

ACADEMIC ENGLISH

DENG539

Edited by
Karan Thakur



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Academic English
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DENG539 ACADEMIC ENGLISH

Sr. No.	Content
Unit 1	Academic writing : Introduction, texts and academic texts, ways of writing, balanced versus weighted essays
Unit 2	Academic writing : Brainstorming and outlining, gathering information, sorting the material
Unit 3	Writing paragraphs : introduction, types of paragraphs, enumeration
Unit 4	Writing paragraphs : exemplification, complex paragraphs, sequence
Unit 5	Writing paragraphs : comparison of items, cause effect in paragraph writing, visuals in paragraph writing
Unit 6	Basics of reports and research papers : introduction, types of reports, format of a report, assessment reports
Unit 7	Basics of reports and research papers : writing a report, understanding the text, data collection, writing a research paper
Unit 8	Basics of reports and research papers : overview of a research paper, selection of a research paper, plagiarism, citing sources, publication sources
Unit 9	Presenting your ideas : purpose of a presentation, components of a presentation, when to read or speak, preparation
Unit 10	Presenting your ideas : before the talk, on the podium, handling questions, strategic planning
Unit 11	Grammar for editing : basic sentences, verbs, nouns, editing a sentence
Unit 12	Grammar for editing : delayed subjects: it, there and what, the long and winding sentence, short sentences, parallelism
Unit 13	Working with words : misleading words, one word for many, complicated words, avoiding metaphors, redundant words
Unit 14	Working with words : linking words, expressing the degree of certainty, capitalization, sexist language

Unit 01: Academic Writing: Introduction, texts and academic texts, ways of writing, balanced versus weighted essays

Digvijay Pandya, Lovely Professional University

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Objectives

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

- Understand the meaning and difference of academic and non academic texts
- Analyze and differentiate between academic and non-academic texts
- Illustrate different common ways of writing texts.
- Differentiate between balanced and weighted essays.

Introduction

Academic English is a type of English utilized in the realm of research, study, instruction, and colleges. On the off chance that you read an article in a scholastic journal or tune in to somebody giving an introduction or a discussion about a scholarly subject in a scholastic environment, Academic English is most likely be in use. In the event that you are pursuing any degree from an English-speaking college (or going to), you should gain proficiency with this kind of English. Native English speakers additionally need to learn Academic English too in light of the fact that it isn't caring for the English that is used by English speakers as a routine.

Academic writing is different from creative writing, which is the kind of writing you do when you write stories. It is also different from personal writing, which is the kind of writing you do when you write letters or e-mails to your friends and family. Creative writing and personal writing are informal, so you may use slang, abbreviations, and incomplete sentences. However, academic writing is formal, so you should not use slang or contractions. Also, you should take care to write complete sentences and to organize them in a certain way.

Academic writing in English is probably different from academic writing in your native language. The words and grammar and also the way of organizing ideas are probably different from what you are used to. In fact, the English way of writing may seem clumsy, repetitive, and even impolite to you. Just remember that it is neither better nor worse than other ways; it is just different.

The chapter can help you to analyse your academic writing texts and academic texts, ways of writing, balanced versus weighted essays. It will also emphasizes that no amount of theorizing and

intellectualizing of writing is going to make more successful writing patterns unless accompanied by an undertaking to engage in practical strategies and to plan effective writing tactics.

Academics have often reported that examining what writing means to them, and analysing its contradictions, helps them to gain more control over how, when and what they write. Once you will learn to examine more closely the things that bring you to a writing task and the things that take you away from it, you may simply be in a better position to write productively and well.

Exploring writing complexities might help you to make more sense of your experiences, of writing and gain more control over its associated processes. Writing has often been described as a demanding and sometimes troublesome dimension of academic life. Analysing its complexities may help to shed more light on why this is the case for many academics in many different contexts.

The complexities, associated with writing, explores its iterative, continuous nature, emphasizing how important we think it is to treat academic writing in a recursive way. We explore writing problems in an effort to explicate the ups and downs of the academic writing process, and provide a more practical framework within which to manage those problems by introducing the idea of outlining and designing short bursts of effective writing into busy academic life as well as availing of opportunities for longer periods of writing, if such opportunities arise. The process of becoming a writer is an important journey. It is a journey that leads us to many new discoveries about ourselves, about our ideas, about the world in which we live, and about our professional identities as academics, teachers, researchers and scholars.

