sincere.

9. Verb + embedded question

decide	explain	know	reveal	teach
describe	forget	learn	say	tell
discover	guess	question	see	think
discuss	illustrate	realize	show	understand
doubt	imagine	remember	suggest	wonder

An embedded question is a phrase beginning with *what, when, where,* etc., that is part of a more complex sentence (much like verbs plus *if/whether* phrases or verbs plus *that* complement clauses above). Many other verbs (besides those listed directly above) that can take direct objects or *that*-clause can also take embedded questions as objects.

> The study described how African-American children in the Appalachians view reading and stories differently than White children.
> We didn't realize how often that happens.
> She suggested how we might accomplish that.

10. Verb + *(that)* + subjunctive verb or *that...should*

advise	demand	order	recommend	suggest
beg	insist	prefer	request	
command	instruct	propose	rule	

These verbs take an older verb form known as subjunctive (for contrary-to-fact and other such situations). These look different from other verbs in the third person singular, where the verb has no *-s* ending like other verbs. This is older and more former style, and increasingly in contemporary English this is being replaced with *should*.

> The arbiter recommended that the company pay $100 million in restitution / that the company should pay $100 million in restitution.
> The judge ruled that bail be lowered / that bail should be lowered.

11. Say, speak, tell

Second language learners often have difficulty with the verbs *say, speak, tell*. Functionally, *say* and *tell* are true reporting verbs – "X said such-and-such," "X told her such-and-such," with direct or indirect quotations, while *speak* is not so much a reporting verb for quotations, but simply a verb of uttering (speaking words or sentences). The verbs *say* and *speak* can take direct objects, or with a preposition like *to* ("don't speak to me," "say it to him"), while *tell* can take an indirect object, with the sense of conveying information rather than just vocally articulating ("tell me what it is").

verb	definition	type of direct object	examples
say	to utter words; to express in words, state, indicate	words, a statement / utterance, a whole text or discourse; indirect discourse or that-clause	say a few words, say what's on your mind, say something, say that you'll go, my watch says [indiates] (that) it's time to go, say "cheese"
speak	to utter words, to articulate sounds	words, a statement, an utterance, a language	speak a language, speak German, speak nonsense, speak to someone (about...)
tell	to give an account, relate, inform, announce, reveal	a story, a narrative, a statement, a piece of information also: *tell* + Indirect Object	tell me your name, tell a story, tell me what you said, tell me the truth

12. Blame, criticize

Koreans also confuse *blame* and *criticize,* using the word *blame* when *criticize* would be more suitable, as *criticize* is more general in meaning. Here are their dictionary definition:

> blame: hold someone responsible; find fault with someone; assigning fault for a specific action, behavior, error or failure;

> criticize: to find fault with someone, judge negatively, negatively evaluate, censure

Thus, *criticize* is more like pointing out faults (including general faults or failures) or negatively judging someone, while *blame* has more to to with assigning fault, cause, or liability for a specific error.

Cohesive devices

Cohesion refers to the logical connection between words, such that the reader can readily connect the use of a noun with previous mentions of the word or concept, or related words that were used before.

Some grammar forms and words serve to create topic continuity and flow, with continued references to a person, thing, or idea in the discourse. The referent (the thing, person, or concept referred to) is mentioned with different types of words to avoid redundancy, and yet to maintain coherence (logical flow) and cohesion (flow and connectedness, grammatically and in terms of the flow of referents talked about). How often these cohesive devices are used may depend on the type of writing. Some kinds of technical writing are rather dense, so key words may be repeated, or synonyms used, rather than pronouns, to avoid confusion when the reader has to juggle a number of different terms at the same time in his/her working memory.

1. Definite and indefinite articles

Definite and indefinite articles (*a, the*) help maintain cohesion. The article *a/an* often signals that an item is new from the writer's frame of reference, or is somehow unique or different. The article *the* often signals that an item was mentioned before; or that its identity can be easily inferred from the context. Articles are complicated and involve some abstract linguistic concepts, so they are not addressed here in detail.

> Open your computer chasis, and then locate <u>the</u> motherboard. On the motherboard, you'll see the familiar RAM slots, and on some boards, <u>a</u> small slot for input from the DVD to the sound chipset.

In the above passage, 'the motherboard' refers to an item that is easily recognized because anyone familiar with computers would know it, while 'a small slot' is assumed to be something less familiar, and thus marked as a new concept for the reader.

2. Relative clauses

2.1. Identifying (restrictive) relative clauses

Most relative clauses are of this type. The relative clause (RC) identifies or specifies which item is discussed (e.g., not any X but the X that we saw yesterday). (In logic terms, it restricts the set of possible X's to one particular X, hence the unusual term, 'restrictive clause'). This kind of RC only requires a comma if the relative pronoun is separated from the modified noun by other words (2), or in complex possessive relative clause constructions.

[a] We will hear a talk by the man who invented the warp drive engine.

[b] We will listen to the engineer tonight, who is the inventor of the warp drive engine.

[c] The warp drive engine, whose fields were causing environmental damage, will be

taken offline for repair.

2.2. Non-identifying (non-restrictive) relative clauses

These simply add further descriptive information about the modified noun – most commonly, a proper noun or specific, known item. It is always separated by commas from the rest of the sentence in writing (by a voice pause / break in speaking). This is equivalent to a grammatical appositive (like the second sentence), which simply adds further descriptive information, not information to identify it or distinguish it from other entities.

[a] Prof. Schmidt, who happens to be a world-famous expert on trans-uranium metals, will be speaking tonight at the conference.

[b] Prof. Schmidt, a world-famous expert on trans-uranium metals, will be speaking tonight at the conference.

3. Descriptive phrases using *with*

East Asian students often use relative clauses with *have* as the main verb for simple descriptive phrases, when one normally would use a simple prepositional phrase using *with*. The full relative clause would be used in situations where the writer wants to emphasize possessing something or having a property, rather than a simple description. Otherwise, such expressions sound weak, and can be replaced with *with* or a stronger verb.

[1] We identified patients who had mild symptoms of hyptertension

→ patients with mild symptoms of hypertension

[2] East Asian students often use relative clauses that have "have" as the main verb → relative clauses with "have" as the main verb

[3] We identified students who had an intrinsic interest in language learning

→ students with an intrinsic interest

→ students who showed an intrinsic interest

→ students exhibiting an intrinsic interest

4. Punctuation: Colons and semicolons

Semicolons join two independent sentences or main clauses. They are like a period or full stop, but by conjoining two main clauses, a relationship between the two clauses is implied.

These are used less in colloquial English for emphasis or making a contrast; these are more common in academic writing.

They are also used for separating longer or more complex items in a list.

Several proposed solutions to spiraling costs from medical malpractice lawsuits can be considered, such as enacting tort reforms to limit the size of awards in malpractice cases; making it easier to strip incompetent doctors of medical licenses; enacting legal limits on the kinds of lawsuits possible; and forcibly deporting some of the excessive numbers of tort lawyers from the U.S. to a deserted country.

Colons are similar, but they imply a closer relationship between the main clause and what follows. Colons draw the reader's attention or anticipation to what follows, and are often

used to begin a list or enumeration of items.

> Four languages are spoken in Switzerland: Swiss German in the majority of cantons; French in the western areas; Italian in some southern and southeastern areas; and Rhaeto-Romanish in the St. Gallen area.

5. Keyword Repetition

A word which the discussion is focused on is repeated. This is more common in the following situations: (1) multiple possible referents or items are discussed, especially in more technical writing, and (2) repetition for rhetorical effect, especially in less formal writing or speaking.

> Participants in the study were allowed a choice of several options: a direct rebate of 10%, a significant discount on a purchase of an extended warranty, or a coupon for 20% on a future purchase. Overwhelmingly, subjects chose the 10% rebate option.

> Many cities are overcrowded. This city is overcrowded. This city lacks resources. But now there is help for this city.

5.1. Synonyms

The meaning of a good synonym is close enough so that the thought continues, but is different enough so that the idea expands and gains greater definition than it would by simply repeating the same word over (and this avoids redundancy and boring repetition).

> This new engine is fast and powerful, but requires more toxic fuels. This leads to concerns about its usability, maintenance of the apparatus, and whether a vehicle with such a device be legal?

> The herd migrated to the steppes, and then traveled to the tundra. It was quite a trek.

5.2. Pronouns and possessive pronouns

In sentences like these,

> We have plums on the table. Eat all you like, but check them for ripeness or bruises first.

> We had two Great Danes, a male and a female, and their size often intimidated visitors.

5.3. Demonstrative pronouns and adjectives

Demonstrative pronouns and adjectives include *this, that, these, those* (pronouns if used alone, as in "this is it" and adjectives if used to modify a noun, as in "this car is fast). These are useful for flow, direction and emphasis. Sometimes for clarity, a demonstrative adj. can be used instead of a pronoun (e.g., "this proposal is not ideal" rather than "this is not ideal").

> Some people suggest giving up sugar in coffee. This idea, however, is ridiculous.

> Yes, Gators are our best selling shoes. That brand, however, is sold out right now.

In formal and academic writing, *this* as a pronoun often refers back to a whole idea discussed previously. East Asian writers tend to use *it* when *this* would be better, clearer and more cohesive.

> Many universities now focus on their status in international rankings, and may thus turn to short-term means of boosting their rankings, such as pushing for more courses taught in English, to the detriment of meaningful teaching and learning. This [*or* this situation, this circumstance] ultimately does not serve the students or faculty, for whose sake the university should be run.

A general astronomy conference voted to demote Pluto to a planetoid from its previous status as a regular planet, as many general astronomers argued strongly for a particular criterion for defining a planet that would exclude Pluto (a vague criterion that a true planet "clears its own orbit" or is not influenced by another planet's orbit). <u>This</u> [*or* this conclusion / decision / criterion], however, is strongly rejected by many planetary astronomers, who still argue strongly that Pluto is a true planet.

How each feature factors in individually has been examined, but few studies have examined their combined effects. ~~The~~ This lack of research provides the basis for the current study.

Clearer wording in academic writing

The following are a few tips for academic writing, especially common mistakes that result from differences in the structure between academic English and that of other languages.

1. Verbs

1.1. Replace light verbs

Light verbs are general use verbs with many meanings. Their meanings are more general and less precise, and depend very much on the context. They are very common in colloquial speech because of their flexibility in informal communication. For academic writing, however, they are less precise and can often be deleted or replaced with more specific terms.

	☞
be	exist, occur, equal, consist of, comprise (of), typify, appear, seem, tend...
have	possess, contain, exhibit, with*...
give	provide, yield, produce, lead to, impart...
do	perform, execute, carry out, implement, manage...
make	create, produce, facilitate...
go, run, come	proceed, journey, travel, progress, exceed...
set, put	place, position, arrange...

Some Korean light verbs include 하다, 이다, 있다, -나다 (e.g., 화니다), 내다, 되다, -지다 (become), 오다, 가다, 주다. Some of these do not translate well into Korean (especially 있다, -나다), so it is best to avoid trying to render these in English, which can lead to overuse of *be, have, there is/are*. Instead, use more specific expressions.

*The verb *have* in descriptive phrases can often be replaced with the preposition with or other descriptive phrases:

> He passed the package to the man who had three eyes. →
> He passed the package to the man with three eyes. / to the three-eyed man.

1.2. Phrasal verbs

When possible, phrasal verbs should be replaced with more formal Latinate verbs. For example, many ESL students use *find out* when a better expression for formal writing would be *discover, determine, ascertain*.

phrasal verb	slightly formal or more formal
go out	exit, diminish, leave, depart, extinguish, cease, die, dim, expire, subside, decline, dwindle, recede, quit, retire, withdraw
go around	circumvent, circumnavigate, sidestep, ignore, rotate, gyrate, orbit, circumduct, twist, revolve, meander, ramble

1.3. Reporting & communication verbs

Certain verbs of reporting and communication are misused by Asian ESL writers.

Mention does not mean 'discuss' or 'describe' but to briefly refer to something, e.g., a minor point. *Mention* and *discuss* take direct objects (not *mention about, discuss about*).

His study only mentions a few ideas for connecting the concepts together, but does not develop these ideas in any detail.

Find out is colloquial; in formal English, *ascertain, find, determine* are better.

Recommend can take a simple noun phrase as an object, a gerund phrase, or a *that*-clause (specifically, a contrary-to-fact *that*-clause)[60].

☹ We recommend they increase required number of days in school.

✓ We recommend that they increase the required number of days in school.

✓ We recommend increasing the required number of days in school.

Support does not take a *that*-clause (complement clause) but a noun phrase as an object.

☹ The findings supported that consumption of the drug could lead to liver damage.

✓ The findings support <u>the claim</u> / <u>the view</u> / <u>the hypothesis that</u> consumption of the drug could lead to liver damage.

Stress or **emphasize** are not used like 'describe' or 'mention', but are used to actually put emphasis on an important point.

Blame cf. criticize. Koreans also confuse these two words, using *blame* when *criticize* would be more suitable. To *criticize* is more general in meaning, as it refers to pointing out faults (including general faults or failures), negatively evaluating, or negatively judging someone, while *blame* refers to with assigning specific fault, cause, or liability for a particular problem or mistake, i.e., 'blaming someone for something.'

1.4. Check for awkward and incorrectly used passive verbs.

Many English intransitive verbs indicate a change of state in the subject; that is, the subject undergoes the change. The transitive form of the verb indicates an agent acting upon an object to bring about the change (a good example is the verb *change*). For simply describing the subject undergoing a change of state, it is better to use the regular intransitive active,

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60 Notice that when the main verb is a verb of ordering, suggesting and similar verbs, then the verb in the following dependent clause is not a regular verb, but a special verb form known as a subjunctive – similar to a conditional – which makes a difference with the verb for a 3rd person singular subject; one can use *should* + Verb, or the older subjunctive verb without *-s* / *is* for 3rd person.

• The judge ordered that bail be lowered / that bail should be lowered.

• The school ordered / suggested / demanded that he stop the experiment / that he should stop the experiment immediately.

rather than the passive of the transitive verb. The passive would be better used only if the agent (person or thing causing the change) has been mentioned, is somehow significant, or is to be inferred from the context.

> ☹The monitor was suddenly changed. [sounds strange as a sentence]
>
> ?The monitor was suddenly changed into a screen full of "illegal operation" messages.
>
> –The monitor suddenly changed.
>
> →The monitor suddenly changed into a screen full of "illegal operation" messages.
>
> –The monitor was suddenly changed into a screen full of "illegal operation" messages
>> (i.e., by the evil operating system).

Many intransitive verbs, such as those denoting change of state and existence, do not have transitive counterparts and so they cannot be used in the passive, e.g., ☹ *it is existed, it is consisted of.*

This is a common problem for Korean (and Japanese and Chinese) writers. They incorrectly use some passive verbs, namely, [1] verbs indicating a state or change of state, which are intransitive [자동사, 自動詞] and cannot be made passive; and [2] some verbs that can be either intransitive or transitive [타동사, 他動詞], whose passive use sounds awkward in some contexts.

verb type	verbs	notes
existence or state [intrans.]	be, exist, happen, appear, tend, occur, seem, remain, consist of	Indicates presence, existence, stat, or status of items There exist only a few fundamental particles in the universe, from which all atomic particles are built.
change of state or appearance [intrans.]	go, come, die, arise, appear, disappear, vanish, arise	Indicates change in position or state of an item, or appearance of an item upon the scene or to the discourse – the sentence subject undergoes a change by itself (no outside agent is specified or relevant) There arose such a clamor in the room that I woke up.
change of state or appearance [intrans. & trans.]	break, change, increase, decrease, grow	1) [intrans.] The subject undergoes a change by itself. The caterpillar changed into a beautiful butterfly. 2) [trans.] The subject undergoes a change due to a force or agent acting on it. The oil filter was changed by a rather slow mechanic.

Some English intransitive verbs indicate a change of state in the subject; that is, the subject undergoes the change. The transitive form of the verb indicates an agent (e.g., a person, other agent, or force) acting upon an object to bring about the change; a good example is the verb change. For simply describing the subject undergoing a change of state, it is better to use the regular intransitive active, rather than the passive of the transitive verb. The passive would be better used only if the agent (person or thing causing the change) has been mentioned, is somehow significant, or is to be inferred from the context.

> ☹ The monitor was suddenly changed. [This sounds strange as a sentence, as if some magical force changed it.]

? The monitor was suddenly changed into a screen full of "illegal operation" messages.

✓The monitor suddenly changed.

✓The monitor suddenly changed into a screen full of "illegal operation" messages.

✓The monitor was suddenly changed into a screen full of "illegal operation" messages by the evil operating system. [This makes sense because there is a logical force or agent causing it.]

1.5. Experiencer / Stimulus verbs

For verbs of emotion, states, and mental states, one needs to distinguish [1] the present participle and other adjectives – indicating the source, cause or stimulus of the condition – from [2] the past participle, indicating the experiencer – describing the feeling or state that one experiences.

Experiencer: bored, interested, excited, scared, afraid, pleased, amused, disgusted

Source: boring, interesting, exciting, scary, pleasing, pleasant, amusing, disgusting

2. Nouns and pronouns

The following nouns are often misused by East Asian writers.

chapter (cf. section)

part → section, aspect, sector, etc.

thesis, dissertation, article

2.1. Replace other "light" words

	☞
thing	object, device, item, situation, circumstance, subject, element
person, people, someone, man	individual, Canadians, researchers, subjects, voters, males, participants
good	sufficient, excellent, optimal, ideal, studious, prime

Substituting *human* or *human being* as a noun for *person/people* generally sounds unnatural outside of an appropriate scientific context.

When possible, more colloquial sounding indefinite pronouns and similar expressions can be avoided: *someone, something, somewhere, anyone, anything, anywhere, everyone, everything, everywhere.*

We sought ~~someone who~~ could... → those who, some subjects who, ...

2.2. Check for problems with count nouns vs. non-count (mass) noun[61].

Note the following properties of these types of nouns:

• Mass nouns essentially denote names of substances, materials, and other non-concrete items (e.g., water, jello, love, existentialism).

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61 In Asian languages, count nouns are often marked with measure words:
Korean: a. 이번 역은 소울역입니다.   "This station is Seoul Station."
              b. 바카스 한병 주세요.   "Please give me one (bottle of) Bachus."
Chinese: c. Wǒ yào yì-ge diànniǎo.   "I would like a computer."

- Count nouns essentially denote objects, things, and other concrete or quantifiable items (countable items, e.g., water droplet, container, computer).
- Sometimes a particular item may be treated as a mass noun by default in one language and as a count noun in another. For example, the following nouns are most often treated as mass nouns in English, especially in American English, unlike their count noun equivalents in many other languages: *information, homework, research, evidence, advice.*
- Singular count nouns must always occur with an article or quantifier (determiner) word – e.g., *the, a, each, this, that, my, your, any, no.*
- Often mass nouns and count nouns change from one category to another with a change in meaning. Some mass nouns can be changed to count nouns by using a measure phrase (*a piece of…, a cup of…*), a determiner, or a compound; otherwise, a synonym must be used for a count meaning instead.
- To use a count noun with a mass, general, or indefinite meaning, it is most common to use it in the plural; i.e., not referring to any specific item, but in general.

MASS → COUNT	= an instance of X, a specific type of X
(some) yoghurt → a / a cup of yoghurt jello, water	Please give me a yoghurt.　(= a container of yoghurt) Please give me a cup of yoghurt. A jello that I like　(= a particular type of jello) The waters of Finland (= various bodies of water, i.e., lakes)
count → mass	= all X, or X's generally speaking; no particular X in mind, but any X, any kind of X, or all X's
penguin → penguins	Penguins do not eat ice cream.　(general statement about all penguins)

The following nouns are usually singular (non-count or more abstract nouns), not usually plural.

> equipment, faculty, furniture, homework, literature, research, staff, vocabulary

However, *data* is usually plural in academic English, while it is treated as a singular noun in informal English, e.g., "the data were conclusive."

To express a specific item, type, or instance of a mass noun, one can use a measure word phrase, a compound, or a synonym.

> information → piece of information
> homework → homework assignment, assignment
> research → research project, piece of research, study

To express a specific item, type, or instance of a mass noun, one can use a measure word phrase, a compound, or a synonym.

> (some) coffee; please give me a coffee (i.e., one cup).

For countable nouns, a more general meaning comes from using in the plural, especially without *the* for a more abstract sense, when talking about X as a category, or about X's in general.

Children should not drink coffee.

Penguins regurgitate food for their young. [Penguins = plural generic count noun; food = mass noun]

Many nouns can have countable or mass meanings; they can become more specific (identifiable) and countable when referring to a specific quantity, container, or type of something.

I like to drink coffee. cf.: Give me a coffee / two coffees. Give me the coffee.

We like the atmosphere here. cf.: We compared the atmospheres of Earth and Mars.

Some nouns are more generic, for example, when talking about all members of the class (plural count nouns with no article). There is a singular generic form, when giving definitions, or when discussing a hypothetical or non-specific, non-identifiable item.

Penguins regurgitate food for their young. [generic plural]

I want a man who knows what love is. [hypothetical]

Helium is a gas with the atomic number of 2. [helium = mass noun; a gas = definitional]

A penguin is a flightless seabird. [a penguin, a bird = definitional]

2.3. More complex noun phrases

Second language writers tend to use simple noun phrases, which sound less sophisticated. Note the difference between the <a> and <b> versions of these sentences.

1a. We investigated patients in Sri Lanka who had symptoms of Hansen's disease.

1b. We investigated patients in Sri Lanka with symptoms of Hansen's disease.

2a. We found evidence that teachers who came from a middle-class background treated children differently according to whether they spoke in standard English or a dialect.

2b. We found evidence that mothers from a middle-class background treated children differently according to their use of standard English or a dialect.

3a. This is reflected in how residents admired their congressman because of how he brought home government projects that benefited his home district.

3b. This is reflected in residents' admiration of their congressman for his success in bringing government projects to his home district.

More complex noun phrases are preferred, such as the following structures.

Premodifier + noun	
attributive adjective (before noun)	these more *provocative* aspects [cf. predicate adjective: these aspects are more provocative
adverb + adjective	these *more interesting* aspects
present participle	the grow*ing* problem of meth abuse
past participle	the last *completed* study
compound nouns	an *epidemiology study* in Haiti [cf. a study of epidemiology in Haiti]

Postmodifier + noun	
relative clause	the patients who reported no previous symptoms
prepositional phrase	the solution *to the problem of lactose intolerance* the growing problem of methamphetamine abuse by unemployed users
present participle phrase	an instrument consisting of an infrared camera and a headpiece was used
past participle phrase	an instrument consisting of an infrared camera aimed at the pupils and infrared cameras mounted on the monitor was used
adverb phrase	the patients outside the target group
adjective phrase	the varieties of the plant common in India

For example:

> Unlike the classical genetic tests that look for rare genetic abnormalities (such as Huntington's disease), genetic tests sold directly to consumers cannot diagnose a disease. They merely provide information about DNA sequence variations, or single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs). Certain SNPs can be found more often among individuals with a particular disease or condition. For example, one particular combination of two SNPs in the APOE gene occurs 3 to 20 times more frequently in individuals with Alzheimer's. Consequently, a person with this particular combination of SNPs could be at a greater risk to develop Alzheimer's; the mere presence of these SNPs is not diagnostic. (*Science*, 330, 17 Dec. 2010, p. 1626)

3. Collocations

Collocations are typical word combinations – words that usually go together in normal use – such as the following.

Verb + Noun	inflict a wound, withdraw an offer , make a lot of money, make a lot of friends, ease tension, override a veto
Adjective + Noun	a crushing defeat, a rough estimate
Noun + Verb	a bee buzzes, a bomb explodes
Noun 1 + Noun 2	a flock of sheep, a pack of dogs
Adverb + Adjective	deeply absorbed, closely acquainted, hopelessly addicted
Verb + Adverb	appreciate sincerely, apologize humbly
Noun + Prep	apathy toward, influence on
X + Comp	an agreement that, recommend that

Particular collocation difficulties for ESL include:

1. Light verbs, e.g.,

- take a chance, take liberties with the results, run aground, run an experiment, go bungee jumping, take notice, set an example

2. Prepositions and phrasal verbs, which are often metaphorical

- working (in) → working at the university ['in' is possible in certain contexts, but 'at' is generally preferred]
- The work environment has ~~cut down~~ diminished our motivation, especially when team members have been split ~~apart~~ up.

3. Prep. combinations: [1] Verb + Prep.; [2] Adj. + Prep.; and [3] Noun + Prep; these can involve metaphorical uses of prepositions

- is different ~~than~~ → different from
- apply X ~~into~~ Y → apply X to Y
- influence ~~to~~ X → influence on X

4. Noun + Prep. combinations, and their Verb counterparts with no prepositions.

- X has an influence on Y   cf.   X influences ~~on~~ Y
- a discussion about X   cf.   to discuss ~~about~~ X

5. Use of *speak, talk, tell, say* (see the handout on reporting verbs). One speaks a language or a statement; one says words, discourse, or something general; one tells a story or information.

4. Transitionals

4.1. Eliminate awkward or unnecessary *there* expressions.

The sentence initial there *construction* (*there is/are...*) should not be overused in formal writing. It functions as a transitional device for introducing new or related items to the discourse, e.g.,

> Looking out the window, one exclaims, "Hey, there's a unicorn in my garden!"

Because of its explicit transitional function, using too many *there* expressions sounds redundant, especially in topic sentences and introductions. Its use is also restricted to certain intransitive verbs; it cannot be used with any verb. Specifically, it is used mainly with intransitive verbs that indicate existence, appearance, and change of state.

existence	*indicates presence / existence of items*
be, exist, happen, appear, tend, occur, seem, remain	There exist only a few fundamental particles in the universe, from which all atomic particles are built.

change of state, appearance	*indicates change in position or state of an item, or appearance of an item upon the scene or to the discourse*
break, go, come, die, arise, break, change, appear, disappear	There arose such a clamor in the room that I woke up.

New paragraphs are essentially a topic transitional device indicating a shift to a new topic. Thus, using *there is/are* expressions or *first, second, third,* at the start of a new paragraph often sounds stylistically weak and redundant.

4.2. Use a greater variety of transitional words.

Avoid overuse of the same transitionals, especially formulaic sounding *first, second, finally.* These may be useful sometimes (especially for standardized tests like the TOEFL/TWE), but a better variety is needed for formal writing.

4.3. Avoid frequent use or overuse of topic shift transitional devices.

Topic transitional devices like *as for, as regards, speaking of, as to,* and such signal a shift to a related topic, or resuming a previously mentioned topic or item. Cleft sentences like *it's X that...* are colloquial devices for contrast and emphasis. These functions are commonly marked in the grammar of some languages, and are often marked by equivalent transitionals in the colloquial speech of various languages[62]. They may be somewhat more common in English business writing, and are rather common in colloquial English. In academic English writing, however, it is better to use them sparingly or rarely, because they are considered colloquial. They can be replaced with a sentence beginning with the new subject, a paragraph break, or other types of transitionals.

☹ As for sub-arctic penguins, rockhoppers are the most unique.

☹ It's rockhoppers that are the most unique among penguins.

→ Rockhoppers are the most unique among the sub-arctic penguins.

☹ Speaking of penguins, there are 18 species of penguins in the world.

→ There are 18 species of penguins in the world. / 18 species of penguins exist in the world. / Furthermore, 18 species of penguins are found in the world, all in the Southern Hemisphere.

5. Konglish expressions

Avoid Konglish terms like *next next, last last, Y-shirt* (=dress shirt)*, cunning* (=cheating)*, event, condition, consent* (=electrical outlet)*, hand phone, Hotchkiss* (=stapler)*, MT, service, after-service, AS, one-room, well-being* and many others; also, the German-Japanese term 아르바이트. (See the website handout on Konglish).

Other problems result from using an incorrect word when their meanings and use differ between English and Korean, e.g.,

I have a ~~promise~~ → an appointment

6. Gender bias

Avoid using *boy* or *girl* when referring to adults. Avoid using *he, him* or masculine nouns (mailman, policeman) when the one referred to is generic, unknown, or could be female. Instead, use the following.

1. Plural nouns and pronouns, if possible, to refer to specific persons, instead of singular nouns and pronouns; thus, the gender-neutral *they* can be used.

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62 E.g., the colloquial Chinese *...de huà, ...shuō de huà;* in Korean, they are marked grammatically with 은/는.

2. The generic pronouns *one, one's* in written English for generic and gender-neutral discussion (if not referring to specific people; but this is not common in spoken English).

3. Gender-neutral nouns, e.g., *mail carrier, police officer, business person.*

7. Colloquial expressions

Some of the terms below are more informal, general, or vague, and are less commonly used in academic writing; the more formal alternatives are preferred.

informal	more formal alternatives
anyway	This is used informally for changing topics; in formal writing, simply starting a sentence with a full noun topic, or starting a new paragraph, will often suffice.
besides	More formal alternatives are 'in addition to' or 'furthermore' - e.g., "In addition to these factors, ...".
bad	negative, pejorative, poor, ineffective, adverse...
big, huge	large, significant, enormous, incredible, gargantuan, gigantic, massive
good	sufficient, excellent, optimal, ideal, studious, prime, positive, effective, beneficial
kind of, sort of	somewhat, slightly
kind(s) of, sort(s) of	type of, form of, variety of
like	is similar to; for example, such as
like this	for example, for instance
lots of	many, numerous, a large number / amount of
nowadays	currently, recently
stuff, thing(s)	matter, issue, affair, object, factor, device
way	manner, method, means, methodology, instrument, aspect

Some common nouns and adjectives that are general or vague in meaning can be replaced in more formal contexts[63].

colloquial	more formal
thing	object, device, item, situation, circumstance, subject, element
person, people, someone	individual, Canadians, researchers, subjects, voters, males, participants
man	males, (male) participants / subjects, male voters, etc.
women	females, (female) participants, etc.

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63 Substituting *human* or *human being* as a noun for person/people is possible, but may sound unnatural outside of an appropriate scientific context.

8. Contractions and abbreviations

Abbreviated forms like *approx.* or *gov't* are not used in formal writing. Full forms instead of common contractions are preferred in formal academic writing, e.g., *can't → cannot, doesn't → does not.* However, academic abbreviations from Latin are acceptable, such as *e.g.* 'for example,' *i.e.* 'that is, in other words,' *cf.* 'compare,' and *c.* 'approximately' before numerals, e.g., "c. 500 participants signed up."

9. Fillers

Avoid overusing filler terms like *etc.* or *and so on.* Avoid such terms after beginning a list of items with *for example* or *e.g.,* as these filler terms then become redundant.

> We tried a number of factors in our model, e.g., X, Y, Z, ~~etc.~~ → ... , e.g., X, Y, and Z.

10. Flow of clauses and sentences

How would you improve the following comma splices (fused sentences)?

1. Lobsters are cannibalistic, this is one reason they are hard to raise in captivity.
2. Normal people need eight hours of sleep per night, graduate students only need four.

How are the colons and semi-colons used in these examples?

11. The tissue was cut into 0.1 mm strips; the slices were then examined for the effects of the drugs on the neural tissues.
12. There is something that graduate students simply cannot live without: coffee.
13. Floodwaters have closed the following sections of the city: the downtown district, the Garden Street district, the valley area, and sections along the highway.
14. Traffic light: a device that turns red as you approach it.
15. There was only one possible conclusion: the ship had sunk.

11. Punctuation

1. So, to go further, it is necessary to research the effects of cultural factors on English learning, including Korean culture.
2. Then, they might have some problems in making various kinds of English sentences, because they tend to make easy, short sentences to avoid making grammar mistakes.
3. However when the four skills are advanced together the capacity of language could grow.
4. He planned on a fruitful day of on-line trading, however, he did not anticipate the stock market crashing that day.
5. Therefore bilingual education in preschooler age is effective.

Comma patterns for *so, then, but:*

Comma patterns for *however, therefore, moreover, furthermore*:

Comma patterns for *i.e., e.g.:*

Korean L2 writers: English verb errors

1. Intransitive verbs

1. This behavior <u>may be originated</u> from their history.
2. And there are many definitions about leadership as much as leaders that <u>have been existed</u> in the world.
3. The accident <u>was occurred</u> under inclement weather conditions, and was exacerbated by pilot fatigue.

2. Transitive verbs

1. Over the past decade the birthrate has gradually <u>been decreased</u>.
2. Society has been changed and more women participated in working society. Women's power <u>has been increased</u> and various working fields have needed women.
3. This idea that majorities pursue <u>should be changed</u>.
4. The experimental methods <u>are dealt with</u> the character of preschoolers, parents' character including the background of age, educational degree and recognition of English.

3. "Tough" expressions

1. *Standard English:* It is difficult / tough / easy to learn Russian if you know other European languages.
2. I am difficult to study English.
3. Koreans are difficult to learn English
4. I am easy to learn circuit diagramming.

4. Note: State and change of state verbs

Usage of the following verbs are sometimes problematic for Koreans and Japanese, as seen in sections A and B above.

change	exist	occur
consist	happen	originate
continue	improve	result
decrease	increase	suffer
disappear	last	vanish

Articles: A literary example

The following text is from a novel which illustrates the problems of a Russian learner of English. Like Korean, Russian has no articles.

Busy though he was, Poplavsky usually found ten minutes each morning for the reading of intelligently written articles from the American press. He was determined to win a final victory in his eleven-year struggle with his linguistic arch[64] enemies, the definite and indefinite articles. The conflict first erupted in his class at the special school at Gatchina where students were taught not only in classrooms but in a full-scale replica of an American town – supermarkets crammed with toilet paper, dog food, and chicken parts; gas stations with Coke machines and Chevies[65] with hand-lettered cardboard FOR SALE signs on their windshields; and a McDonald's run by perky[66] teenagers. "I want **a** box. I want **the** box. Why not simply 'GIVE ME BOX'" Poplavsky roared at his instructor who was running the checkout counter at the supermarket that day. Tearfully, she explained that not even the Soviet Academy of Syntax had been able to come up with a concrete rule that worked in all cases. "Then I'll figure one out myself!" Poplavsky had vowed[67] with all the bravado[68] of the youngish lieutenant he was then; but now, as a middle-aged full colonel, he continued to struggle with those bedeviling[69] linguistic will-o'-the-wisps[70].

"I don't think you want the 'the' here; I think you want an 'a'," an American had once remarked to Poplavsky after reading a Soviet Embassy cultural press release.

"I don't want **a** 'the', I want **the** 'a'?" Poplavsky had replied, frowning in consternation[71] that was bordering on rage.

"That's right, a 'the' is not **the** right choice."

"But an 'a' is **the** right choice?" asked Poplavsky.

"Yes, an 'a' is **the** right choice."

"How can an '**a**' be **the** right choice?" asked Poplavsky.

"A 'the' is right. The 'a' is wrong."

"Stop it, stop it!" said Poplavsky in a voice that managed to beg and threaten at the same time.

(*Zero Gravity* by Richard Lourie; cited in Cowan, 2008)

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64 Arch: chief, main; usually in phrases like 'arch enemy' or 'arch nemesis'.
65 Chevy: an old type of car. For sale sign: Someone selling a car might put a 'for sale' sign on it, as Americans often sell their cars directly person to person, and not always through a car dealer.
66 Perky: cheerful, upbeat, enthusiastic.
67 Vow: promise to oneself
68 Bravado: display of courage or self-confidence, often artificial or superficial.
69 Bedevil: to torment, harass; throw into confusion; to possess, as by a demon.
70 Will-o'-the-wisp: A hope or goal that is elusive, impossible to reach, or sinister and confusing (from a term for a ghostly light seen at night over bogs or swamps, caused by swamp gases combusting with air.
71 Consternation: sudden amazement, alarm, dread, anxiety, confusion or bewilderment.

Summary of definite and indefinite articles

The English article system involves not just grammar, but word meanings (semantics), and the choice of article depends on the intended meaning or nuance. Nouns range from rather concrete or physical nouns which can be counted as objects (object nouns, mass nouns, proper nouns), to more abstract nouns. Various options for article use are available for these: *the* (definite article), *a/an* (indefinite article), and Ø (null, or no article). Articles are chosen based on whether the noun is new to the discourse (the conversation or text), or has been mentioned or implied previously in the discourse, and they are also chosen according to the intended meaning or nuance that the speaker or writer has in mind. Often, all three options (*the, a/an, Ø*) are possible, depending on the intended meaning. The semantic types of nouns, and their possible meanings and nuances are summarized below.

noun type	article pattern
1. object nouns (specific entity, concrete) Things that are concrete, physical objects, and can thus be counted (so-called count or countable nouns)	***a/an*** **new, specific item** Nouns that are introduced or mentioned for the first time. Many would like <u>a</u> notebook with <u>a</u> flash based hard drive, but sizeable flash drives are currently very expensive. ***the*** **(a) familiar, specific item** Items that have been previously mentioned in the discourse. Before publishing her first Harry Potter novel, Rowling was an unknown, until <u>the</u> first novel brought fame and fortune to <u>the</u> aspiring, poor writer. An item can be familiar because it is implied by and related to the context; its identity is obvious within the discourse. In order to install a new RAM chip, first shut down <u>the</u> computer, open <u>the</u> case, and find <u>the</u> empty RAM slot. Ground your body from static electricity by holding onto <u>the</u> metal case, and with <u>the</u> other hand, push <u>the</u> chip into <u>the</u> slot.

(b) exemplar items

In the example below, 'cheetah' does not refer to one specific cheetah, but is used as an exemplar or example item, referring to a typical, representative, hypothetical cheetah, representative of all cheetahs; 'jungle' and 'lion' are also exemplars for any typical jungle or lion. This can sound more descriptive and vivid than generic plurals (below).

The cheetah can accelerate to 120 kph in short bursts.

In the jungle the lion sleeps tonight[72].

Ø

plural: generic reference

The plural with no article is typically used for a generic reference, e.g., to a whole group of something.

Cheetahs can accelerate to 120 kph in short bursts.

---

2. mass or substance nouns

(concrete)

Nouns referring to substances and materials, which are not viewed as distinct objects, but indistinct masses. These are a common type of non-count noun.

Ø

Mass nouns are generally used without articles.

Water is composed of hydrogen and oxygen, and could be called dihydrogen oxide; it can also consist of deuterium instead of regular hydrogen, in which case it is known as heavy water.

the

particular type(s) of substance

A particular type, variety, or occurrence of a substance can be denoted with 'the' – i.e., these non-count nouns can be made "countable" to refer to different types of a substance.

The water of Mars is believed to be mostly trapped below the surface or at the poles.

The various cottons produced in this country vary in texture, color and strength.

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72 "In the jungle, the mighty jungle, the lion sleeps tonight" is the opening line of the famous 1961 pop song 'The Lion Sleeps Tonight' by The Tokens.

3. proper nouns (unique, specific referent)	**Ø** **unambiguous unique referent** In 49 BC Julius Caesar defiantly crossed the Rubicon and issued his famous challenge to imperial Rome. place names: Mt. Everest, Canada, Africa, London, Sichuan, Okinawa, Thunder Island **(rare) plural** Rarely, a proper noun might be used in the plural in a figurative or fictional context; e.g., one might speak of a "bunch of Elvises" to refer to a group of people who are somehow like Elvis, Elvis impersonators, or an army of clones created from his DNA. **the** **(a) singular and plural names** Place names derived from an adjective plus a common noun the Red Sea, the Rubicon [River], the East Sea, the White House, the European Union, the Russian Federation Certain proper names have a plural noun denoting a collective entity, such as mountains. the Rocky Mountains, the Ural Mountains, the Great Lakes, the Himalayas, the Quad Cities **(b) figurative, emphatic singular** One might use 'the' before a proper noun for emphasis. In the following example, B expresses disbelief and uses 'the' to confirm that A really saw the real Obama himself, not some other "Obama," or something else. A. I once saw Obama close-up and in person as he gave a speech at my university. B. You mean *the* Barack Obama, in person?
4. perceptual abstract nouns Nouns that are somewhat abstract – they are non-physical, but can be perceived or felt	**Ø** **general activity, state or condition** With no articles, the noun refers to activities, states, conditions or properties in a general sense. [a] I love bungee jumping. [a] Redness can be a sign of bacterial infection. [c] Sadness is normal, but depression lasting more than two weeks is not.