Choosing not to write in academia should not be seen as a principled stand to resist the increasing demands of the academy. Rather, choosing not to write can be conceptualized as an implicit acceptance of an academic half life in which one's legitimate scholarly voice has not been sufficiently exercised, or respected and choosing *to* write in one's area of academic expertise is an affirmative choice that announces both your courage and active engagement in the world you have chosen to occupy.

There are many ways in which you can avoid pitfalls and false starts in your writing. There are practical and positive ways in which it can integrate with the other activities in your life. Academic writing can be conceptualized jumping from one topic to another rather and more as the proactive positioning of your academic voice.

Writing is not a single, homogenous, linear achievement towards which you strive, and at which you one day arrive. Rather, it is the manifestation of your professional learning journey, and it is a continuous process involving reflection, improvement, development, progress and fulfillment of various types and in varying measures. It contains different processes and phases, and it is an activity that can help to grease the wheels of your professional life of all sorts of ways. It is not something that needs to interfere with other goals or be psychologically daunting even when you're not doing it.

Focusing on the necessary stages and phases of your writing and what happens to you at different parts of the process may provide you with important learning milestones from which you can benefit just as much as you can from a final, polished written product. If you consider that writing is an iterative process with phases of progression and phases of regression, you might allow yourself to conceptualize your own writing challenges more fruitfully. Reflecting on what many researchers and theorists suggest is the iterative nature of writing may also help you to devise realistic, appropriate and ultimately productive writing strategies. If you have already developed strategies that work for you, then reflecting on the process of writing may help you to enhance and refine them even more.

Your writing can be a companion to your learning rather than an imposing enemy that constantly needs either to be agonizingly wrestled or artfully avoided. There are pleasurable, positive possibilities embedded in every writing task, no matter how onerous such tasks may sometimes feel. Many commentators have hinted at the paradoxes associated with academic writing. Giving these paradoxes some explicit attention may help you to know what to expect about the contradictions and complexities that writing sometimes contains. The ebbs and flows, and highs and lows of writing are things that you may already be familiar with, or they may be discoveries that are lurking just around the corner. Whether you are an experienced writer or someone grappling with academic writing for the first time, we believe that it is important for you to be able to recognize many of the conundrums the experience of writing may contain.

Academic writing is not the printed display of one's fully formed thoughts. It starts with flawed, incomplete, vague hunches, ideas, and concepts. But, if you exploit its inherent revisability, it allows you to come full circle, to revisit ideas long after you first thought of them, to explore the same things in different ways, to experiment, to revise, to repeat and to reconceptualize—all of these are arguably central to the essence of scholarship which you exercise every day in other academic tasks like teaching, supervision, and guiding students.

Even if your goal is to produce a perfect piece of writing then surely it is the imperfections, discoveries and serendipitous, interesting as your destination? As a starting point, we often encourage academic writers to try to enjoy their writing journeys a bit more than they often say they normally do. Many colleagues find this idea immediately appealing – a sort of antidote to the notion that writing is part of the drudgery of academic work. When invited to consider the enjoyable, positive, creative, empowering aspects of academic writing, many of them respond by saying that even simply associating these words with their writing makes them feel more positively orientated than they might otherwise have been. But not everyone responds in this way, and perhaps you don't either. In any session that focuses on this orientation, some people tell us that our encouragement is unrealistic. They say it sounds evangelical and not reflective of the realities in which they work. They say that academic writing is neither a positive nor an empowering experience for them, and no amount of trying to convince them that it can will change that.

These are reactions that we have reflected upon and explored in our work as writing developers. Suggesting that writing, even that which is extremely scholarly, does not actually have to be a fearsome grind and that for many writers can become just the opposite, is something that seems to confront a relatively common view among academics, many of whom see writing as an unpleasant but necessary activity. This idea exists across many different college and university settings. Our response is this: if writing is something that you have to do, but something that you dislike, perhaps it is worth exploring alternative perspectives. Perhaps it is worth analysing your negative associations in order to understand them better. And even if you don't particularly dislike the writing process, you may still have encountered problems and pitfalls that a more thorough analysis of writing and of its processes and paradoxes might help to address.

Writing involves starting, progressing and finishing a complicated, challenging combination of tasks. It requires you to activate lots of different skills and orientations, sometimes at different stages and phases in the process, sometimes all at the same time. Some researchers have claimed that writing can be experienced as one of the most difficult of all skills, requiring an intricate combination of neurological, physical, cognitive and affective competencies. Others claim that even if writing makes complicated demands on your skills and abilities, it is possible to make writing easy, or at least easy enough for it to feel worth tackling regularly and with good effect.

Peter Elbow's optimism suggests that all academics can write and that they can all write well. But this does not take away from the need to recognize the different and contradictory pushes and pulls associated with the writing process. Writing involves starting and finishing, both requiring very different kinds of orientation. Writing requires listening to and being guided by the voices of others, but also it demands your confidence and your willingness to present your own voice, your own perspectives and your own interpretations. Writing often involves an intimate familiarity with the minute details of a specific piece of work, but it also demands that we position these minutiae on a broader stage, identifying and explaining connections and comparisons in a wider theoretical context. Writing is not just influenced by what we know and what we have discovered about a particular phenomenon, it is also influenced by what we feel, and more particularly, what we feel about ourselves (Boice, 1988). The creative part of writing requires chaos, serendipity and coincidence; but in order to shape and craft our writing effectively, it needs the imposition of at least some order and discipline. The implications of these paradoxes are important and worth exploring in some more detail.

Universities of the UK and the US find that entering students may have good reading skills, but they cannot write well in their subject areas. Students use the style they learnt in school whereas text at the university use more formal language and specific conventions to communicate ideas. To fill the gap most universities offer a specific course that teaches students how to write academic texts.

1.1 What is Academic Writing?

University of Leeds,

"Academic writing is clear, concise, focused, structured and backed up by evidence. Its purpose is to aid the reader's understanding. It has a formal tone and style, but it is not complex and does not

require the use of long sentences and complicated vocabulary. Each subject discipline will have certain writing conventions, vocabulary and types of discourse that you will become familiar with over the course of your degree. However, there are some general characteristics of academic writing that are relevant across all disciplines.

Planned and focused: answers the question and demonstrates an understanding of the subject.

Structured: is coherent, written in a logical order, and brings together related points and material.

Evidenced: demonstrates knowledge of the subject area, supports opinions and arguments with evidence, and is referenced accurately.

Formal in tone and style: uses appropriate language and tenses, and is clear, concise and balanced."

USC Libraries,

"Academic writing refers to a style of expression that researchers use to define the intellectual boundaries of their disciplines and specific areas of expertise. Characteristics of academic writing include a formal tone, use of the third-person rather than first-person perspective (usually), a clear focus on the research problem under investigation, and precise word choice. Like specialist languages adopted in other professions, such as, law or medicine, academic writing is designed to convey agreed meaning about complex ideas or concepts for a group of scholarly experts."

Academic Phrase bank,

"In academic work students are often expected to give definitions of key words and phrases in order to demonstrate to their tutors that they understand these terms clearly. More generally, however, academic writers define terms so that their readers understand exactly what is meant when certain key terms are used. When important words are not clearly understood misinterpretation may result. In fact, many disagreements (academic, legal, diplomatic, personal) arise as a result of different interpretations of the same term. In academic writing, teachers and their students often have to explore these differing interpretations before moving on to study a topic."

Sacred Heart University Library,

"Academic writing refers to a particular style of expression that scholars use to define the boundaries of their disciplines and their areas of expertise. Characteristics of academic writing include a formal tone, use of the third-person rather than first-person perspective (usually), a clear focus on the research problem under investigation, and precise word choice. Like the specialist languages adopted in other professions such as law, academic writing is designed to convey agreed meaning about complex ideas for a group of scholarly experts."

Dartmouth College in Hanover, New Hampshire,

"Writing done by scholars for scholars? Doesn't that leave you out? Actually, it doesn't! Now that you are in college, you are part of a community of scholars. As a college student, you will be engaged in activities that scholars have been engaged in for centuries: you will read about, think about, argue about, and write about great ideas. Of course, being a scholar requires that you read, think, argue, and write in certain ways. Your education will help you to understand the expectations, conventions, and requirements of scholarship.