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[a] events & activities

(including gerunds)

[b] physical states, conditions, properties

[c] mental states, processes, or activities

</td>
<td>

the

specific event or instance; specific type or instance of a state

With 'the,' the noun refers to a specific event or instance of an activity; or a specific type or instance of a state, property or condition.

[a] The bungee jump last weekend was great.

[b] Captain Ahab was obsessed with the whiteness of the whale.

[c] The sadness that welled up within me subsided after I ate a kilogram of chocolate.

a

specific event, type or instance (first mention)

As above with 'the', but when an item is mentioned for the first time, or when it not obvious from the context.

[a] A bungee jump would be a great way to release my stress.

[b] I was overcome by a strange darkness within me.

[c] A sadness that I cannot bear is when there is no chocolate in the house.

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5. conceptual abstract nouns

nouns for abstract concepts; non-physical states; "verbal" nouns – nouns related to or derived from verbs

</td>
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Ø

general concepts

By default, such nouns refer to general concepts, and have no articles.

Good writers avoid vagueness and fallacious reasoning.

Nationalism poses a threat to the stability of the movement.

Increasing urbanization has led to greater demand on water resources in the plains states.

the, a/an, plurals

specific types or instances

With articles or in plural, these words refer to specific types or instances of something.

One can speak of feminism in general, but one can also speak of different feminisms – e.g., radical feminism, Marxist feminism, religious feminism, the feminism of suffrage advocates in the early 20th century, or the feminism of the counter-culture in the 1960s.

The vagueness of the proposals and the wordiness of the article made it particularly frustrating to read.

The rapid urbanization of the province has begun to strain government resources.

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Definite and indefinite articles: Linguistic principles of usage

The usage of articles is often unclear and difficult for second-language writers. However, language teachers and linguists find it difficult to analyze or teach, because our linguistic understanding of article usage is incomplete. Grammar books often provide simplistic discussion of articles, as if a few rules would help. In reality, article usage depends on various factors, including writing genre, and nuances that a writer wishes to convey (i.e., sometimes one has a choice, depending on the intended meaning). We have the following articles in English, and in addition, there are article equivalents and substitutes like some, as well as other determiners.

1. *a / an*   [indefinite article]
2. *the*   [definite article
3. Ø   [no article, or "zero article"]

A noun phrase consists of a noun and any articles, determiners, adjectives, or other modifiers with it (such as the book, a cat, or that red bird). The term referent means what entity or item that a noun phrase refers to; e.g., a noun phrase like the book probably refers to a specific book that one has in mind, in contrast to a book, which could refer to any book. The usage of articles depends on the following factors (and this presentation is rather different from how grammar books present it).

1. Basic criteria

1.1. Identifiable

Depending on the context or writer's / speaker's intentions, what the noun refers to may be more clear; e.g., if one says *the car*, it is assumed the reader can more easily identify which car the writer has in mind, as opposed to *a car*.

Identifiability includes factors discussed in grammar books as (1) general versus specific referent, and (2) information status – whether the noun has been mentioned before in the context, i.e., new versus old referent. For example, *a penguin* may not refer to a specific penguin, or may introduce a new penguin to the discourse, while *the penguin* may refer to a specific penguin that one has in mind, or one that has been mentioned before. However, identifiability has a number of complexities that are not discussed in grammar books.

1.2. Semantic class or type of the noun

Nouns fall into a number of possible subclasses according to type of meaning. Oftentimes, a noun can belong to different semantic categories with different meanings, and thus, different article patterns. For example, *support* can be a concrete (physical, tangible entity (like a bridge support) or abstract (emotional support, financial support).

1.3. Singular or plural

Singular count (countable) nouns must have an article, or some other determiner, e.g., *a nail, the nail, another nail; that nail, my nail*; the choice of articles for plural count nouns depends on other factors. Sometimes a singular / plural difference is due to a semantic difference, e.g., *coffee* is a substance noun, while *coffees* is a count noun (one drinks coffee, but one can order a coffee or two coffees, meaning a cup or serving of coffee).

Keep in mind that other equivalent determiners may be used in place of articles, with the same functions as above:

determiners	this, that, these, those
possessive determiners	my, your, his, her, its, our, their, one's
quantifiers	each, every, both, either, all, some, any, no, none, whatever, much, many, most, enough, few, a little, other, another

Determiners in a noun phrase follow the following order (the following is from Cowan, 2008).

Adverb + Adjective + Predeterminer + Determiner + Noun

Predeterminers	Central determiners
Quantifiers (*all, both, each*)	Quantifiers (*any, every, some*)
Multipliers (*double, twice, five times*)	Articles (*a/an, the*)
Fractions (*three-fourths, two-fifths*)	Possessive determiners (*my, our, your*)
	Possessive nouns (*John's, Susan's*)
	Demonstrative determiners (*this, that, these, those*)

E.g.:   all the very delicious clementines

twice the price

three-fourths of every worker's salary

2. Identifiable

the + noun

A noun with the can be easily identified by the reader for various reasons. Often it is identifiable if it refers to a specific item that has been mentioned before, or if it can be easily identified from the context. A noun can be made identifiable in other ways, for example, when a speaker implies that it is identifiable, and the reader can easily make the necessary connections by drawing from his/her background knowledge. Sometimes this is used for special rhetorical or literary effects, as well as for highlighting new topics that are being introduced.

2.1. Specific noun, previously mentioned

When the writer uses the noun, the writer or speaker has one specific, unique item or member in mind, which has been mentioned before, or is easily recognized from the context. For example, when one says *the dog is hungry*, one has a specific dog in mind, rather than dogs in general – the dog was mentioned before, or is physically present.

> Mr. Smith and other state officials were quite concerned about effects of the coal mine explosion, so the governor held a press conference about the disaster.

2.2. Noun identified by post-modifier

Some nouns are made specific by a following modifier phrase, namely, a prepositional phrase, participle clause or a relative clause, that specifies which item is being referred to, and thus, makes it easily identifiable.

- …parallels between L2 and L1 acquisition can deepen our understanding of the general human ability to acquire language (Ko et al., 2004).
- For the purposes of this paper, we abstract away from the issue of L1-transfer and ask what factors guide L2 acquisition of English articles in the absence of article in the L1… On the basis of our experimental results, we argue that L2 learners' errors in article choice are not random, but systematically reflect the role of a universal semantic feature… (Ko et al., 2004).
- Visitors to Niagara Falls often prefer the view on the Canadian side.
- Consumers tend to prefer the ones made in Germany.
- They won't accept the computers that have been outfitted with proprietary systems; they only want AJAX or Apache systems.

Similarly, nouns marked with superlative adjectives or ordinal numerals are considered more uniquely identifiable.

- That was the most successful experiment that our lab ever conducted.
- In this economy, consumers will prefer the cheapest laptops they can find.
- Subjects remained focused on the first stimulus that they were presented with.
- That's the last time I ever fly that airline.

So-called partitive *of*-phrases (*X of something* quantity phrases) usually take *the* as identifiable items.

- Some of the newly synthesized element decayed immediately.
- Some of the subjects did not complete the study.
- None of the participants answered the question negatively.

Names of theories, techniques, and such modified with a proper name are often marked with *the*, unless the name is in possessive form (Swales & Feak, 2004).

- the Heisenberg principle
- the Dopplar effect
- Einstein's special theory of relativity
- Kirkoff's law

2.3. Notes on post-modifiers

Note that post-modifiers do not always make the noun definite. The following example was written with a definite article, indicating only one domain that the writers have in mind.

[1a] This paper investigates such L1-L2 parallels in <u>the domain of English article usage</u>, and argues for similarity between L1 and L2 acquisition of article semantics. (Ko et al., 2004).

In a different context, one could have written the following, implying that they chose one of several possible domains or areas of research; this would be equivalent to one domain, i.e., one of several possible domains.

[1b] This paper investigates such L1-L2 parallels in <u>a domain of English article usage</u>, and argues for similarity between L1 and L2 acquisition of article semantics. (Ko et al., 2004).

This depends on whether the post-modifier serves to identify a specific noun, as in [1a], or to merely define a noun, as in [1b]. The second type is purely definitional, or even hypothetical, as seen in the following examples. In [2a] a specific man from a group (probably known from the context) is pointed out and identified; in [2b] a type of man is defined – in this case, a hypothetical case.

[2a] I want <u>the man</u> who knows what love is.

[2b] I want <u>a man</u> who knows what love is.

2.4. Identifiable by association

New items are connected with previously mentioned items in the context, and the writer can assume they are easily identifiable. For example, in the following text about a particular computer, the underlined noun phrases are marked with *the*, because they are typical computer components, and thus are easily identifiable in the context.

The computer has been constantly malfunctioning. <u>The hard drive</u> had a corrupted boot sector, and <u>the MBR</u> had to be reinstalled. Then <u>the BIOS settings</u> somehow reverted to <u>the factory settings</u>. Then <u>the processor overheated</u>, because <u>the fan</u> was clogged with dust.

2.5. Topic highlighting or prominence

A writer may introduce a new topic – a new noun – with *the*, if it is an important topic or item that s/he will continue discussing. This draws the reader's attention to the item, and is a common narrative technique in writing and speaking.

colloquial   Did you hear about <u>the fight</u> last night?

Fight? What fight?

<u>The fight</u> between the Mayor Quimby and Mr. Brockman, the reporter!

narrative	The campers found what seemed like a perfect spot, and wondered why no one else had taken it. They set up the campsite. Then <u>the mosquitoes</u> came. Swarms of them from all around, stinging and buzzing and running amok. The bugs made the campers so miserable that they had to quickly spray repellant, and scurry to a better spot. No wonder the site had been left alone by other campers.
narrative	Hall has been thinking about God, psychiatry, analysis, fairy tales, dreams and <u>the monkey trap</u>. As a boy he saw a picture of a monkey trap in a book, and he used it as a basis for a theory of human behavior. A monkey trap is a hollowed gourd with bait inside. The money reaches in and wraps his fist around the bait but can't remove his hand unless he drops the bait. The monkey never does. (*NY Times Magazine,* 18 Aug. 1996; cited in Epstein, 2002).
poetry	<u>The hemlocks</u> slumped already as if bewailing the branch-loading. ("Bonus" by A. R. Ammons, 1985; cited in Epstein, 2002)
academic article	Investigation of parallels between adult second language (L2) and child first language (L1) acquisition has been at <u>the center</u> of intensive research in current acquisition studies… <u>The shared assumption</u> underlying this research program is that parallels between L2 and L1 acquisition can deepen our understanding of the general human ability to acquire language. (Ko et al., 2004).

2.6. Topic emphasis

Similar to topic highlighting is putting special emphasis on a topic. The first example shows a contrast between two formats discussed, letterbox versus another type of widescreen format.

> The decision by FoxVideo to go with a widescreen format doesn't, however, satisfy Gary Reber, editor and publisher of Murrieta, Calif.-based Widescreen Review. "Mohicans," he said, is *a* widescreen format, but not <u>*the* widescreen format</u> – meaning the so-called letterbox format. (*LA Times*, 12 March 1993; cited in Epstein, 2002)

The second more colloquial example emphasizes the British actor's name – by implication, not some other David Tennant or some other similar person. This emphatic use of the in fact tends to be more common in colloquial English.

> Guess who we met? We met David Tennant!

> You mean <u>*the* David Tennant</u>?

2.7. Exemplar

the + singular count noun

Sometimes a writer uses a singular noun with a definite article, referring to a specific entity that has not been identified. This entity is an exemplar, that is, a hypothetical item used as a typical example, rather than a specific entity that one has in mind. For example, in a text

about wildcats, one might read:

> <u>The cheetah</u> is the fastest land animal, capable of running bursts of up to 120 kph, and can accelerate from 0 to 100 kph in three seconds.

The writer has no specific cat in mind, but uses *the cheetah* as a rhetorical or descriptive device, where the reader pictures in his/her mind a hypothetical or typical cheetah. This serves as a hypothetical example, as a representation of all cheetahs or of typical, everyday, normal cheetahs. This is similar to generic nouns (see below), but is more vivid for narrative purposes. This is more common in narratives and sometimes in academic prose, and is less common in spoken English.

A related use of *the*, especially in colloquial English, is for prototypical places and roles. In sentences like these, the speaker seems to assume the listener would understand what s/he is talking about, because s/he is referring to a store, bank, etc., that s/he typically visits, or one that is clearly identifiable from the context. Note that *to the hospital* is North American style, while British say *to hospital*.

> I'm going to the store / the doctor / the bank / the park / the beach / the lab.

> I'm going to the hospital. (North American English)

2.8. Point of view shifts

The use of *the* can indicate a shift in narrative point of view, or even the narrator's point of view without regard for the reader's understanding. This may be used to cause the reader to identify or empathize more with the writer's point of view. This is a fairly common narrative technique, as in the following opening of a famous novel, and in the next example, a famous poem by Edgar Allan Poe.

> In the late summer of that year we arrived in a house in a village that looked across the river and the plain to the mountains. (Hemingway's A Farewell to Arms; cited in Epstein, 2002)

> Ah, distinctly I remember it was in the bleak December,
> And each separate dying ember wrought its ghost upon the floor.
> Eagerly I wished the morrow; - vainly I had sought to borrow
> From my books surcease of sorrow - sorrow for the lost Lenore -
> For the rare and radiant maiden whom the angels named Lenore -
> Nameless here for evermore[73].   (Edgar Allan Poe, The Raven)

2.9. Common knowledge

Some items are part of everyone's knowledge of the world, and do not need to be identified, as they can be readily identified with little context. For example, we always speak of *the sun* or *the moon*, because these are readily identifiable – there is only one sun and one moon. However, if we lived on a planet with two moons (like Mars) or two suns (like a planet in a binary star system), we would have to specify which one. Also, when one has a particular wall in mind, one says *the wall*, or likewise, *the floor, the roof, the ceiling,* because these items are readily identifiable from their physical context, or from any context involving a

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73 Ember = glowing or smoking fragment of burning wood; wrought = made, caused to happen. Morrow = the next day, tomorrow (old style, not a commonly used word today). Surcease = pause, delay (old style, not used today).

house or building (any mention of a room or building calls up one's mental concept of buildings, and all buildings have these components). The definite article signals that the item is one that the reader can easily identify from related background knowledge and connected with the rest of the context.

2.10. Notes

In cases where the referent is ambiguous, using *the* would be awkward.

> ☹ There were three females and two males in the focus group. <u>The female</u> usually gave incoherent responses.

In this case, *the female* is awkward, because the specific female referred to cannot be identified from the context. Instead, a different noun phrases is needed (e.g., *one of the females*) or an identifying phrase (e.g., *the female participant from the art department*).

3. Non-identifiable

Two main types of nouns that are not readily identifiable to a reader, and are not marked with *the* are normal first-mention items, and generic items, i.e., items that one discusses in general terms. However, it is hard to clearly define generic or give simple rules for what nouns are generic (there seem to be different types of generics), and there are some other tricky noun types as well. Sometimes whether a/an or Ø is used also depends on whether the noun is a more concrete or abstract noun (see below).

3.1. First mention: New (novel) items

a / an + singular count noun

Ø + singular non-count noun

Ø + plural noun

determiner like *some* + plural noun

When a specific item is mentioned for the first time (and makes no assumptions about the reader's background knowledge or point of view), and when the writer may continue to discuss it, it is introduced with *a/an* in the singular, or in the plural with a zero article, some or other modifier. For example:

- Drawing on <u>a well-established observation</u> about child L1 acquisition, we argue that partitivity also plays <u>a significant role</u> in L1 acquisition… (Ko et al., 2004).
- Epsilon Eridani is located 10.5 light years away, and apparently has <u>a gas giant planet</u> orbiting it.

In the above passage, the underlined nouns are mentioned for the first time, and may be mentioned again later; the other nouns have no articles because they are abstract terms. In the following example, new nouns are introduced with the indefinite article (or another singular quantifier like *another*), or in the plural, with no articles.

> The Caves of the Daemons are five in number. <u>A broad pathway</u> leads up to the first cave, which is a finely arched cavern at the foot of the mountain, the entrance being beautifully carved and decorated. In it resides the Daemon of Selfishness. Back of this is another cavern inhabited by the Daemon of Envy. The cave of the Daemon of Hatred is next in order, and through this one passes to the home of the Daemon of Malice – situated in <u>a dark and fearful cave</u> in the very heart of the mountain. I do not know what lies beyond this. Some say there are terrible pitfalls leading to death and destruction, and this may very well be true. (*A Kidnapped Santa Claus*, L. Frank Baum)

Notice that *a dark and fearful cave* is treated as new, because the writer is highlighting it as a new, specific cave, and how it is different from the other caves.

3.2. Generic

Ø + plural count noun (collective generic)

Ø + singular abstract noun

a/an + singular count noun

The plural with no article is used as a general, collective reference to all members of a group; the writer or speaker does not have one particular item in mind, but a group as a generic whole; the writer or speaker is thinking of the kind, type, species, or whole group. The specific referents are unknown to the reader, or are not important. Such generics are common in abstract or theoretical discourse, or when making generalizations or statements of general facts. Thus, these may often be in present tense, which is used for general statements.

> <u>Mother birds</u> often regurgitate <u>food</u> to feed their young. <u>Penguins</u> can travel great distances to bring <u>food</u> and regurgitate it for their young.

Note the difference between "a penguin regurgitates food for is young" as a general statement, versus "a penguin regurgitated food for its young" – a specific entity introduced for the first time in a narrative.

3.3. Definitions

Definitions and examples tend to use singular nouns, with *a/an* plus count nouns or Ø plus non-count nouns (this is a special type of generic usage). Articles are not used with names of fields of study (Swales & Freak, 2004).

- <u>Silicon</u> is <u>an element</u> below carbon on the periodic chart, and because of its similar electron shell configuration, Si is <u>a good candidate</u> as a basis for alternative non-organic forms of life.
- I want <u>a man</u> who knows what love is.
- <u>Phonology</u> is the study of the sound system of language.

3.4. Special uses

Generics are used in some prepositional phrases without articles, where the main meaning is not the noun itself, but the focus is on a more general meaning. Phrases with *by* + noun focus on the type of means of transport or means by which something is done, not a

specific vehicle. In phrases with prepositions of location (e.g., *to* + noun, *in* + noun), the meaning is the type of institution, location or place, not the specific location. This kind of construction is common with common with places that are culturally commonplace, or commonplace in a particular field, and inferrable from context.

I'm going by car / bus / boat / plane / hovercraft / ferry / spaceship.

I'm going to school / church.

I'm going to hospital. (British)

Those <u>in government</u> / <u>in education</u> should reconsider this policy.

The satellite is still <u>in orbit</u>.

4. Semantic noun class

4.1. Mass versus count nouns

Ø + mass noun

a / the + count noun

Grammar books typically discuss the distinction between mass nouns and count nouns in regard to articles. Count nouns are individual objects or items that can be counted, while mass nouns refer to masses – substances, materials, or non-countable things.

mass	count	count [plural]
coffee	a/the mug	(the) mugs
support	a/the helper	(the) helpers
computing	a/the computer	(the) computers
math[74]	mathematician	(the) mathematicians
school	a/the student	(the) students
paper	a/the document	(the) documents
religion	a/the church	(the) churches
food	a/the rice roll	(the) rice rolls
flora	a/the plant	(the) plants
fauna	a/the animal	(the) animals
plumage	a/the feather	(the) feathers

However, this distinction becomes complicated in some cases. A following modifier phrase can make a mass noun more specific or concrete (e.g., a particular type or instance of flora), and can thus take *the*.

<u>The flora</u> of the Nepali plains

<u>The food</u> that domesticated swine are most likely to eat

Some nouns have different meanings as more abstract mass nouns, or as count nouns.

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74 In British English, *maths* is used for mathematics.

I drink <u>a cup</u> / <u>three cups</u> of coffee every morning.   [mass]

I'd like to order <u>a coffee</u> / <u>three coffees</u> to go.   [count]

We need your <u>support</u> for this project to succeed.   [mass]

The ship crashed into <u>the bridge support</u>, causing part of it to collapse.   [count]

The category of count nouns is somewhat clearer, and will be described as object nouns below. The category of mass nouns is clear when referring to names of substances. However, more abstract nouns are trickier, due to different possible nuances. The following sections will make more detailed distinctions among object nouns, mass nouns, and different types of abstract nouns, such as event / activity nouns, state / property nouns, which can vary, depending on the type of meaning.

4.2. Object (count) nouns

These refer to physical items and objects – specific, individual, identifiable entities, as opposed to substances or abstract ideas, and are thus countable nouns. These include physical objects, persons, other living entities, and specific locations. In the singular, such count nouns require an article (definite or indefinite) or other determiner. In the plural they take an article (or other determiner), unless they are used generically.

the ball, the dog, the sister / my sister, the woodcutter, a cat, a rhododendron, a computer, the speakers, some pencils, the bus stop, the province,

Note some of the following specialized cases.

1. Geographical place names where the main noun is often a specific entity noun or a specific referent (especially if the first part like 'East' is adjectival).
   • the East Sea, the Sahara [Desert]

However, oftentimes a noun modifier takes no article – a proper noun (see below) place name that is a compound noun.

   • Sunset Lake, Thunder Island, Thunder Bay, St. James Lake

2. Public institutions, facilities, groups, newspapers – if the main noun or the referent is a specific entity, they take an article.
   • the Student Union, the Sheraton [Hotel], the White House, the Washington Post

3. Pluralized names in collective geographic terms, families, teams – these are based on plural count nouns.
   • the Netherlands, the Bahamas, the Alps, the Smiths, the Wombats (team name)

4.3. Mass nouns (substance, non-count nouns)

These refer to substances, or otherwise non-individual masses – not individual entities. These take no indefinite articles on first mention, but later mentions of these nouns may be marked with *the*; and these are singular.

Ø water, Ø coffee, Ø atmosphere, Ø glue, Ø carbon, Ø air, Ø plasma, Ø dirt, Ø paper

the water, the coffee, the atmosphere, the glue, the carbon, the air, the plasma, the dirt, the paper

However, many of these can take on different meanings as count (entity) nouns; they may be marked with the when referring to a specific type or quantity of something (e.g., *the water of Mars, the coffee that we ordered*, or when ordering 'a coffee' means a particular amount of coffee, such as *a cup of coffee*). The word *tape* can be a mass noun (like packing tape) or a count noun (like a cassette tape).

- a water (a glass or bottle of water)
- an atmosphere (a specific atmosphere or type of atmosphere, like the atmosphere of Mars)
- a glue (a bottle of glue, or a particular type of glue that the speaker has in mind)

4.4. Abstract nouns

You may have learned that abstract nouns take no articles, but the reality is more complicated. What we call abstract nouns by default have no articles, and are most often singular. However, the same nouns can take on less abstract meanings with articles or as plural nouns.

These nouns tend to fall in the following subcategories (though these may overlap somewhat – some nouns could easily belong to more than one of these subgroups, so it is not important that we be able to classify a noun into any of these subgroups).

(a) Events and activities

These are nouns that refer to events and activities. As such, they can often be described as having a beginning and an endpoint. Often these refer to specific instances and are marked with *a/an* or *the* ("the meeting began at 7pm and ended at 10pm"), versus a general activity or type of activity with no article ("Ø meeting the boss can be rather unpleasant").

meeting, excavation, occurrence, running, fall, collapse, summer, deletion, swimming, bungee jumping

(b) States, conditions, properties

These nouns refer to states or conditions, or refer to properties or characteristics of things. One could speak generally ("existence is hard to define") or more specifically, i.e., of a particular instance or type of the condition or property ("my existence / the existence of humanity").

redness, absence, dominance, existence, loneliness , shyness, reticence, status

4.5. (c) Mental states, feelings, and events

These related to psychological, emotional, or cognitive states, and can be general and abstract ("hope is alive") or a specific instance or type ("the love of money").

realization, thought, perception, hatred, love, anger, endearment, pleasure, happiness, hope

(d) "Propositional" or conceptual nouns

Many of these abstract nouns can be called propositional, because these imply "X does Y" – a proposition or statement, in logic terminology. This is especially the case if they are

derived from or related to verbs or other words. For example, *belief* implies a proposition that "X believes Y" or "someone believes something". This subcategory naturally overlaps with others – many nouns can belong to this and the other subgroups above.

> hope, existence, determination, finding, causation, ontology, imposition,

These are singular with no article if they denote a general or abstract activity, states, or concepts. They can become specific when referring to a specific instance or type, e.g., with a post-modifier phrase.

> We need <u>help</u> / <u>support</u> / <u>energy</u> / <u>insight</u> for this to succeed.

> We need <u>the help of all contributors</u> for this to succeed.

> Philosophers have debated <u>ontology</u> and <u>epistemology</u> for centuries. Sometimes they even debate things like <u>causality</u>. A starting point of discussion may be <u>the ontology and epistemology of Plato</u>.

5. Abstract versus less abstract uses

Such nouns can be abstract, e.g., when referring to general activities, states, conditions, properties, mental states, or (propositional) concepts, without articles. They can be used with more concrete or more specific meanings with articles and/or plural forms, e.g., when referring to specific instances, events, examples, or types.

> <u>Fishing</u> is popular here.   [general activity]

> <u>The fishing at this lake</u> is often good.   [specific event or type]

> Bungee jumping is a great catharsis.   [general activity]

> I did <u>a bungee jump</u> last week.   [specific event]

> <u>The bungee jumps</u> were quite enjoyable.   [specific event]

> Time is a progression of events in a physical universe. [state, property, or condition]

> I don't have time for this.   [state, property, or condition]

> I had <u>a really good time</u>.   [specific instance]

> That was <u>the time</u> when we missed a deadline.   [specific instance]

> Thinking is a necessary part of consciousness. [mental state]

> I just had a strange thought.   [a mental process, i.e., event]

> Also: his existence, a solitary existence, the finding(s), my/the determination, the ontology, the realization, the pleasure...

> This shows great <u>insight</u> into the problem.   [general state or concept]

> <u>The</u> / <u>These</u> / <u>Their insights</u> were most helpful. [specific type or instance]

> <u>Communism</u> has proven to be a failed experiment.   [general concept]

<u>The communism</u> of North Korea is an unorthodox mixture of Marxism and other influences.
[specific type]

As discussed in a previous section, a following modifier phrase can make it more specific, by referring to a particular instance of something, or a particular kind of something.

<u>The support</u> of the staff was crucial in the project's success.

<u>The love</u> of a child can sometimes be the most rewarding thing for parents.

<u>The existence</u> of aliens at this point rather begs belief.

<u>The imposition</u> upon my time was unbearable.

6. Notes

1. Another type of "number" besides singular and plural might be collective nouns, such as collective plural nouns, which act as generic or regular count nouns. In British English these are more common, and can be used with plural verbs.

   The people are restless.

   The government are considering a revised immigration policy. [British]

   The team are practicing for the championship match. [British]

2. Style and genre are another consideration. Sometimes articles are dropped in colloquial situations, or when the referent is very familiar to the speaker and listener. In the examples below, the government agencies are treated as familiar, almost personal, entities.

   Did (the) FBI talk to you?

   We got busted by (the) EPA / by (the) FBI.

There is also a sort of official genre, often for saving space in print, or to be more terse, where articles and auxiliary verbs are omitted. This is common in public signs, notices, newspaper headlines, instructions, and official announcements. The words in parentheses below would be omitted.

   No running allowed near (the) pool.

   (An) airplane crashes on (a/the) runway; (there are/were) numerous casualties

3. Place names: Note some of the following specialized cases of proper nouns in place names.

   • Geographical place names where the main noun is often a specific entity noun or a specific referent (especially if the first part like 'East' is adjectival):

   the East Sea, the Sahara [Desert]

   • However, oftentimes a noun modifier takes no article – a proper noun (see below) place name that is a compound noun.

   Sunset Lake, Thunder Island, Thunder Bay, St. James Lake

   • Public institutions, facilities, groups, newspapers – if the main noun or the referent is a specific entity, they take an article:

the Student Union, the Sheraton [Hotel], the White House; the Washington Post

- Pluralized names in collective geographic terms, families, teams – these are based on plural count nouns.:

the Netherlands, the Bahamas, the Alps, the Smiths, the Wombats (team name)

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E. Business & professional writing

Business cf. academic writing

Several kinds of business writing will be of importance to most college students at some point, such as:

- business letters and memos
- resumés
- CVs (curriculum vitae or vita)
- cover letters for job applications
- statements of purpose

Consider the style of the business letters, resumes, and other examples below. How do they differ from regular academic writing, in organization, style and structure? For example, how do the business letter and cover letter samples below differ from academic writing?

Effective cover letters

The application letter or cover letter is important for first impressions, as an effective letter can get you an interview, while a poorly written letter usually spells continued unemployment. The following can be helpful for an effective letter[75].

1. First paragraph

State what position you are applying for, and make your goal clear. Indicate how you heard about the opening, e.g., from a personal contact or advertisement. If answering an advertisement, name the position stated in the ad and identify the source – the website or newspaper where you found it, e.g., "in response to your advertisement for an English instructor on the Dave's ESL Cafe web site." If you're prospecting for a job, try to identify the job title used by the organization. Or you may want to open by referring to the company's product or service, which you would like to promote or contribute to (but don't overdo it – don't sound artificial or obsequious in your enthusiasm). Such a reference shows your knowledge of the company.

2. Individualizing your letter

Do not simply repeat information from the resumé. Go further by describing your key personal and professional strengths, how you have developed, and/or specific examples of your strengths. Provide some insight about you as an individual. If you have little or no work experience, discuss other examples of your strengths, e.g., as a very successful and knowledgeable student in your field, as a leader in a campus organization, as an active volunteer, as a person active in your community, or such. If your involvement was in religious or political organizations, do not identify specific religious or political organizations or beliefs – keep it neutral. If there are potential problems or gaps in your resumé, those could be explained in the cover letter, such as a particular hardship or extenuating circumstances; e.g., the fact that there is a one-year gap in your work history or grade problems because you were busy taking care of a sick relative.

2.1. Highlighting your qualifications

Organize the body paragraphs around your strongest and most relevant qualifications for the job and the organization. If your on-the-job experience is your strongest qualification, discuss it in detail and show how you can apply it to the needs of the company. Or if you were president of the Marketing Club and you are applying for a position in marketing or sales, elaborate on the valuable experience you gained and how you can put it to work for them. If special projects you've done apply directly to the job

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75 The above materials are adapted from the Purdue English Online Writer's Lab [OWL], http://owl.english.purdue.edu; and
Halpern, Jeanne W., Judith M. Kilborn, and Agnes Lokke. *Business Writing Strategies and Samples*. New York: Macmillan, 1988.

you are seeking, explain them in detail. Be specific. Use numbers, names of equipment you've used, or features of the project that may be relevant.

One strong qualification may be enough, if it is described vividly and persuasively enough. You can then refer the reader to your resumé for a summary of your other qualifications. For two or three important strengths, 1-2 additional paragraphs can be included. The letter should be strong enough to convince readers that your distinctive background qualifies you for the job, but not so long that it turns readers off. Some employers recommend a maximum of four paragraphs.

3. Other tips

Make sure it is professional and free of errors in format, organization, style, grammar, and mechanics, as readers often reject applicants because of the letter's appearance or mistakes. Maintain a courteous tone throughout the letter. Seek advice from others, and have a critical reader check it for comments and suggestions before sending it. It may help to refer to key items in your résumé, e.g., your expertise in statistics. Conclude with a courteous request to set up an interview, and suggest a procedure for doing so. Be specific about how your reader should contact you. If you ask for a phone call, give your phone number and the days and times of the week when you can be reached.

4. Typical structure

Sender's name & address

Recipient's name & address

Date

Dear Ms./Mr./Dr. Last Name,

The first paragraph should get the reader's attention, stimulate interest, and be appropriate for the job sought. It should make your goals clear, and set up the rest of your letter. It is also helpful to indicate how you learned of the job opening.

Focus on your two or three strongest qualifications for a position in your cover letter. Even only one strong qualification is enough to discuss in a cover letter. Each important qualification you discuss should be placed in its own paragraph, and your letter as a whole should not exceed one typed page.

Each body paragraph should begin with a topic sentence that highlights one of your major strengths. This strength or qualification should be illustrated with specific details, and you should demonstrate how this qualification will benefit the employer. Ask the reader to refer to your resume, if possible.

The conclusion should suggest or politely ask for a personal interview (be flexible regarding a date and time), be specific about how the interviewer should contact you, and include a thank you.

Sincerely,

Your Signature

Your Name (typed)

Enclosure: Résumé

5. Sample cover letter

311 Nestor Street
West Lafayette, IN 47902
June 6, 1998

Ms. Christine Rennick
Engineer
Aerosol Monitoring and Analysis, Inc.
P.O. Box 233
Gulltown, MD 21038

Dear Ms. Rennick:

Dr. Saul Wilder, a consultant to your firm and my Organizational Management professor, has informed me that Aerosol Monitoring and Analysis is looking for someone with strong communications skills, organizational experience, and leadership background to train for a management position. I believe that my enclosed resumé will show that I have the characteristics and experience you seek, and my work experience also makes me a strong candidate for the position.

As a promoter for Kentech Training at the 1997 Paris Air Show, I discussed Kentech's products with marketers and sales personnel from around the world. I also researched and wrote reports on new product development and compiled information on aircraft industry trends. The knowledge of the industry that I gained there helped me analyze how Aerosol products can meet the needs of regular and prospective clients, and the valuable experience I gained in promotion, sales, and marketing would help me use that information effectively.

I would welcome the opportunity to discuss these and other qualifications with you. If you are interested, please contact me at (317) 555-0118 any morning before 11:00 a.m., or feel free to leave a message. I look forward to meeting with you to discuss the ways my skills may best serve Aerosol Monitoring and Analysis.

Sincerely yours,

Name (signed & printed)

Enclosure: Résumé

Cover letter samples

The following samples are cover letters, which follow typical business letter style. The sender's and recipient's addresses appear at the top (the letter head), often with the date sandwiched in between. Block paragraphs are used instead of the indented paragraphs used in other kinds of writing. That is, business letter paragraphs have no indentation, and are single-spaced (academic papers should be 1.5× or double spaced), but have extra spacing in between paragraphs.

Under the addresses appears the salutation. Instead of "Dear X," business letters usually use "To Whom It May Concern:" which can sound overly formal sometimes, so instead one can use "Dear Madams/Sirs:" If you know the recipient's name, then that will suffice – but preferable with a colon [:] rather than a comma; e.g., "Dear Mr. Smith" or "Dear Ms. Jones" ('Miss' and 'Mrs.' are considered gender biased; 'Ms.' is better).

The letter ends with something like "Sincerely," or "Sincerely yours," followed by the signature, with the printed name below it. Below that are the initials of the letter writer in lower case if s/he typed it him/herself. If the person dictated it to a secretary, then the composer's initials are in upper case, followed by the typist's initials in lower case; e.g.:

cmb   Charles Montgomery Burns (if he typed and printed it himself)

CMB:ws   Dictated by Mr. Burns, typed by his assistant, Waylon Smithers

This is all for record keeping purposes in companies, but is still the standard format for people printing off any official letters themselves.

Look at the following cover letter samples, and be able to identify the strengths and weaknesses of these letters.

1. Good cover letter #1

234 Cragmore St.
Denver, CO 13725
November 12, 2001

Ms. Martha Gruber
Corporate Accounting Manager
Wasserman Company, Inc.
566 Commerce Drive
Denver, CO 15672

Dear Ms. Cooper:

use of company knowledge & statement of interest
Your college recruiting literature states that you hire Accounting Trainees as entry-level employees in the Corporate Accounting function. The idea of having rotational assignments in auditing, tax compliance and cost accounting sounds extremely interesting to me. I am therefore interested in interviewing with your firm during your forthcoming recruiting trip to the University of Colorado.

value selling
I will graduate with a B.S. degree in Accounting in June of next year. I have been a strong student and have been recognized by the University for my academic achievement through receipt of various awards and scholarships, which are detailed on my enclosed resume.

value selling
In addition to my academic accomplishments, you will note that I have always been very industrious and hard working. As my resume will attest, I have been continually employed either full or part-time, since age thirteen. Despite this work schedule, I have also managed to squeeze in a healthy slate of extracurricular activities, showing an ability to effectively plan and manage my time.

value selling
My solid academic performance, strong work ethic, drive, organization skills, and passion for the accounting field will hopefully convince you that I have the basic ingredients to make a valuable contribution to Wasserman Company's Accounting function.

I would be very pleased to have the opportunity to interview with your campus representative during your January recruiting trip to our school, and I hope that you will give my candidacy favorable consideration. Thank you.

statement of appreci- ation
Sincerely,

David S. Rothwell

David S. Rothwell
dsr
Enclosure

2. Good sample #2

233 Government Drive
Falls Church, VA 17264
October 25, 2001

Mr. Craig G. Dieters, President
United Chemicals, Inc.
301 North Market Street
Baltimore, MD 18238

Dear Mr. Dieters:

use of personal contact

During a recent conversation with your Director of Manufacturing, Will Svensen, I was advised that you are considering implementation of a Deming-based "total quality" program at United Chemicals, and may be in the market for a strong leader to direct this effort. Should you be seeking such a leader, you may well want to consider my credentials for this assignment.

summary of background

A Ph.D. in Statistics with over fifteen years in the field of quality management, I have thorough training in Deming's management principles and am skilled in such statistical methodology as experimental design, process capability studies, variance analysis, statistical process control, etc. I am a Fellow of the American Statistical Association and enjoy national recognition in my field.

value selling

Important you your needs, I have provided overall leadership to a highly successful corporate-wide total quality initiative at Wilborne Chemical which is credited with substantial ($200 million) improvement to business performance this year alone. I would welcome the challenge of undertaking a similar effort at United.

compelling action

I will await your telephone call or email if you are interest in discussing this matter and, if appropriate, to arrange for a meeting with you.

I have heard some excellent things from Will about your leadership at United, and look forward to the possibility of meeting you personally.

use of compliment

Sincerely,

Sandra E. Johnson

Sandra E. Johnson
SEJ:mms
Enclosure

3. Poor sample #1

(poor grammar & mechanics)

123 North Burlington Drive
Buffalo, NY 18735
October 15, 2001

Ms. Katherine Brandon
Director of Manufacturing
Ehrlich, Inc.
256 West River Road
Macon, GA 12846

Dear Ms. Brandon:

I saw your newspaper add in the new York Times for a manager of Manufacturing Services at your Lawndale Ohio plant. I am interest in this position very much and would appreciate the opportunity to interview for this here position.

My professional background includes a B.S. degree in Business Administration from Midwestern University plus more than seventeen years experience in manufacturing management. Of particular interest should be the fact that I worked for your competitor The Phillips Company as the Manager of Manufacturing for nearly sixteen years

Some of my major accomplishments include:

- Decreased manufacturing costs by almost 30 percent thru installation of new scheduling system.

- Started up new steal bolt manufacturing line 3 weeks ahead of schedule with completely trained crews.