When you write an academic paper, you must first try to find a topic or a question that is relevant and appropriate. But how do you know when a topic is relevant and appropriate? First of all, pay attention to what your professor is saying. She will certainly be giving you a context into which you can place your questions and observations. Second, understand that your paper should be of interest to other students and scholars. Remember that academic writing must be more than personal response. You must write something that your readers will find useful. In other words, you will want to write something that helps your reader to better understand your topic, or to see it in a new way. To construct an informed argument, you must first try to sort out what you know about a subject from what you think about a subject. Or, to put it another way, you will want to consider what is known about a subject and then to determine what you think about it. If your paper fails to inform, or if it fails to argue, then it will fail to meet the expectations of the academic reader. When you sit down to write an academic paper, you'll first want to consider what you know about your topic. Different writing assignments require different degrees of knowing. A short paper written in response to a viewing of Alfred Hitchcock's *Rear Window*, for example, may not require you to be familiar with Hitchcock's other works. It may not even require you to have mastered the terms important to film criticism - though clearly any knowledge you bring to the film might help you to make a thoughtful response to it. However, if you are asked to write an academic paper on the film, then you will want to know more. You will want to have certain terms in hand so

that you can explain what Hitchcock is doing in key moments. You will want to be familiar with Hitchcock's other films so that you can understand what themes are important to him and his work. Moreover, if you are watching this film in an upper-level film class, you will want to be aware of different critical perspectives on Hitchcock's films and on films in general, so that you can "place" your argument within the larger ongoing conversation."

Massey University (University of New Zealand),

"Writing is a skill that is required in many contexts throughout life. However, academic writing is quite different from personal writing because it follows its own set of rules and practices:

Ideas are usually organised in a formal order or structure.

Ideas are supported by references from academic literature.

In contrast to personal writing, academic writing is different because it deals with the theories and causes of a given topic, as well as exploring alternative explanations for these theories or events.

Academic writing follows a particular tone, which uses concise, formal, and objective language. Academic writing also adheres to traditional conventions of punctuation, grammar, and spelling."

University of Sydney,

"Academic writing is generally quite formal, objective (impersonal) and technical. It is formal by avoiding casual or conversational language, such as contractions or informal vocabulary. It is impersonal and objective by avoiding direct reference to people or feelings, and instead emphasising objects, facts and ideas. It is technical by using vocabulary specific to the discipline.

Different disciplines also have different styles and structures of writing. For example, some disciplines, such as in the humanities, expect longer paragraphs, which include topic sentences to show how your argument is structured. Other disciplines, for example in the sciences, expect short paragraphs, with no topic sentences, which are denser in factual information.

To be a good academic writer, you will need to learn the specific styles and structures for your discipline, as well as for each individual writing task. Some ways to do this are to:

ask for more information from your lecturer/supervisor/tutor

study the writing style of the academic articles in the most prestigious journals in your discipline

look at the successful writing by other students in your subject area."

1.2 Text and Academic Text

Text

Non-academic writing is writing that is not intended for an academic audience. They are written for a lay audience or the mass public. This type of writing may be personal, impressionistic, emotional, or subjective in nature.

The language in non-academic writing is informal or casual. Some types of non-academic writing may even contain slang. Newspaper articles, memoirs, magazine articles, personal or business letters, novels, websites, text messages, etc. are some examples of non-academic writing. The content of these writings is often a general topic, unlike academic writing, which mainly focuses on a specific field. Furthermore, the main aim of a piece of non-academic writing is to inform, entertain or persuade the readers.

Most non-academic writings do not include references, citations or a list of sources. Nor are they extensively well-researched as academic writing. Moreover, non-academic writing often does not have a rigid structure as academic writing. It is often free-flowing and reflects the style and personality of the writer.

Academic Text

Academic writing is a formal and rather impersonal mode of writing that is intended for a scholarly audience. It tends to depend heavily on research, factual evidence, opinions of educated researchers and scholars. Scholarly essays, research papers, dissertations, etc. are some examples of academic writing. All these types of writings have a rigid structure and layout, which includes an

introduction, thesis, an overview of topics discussed, as well as a well-written conclusion. The main aim of academic writing is to inform the audience while providing nonbiased information and backing up the writer's claims with solid evidence. Moreover, academic writing heavily contains vocabulary typical to a specific field citations and a list of references or sources another important feature in academic writing. Moreover, the tone in academic writing should always be objective and formal.