- Installed Just-In-Time inventory system that reduced inventory capitol investment by more than 25%.

I know that I can make a real contribution to your company and feel that you should give serious consideration to hiring me. Lets plan to get together to talk about the prospects of my employment with your company. I will plan to call your office next Wednesday to see if I can schedule a meeting to explore the possibility of a mutual interest.

Thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,

Norman N. Numbskull

4. Poor sample #2

(rambling, vague, lack of focus, mechanical errors)

1849 Erik Avenue
Dallas, TX 76450
September 29, 2001

Mr. David RAwlins
Director of Public Affairs
Kennsington Corporation
29 Canal Street
Austin, TX 74501

Dear Mr. Rawlins:

I am very interested in the possibility of employment with your company, and I am therefore submitting my resume for your review and consideration. I think you will find my background very interesting. Please consider my qualifications for any suitable opening you may have currently available in the Public Affairs function of your firm.

I hold a B.A. degree in Communications from Midwestern University, where I excelled as an undergraduate student. While at the University, I was awarded the Koehler Award for my many contributions to the community and remain, to this day, heavily involved with community service of one kind or another.

I am considered quite an outgoing, friendly person by those who know me well. When asked to describe Ron Rambling, most of my friends would probably use such adjectives as open, honest, sincere, loyal, dedicated, and hard working. I have always been very dedicated to my work and loyal to my employers. I am well motivated and am capable of carrying out my work assignments with little or no supervision.

Following graduation from Midwestern, I spent three years in the Peace Corps, where I learned the true meaning of life through giving to others. I came to appreciate the small things of life and the value of personal relationships. These basic values have served me well in the business world, as I have pursued my career goals and objectives.

My work history encompasses nearly twelve years in the field of Public Affairs. Most recently, I have been Manager of Contributions for the Ballinger Company, a $3 billion manufacturer of consumer products. In this capacity, I have managed an annual contributions budget of $1.2 million. I have also spend nearly three years as Ballinger's Customer Services Supervisor, a position that I enjoyed thoroughly.

Thank you for your consideration, Mr. Rawlins, and I look forward to hearing from you.

Sincerely,

R o n   R .   R a m b l i n g

Ron R. Rambling

5. Poor sample #3

(self-focused versus employer-focused)

200 Cindy Drive
Raleigh, NC 18795
November 20, 2001

Mr. Sean R. Brennan
Vice President of Operations
Z-Wave Electronics
200 Silicon Way
Brighton Beach, FL 18755

Dear Mr. Brennan:

A recent downsizing at Carlton Electronics has resulted in a 40% layoff of salaried staff. My former position as Manufacturing Manager – Printed Circuits has been eliminated, and I am now forced to seek other employment.

My goal is a position in manufacturing management with a medium- to large-sized electronics manufacturing company. I prefer working for a growth-oriented company where the prospects for sustained, long-term grown appear excellent. I also seek a position offering well defined advancement opportunity to senior level management in the intermediate term (i.e., three to five years).

The company I am seeking will be a strong advocate and practitioner of the "participative" style of management. It believes that the proper role of a manager is that of a teacher, coach, facilitator – an enabler of others. This company is committed to management through others rather than to the management of things.

My compensation requirements are in the low $100,000 range, with the opportunity for salary review and increase on an annual basis. I also require a comprehensive benefits package.

To arrange for an employment interview, please contact me at (555) 777-9424. I look forward to hearing from you shortly. Thank you.

Sincerely,

Cynthia A. Selflove

Cynthia A. Selflove
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6. Poor sample #4
(bland, boring, too assertive)

143 Seaside Road
Portland, OR 98974
April 28, 2001

Mr. Willard P. Pennyworth
Manager of Corporate Accounting
The Blakely Group, Inc.
2011 Financial Plaza
Boston, MA 18752

Dear Mr. Pennyworth:

I am writing to you for the purpose of applying for the position of Cost Accountant with the Blakely Group, Inc. I have enclosed a copy of my personal resume for your review and consideration. I trust that this resume will contain all of the information that you will need to make a proper assessment of my employment credentials; however, should you require any additional information, please advise me and I will be pleased to furnish whatever additional data you require.

As you can see from the enclosed employment document, I earned a B.S. degree in Accounting from Washington State University, where I graduated in 1994. Following graduation from Washington State, my professional career began with Price Waterhouse, where I worked as an Auditor for four years. I resigned from Price Waterhouse in 1998, to accept employment as a Cost Accountant with the Hauptbräu Company at their Portland plant. I have now worked for Hauptbräu for almost three years, and I have recently decided to seek employment elsewhere.

I have been a solid employee for my past employers. I have had excellent work attendance and have missed only four days of work in the past seven years. Additionally, I have been a good performer, and I can furnish both personal and business references should this be required.

I am currently earning $75,000 per year with Hauptbräu, and my next salary review is due in July of this year. My annual increases have normally been in the 3-5% range. My minimum salary requirements with a new employer, therefore, are in the $78,000+ range.

Please review the enclosed employment resume and let me know if you have any appropriate openings that are a match for my qualifications and interests. Thank you for your consideration.

Respectfully yours,

Brandon B. Boring

Brandon B. Boring
Enclosure

7. Real cover letter sample

The following is an actual cover letters sent for an academic job application, which led to successfully landing the job. A few details have been altered for privacy reasons.

Kent Lee
1111 E. Florida #555
Urbana IL 61802, USA
217/555.5555
k-lee7@uiuc.edu

Director, Institute of Foreign Language Studies
Korea University
1, 5-Ka, Anam-Dong
Sungbuk-Ku
Seoul 136-701, Korea

15 March 2001

Dear Director:

Through my previous visits to Korea and my Korean colleagues, I have learned of your school and its language teaching programs. I am interested in taking a one-year leave from my current Ph.D. studies and teaching English at your school for the 2001-2 academic year.

I have a strong background in linguistics, first obtaining an M.A. in Linguistics with a focus in phonology. As I later pursued a second M.A. in TESOL, my interest in pronunciation pedagogy and prosodic phonology led me into applied linguistics, discourse analysis and pragmatics. I will complete my current M.A. program this summer, and I have concurrently started a Ph.D. in the applied linguistics track of Educational Psychology program. My current research involves phonological and pragmatic analysis of English sentence stress and pedagogical applications for ESL teaching. My other interests include psycholinguistics, and understudied aspects of pragmatics and their pedagogical applications, such as discourse markers. Some of my research and teaching materials are available from links at my web page above.

I have taught in an Intensive English Program here, as well as ESL courses for graduate students. I have enjoyed teaching a variety of subjects, and interject my enthusiasm into my classroom teaching. My teaching benefits from my love for linguistics and even for grammar, my desire to make basic principles accessible to learners, and my desire to develop my own lesson materials. My teaching style balances a focus on linguistic forms and principles and communicative language teaching, driven by a concern for students' real-life practical and intellectual needs.

I am, of course, a native speaker of English (and my family name is of Anglo-American origin), and my wife is Korean. I have visited Korea several times and am familiar with the culture and language. I know that I would enjoy teaching at your

school, and that my linguistic background, drive, and concern for students' needs would make me a valuable asset to your institution.

Sincerely yours,

Kent A. Lee

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Enclosure

Writing a résumé or CV

A résumé (or sometimes less formally written as 'resumé') should provide a clear one-page summary of your educational background, work experience, and other experiences and skills that would make you a marketable job candidate. A résumé should be on a single page, unless you have many years of experience and are applying for a mid-level or upper-level management position or other higher positions[76].

1. Layout and organization

There is not necessarily a single, standard format for a résumé (you may search the Web for good examples). Basically, it should be clear and in an easy to read and attractive format that draws attention to your most important and relevant qualifications. Some like to use two columns, with a left-side column to highlight the dates (or perhaps instead to highlight the institutions and companies, or the work positions). Be careful not to overuse boldface, underlining, or italics for emphasis. Leave enough white space, especially at the top, for readability. Use a standard font (no more than two fonts, if a different font is used for headings) no smaller than 10 points. Make sure it has been properly proofread, as a single typographical or spelling error may eliminate you from consideration. Information should always be listed in reverse chronological order within each section.

When applying to Western or international companies, do not include personal information (gender, religion, age, date of birth, marital status) or photographs.

2. Sections

Your contact information, education, and work experience, are required. Other sections may include other relevant qualifications.

Contact information. This should be at the top of the page, including phone and emails. For the title, simply use your name as the title, in a clear, attractive font (but not overly large or bold).

Objectives. This is often a general statement about the kind of job you want, or your career objectives. It could be something general like "Applying my scientific training in a research institute" or "Applying my accounting skills in an entry-level position." However, since these are rather generic, leaving out this section is advised, unless it is actually informative and specific to the position that you are applying to.

Education. Listing all relevant degrees, in reverse chronological order (starting with the most recent, if you have more than one), beginning with your college studies. Include post-graduate degrees or training programs.

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76 Parts of the above handout are adapted from a handout from the Graduate College Career Services Office of the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign (http://www.grad.uiuc.edu/ careerservices). For more on business writing, refer to the Purdue English Owl website, http://owl.english.purdue.edu.

Experience (i.e., work experience). Include all work experience (full-time, part-time, temporary), internships, and relevant private work experience (e.g., if you have done significant tutoring work), in reverse chronological order. Stress your personal accomplishments and contributions. For some, military experience could be listed here, or another section such as "Other skills."

References. In a typical résumé, we don't actually include your references – professors, supervisors, or others who could be contacted to vouch for your qualifications. A résumé should be kept to one page, and if an employer is really interested in you, they will contact you and ask for your references. So in a résumé, it is standard to either [1] leave this out entirely, or [2] put in a *pro forma* References section that simply says, "References: Available upon request."

Additional information or sections (optional, as relevant). Most college graduates have little work experience, so highlighting other skills will be helpful, e.g., highlighting involvement in campus clubs and activities, to show that you have developed leadership skills, relational skills, personal character, or community involvement. Such items, as well as military experience, volunteer work, involvement in campus organizations, and other types of training and experience, could be listed in an "Additional information," "Other qualifications" or "Other skills" section. However, do not indicate specific political or religious affiliations, as that is overly personal and potentially biasing information. If relevant, list foreign languages that you know, as well as some indication of your level of expertise.

3. CVs

For academic jobs, research jobs, and Ph.D. applications, a CV is used instead. A CV (Latin for *curriculum vitae*, or "course of one's life," i.e., an academic bio; often simply called a "vita") is simply an academic résumé, and there are no length limits for a CV[77]. In addition to the types of sections in a résumé, one may add whatever sections are relevant to one's background and the position applied for. The following are fairly typical.

- **Publications and/or presentations section(s).** If you have published any academic writing (or any professionally published writing), or have done academic conference presentations, list these. Follow a standard reference format like APA or MLA format, or whichever reference format is standard in your field (you may use APA if you are not sure which one to use).
- A general "Additional information" section, including miscellaneous information that does not fit elsewhere, e.g., extensive travel, interests that you feel are important, and any previous jobs not included under the standard categories.
- Other skills. This could be a general section for various skills gained outside of your formal education and work. This could include computer skills, language skills, writing skills, statistical skills, research skills, and others. When relevant, list the languages you have studied, as well as some indication of your level of expertise.
- A "Projects" section for detailing your particular work projects or research projects.
- Volunteer work and/or community service

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77 However, in some countries such as in Europe, the term CV may be used for 'résumé'

- Awards, Fellowships, Honors, or Grants. List all relevant academic distinctions that you have received since entering college.
- Research interests: This category allows you to describe your current and future research plans. This is mainly relevant for applications to graduate schools or research jobs.
- References. In a CV, you can put full reference information for 3-4 persons who can provide reference letters or who could be contacted.

Statements of purpose (SOPs)

When applying to graduate schools, you have to provide an SOP, which explains your reasons for applying, why they should accept you, and why you want the degree. You essentially need to sell yourself to a an admissions committee consisting of professors in that department. Your SOP should address the following issues and questions.

1. Intellectual and academic background

Explain your intellectual growth and development, your intellectual biography, mainly since college. Explain how you became interested in your field of study, and why you are interested in it. How have your interests evolved or changed over the years, and why? What particular issues in your current field have you explored and developed interests in? What areas of the field would you might like to explore further in a Master's or Ph.D. program?

2. Intellectual and personal strengths

This ties in with #1 above, and you might include this along with your personal intellectual narrative, or as a separate section. You want to explain your academic potential and why you are a good student – why they should accept you. If applying for a Ph.D. progarm, you can also explain what strengths you have that you could contribute to the program or to the field later. A few key relevant intellectual and personal strengths can be described and exemplified. Personal strengths such as analytical or leadership abilities might be relevant. You might discuss how you have overcome past obstacles as an illustration of your strengths. Also, discuss relevant work and teaching experience, or other relevant factors. If you have some gaps in you record or shortcomings (like some bad grades in your transcripts), you could explain those as well. For example, if you've had some bad grades, it may have been due to personal problems or external circumstances, or because you challenged yourself with some very difficult courses in a new area (just be honest here).

3. Reasons for applying to the university

Explain why you want to apply to that particular university. It would most likely be because of the program itself (see below), or because of the university's library and research facilities, the local social / cultural / intellectual environment, its reputation, its low tuition, or other considerations. It could be because you have family in the area, or other such reasons. However, if you are applying to a particular school due to reasons of transfer credits between cooperating universities or programs, then that's all you have to say here.

4. Reasons for applying to the program

Often people choose a particular program because it is known for a particular focus or area of expertise, or because of its reputation (e.g., "your program is one of the best linguistics programs in North America, particularly for second language phonology"). It may be because you are interested in working with particular faculty members whose expertise, reputation, or research areas appeal to you (which you could find out by looking at program websites and information on their professors). Or it could simply be for pertinent personal reasons or because of cooperative programs, as noted above.

It helps if you can identify a particular research area that you would like to focus on Schools prefer someone who has a clear idea of what they want to study – this looks better academically. This also helps them assign you to a professor who will be your academic advisor if they accept you. Granted, your interests may very well change once you've studied in the program for a while – such is natural. But they are looking for the kind of student who can articulate a specific area of interest and study goals (or research goals, if applying to a Ph.D. program or other research oriented program), rather than someone who has only a vague idea of what s/he wants to do in graduate school.

5. Future plans

This is particularly important. If a program accepts you, they are making an investment in you, so they want to know that their investment is justified. You should explain what you want to do after the program, namely, career plans, research plans (if relevant), and other future plans. If you want to go on for further studies, say, studies in another program or in a Ph.D. program, explain your plans or goals. You should communicate that you have thought out things well (and yes, plans can change, but they want at least the type of person who has thought things out), and that you would make good use of your degree – that their investment in you will be worthwhile.

6. Avoid errors like the following:
- mundane examples
- trite sounding comments (like how much of a hard worker or perfectionist you are)
- vague generalities, especially as an introduction (like how important English is today, or other mundane, uninformative statements that sound like cliches)
- overly personal details, including political or religious views or activities
- views on controversial areas in the field (unless you know the program's theoretical orientation, and that you agree with it – but avoid sounding polarized or polemical)
- vague promises ("I may not be that great, but if you accept me, I promise I'll work really hard)
- details of your life before college, unless really unique and important
- a laundry list of accomplishments
- a laundry list of things that you would like to study or do – this indicates a lack of focus

- self-deprecating expressions, or expressions of doubt about your abilities, reasons for applying, or future plans
- any grammatical or other mistakes – be sure to proofread, or hire a good proofreader.
- Also, make sure that you properly customize you SOP to the particular school and program that you're sending it to.
- Exceeding the page or length limit. Professors will not want to read overly long SOPs. Conversely, a very short SOP looks like you have little to say, and may not be a strong student.

Finally, avoid using words like these that tend to overused in application materials. It is best to avoid these unless you can say something meaningful about these.

appealing to me	fascinating	incredible	rewarding
appealing aspect	feel good	interesting	satisfaction
appreciate	gratifying	invaluable	satisfying
challenging	helpful	it's important	significant
enjoy	helping people	meaningful	stimulating
enjoyable	I can contribute	meant a lot to me	useful
exciting	I like it	people	valuable
excited	I like to help	remarkable	

Sample SOP

This SOP was used to successfully apply for a Ph.D. program in the US.

My goal is to obtain a Ph.D. degree in Educational Psychology through the SLATE program. My research interests would focus on second language acquisition of phonology and grammar, especially of the prosodic system, and I would like to continue working under Professor Snodgrass in the TESOL department as part of my Pd.D. committee.

As an undergraduate student at Purdue University, I majored in German, minored in English, studied other languages, and took a number of linguistics courses – phonetics, phonology, anthropological linguistics, descriptive English grammar, dialectology, and Germanic historical linguistics. I then came to the University of Illinois for graduate studies in the Department of Linguistics, where I focused on historical linguistics and phonology, particularly in Optimality Theory, the current paradigm in phonological theory. My M.A. thesis consisted of research on Chinese tone sandhi (tone change) from both diachronic and synchronic perspectives, and applied Optimality Theory for a phonological account of the tonal system.

Around that time my longtime sideline interest in teaching English as a second/other language became a serious interest, and I realized that I wanted to devote my academic and professional career to more practical issues of applied language research and pedagogy, rather than pure theoretical research. I also realized that teaching ESL would be more rewarding for myself and beneficial to others. Therefore I decided to finish studying in Linguistics with my M.A. and to transfer to TESOL.

I have finished the course requirements in TESOL, and have also taken pragmatics and independent studies under Professor Dwieb. Currently I am working on my M.A. thesis for TESOL under Prof. Snodgrass on what is often called sentence stress or discourse stress. This thesis examines the problems of previous generative and functionalist analyses, and will attempt to provide a consistent unified approach that can not only resolve the theoretical issues involved in analyzing sentential stress, but also the various cases of sentence stress that do not submit well to current analyses, and to do so by bringing Optimality Theory and Centering Theory to bear upon these problems. I expect to finish this project in May 2000.

Since my department offers no Ph.D., I would like to transfer to Educational Psychology / SLATE for further studies. Not only would it save time doing my Pd.D. in another department at this university, but I could continue working under Professor Snodgrass as part of my Pd.D. committee; thus, I could continue in a similar line of

SLA research in phonological and discourse issues as before. I also know a number of TESOL graduates who have also gone on to Educational Psychology / SLATE, and from my colleagues I am familiar with the advantages and strengths that this program has to offer those of us who wish to continue studying issues of second language acquisition. For my Pd.D. research, I would like to research issues of lexical stress, stress over syntactic phrases (noun phrases, verb phrases, etc.), and the related phenomenon of accompanying vowel quality patterns, by applying Optimality Theory and connectionist perspectives to the analysis, and then developing a pedagogical system from this for teaching stress patterns to ESL students. This would be advantageous to ESL learners who struggle with the accentuation system of English, and often have little formal or communicative classroom instruction to deal with these issues. This would also be helpful to ESL learners and teachers, who have materials that present few if any helpful principles for English stress, or present extremely complicated rules which are difficult to learn in a meaningful way. Thus I would like to develop teaching materials that are instructive, linguistically accurate, learnable, and communicative.

After finishing my Pd.D. degree and SLATE specialization, I plan to teach college/ university level ESL in East Asian countries, and in TESOL or teacher training programs here or abroad. I have taught ESL writing, grammar, and pronunciation courses in the Intensive English Institute and in the ESL Service Courses at UIUC, and enjoy it thoroughly, and know that I will be productive and successful in a career of ESL teaching and SLA research. As a linguist with a broad background in theoretical linguistics, applied linguistics, and ESL pedagogy, I know that I can also contribute much and be productive as a Pd.D. student in Educational Psychology / SLATE.

F. Appendices

Contents

Subject–Verb Inversion

Subject-verb inversion involves switching the sentence subject and the verb when another item has to occupy the first position of the sentence. That is, certain kinds of phrases, when put at the beginning of the sentence, force the subject to move. However, the verb cannot move very far, because it must remain as the second element of the sentence.