Academic text and Non-Academic text: Their Difference

Academic writing is a formal and impersonal style of writing that is intended for a scholarly or academic audience while non-academic writing is an informal and often subjective style of writing that aims the mass public. The difference between academic writing and non-academic writing stems from various factors such as their audience, purpose, language, format, and tone. Academic writing aims academia while non-academic writing aims the mass public. Moreover, the main purpose of academic writing is to inform the readers, with non-biased facts and solid evidence. However, the purpose of academic writing can be to inform, entertain, or persuade the audience. This is a major difference between academic writing and non-academic writing.

Another difference between academic writing and non-academic writing is their style. Academic writing is formal and impersonal while non-academic writing is personal, impressionistic, emotional, or subjective in nature. We can consider this as the key difference between academic writing and non-academic writing. Moreover, the former uses formal language while avoiding colloquialism and slang whereas the latter uses informal and casual language. Citations and sources are also a major difference between academic writing and non-academic writing. Academic writing contains citations and references while non-academic writing does not usually contain citations and references. Some examples of academic writing include research papers, dissertations, and scholarly articles while newspaper and magazine articles, memoirs, letters, digital media, etc. are examples of non-academic writing. Below info-graphic on the difference between academic writing and non-academic writing summarizes the differences comparatively.

1.3 Which type of text is better?

Today, there are books on writing in different professions-business, engineering journalism, etc. – and they teach specific genres – business memos and letters, laboratory reports, research papers, proposals, and book reviews. This chapter draws fine distinctions between genres, such as the persuasive letter versus the internal memo. This is confusing and unnecessary because, at the end of the day, all of them follow the same principles; it is only the content that differs. Once you understand the basic principles, you should be able to apply them to any form of modern written communication and tweak them to suit the specific situation.

Below you will see two samples of student writing taken from MBA students who were studying in a foreign university. For their entrance examination, they were given a question from the GMAT examination and asked to write an essay. Read the instructions, and then skim through the two student essays to decide which one is better.

Example

“In this section, you will need to analyse the issue presented and explain your views on it. There is no ‘correct’ answer. Instead, you should consider various perspectives as you develop your own position on the issue.

Some people argue that the salaries of corporate executives should be linked to those of their lowest-paid employees. This would improve relations between management and workers, reducing costly labor disputes and increasing worker productivity. What these people overlook, however, is that these high salaries are necessary to attract the best managers, the individuals whose decisions have the greatest impact on the overall well-being of the company.”

Which do you find more compelling, the argument that worker and executive salaries should be linked or the response to it? Explain your position using relevant reasons and/or examples from your own experience, observations or reading.

Below are two essays that were submitted by students. I have left their essays intact and not edited even their spelling mistakes. Skim the two essays and grade them on a scale of 1 to 6. The lowest grade is 1 and the highest is 6; a passing grade is 4.5. Here is your grading sheet.

Student	Grade	Reasons
Student A		
Student B		

Student A

As certain as death and taxes, if anything else could be included in this oft-repeated line it should be higher executive salaries. And it is not for nothing that boards of directors and tourist these executives with responsibilities of astronomical consequences of, providing them equally astronomical pay packets. Before we even discuss this further, let us analyse a more pressing issue that has been facing human resource managers lately. Should executive pay packages be linked to those of their employees? Proponents of this line of thought need to be aware of many issues that significantly walk against the very advantages that they think creating such a link would provide. Are giving that such a link would reduce the frequency of labour disputes is flawed. Often should disputes occur because of a plethora of other factors, totally unrelated to the absence of such a link. For instance, as recent as two weeks back, the labour union of a major bank in Italy resorted to a strike because of the lake of security measures for them during the transition of EURO, nothing related to compensation.

Lower level workers in most industries are not concerned about the level of salaries of the executive. They are worried about issues that more directly relate to their subsistence, like those that relate to their shelter, food, education for their children, etc. As long as basic needs are adequately satisfied by their managers, they give their best in their jobs.

Individuals who have been following the boom in management education during the last decade would realise that the boom would not have taken place, had the participants not proven themselves in the real business world. It has long been accepted that a good business education imports the basic analytic, problem solving, and creative skills required to succeed in an executive position. And such individuals succeed because they are able to take their companies forward full stop make no mistake, they are able to do so because of the help of their employees. Ford would not have achieved the world-renowned efficacy of their assembly lines, had it not been for the dedication of its line walkers. PSA at Singapore would not have been the world's number one operations organisation, had it not been for the skills of its floor workers.

The boards of directors obviously want their companies to be in the top league. In the realisation that a good leader is essential to do so, they offer ever-growing fat pay packets to attract people with the abilities that have proven to breed success in organisations in the past. In taking the help of past instances, I don't wish to give the idea that I don't believe in any relation between the salaries of executive and those at a lower level. Because, in the first place, they would not be eligible for such high packages if they were not able to keep their most important assets that employs happy.

But to impart a solid shape to the test link would give rise to a rainbow of issues that would defeat the whole purpose of increasing productivity in the organisation.

Student B

Today some people are arguing that the salaries of corporate executives should be linked to those of lower paid employees for stop they thought that the relationship between two parties would is an improved. Furthermore, the costly labour disputes will be reduced significantly with the worker productivity being increased much.

In my opinion, now the performance of a company is more and more related to the leadership and management shilled owned by a good manager or CEO. There is an old saying that stock of sheep headed by a lion can beat a flood of lions headed by a sheep. In 21st century the core competence of a company results March from how the corporation leader is managing the people in the organisation because just as Jack Welch the former CEO of GE said, the people is the most

important and crucial competitive tool in the new economy. So, the good compensation plan should be offered to attract the excellent executive managers to join and lead the company. On the other hand I think that the high level officials in the company should pay enough attention the income gap existing between the managers and ordinary employees. Actually, in some company the morale of the employees is very low just because of low payment. In this case the managing team should educate the staff and try make them know that their benefit is linked very closely with the performance of the company which in turn relies so heavily on the conduction of the organisations executive. In conclusion, the corporate executive should be paid much more than the employees since they are wearing more responsibilities and exiting more efforts than the employees, and the actions taken by executive are giving significant impact on the wellbeing of the company.

Teachers' Response

When it is asked to a group of English teachers to rate the two essays. they all agreed on the following parameter to rate specific aspects of the two essays.

Item	Student A	Student B
Vocabulary	Advanced	Simple
Grammar	Complex Sentences	Fairly Simple Sentences
Length of the essay	Longer	Shorter
Easy to read	No	Yes
Answer to the question	No	Yes

However, the teachers disagree on which essay was better. The Indian teachers graded student A higher because his language was more complex (vocabulary, grammar, and length of the essay). However, the only foreign teacher in the group pointed out that Student A does not answer the question. She was right; in the GMAT exam, Student A would fail, whereas Student B would pass. The reason is very simple- Student B's English is more basic, but the essay is easy to understand, and it answers the examination question also.

1.4 Two types of texts

There are basically two ways to structure a text indirect and direct. The difference lies in where the main point is stated. The two texts below are identical except for one thing the main point of the memo, bold type coma set different places in the text.

Indirect text

Our investigation shows that the manufacturing process at basic plants are outdated for stop the management is centralised and out of touch with both the market and employees for a stop as a result, girls have dropped, and employees are not highly motivated to stop it makes little sense to in when to invest in basic until its processes and management has changed.

Direct text

It makes little sense to invest in basic until its processes and management have changed for stop our investigation shows that the manufacturing processes at basic plans are outdated for stop the management is centralised and out of touch with both the market and employees for stop as a result, girls have dropped, and employees are not highly motivated.

Indirect texts

In the indirect text, the reasoning is presented first, and the main point comes at the end. There are various names for such a text - inductive paragraph indirect order, etc. It is used in the following cases:

- To give bad news: When rejecting an application, we start with the reasons and then go on to give the bad news to stop this cushion the blow.