Imagine a typical English sentence consisting of "slots" in which we plug certain elements. The subject is usually first, then the verb, then other information like direct objects and other predicate information, and prepositional phrases. Linguists call these canonical, or standard, sentences.

canonical sentence:

SUBJECT	VERB	OBJECT / PREDICATE
Penguins	eat	krill and herring.
SUBJECT	VERB	PRED: PREP. PHRASES
Penguins	live	only in Antarctica and regions of the southern hemisphere.

Other items like conjunctions and many kinds of prepositional phrases and adverbs can come before the subject, and are often set off from the subject by a comma in writing or a brief voice pause in speaking.

First, I want to welcome you to the 25th annual conference on Antarctic research. Since 1975 we have come together from all fields to share knowledge and findings on this area. Every year we have expanded our knowledge of Antarctic life. But we study other things besides just biology. In addition, we also study the oceanography and climate of the region.

However, certain kinds of items occupy the first slot only and force the subject to move after the verb.

In the room sauntered a king penguin.

Oftentimes with a verb in a simple tense (especially simple present), the verb is augmented with the helping verb (auxiliary) *do*. We then have a sentence order like so:

INITIAL ELEMENT + AUX. VERB + SUBJECT + (MAIN) VERB

This allows the verb (in its first Aux. part) to stay in second position of the sentence, and to still follow the subject (in its second part). This is because verbs prefer to occupy second position *and* to come after subjects.

SPECIAL ELEMENT		AUX	SUBJ.	VERB	
Under no circumstances	do		I	travel	to Antarctica without a good coat.
Never			have	we	done bungee jumping.

Syntacticians describe many various non-canonical word order sentences as inversion, such as those described in this handout, while in writing studies, inversion refers more narrowly to adverbial fronting structures that are used for a certain transitional effect. Subject–verb inversion occurs in the following kinds of constructions.

1. Adverbial fronting

An adverb or phrase with an adverbial meaning is put in initial position. This puts a little more emphasis on the fronted word or phrase, and also provides a logical transition from the preceding sentence to the current sentence. These include adverbs of frequency (*seldom, rarely, always*), adverbs of extent or degree (= how much), and prepositional phrases of location or direction. In such cases, the subject–verb inversion is most commonly used with (1) intransitive verbs expressing existence, appearance, motion, or change of state (*be, stand, exist, grow, come, remain, walk, spring, slip, melt, die...*), and (2) passive verbs (*be arranged, be arrayed, be strewn, be found...*).

Often in narrative writing, and sometimes in academic writing, these fronted structures are used to provide a smooth and vivid transition to a topic that is closely related to the context. Usually the narrative builds up gradually to the transition, so inversion is not suitable for sudden transitions. This structure highlights the fronted element – often a prepositional phrase, participle phrase, adjective phrase, or adverbial phrase, and backgrounds the subject somewhat by placing after the verb, thereby bringing about a smoother transition.

2. Adverbial fronting for topic transitional effects

2.1. Directional & locative prepositional phrases

Into the room ran a king penguin.

In the garden stands an oak tree.

Upon the roof scurried the two squirrels.

On the roof was found a bloody scarf.

Upon the ceiling was found a strange stain.

With such prepositions, the subject–verb inversion occurs if the locational or directional phrase occurs first in the sentence, and it indicates existence or appearance of the subject with respect to the speaker's point of view. With such prepositional phrases, the inversion is optional with most verbs, but is required with *be*.

Into the room a king penguin ran.　　→　　Into the room ran a king penguin.

Out of the house Russ stepped. (away from the speaker's frame of reference)

Out of the house stepped Russ as he moved toward the stranger. (into speaker's frame of reference)

In the garden an oak tree stands.　　→　　In the garden stands an oak tree.

In the garden is an oak tree.

2.2. Participle phrases

These are especially common in narratives that gradually build up suspense and introduce new elements to the story.

<u>Lurking</u> in the corner stood a chicken with an ax, ready to take on the farmer in a fight to the death.

2.3. Adjective phrases

Often these may be modified by adverbs of degree or extent, or emphatic adverbs like *especially*.

His manner was so absurd that everyone laughed at him. →

So absurd was his manner that everyone laughed at him.

Inverted sentences are especially interesting. →

Especially interesting are inverted sentences.

2.4. Comparison phrases

What he said was more important that what he accomplished. →

More important than what he accomplished was what he said.

3. Other fronted elements

3.1. Adverbs of frequency

Some adverbs of frequency (*seldom, rarely, often*) at the front of the sentence require inversion; this places more emphasis on the adverb.

He seldom brushes his teeth.

Seldom does he ever brush his teeth.

Often he goes out without his labtop.

3.2. Conjunctive adverbs

Some adverbs function to link two clauses and require inversion.

He didn't like herring salad, nor did he like raw herring.

3.3. Conditional inversion

A different kind of inversion can be made to create a more formal alternative for conditionals. The *if* is deleted and an auxiliary verb is put at the beginning of the *if*-clause instead. This is for hypothetical conditionals, that is, contrary-to-fact conditionals. For present or future conditionals, *were* is used, and *had* for past conditionals.

If I were a millionaire, I would travel all over Europe. →

Were I a millionaire, I would travel all over Europe.

If he hadn't wasted so much money on buying lottery tickets, he could have payed his bills. →

Had he not wasted so much money on buying lottery tickets, he could have payed his bills.

4. Questions

Questions are typically formed by a simpler type of inversion – putting an auxiliary verb or modal verb at the front for yes/no questions, or an interrogative word followed by an auxiliary or modal verb.

> Can you tell an emperor penguin from a king penguin?
>
> Do you know the difference between an emperor penguin and a king penguin?
>
> What is the difference between a king penguin and an emperor penguin?

However, when such a phrase is embedded as a clause in another sentence, it is a noun clause and does not use inversion. A noun clause functions as a subject or object of the verb in the main clause.

> What is a rock-hopper penguin?
>
> Do you know what a rock-hopper penguin is?

5. 3. *There* sentences

There has uses in English. Unlike other languages, *there* and *here* cannot function like pronouns in English, as subjects or direct objects. Instead, it works more like an adverbial. First, *here* and *there* function as non-specific location expressions, and in fact substitute as pro-forms for locations just as pronouns substitute for full nouns. They usually occur in predicates. The more indefinite terms *somewhere, anywhere* also function in the same way.

> I like it there.   (= in that place)
>
> We like it here.   (= in this place)

There also occurs at the front of the sentence before the verb. In such cases it is not a real subject. Instead, it is an adverbial pro-form (like a pronoun, it substitutes for a location phrase or such), functioning as a dummy subject or fake subject. The real subject follows after the verb. Such sentences are called *there* sentences, and are used to present a new topic, item, or piece of information into the discussion. Its sole function is to present new information represented by the actual subject after the verb. *There* sentences cannot be made with any verb, but only intransitive verbs that express existence, appearance, change of state, or motion. Usually a *there*-sentence requires another element after the main verb, such as a prepositional or descriptive phrase.

> There's a unicorn in my garden!
>
> There flashed a bolt of lightening across the sky.
>
> There arose such a clamor downstairs.
>
> There came a woman from Ipanema, and she sang like a siren.
>
> There she was walking down the street, singing "doo waa diddy, diddy dum diddy do."
>
> There appeared a fat man in a red suit with a long, white beard in my living room.

6. Addendum: Verbs in *there* sentences and adverbial fronting

The following intransitive verbs can easily occur in *there* sentences and prepositional phrase fronting.

verbs of appearance

appear, arise, awake, break, come, dawn, derive, develop, emanate, emerge, erupt, evolve, exude, flow, form, grow, gush, open, plop, result, rise, spill, spread, stem, stream, surge, wax

verbs of existence

dwell, endure, exist, extend, flourish, languish, linger, live, loom, lurk, persist, predominate, prevail, prosper, remain, reside, stay, survive, thrive, wait

existential verbs

be, seem, tend

verbs of occurrence

ensue, happen, occur, recur, transpire

verbs of location

balance, bend, bow, crouch, dangle, flop, fly, hang, hover, jut, kneel, lean, lie, loom, lounge, nestle, open, perch, plop, project, protrude, recline, rest, rise, roost, sag, sit, slope, slouch, slump, sprawl, squat, stand, stoop, straddle, swing, tilt, tower

verbs of change of state

(*break*): break, chip, crack, crash, crush, fracture, rip, shatter, smash, snap, splinter, split, tear;

(*bend*): bend, crease, crinkle, crumple, fold, rumple, wrinkle;

(*cooking*): bake, boil, broil, cook, dry, grill, heat, parch, perk, poach, roast, scald, simmer, steam, stew, toast;

(*color*): blacken, brown, gray, redden, tan, whiten, yellow

(*disappearance*): die, disappear, expire, lapse, perish, vanish

(-*en* verbs): awaken, brighten, broaden, cheapen, coarsen, dampen, darken, deepen, fatten, flatten, freshen, gladden, harden, hasten, heighten, lengthen, lessen, lighten, loosen, moisten, neaten, quicken, quieten, ripen, roughen, sharpen, shorten, sicken, slacken, soften, steepen, stiffen, straighten, strengthen, sweeten, thicken, tighten, toughen, waken, weaken, widen, worsen

(-*ify* verbs): acidify, intensify, liquefy, magnify, petrify, purify, putrefy, solidify

(-*ize* verbs): crystallize, energize, harmonize, ionize, magnetize, neutralize, oxidize, polarize, stabilize, vaporized

(-*ate* verbs): accelerate, coagulate, degenerate, deteriorate, disintegrate, dissipate, evaporate, levitate, operate, proliferate, propagate

(internal change of state): blister, bloom, blossom, burn, corrode, decay, deteriorate, erode, ferment, flower, germinate, molt, rot, rust, sprout, stagnate, swell, tarnish, wilt, wither

(*others*): abate, advance, age, air, alter, atrophy, awake, balance, blur, burn, burst, capsize, change, char, chill, clog, close, collapse, collect, compress, condense, contract, corrode, crumble, decompose, decrease, deflate, defrost, degrade, diminish, dissolve, distend, divide, double, drain, ease, enlarge, expand, explode, fade, fill, flood, fray, freeze, frost, fuse, grow, halt, heal, hat, hush,

ignite, improve, increase, inflate, kindle, light, loop, mature, melt, multiply, overturn, pop, rekindle, rupture, scorch, sear, short, short-circuit, shrink, shrivel, singe, sink, soak, sprout, steep, stretch, submerge, subside, taper, thaw, tilt, tire, topple, triple, unfold, vary, warp

verbs of motion

(*directional motion*): bounce, coil, drift, drop, float, glide, move, revolve, roll, rotate, slide, spin, swing, turn, twirl, twist, whirl, wind

(*manner of motion*): amble, bolt, bounce, bound, bowl, canter, cavort, charge, clamber, climb, clump, coast, crawl, creep, dart, dash, drift, file, flit, float, fly, frolic, gallop, gambol, glide, hasten, hike, hobble, hop, hurry, hurtle, inch, jog, journey, jump, leap, limp, lumber, lurch, march, meander, mince, mosey, parade, perambulate, plod, prance, promenade, prowl, race, ramble, roam, roll, romp, rove, run, rush, sashay, saunter, scamper, scoot, scram, scramble, scud, scurry, scutter, scuttle, shamble, shuffle, skedaddle, skip, skitter, skulk, sleepwalk, slide, slink, slither, slouch, sneak, somersault, speed, stagger, stomp, stray, streak, stride, stroll, strut, stumble stump, swagger, sweep, swim, tack, tear, tiptoe, toddle, totter, travel, trek, troop, trot, trudge, vault, waddle, wade, walk, wander, whiz, zigzag, zoom

(*directed motion*): advance, arrive, ascend, come, depart, descend, enter, escape, exit, fall, flee, go, leave, plunge, recede, return, rise, tumble

sensory verbs

(*light*): beam, blaze, blink, burn, flame, flare, flash, flicker, glare, gleam, glimmer, glisten, glitter, glow, scintillate, shimmer, shine, sparkle, twinkle

(*sound*): babble, bang, beat, beep, bellow, blare, blast, boom, bubble, burble, burr, buzz, chatter, chime, chink, chug, clang, clank, clap, clash, clatter, click, cling, clink, clomp, clunk, crack, crackle, crash, crak, crunch, cry, ding, dong, explode, fizz, fizzle, groan, growl, gurgle, hiss, hoot, howl, hum, jangle, jingle, knell, knock, lilt, moan, murmer, patter, peal, ping, plop, plunk, pop, purr, putter, rap, rasp, rattle, ring, roar, roll, rumble, rustle, scream, screech, shriek, shrill, sing, sizzle, snap, splash, splutter, sputter, squawk, squeak, squeal, squelch, strike, swish, swoosh, thud, thump, thunder, thunk, tick, ting, tinkle, toll, toot, tootle, trill, trumpet, twang, undulate, ululate, vroom, wail, wheeze, whine, whir, shish, whistle, whoosh, whump, zing

(*smell*): reek, smell, stink

(*substance emission*): belch, bleed, bubble, dribble, drip, drool, emanate, exude, foam, gush, leak, ooze, pour, puff, radiate, seep, shed, slop, spew, spill, spout, sprout, spurt, squirt, steam, stream, sweat

English complement clauses (*that*-clauses)

A complement clause is a grammatical clause is used to finish out, or complement, a sentence, in that the clause itself functions as a subject or object of a sentence. Consider the following. A noun phrase (NP) like *the lizard* can function as a subject of the sentence, but a whole that clause can also serve as a subject.

> The lizard surprised me.
>
> That the lizard got into my drawer surprised me.

The complement clause is equivalent to a regular subject noun phrase [NP], and means "the fact that X".

> [That the lizard got into my drawer]
>
> [NP]   surprised me.
>
> = (The fact) that the lizard got into my drawer surprised me.

However, this style is formal. It would be more natural to move the subject complement clause to the end of the sentence, and fill the subject slot with *it*, which serves a place-holder for the moved subject clause.

> It surprised me that the lizard got into my drawer.

A number of verbs can take subject complements as in these examples, especially where the complements represent some kind of fact. This is especially common with verbs of emotion. Also, intransitive verb expressions of logical result also take such clauses.

> It { surprises, annoys, irritates, amazes, ...}   me that the lizard got into my drawer.
>
> It { follows, stands to reason, matters, ...}   that someone put it there.

Many intransitive verbs of "happening" also occur with such clauses, usually if not always before the *that* clauses.

> It { turns out, happens, seems, appears...} that someone put it there.

Many verbs can take a *that*-clause as a direct object of the verb. The complement clause is equivalent to an NP object. This is especially common with verbs of perception, emotion, communication, mental activity, and evidence. Again, the *that* clause refers to a fact, and the whole fact expressed in the sentence is the object of the main clause verb.

> I know him.   I know that he is going to Kiribati.
>
> = I know [NP: him]   = I know [NP: that he is going to Kiribati].
>
> also: {fear, believe, sense, feel, think, say, can prove, understand, can tell, anticipate, expect, perceive, notice, am afraid, am happy, am amazed, am surprised...}

1. Adjectives and nouns + comp. clauses

A number of adjectives can take a *that* complement clause to complete their meanings. The complement clause can occur in subject position at the beginning of the sentence, or at the end of the sentence with it in the subject position of the main clause verb.

> That Cecil would go to Kiribati is odd. It's odd that Cecil would go to Kiribati.
> That a lizard was in my drawer is weird. It's weird that a lizard was in my drawer.

These structures are possible with a large number of adjectives in English: *odd, unusual, expected, surprising, natural, obvious, evident, apparent, doubtful, possible, important, etc.*

A few noun phrases can take a *that* clause to complete their meaning, mainly nouns that express ideas, facts, mental states, and modal ideas (like modal verbs in meaning – *must, should, can*).

> The { fact, possibility, suggestion, idea, thought, belief, perception, knowledge, understanding, report, fear... }
> that lizards can be cute/ugly is not important right now.

2. Equivalents

Complement clauses with *that* can sometimes be expressed with infinitive phrases, though this may sound less natural or more formal in many cases. Changing the *that* clause to an infinitive complement clause is often possible with subject, object, and adjective complement that clauses. If the infinitive has a subject, it is preceded by *for*, which serves simply to mark infinitive subjects.

> For Cecil to go to Kiribati is surprising.
> = It is surprising that Cecil is going to Kiribati.

Similarly, the infinitive complement can be moved to the end, and the placeholder it is put in the main subject slot.

> It would be surprising for him to go to Greenland.
> It was unexpected for Cecil to go to Kiribati.
> It would be an interesting experience to go to Greenland would be an interesting experience.

A change to an infinitive complement is not possible with a noun + *that* clause; it is also not possible with some verbs and adjectives, especially with most verbs of emotion and perception:

> {~~anticipate, obvious, feel, sense, think, perceive, notice, prove, discern~~...} him to go there.

Many times the infinitive clause is not really equivalent to the *that* clause, especially in more complex structures or with different tenses. While that clauses have a regular verb and refer to a specific fact, infinitive clauses are tenseless, so they can take on other meanings like hypothetical statements or conditions.

It's surprising that he would go to Greenland.

= The fact that he would plan to go there is surprising.

For him to go to Greenland would be surprising. (= If he went there, it would be surprising.)

Some infinitive phrases have no equivalent *that* clauses. Attempting to rephrase some as that clauses will lead to awkward or ungrammatical expressions – as in the case with a noun that cannot take a *that* clause, or the infinitive without a subject (*that* clauses must have subjects).

For me to go to Greenland would be an interesting experience.

(?) That I go to Greenland would be an interesting experience.

To put a lizard in my drawer is a mean thing to do.

(?) That ? put a lizard in my drawer is a mean thing to do.

Another complement equivalent expression is the gerund phrase, which is different from the other complement clauses in that its meaning emphasizes the action or process itself, rather than the factuality of that clauses or the possibility of infinitive clauses. If a gerund has a subject, the subject is in possessive form (though in older, more formal style a regular noun plus a participle is used).

His putting a penguin in my bathtub was a really strange idea.

Cecil's going to Greenland will be an interesting vacation.

(or older style: Him putting a penguin in my bathtub…, Cecil going to Greenland…)

Relative clauses: Defining ("restrictive") and non-defining

1. Defining vs. Non-Defining[78]

Defining vs Non-Defining Clauses: Difference in Meaning

There is a difference in meaning between defining and non-defining clauses that depends on the presence or absence of the comma. For example:

> They have two sons who are doctors.

Defining clause; meaning that there are more sons in the family, e.g.:

> They have two sons who are doctors and one who is an architect.

Cf.:

> They have two sons, who are doctors.

Non-defining clause; meaning that there are no more sons in the family.

ESL Tips on the Use of Relative Pronouns

Although there is no one single rule to cover all the cases, the following summary may be helpful if you need to make a quick decision:

1. Use *that* if the main clause poses the question WHAT? answered by the relative clause;
2. Do not use *that* for presenting non-essential, additional information (that is, in non-defining relative clauses); use *who* or *which* instead;
3. Use *who* to refer to people;
4. Use *which* to refer to things or to refer to the previous clause as a whole;
5. If you choose between *who* or *that*, use *who* in writing;
6. If you choose between *which* and *that*, use *which* in writing;
7. Do not put a comma before *that*.

1.1. Introduction and general usage in defining clauses

Relative pronouns are *that, who, whom, whose, which, where, when*, and *why*. They are used to join clauses to make a complex sentence. Relative pronouns are used at the beginning of the subordinate clause which gives some specific information about the main clause.

> This is the house that Jack built.
>
> I don't know the day when Jane marries him.
>
> The professor, whom I respect, was tenured.

In English, the choice of the relative pronoun depends on the type of clause it is used in. There are two types of clauses distinguished: defining (restrictive) relative clauses and

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78 Handout adapted from owl.english.purdue.edu.

non-defining (non-restrictive) relative clauses. In both types of clauses the relative pronoun can function as a subject, an object, or a possessive.