- To persuade: In business, when you must persuade a new or reluctant client, lead them gently to your point.
- Some English proficiency examinations: Examinations that won't test proficiency in English, such as the University of Cambridge 'A' Levels, ask students to write an essay on a general topic, such as "Science and religion will always be in conflict" discuss.

Students are expected to present both sides of the argument and then evaluate the better option based on the pieces of evidence.

Direct texts

In direct texts, the main is stated first and then the evidence to support it is presented. There are various names for such a text - deductive paragraph, correct order, etc. It is used when the information is important for stop hence it is used in business, research in the sciences, and any text for a US audience.

This type of text is both easy to write and easy to read in writing this text you really must list your points organise them and present the evidence to support your claims. Readers also find such text easy to read; they can locate the main point at the beginning of the text. If they want details, they can read further; otherwise, they move on.

Direct texts are used in academia- for term papers, research papers, dissertations, and reviews- as well as in business and Engineering- for memos, letters, and reports.

When faced with a writing task, many people start writing immediately, put in down whatever comes to mind. This approach is driven by time-bound examinations, where we have limited time to display everything we know and remember. The Reader, usually the teacher or the examiner, must pick out the relevant information from a jumble of sentences. Over the past 30 years, there have been two important developments in writing. First, we can now use computers to write texts; this allows one to cut or remove text so that the essay is organised better. Second, standards have gone up because examinations and organisations expect you to use this technology. In some examinations, candidates must compose their essays on the computer and time-bound examinations are giving way to take-home assignments and projects such as reports and theses. There is now no excuse for a poorly organised text. An essay that resembles a stream of consciousness is no longer acceptable; you are expected to give thought and care to your paper and produce a polished product that is reader friendly.

1.5 Ways of writing

Imagine that you are expected to write an essay or a term paper or answer an examination question or write a thesis, how you go about selling the pages. Here are some methods that are commonly used. All these approaches assume that your first draft is what you will submit as your final version. Composing on the computer, on the other hand, allows you to revise your paper.

Begin at the Beginning

In the book, *Alice in Wonderland* by Lewis Carroll, the king advises Alice on how to tell a story: 'Begin at the beginning and go on till you come to the end, then stop.' you can see this approach in the example below. For a take-home assignment in history, this was the question:

Discuss the factors that were responsible for the Rise and popularity of Buddhism in India.

A student began his essay in the following way.

"Buddheshwer appeared in India around 250 BC and the person responsible for the founding of Buddhism was Buddha. The simplicity of Buddhism in comparison to Hinduism, the role played by Ashoka and the political and economic reasons were responsible for the Rise and popularity of Buddhism. Buddha was the son of a chief of Sakyas, a small tribe in the Himalayan foothills. He became an ascetic and went in search of the knowledge that would liberate man from sorrow. "

All the students in the history class considered this an appropriate introduction for a history assignment. However, history professor Ran read Pan through the entire introduction saying that it was unnecessary the student should assume that The Reader already knows these facts and begin directly with a discussion of the factors.

The problem is that many students spend a lot of time writing and polishing the introduction. The teachers may have told them that the introduction is critical it should capture the Reader's interest and draw The Reader into the Alice or that the examiner forms an impression of the essay from the introduction. So, work hard on the introduction. Then in the time and space that remains they hurriedly address the main points; they want to make.

Why is this problem? An introduction is meant to be just an introduction 'hello here are my points'. For this reason, readers skip the introduction because it is nearly a hook on which the argument is Hunk. Equally important, proficient writers usually write the introduction last, after they have finished writing the body of the paper. So, spend most of the time you have on the body of the paper rather than on the introduction.

The solution is simple. Don't think in terms of the time you have; it is 3 hours or 5 days. Coma in terms of the amount of space you have been allotted say, 500 hundred words - and you will lice that your introduction has taken up 300 words.

Throw in all Your Thoughts

in time bound test, there is no time to organise facts; so, writers throw in information as it comes into their heads. There is also no time to edit at the end. Even if the writer wants to reorganize the essay coma editing a handwritten paper will turn it into an illegible Mass. Similar problems can be seen in newspaper columns that have a fixed length; if the article is too short, peripheral information may be added to make it longer.

Below is the introduction to an essay written by a university student. In this text, a few words have been used repeatedly.