Relative pronouns in defining clauses

Defining relative clauses (also known as restrictive relative clauses) provide some essential information that explains the main clause. The information is crucial for understanding the sentence correctly and cannot be omitted. Defining clauses are opened by a relative pronoun and ARE NOT separated by a comma from the main clause. The table below sums up the use of relative pronouns in defining clauses.

Function in sentence	Referring to				
	People	*Things / concepts*	*Place*	*Time*	*Reason*
Subject	who, that	which, that			
Object	that, who, whom	which, that	where	when	why
Possessive	whose	whose, of which			

1.2. Examples

Relative pronoun used as a subject:

> This is the house that had a great Christmas decoration.
> It took me a while to get used to people who eat pop-corn during the movie.

Relative pronoun used as an object:

1) As can be seen from the table, referring to a person or thing, the relative pronoun may be omitted in the object position:

> This is the man (who / that) I wanted to speak to and whose name I'd forgotten.
> The library didn't have the book (which / that) I wanted.
> I didn't like the book (which / that) John gave me.
> This is the house where I lived when I first came to the US.

2) **whom:**

In American English, *whom* is not used very often. *Whom* is more formal than *who* and is very often omitted in speech:

> Formal: The woman to whom you have just spoken is my teacher.
> Informal: The woman (who) you have just spoken to is my teacher.

However, *whom* may not be omitted if preceded by a preposition:

> I have found you the tutor for whom you were looking.
> Relative pronoun used as a possessive:

Whose is the only possessive relative pronoun is in English. It can be used with both people and things:

> The family whose house burnt in the fire was immediately given a suite in a hotel.
> The book whose author is now being shown in the news has become a bestseller.

General remarks: *That, Who, Which* compared

The relative pronoun that can only be used in defining clauses. It can also be substituted for *who* (referring to persons) or which (referring to things). That is often used in speech; who and which are more common in written English.

> William Kellogg was the man that lived in the late 19th century and had some weird ideas about raising children. - spoken, less formal

> William Kellogg was the man who lived in the late 19th century and had some weird ideas about raising children. - written, more formal

Although your computer may suggest to correct it, referring to things, *which* may be used in the defining clause to put additional emphasis on the explanation. Again, the sentence with which is more formal than the one with that: Note that since it is the defining clause, there is NO comma used preceding *which*:

> The café that sells the best coffee in town has recently been closed. - less formal

> The café which sells the best coffee in town has recently been closed. - more formal

1.3. Some special uses of relative pronouns in defining clauses

that / who

Referring to people, both that and who can be used. That may be used to referring to someone in general:

> He is the kind of person that/who will never let you down.

> I am looking for someone that/who could give me a ride to Chicago.

However, when a particular person is being spoken about, who is preferred:

> The old lady who lives next door is a teacher.

> The girl who wore a red dress attracted everybody's attention at the party.

that / which

There several cases when that is more appropriate than and is preferred to which:

After the pronouns all, any(thing), every(thing), few, little, many, much, no(thing), none, some(thing):

> The police usually ask for every detail that helps identify the missing person.

> - *that* used as the subject

> Marrying a congressman is all (that) she wants. - *that* used as the object

After verbs that answer the question WHAT? For example, s*ay, suggest, state, declare, hope, think, write,* etc. In this case, the whole relative clause functions as the object of the main clause:

> Some people say (that) success is one percent of talent and ninety-nine percent of hard work.

> The chairman stated at the meeting (that) his company is part of a big-time entertainment industry.

After the noun modified by an adjective in the superlative degree:

This is the funniest story (that) I have ever read! - that used as the object

After ordinal numbers, e.g., first, second, etc.:

The first draft (that) we submitted was really horrible. - that used as the object

If the verb in the main clause is a form of BE:

This is a claim that has absolutely no reason in it. - that used as the subject

2. Relative pronouns in non-defining clauses

Non-defining relative clauses (also known as non-restrictive, or parenthetical, clauses) provide some additional information which is not essential and may be omitted without affecting the contents of the sentence. All relative pronouns EXCEPT *that* can be used in non-defining clauses; however, the pronouns MAY NOT be omitted. Non-defining clauses ARE separated by commas. The table below sums up the use of relative pronouns in non-defining clauses.

Function in sentence	Referring to				
	People	*Things / concepts*	*Place*	*Time*	*Reason*
Subject	who	which			
Object	who, whom	which	where	when	why
Possessive	whose	whose, of which			

a. Relative pronoun used as a subject:

The writer, who lives in this luxurious mansion, has just published his second novel.

b. Relative pronoun used as an object:

The house at the end of the street, which my grandfather built, needs renovating.

c. Relative pronoun used as a possessive:

William Kellogg, whose name has become a famous breakfast foods brand-name, had some weird ideas about raising children.

2.1. Some Special Uses of Relative Pronouns in Non-Defining Clauses

a. which

If you are referring to the previous clause as a whole, use *which*:

My friend eventually decided to get divorced, which upset me a lot.

b. of whom, of which

Use of whom for persons and of which for things or concepts after numbers and words such as *most, many, some, both, none:*

I saw a lot of new people at the party, some of whom seemed familiar.

He was always coming up with new ideas, most of which were absolutely impracticable.

Gerunds and infinitives

The choice of using a gerund or infinitive form of a verb may depend significantly on the particular word it modifies, or a particular grammatical construction. In other cases, they may be fully interchangeable, with only a slight difference in nuance. In a few cases, both are possible, with a difference in meaning.

1. Dependent infinitives

The most common use for infinitives is the dependent infinitive after another verb, such as expressions of wishes, hopes, and intentions:

> I just want to play on my drums all day. I hope to become a great drummer like Van Halen. So I plan to practice all day.

Infinitives are in a sense "tenseless" or not time-bound like other verbs; they don't refer to actual events so much as they refer to potential events, possible events, or events that haven't happened yet. Thus, they are used after main verbs like those above. Because of this semantic nuance, they are somewhat more abstract or generic (general) in meaning than infinitives or other forms of verbs.

2. Purpose clauses

Infinitives are used with purpose clauses, in which case they are similar to *in order to*. (The phrase *in order to* puts more emphasis on the purpose, or distinguishes a purpose infinitive from normal infinitives.)

> He bought the car to impress his girlfriend.   (in order to impress his girlfriend)

3. Interchangeable gerunds and infinitives

A gerund suggests an actual or real activity or experience that occurs (or would occur), while an infinitive implies a potential or possible activity or experience.

I like speaking Chinese when I'm in Chinatown.	≈ I enjoy the experience of speaking in Chinese.
I like to speak Chinese when I'm in Chinatown.	≈ I enjoy the option / ability / possibility of speaking Chinese
I tried speaking Chinese while I was there.	≈ I tried actually speaking it
I tried to speak Chinese while I was there.	≈ I attempted it – depending on the context, this may imply that I wasn't successful in doing so
I like living in Europe.	Implies that I actually have done so
I like to live in Europe.	Implies that I haven't done so, but would like to do so

In expressions like the following, they are interchangeable, with this sort of very slight nuance[79].

can't bear	He can't bear being alone.	He can't bear to be alone.
can't stand	Nancy can't stand working the late shift.	Nancy can't stand to work the late shift.
cease	The government ceased providing free health care.	The government ceased to provide free health care.
continue	She continued talking.	She continued to talk.
hate	He hates cleaning dishes.	He hates to clean dishes.
like	Samantha likes reading.	Samantha likes to read.
love	We love scuba diving.	We love to scuba dive.
neglect	He neglected doing his daily chores.	He neglected to do his daily chores.
prefer	He prefers eating at 7 PM.	He prefers to eat at 7 PM.
propose	Drew proposed paying for the trip.	Drew proposed to pay for the trip.

With these main verbs below, the choice between gerunds and infinitives depend on whether the dependent verb (the infinitive or gerund after the main verb, which depends on the main verb) has a subject. Expressing a subject with a gerund that is different from the subject of a main verb can be more wordy, or even awkward.

> I advised seeing a doctor = I advised that they see a doctor; I advised them to see a doctor.
>
> I advised their seeing a doctor: same meaning, but sounds awkward

advise	I advised seeing a doctor.	I advised them to see a doctor.
allow	Ireland doesn't allow smoking in bars.	Ireland doesn't allow people to smoke in bars.
encourage	He encourages eating healthy foods.	He encourages his patients to eat healthy foods.
permit	California doesn't permit fishing without a fishing license.	California doesn't permit people to fish without a fishing license.
require	The certificate requires completing two courses.	The certificate requires students to complete two courses.
urge	They urge recycling bottles and paper.	They urge citizens to recycle bottles and paper.

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79 This and other following tables are from www.englishpage.com. See also the OWL website handout on gerunds and infinitives, http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/627/01/.

4. Significantly different gerund / infinitive meanings

With some main verbs, whether the following dependent verbal item is a gerund or infinitive changes the meaning altogether. For example, with the main verb *stop*, the type of following verbal item (which depends on the main verb) can have a very different meaning. With *stop*, the infinitive is a purpose infinitive (purpose clause, similar to *in order to*).

I stopped to buy some coffee.	= I stopped in order to buy coffee.
I stopped buying coffee. it's too expensive)	= I no longer buy coffee (I quit drinking it; or

	Gerund	Infinitive
begin	When "begin" is used in non-continuous tenses, you can either use a gerund or an infinitive. She began singing. She began to sing.	When "begin" is used in continuous tenses, an infinitive is used. She is beginning to sing.
dread	Usually "dread" is followed by a gerund. She dreaded taking the test.	"Dread" is sometimes used with infinitives such as "think" or "consider." In the sentence above, "dreaded to think" means "did not want to think." He dreaded to think of the consequences of his actions.
forget	When "forget" is used with a gerund, it means "to forget that you have done something." The sentence above means that she read the book when she was a kid, and that she has forgotten that fact. She forgot reading the book when she was a kid.	When "forget" is used with an infinitive, it means "to forget that you need to do something." The sentence above means that she forgot that she needed to pay the rent. She forgot to pay the rent this month.
keep	"Keep" is normally used with a gerund to mean that you continue doing an action. She kept talking.	"Keep" can also be used with an object followed by an infinitive, but then the infinitive takes on the meaning of "in order to…" In the sentence above, the attackers kept hostages in order to prevent the police from entering. The attackers kept hostages to prevent the police from entering.

	Gerund	**Infinitive**
need	When "need" is used with a gerund, it takes on a passive meaning (note: this may be considered more colloquial or dialectal in style). The sentence above means "the house needs to be cleaned." The house needs cleaning.	"Need" is usually used with an infinitive or an object + an infinitive. He needs to call his boss. He needs him to call his boss.
regret	"Regret" is normally used with a gerund. I regretted being late to the interview.	"Regret" is sometimes used with infinitives such as "to inform." In the sentence above, "We regret to inform you" means "We wish we did not have to tell you (bad news)." We regret to inform you that your position at the company is being eliminated.
re-member	When "remember" is used with a gerund, it means "to remember that you have done something." The sentence above means that I mentioned the meeting, and that I remember the fact that I did that. I remember mentioning the meeting yesterday.	When "remember" is used with an infinitive, it means "to remember that you need to do something." The sentence above means that he remembered that he needed to turn the lights off. He remembered to turn off the lights before he left.
start	When "start" is used in non-continuous tenses, you can either use a gerund or an infinitive. Marge started talking really fast. Marge started to talk really fast.	When "start" is used in continuous tenses, an infinitive is used. Marge is starting to talk really fast. In other situations, an infinitive means that you did not complete or continue an action. I started to learn Russian, but it was so much work that I finally quit the class.
stop	"Stop" is normally used with a gerund. He stopped drinking for health reasons.	When "stop" is used with an infinitive, the infinitive takes on the meaning of "in order to." In the sentence above, he stopped in order to rest for a few minutes. He stopped to rest for a few minutes.

	Gerund	Infinitive
try	"Try + gerund" means to try or to experiment with different methods to see if something works. "Try + gerund" is often used when you experiment with something, but you do not really like it or want to do it again. She tried eating the snake soup, but she didn't like it. She can't find a job. She tried looking in the paper, but there was nothing. She tried asking friends and family, but nobody knew of anything. She also tried going shop to shop, but nobody was hiring.	When you "try to do" something, you want to do it, but you do not succeed in actually doing it. In the sentence above, an infinitive is used because she cannot successfully climb the tree. She tried to climb the tree, but she couldn't even get off the ground. An infinitive is also used if you are asking someone to try something they may or may not be able to accomplish. Try not to wake the baby when you get up tomorrow at 5 AM.

5. Gerunds required for modifying other words

In the following cases, certain content words take gerunds to modify them.

5.1. Go + gerund

The main verb *go* can be followed by a gerund for referring to various activities.

go boating	go kayaking	go skiing
go bowling	go mountain climbing	go skinny-dipping
go bungee jumping	go paragliding	go skydiving
go camping	go parasailing	go sledding
go canoeing	go rollerblading	go snorkeling
go climbing	go running	go snowboarding
go dancing	go sailing	go spearfishing
go fishing	go scuba diving	go surfing
go hiking	go shopping	go trekking
go horseback riding	go sightseeing	go water skiing
go hunting	go skateboarding	go window shopping
go jogging	go skating	go windsurfing

5.2. Adjective + preposition + gerund

There are many adjectives that take a preposition and gerund to indicate a semantic relationship between the event or activity and the adjective; a few are listed below.

accustomed to	He is accustomed to having his own office.
addicted to	She is addicted to watching TV.
afraid of	She is afraid of speaking in public.
anxious about	Norma is anxious about making the presentation.
bored of	I am bored of doing the same old job.
capable of	He is capable of winning a gold medal.
committed to	She is committed to improving her English.
concerned about	Nancy was concerned about being late.
content with	Tim is content with winning second place.
dedicated to	The organization is dedicated to ending poverty.
devoted to	The money will be devoted to protecting the environment.
disappointed with	Fiona was disappointed with coming in third place.
discouraged by	He was discouraged by not getting the job.
excited about	The researcher was excited about going to Africa.
famous for	That actor is famous for being extremely weird.
fond of	She is fond of having picnics.
frightened of	She is frightened of being alone at night.
guilty of	The banker was guilty of stealing money.
happy about	He was happy about winning the lottery.
interested in	She is interested in becoming a doctor.
involved in	He was involved in making the movie.
known for	She was known for causing problems.
opposed to	They are opposed to building a new road in the park.
proud of	He was proud of having completed the marathon.
remembered for	She is remembered for protecting mountain gorillas.
responsible for	He is responsible for causing the damage.
scared of	Tina is scared of being alone at night.
terrified of	The surfer is terrified of being attacked by a shark.
tired from	She is tired from working all day.
tired of	Margaret is tired of making dinner every night.
worried about	The hikers were worried about not having enough water.

5.3. Noun + preposition + gerund

Some nouns follow a similar pattern; a few are listed below.

addiction to	His addiction to surfing the Internet is a problem.
advantage of	He has the advantage of speaking English fluently.
anxiety about	Her anxiety about speaking in public caused her to lose the job.
belief in	His belief in not harming animals was something he learned from his mother.
credit for	She took credit for improving the filing system.
dedication to	His dedication to teaching was impressive.
delay in	The delay in processing the visa caused problems.
devotion to	His devotion to biking allowed him to win the competition.
disadvantage of	The disadvantage of flying is that you can't see the scenery along the way.
experience in	She has a great deal of experience in introducing new products to international markets.
	With the noun "experience," sometimes a gerund is added without the preposition "in." "Experience introducing new products" would also be acceptable.
fear of	His fear of flying made travel difficult.
fondness for	Her fondness for traveling led to her career in the travel industry.
habit of	His habit of smoking in restaurants caused many problems in California.
interest in	Her career as a pilot evolved out of her interest in flying.
knowledge of	Her knowledge of climbing helped her during the competition.
love of	His love of singing developed when he was a child.
memory of	Their memories of traveling in Africa will stay with them forever.
preference for	I think his preference for speaking his native language is natural.
process of	The process of painting such a large mural is more complicated than you might think.
reaction to	His reaction to winning the prize was quite funny.
reason for	The main reason for taking the course is to improve your language skills.
regret for	The criminal's regret for committing the crime did not convince the judge.
report on	The magazine's report on choosing the right car was not well researched.
reputation for	Her reputation for lying is well known.

responsibility for	His responsibility for completing the project on time was acknowledged by the company.
story about	I don't know if I believe his story about seeing a UFO.
talent for	His talent for learning languages was impressive.

5.4. Gerunds as passives.

Gerunds can also be used in passive forms, with *being* + past participle as a passive voice equivalent.

> The dog enjoys being taught how to hunt.
> The boy likes being taught Latin.

6. Infinitives for modifying other words

Some content words take infinitives to modify them.

6.1. (*be* +) adjective + infinitive

The following adjectives take infinitives (these are only a few).

be amazed	He was amazed to discover the truth.
be anxious	She was anxious to start her new job.
be ashamed	He was ashamed to admit he had lied.
be bound	She is bound to be elected class president.
be careful	They were careful not to reveal the winner of the prize until the end.
be certain	She is certain to get the job.
be content	The student was content to receive second place in the competition.
be delighted	We were delighted to be invited to the wedding.
be determined	He was determined to finish the marathon.
be eager	He was eager to begin.
be eligible	They were not eligible to participate in the program.
be fortunate	She was fortunate to receive the research grant.
be glad	I would be glad to help out.
be happy	She was happy to see them at the party.
be hesitant	Mary was hesitant to say anything.
be liable	The mountain climber is liable to hurt himself if he doesn't use well-made equipment.

be likely	They are likely to show up at any time.
be lucky	You were lucky to have such an opportunity.
be pleased	I am pleased to meet you.
be proud	He was proud to have been chosen to lead the project.
be ready	I'm ready to go now.
be reluctant	The witness was reluctant to reveal what he had seen.
be sad	She was really sad to leave.
be shocked	He was shocked to discover the truth.
be sorry	I am sorry to have to tell you that the tickets are sold out.
be surprised	She was surprised to discover that he had never learned how to swim.

6.2. Noun + infinitive

Often, a noun can take an infinitive, where the infinitive serves as a descriptive phrase that serves a function similar to a relative clause in modifying the noun. The *way* construction is particularly common in colloquial English.

advice	His advice to continue was good.
appeal	The appeal to reduce pollution was ineffective.
attempt	Her attempt to locate them was unsuccessful.
chance	In Britain, you will have a chance to improve your English.
decision	The decision to increase taxes was not popular.
desire	His desire to get a good job motivated him.
dream	Her dream to become an actress was never realized.
goal	His goal to run a marathon seemed unrealistic.
motivation	Her motivation to enter university impressed them.
need	Bob's need to be the center of attention was irritating.
opportunity	The opportunity to live in New York interested Sandra.
order	They followed the general's order to retreat.
permission	Permission to enter the area was difficult to get.
plan	Sandy's plan to move to Madrid bothered her parents.
preparation	NASA's preparations to launch on Monday moved forward.
proposal	Her proposal to host the party impressed the committee.
recommendation	His recommendation to close the school upset the community.
refusal	Debra's refusal to help did not go unnoticed.

reminder	Her reminder to review the vocabulary helped me pass the test.
request	Their request to participate was granted.
requirement	Their requirement to speak four languages was unreasonable.
suggestion	His suggestion to leave seemed like a good idea.
tendency	His tendency to tap his desk during a test annoyed me.
wish	Her wish to be treated normally was respected.
way	One way to improve your English is to read novels.

Some nouns can take either a gerund or infinitive modifier, with only a slight difference in nuance, as discussed above. Some nouns like *way* usually take an infinitive, and other nouns follow other patterns or tendencies (e.g., *means* more often takes *of* + *gerund*).

This is a common method to get rid of dust mites.
This is a common method of getting rid of dust mites.
This is a good way to keep ants out of the house.
That is not an effective means of controlling rats.

Parallel grammar structures in writing

1. Parallel structure[80]

Parallel structure means using the same pattern of words to show that two or more ideas have the same level of importance. This can happen at the word, phrase, or clause level. The usual way to join parallel structures is with the use of coordinating conjunctions such as "and" or "or."

Words and Phrases

With the -ing form (gerund) of words:

Parallel: Mary likes hiking, swimming, and bicycling.

With infinitive phrases:

Parallel: Mary likes to hike, to swim, and to ride a bicycle. OR

Mary likes to hike, swim, and ride a bicycle.

(Note: You can use "to" before all the verbs in a sentence or only before the first one.)

Do not mix forms.

Not Parallel:	Mary likes hiking, swimming, and to ride a bicycle.
Parallel:	Mary likes hiking, swimming, and riding a bicycle.
Not Parallel:	The production manager was asked to write his report quickly, accurately, and in a detailed manner.
Parallel:	The production manager was asked to write his report quickly, accurately, and thoroughly.
Not Parallel:	The teacher said that he was a poor student because he waited until the last minute to study for the exam, completed his lab problems in a careless manner, and his motivation was low.
Parallel:	The teacher said that he was a poor student because he waited until the last minute to study for the exam, completed his lab problems in a careless manner, and lacked motivation.

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80 Handout adapted from owl.english.purdue.edu.

Clauses

A parallel structure that begins with clauses must keep on with clauses. Changing to another pattern or changing the voice of the verb (from active to passive or vice versa) will break the parallelism.

Not Parallel:	The coach told the players that they should get a lot of sleep, that they should not eat too much, and to do some warm-up exercises before the game.
Parallel:	The coach told the players that they should get a lot of sleep, that they should not eat too much, and that they should do some warm-up exercises before the game.
	OR
	The coach told the players that they should get a lot of sleep, not eat too much, and do some warm-up exercises before the game.
Not Parallel:	The salesman expected that he would present his product at the meeting, that there would be time for him to show his slide presentation, and that questions would be asked by prospective buyers. (passive)
Parallel:	The salesman expected that he would present his product at the meeting, that there would be time for him to show his slide presentation, and that prospective buyers would ask him questions.

Lists after a colon

Be sure to keep all the elements in a list in the same form.

Not Parallel:	The dictionary can be used for these purposes: to find word meanings, pronunciations, correct spellings, and looking up irregular verbs.
Parallel:	The dictionary can be used for these purposes: to find word meanings, pronunciations, correct spellings, and irregular verbs.

Parallel structure in professional writing

It is important to be consistent in your wording in professional writing, particularly in employment documents; this is called parallelism. When you are expressing ideas of equal weight in your writing, parallel sentence structures can echo that fact and offer you a writing style that uses balance and rhythm to help deliver your meaning. You can use parallel structure in any kind of writing that you do, whether that writing is on or off the job. Here are some examples that demonstrate how to implement parallelism in preparing employment documents. When you're done reviewing them, try the practice exercise at the bottom.

Incorrect:	My degree, my work experience, and ability to complete complicated projects qualify me for the job.
Correct:	My degree, my work experience, and my ability to complete complicated projects qualify me for the job.

Incorrect:

- Prepared weekly field payroll
- Material purchasing, expediting, and returning
- Recording OSHA regulated documentation
- Change orders
- Maintained hard copies of field documentation

Correct:

- Prepared weekly field payroll
- Handled material purchasing, expediting, and returning
- Recorded OSHA regulated documentation
- Processed change orders
- Maintained hard copies of field documentation

Practice

Correct the following bulleted list from a final report.

On the web page there is much wasted space which is unappealing to the viewer. The following are suggestions for eliminating the unwanted blank space:

Move some of the text into the blank space

Centering the picture

Centering the picture and add text to each side

On the right of the picture, tell a little bit about the picture (who owns the balloon, what year and where this picture was taken, etc.)

Have pictures that stretch the length of the screen, like with a panoramic camera

Or as a last resort even take the picture out

Punctuation & typography symbols

Punctuation symbols

apostrophe	' '
brackets	[ ]
square brackets (braces)	[ ]
curly brackets / braces	{ }
angled / angular braces	< >
parentheses	( )
open / opening paren.'s close /	(
closing paren.'s	)
colon	:
semi-colon	;
comma	,
ellipses	… or ...
exclamation mark	!
period (full stop period)	.
question mark	?
quotation marks	' '
opening, closing single quotes	" "
opening, closing double	' '
quotes	" "
slash/stroke	/

Word dividers

space	
interpunct	· (a·a)
hyphen (e.g., hyphen-ation)	-, -
dashes	-, –, —, –
figure dash	‒
en dash (= "n" size)	–
em dash (= "m" size)	—
horizontal bar	—

Figure dash & en dash– used for numbers, numerical ranges, phone numbers; em dash— for parenthetical thoughts; bar – for quotations.

General typography

ampersand	&
at sign	@
asterisk	*
backslash	\
bullet	•
caret (e.g., insertion symbol)	^
daggers	†, ‡
number / pound sign	#
numero sign	№º
percent	%
paragraph (pilcrow)	¶
section sign	§
tilde /swung dash	~
underscore/understrike	_ (a_a)
underline	_ (a)
double underline	= (a)
strikethrough	a̶a̶a̶
overstrike, overline	a̅a̅a̅
vertical pipe/bar	|
broken bar	¦

Foreign symbols

umlaut /diaeresis	¨ (ä, ö)
grave accent	à
acute accent	á
circumflex accent	â
cedille (French)	ç
Hungarian heavy "umlaut"	ő, ű
caret, or Czech hačet [hatʃɛt]	č, ř, š
guillemets (European)	« »
inverted commas / quotes (European)	„ "

Foreign symbols

inverted question mark (Spanish)	¿
inverted exclamation mark (Spanish)	¡
Chinese paragraph symbol	○
Chinese full stop	。
Chinese double quotation marks	『 』
Chinese single quotation marks	「 」
ligature, tie	k͡p t͡ʃ

Math and logic

solidus (math)	∕
prime	′ ´
therefore sign	∴
because sign	∵
logical negation	¬ ˜
logical conjunction	∧
logical disjunction	∨
universal quantification	∀
existential qualification	∃

Intellectual property

copyright	©
registered trademark	®
service mark	℠
sound recording copyright	℗
trademark	™
copyleft (free)	(ɔ)
Creative Commons license	(CC)

Uncommon & informal typography

asterism	⁂
index / fist	☞
interrobang	‽
lozenge	◊
per mil / per mille / mille (like percent)	‰
permyriad / basis point / bp	‱
reference mark	※
smiley (emoticon)	:)
frown (emoticon)	:(

Comma splices or fused sentences

A comma splice refers to a sentence with clauses simply joined by a comma, without an appropriate conjunction or other transitional. Instead, a transitional should be used, or a semi-colon or period. Compare the following versions of a sentence; the first has a comma splice, resulting in what we called a fused sentence.

1. Typically, graduate student receive good grades, their social lives rate as a C−.
2. Typically, graduate student receive good grades, but their social lives rate as a C−.
3. Typically, graduate student receive good grades; their social lives rate as a C−.
4. Typically, graduate student receive good grades; however, their social lives rate as a C−.
5. Although graduate student typically receive good grades, their social lives rate as a C−.

Take a look at the following examples, and decide how you would repair them.

1. A bird entered the house through the chimney, we had to catch it before the cat did.
2. Some so-called health foods are not so healthy, many are made with oils that raise cholesterol levels.
3. Normal people need eight hours of sleep per night, graduate students only need four.
4. The dentistry profession will soon change, dentists will use lasers instead of drills.
5. The woman entered her apartment and jumped with fright, someone was leaving through her bedroom window.
6. When I was little, my brother tried to feed me flies, he told me they were raisins.
7. The goose-down jacket was poorly manufactured, little feathers leaked out of the seams.
8. A horse's teeth never stop growing, they will eventually grow outside the horse's mouth.
9. Lobsters are cannibalistic, this is one reason they are hard to raise in captivity.
10. The chain on this bicycle is defective, it chews up people's pants, it leaves grease stains on people's ankles as well.

Colons and semicolons

1. Colon (:)

A colon joins two independent clauses and draws the reader's attention to the second clauses, and can thus add a certain kind of emphasis to the clause. It can also introduce a definition, a list, or indicate a logical conclusion, result or effect. It is also used in more formal letter greetings.

> There is something that graduate students simply cannot live without: coffee.
>
> President Bush spoke on the economy during his term: "In terms of the economy, look, I inherited a recession, I am ending on a recession."
>
> Floodwaters from the storm have closed the following sections of the city: the historical downtown district, the Garden Street district, the Happy Valley area, and sections along the highway. [list]
>
> Traffic light: a device that turns red as you approach it.   [definition]
>
> There was only one possible conclusion: the ship had sunk.   [conclusion]
>
> To Whom It May Concern: [letter salutation]

2. Semicolon (;)

A semicolon can link two independent clauses with no conjunctions or connecting words, to imply a logical relationship between the two clauses. This creates a different flow than with two separate sentences.

> The negotiators could not break their deadlock; they decided to reconvene and discuss the difficult issues after a one-week break.
>
> The mice brains were frozen and sliced into strips of 0.1 mm thickness; the slices were then examined for the effects of the drugs on neural tissues.

Semicolons can join two clauses with conjunctive adverbs (adverbial conjunctions) such as: *however, moreover, therefore, consequently, otherwise, nevertheless, thus, furthermore.*

> The negotiators could not break their deadlock; thus, they decided to reconvene and discuss the difficult issues after a one-week break.
>
> Drug X was not found to have any effects on neural tissue samples; however, Drug Y was found to increase dopamine levels, as expected.

Semicolons can also be used as "super commas" for sequences of longer phrases or clauses.

> We attempted to examine the following factors in our study: (1) how lexical subclasses of nouns affected usage of articles; (2) how semantic subclasses affected article usage; (3) recency effects and other contextual effects; and (4) individual style variations.

Basic academic vocabulary

The following 570 words constitute the most common and basic academic lexicon that an undergraduate student should master [from http://www.lextutor.ca].

abandon	attitude	comprise	cycle
abstract	attribute	compute	data
academy	author	conceive	debate
access	authority	concentrate	decade
accommodate	automate	concept	decline
accompany	available	conclude	deduce
accumulate	aware	concurrent	define
accurate	behalf	conduct	definite
achieve	benefit	confer	demonstrate
acknowledge	bias	confine	denote
acquire	bond	confirm	deny
adapt	brief	conflict	depress
adequate	bulk	conform	derive
adjacent	capable	consent	design
adjust	capacity	consequent	despite
administrate	category	considerable	detect
adult	cease	consist	deviate
advocate	challenge	constant	device
affect	channel	constitute	devote
aggregate	chapter	constrain	differentiate
aid	chart	construct	dimension
albeit	chemical	consult	diminish
allocate	circumstance	consume	discrete
alter	cite	contact	discriminate
alternative	civil	contemporary	displace
ambiguous	clarify	context	display
amend	classic	contract	dispose
analogy	clause	contradict	distinct
analyze	code	contrary	distort
annual	coherent	contrast	distribute
anticipate	coincide	contribute	diverse
apparent	collapse	controversy	document
append	colleague	convene	domain
appreciate	commence	converse	domestic
approach	comment	convert	dominate
appropriate	commission	convince	draft
approximate	commit	cooperate	drama
arbitrary	commodity	coordinate	duration
area	communicate	core	dynamic
aspect	community	corporate	economy
assemble	compatible	correspond	edit
assess	compensate	couple	element
assign	compile	create	eliminate
assist	complement	credit	emerge
assume	complex	criteria	emphasis
assure	component	crucial	empirical
attach	compound	culture	enable
attain	comprehensive	currency	encounter

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energy	guideline	job	outcome
enforce	hence	journal	output
enhance	hierarchy	justify	overall
enormous	highlight	label	overlap
ensure	hypothesis	labor	overseas
entity	identical	layer	panel
environment	identify	lecture	paradigm
equate	ideology	legal	paragraph
equip	ignorant	legislate	parallel
equivalent	illustrate	levy	parameter
erode	image	liberal	participate
error	immigrate	license	partner
establish	impact	likewise	passive
estate	implement	link	perceive
estimate	implicate	locate	percent
ethic	implicit	logic	period
ethnic	imply	maintain	persist
evaluate	impose	major	perspective
eventual	incentive	manipulate	phase
evident	incidence	manual	phenomenon
evolve	incline	margin	philosophy
exceed	income	mature	physical
exclude	incorporate	maximize	plus
exhibit	index	mechanism	policy
expand	indicate	media	portion
expert	individual	mediate	pose
explicit	induce	medical	positive
exploit	inevitable	medium	potential
export	infer	mental	practitioner
expose	infrastructure	method	precede
external	inherent	migrate	precise
extract	inhibit	military	predict
facilitate	initial	minimal	predominant
factor	initiate	minimize	preliminary
feature	injure	minimum	presume
federal	innovate	ministry	previous
fee	input	minor	primary
file	insert	mode	prime
final	insight	modify	principal
finance	inspect	monitor	principle
finite	instance	motive	prior
flexible	institute	mutual	priority
fluctuate	instruct	negate	proceed
focus	integral	network	process
format	integrate	neutral	professional
formula	integrity	nevertheless	prohibit
forthcoming	intelligence	nonetheless	project
foundation	intense	norm	promote
founded	interact	normal	proportion
framework	intermediate	notion	prospect
function	internal	notwithstanding	protocol
fund	interpret	nuclear	psychology
fundamental	interval	objective	publication
furthermore	intervene	obtain	publish
gender	intrinsic	obvious	purchase
generate	invest	occupy	pursue
generation	investigate	occur	qualitative
globe	invoke	odd	quote
goal	involve	offset	radical
grade	isolate	ongoing	random
grant	issue	option	range
guarantee	item	orient	ratio

rational	route	submit	transfer
react	scenario	subordinate	transform
recover	schedule	subsequent	transit
refine	scheme	subsidy	transmit
regime	scope	substitute	transport
region	section	successor	trend
register	sector	sufficient	trigger
regulate	secure	sum	ultimate
reinforce	seek	summary	undergo
reject	select	supplement	underlie
relax	sequence	survey	undertake
release	series	survive	uniform
relevant	sex	suspend	unify
reluctance	shift	sustain	unique
rely	significant	symbol	utilize
remove	similar	tape	valid
require	simulate	target	vary
research	site	task	vehicle
reside	so-called	team	version
resolve	sole	technical	via
resource	somewhat	technique	violate
respond	source	technology	virtual
restore	specific	temporary	visible
restrain	specify	tense	vision
restrict	sphere	terminate	visual
retain	stable	text	volume
reveal	statistic	theme	voluntary
revenue	status	theory	welfare
reverse	straightforward	thereby	whereas
revise	strategy	thesis	whereby
revolution	stress	topic	widespread
rigid	structure	trace	
role	style	tradition	

Sample curriculum for writing tutoring

The following sample curriculum for tutoring writing skills is based on the *Writing Manual*, which can be found on my website, www.kentlee7.com under 'EAP.' The activities below refer to the following manuals with chapter numbers, or my website. Be sure to have read or looked through these manuals before you start tutoring.

- GT   *General Tutoring Manual* (usually chapter 8.5, unless otherwise noted)
- WTM *Writing Tutors Manual*
- EAP   English for Academic Purposes website [www.tinyurl.com/kentlee7 > EAP]
- WW   My writing website [www.tinyurl.com/kentlee7 > writing]

week #	lesson topic	activities or materials
01	introductions; discuss ground rules [GT 8.1] writing process	ice-breakers [GT 8.2], or diagnostic activities [GT 8.3]; Writing process: reflective writing assignment [WTM p. 8]
02	writing process	brainstorming, revision [WTM p. 8-16]
03	essay structure, introductions	[WTM p. 24-29, 40-43]
04	support, evidence; genre analysis	Discuss types of support for arguments; Students compare and analyze academic papers from their field; each should write a short paper on "how papers are written my my field" [TWM p. 30-34]
05	peer editing	Students peer edit papers assigned last time; Optional: ask students to revise their papers [WTM 15-19]
06-07	arguments, counter-argumentation	Critique sample essays (e.g.., Salon.com, online editorials from good news sites) [WTM 47-56] Students can do an argumentation exercise, in which they write a paragraph for a particular view, then write a paragraph attacking that same view, and a third paragraph to argue for the original view and address the objections

08	logical fallacies	Discuss fallacies; find & discuss examples from commercial advertisements, politicians, etc. [WTM 57-62]
09	summarizing, paraphrasing, avoiding plagiarism	Do practice with summarizing / paraphrasing, or plagiarism exercise [WTM 64-75]
10	using sources	Discuss how to use & cite sources in one's writing [WTM 64-75, appendices on MLA, APA] Discuss Google searches [WTM 177-183]
11/ 12	coherence, flow, transitionals	Discuss [WTM102-133], do exercises
13	word choice issues	Discuss [WTM 137-164]
14	writing grammar	Discuss [WTM appendices]
15	peer editing	Peer editing of papers they are doing in their courses
16	(finals)	

Types of writing exercises that may be typically used or taught in writing classes or tutoring.

- miscue analysis: Students are asked to identify their mistakes in their written work, and to reflect on their writing process as the made the mistake, and the reasons for their mistakes.
- dictogloss: The teacher reads aloud a text several times, and students take notes; the students form small groups and reconstruct the text from their notes, i.e., a paraphrase or a summary in their own words. This is an alternative to traditional dictation exercises.
- alternate story endings; writing stories from alternative point of view
- outline or semantic map of a text
- story completion
- creating writing
- journaling
- freewriting
- writing + discussion activities
- research papers
- journal articles
- freewriting
- literary analysis
- formal writing
- resumes

- application / cover letters
- business letters & other business writing
- science reports
- pre-lecture write-up: answering questions about a topic from an assigned reading before the class lectures
- formative assessment: At the end of class, students write a short paragraph to explain what they did not understand about the lecture or questions that they have; or to summarize what they learned in their own words; or to answer a conceptual question based on the lecture.

Resources

1. Websites

1. www.dictionary.com

2. www.thesaurus.com

3. owl.english.purdue.edu: Online Writer's Lab at Purdue University

4. www.kentlee7.com; alternate site: www.tinyurl.com/kentlee7

5. OCW sites: Many universities host online courseware sites, especially in North America, which can be found via simple Google searches; see also www.ocwconsortium.org and ocw.korea.ac.kr

6. TED.com: Online speeches by popular speakers from academia, business, and other fields; often, transcripts and subtitles are available; subtitled videos can be downloaded

2. Reference books

1. Cowan, Ron. (2008). *The Teacher's Grammar of English*. Cambridge Univ. Press. [A linguistically informed grammar book, mainly for ESL teachers; strangely organized, but good contents.]

2. Epstein, Richard. (2002). The definite article, accessibility, and the construction of discourse referents. *Cognitive Linguistics, 12*, 333-378.

3. Ko, Heejeong; Ionin, Tania; & Wexler, Ken. (2004). Adult L2-learners lack the maximality presupposition, too! *GALANA 2004 Proceedings*, 1-13.

4. Lindstromberg, Seth. (2010). *English Prepositions Explained*. John Benjamins Pub. [This explains the core meaning and other meanings of prepositions; also applicable to phrasal verbs.]

5. *Oxford Collocations Dictionary*. (2009). Oxford Univ. Press. [& other collocations dictionaries, such as Collins-Cobuild]

6. *Oxford Phrasal Verbs Dictionary*. (2006). Oxford Univ. Press. [The appendix explains the meanings or uses of the verb particles like *up, on, over*, etc.]

7. Swales, John M. & Feak, Christine B. (2004). *Academic Writing for Graduate Students*. Univ. Michigan Press. [The presentation seems a bit dry or boring, but it has good information on advanced academic writing.]

References

1. Anson, Crhis M., Joan Graham, David A. Jolliffe, Nancy S. Shapiro, Carolyn H. Smith. 1993. *Scenarios for Teaching Writing.* Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English.

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