"Language is a system of communication. It is communication by word of mouth. It is the mental faculty or power of vocal communication. It is a system for communicating ideas and feelings using sounds, gestures, signs, or marks. It is the code we all used to express ourselves and communicate with others. Any means of communicating ideas, specifically, human speech, the expression of ideas by the voice and sounds articulated by the organs of the throat and mouth is a language. It is systematic communication using sounds or conventional symbols. This is a system for communication. A language is the written and spoken method of combining words to create meaning used by a particular group of people."

This text is a collection of random sentences woven around the words communicate, human, speech, sounds, ideas, system, and meaning. If you rearrange the sentences in a different order, It doesn't affect the text. The Reader knows as much about language in sentence 10 as he/she knows in sentence 1, and there is no progression or development of the point. This type of writing often scenes in time bounded examinations where students try to fill up gaps.

Chaining

In chaining, the writer elaborates on new information as it comes in. Here is a text that shows how the ideas progress.

"The trees on campus should not be cut. If we cut them down, will lose an enormous variety of trees. This variety ranges from Kikar to Amaltas and represents the biodiversity of the reason. Biodiversity is now recognised as important for the planet to avoid global warming. We see the signs of global warming in..."

As the writer ends one sentence, he/she elaborates on the information that has been introduced. gradually, the writer moves away from the original point, namely, that the trees should not be cut, and it becomes difficult to return to this point. In this style of writing, the text is driven by words and phrases instead of ideas.

Balanced Versus Weighted Essays

There are two ways to organise essays: by presenting a balanced view or by directly stating your position.

Balanced essay

One method of writing an essay is to present both sides of an argument this is preferred in exams that test your writing English skills, such as University examinations. You are given a controversial statement and asked to discuss it. For example, in a topic like "science and religion will always be in conflict", you are expected to present both sides of the argument; at the end of the essay, you can

remain neutral or opt for the more convincing argument. Your essay would include a brief introduction, points for, points against, and opinions/ balanced judgments.

Such an essay requires a sophisticated writer and an equally sophisticated reader. The writer must present equally valid points for both sides of the argument which requires wide reading. This type of essay is a favourite with examiners because it requires a breadth of knowledge.

However, consider the burden on the reader. The Reader has to follow the argument step-by-step until the end when the writer's stand is revealed. This works if the reader has fluent reading skills and the leisure for the task. Further, Information requirements have changed. Today, the emphasis is on the speed of Information retrieval. Also, since information is readily available through the internet, the focus has shifted to the author's point of view.

Weighted essay

As we have discussed earlier that in a weighted essay the writer directly states his/her position. The structure of such essays would consist of introduction, points and their supportive information/data, and conclusion.

Summary

- There are four communication skills namely listening, speaking, reading, and writing.
- Writing is considered as the most difficult communication skill.
- At school level, generally, students learn the basics of writing.
- In writing task, at college level, logic data, and evidence is focused.
- An academic text is a formal piece of writing which focuses on specific academic subject/topic.
- In academic writing, the theory or viewpoint is based on academic findings and research.
- A non-academic text is an informal piece of writing.
- Students, generally, start writing immediately and put down whatever comes to their mind when confronted with any writing task.
- Towards any writing task, readers have the attitude to picking out the relevant information.
- Writers are expected to produce a polished and reader-friendly write up.
- The common ways of writing are begin at the beginning, throw in all the thoughts, and chaining.
- One can organize the essay either by presenting a balanced view or by directly presenting your position.
- A balanced essay is represented by presenting both sides of argument.
- A weighted essay is organized as a hierarchy.

Keywords

Texts, academic, ways, writing, balanced, weighted, essay

Self Assessment

- 1) What are communication skills?
 - a. Listening
 - b. Speaking
 - c. Reading and Writing
 - d. All of the above

- 2) What is considered as the most difficult communication skill?
 - a. Writing
 - b. Speaking
 - c. Listening
 - d. Reading

- 3) What do we learn at school regarding writing skill?
 - a. Advanced writing
 - b. Intermediate writing
 - c. Basics of writing
 - d. None of the above

- 4) What do we focus upon at the college level writing task?
 - a. Logic
 - b. Logic, Data, and Evidence
 - c. Data, Logic, and Subjectivity
 - d. Evidence, Data, and Personal Opinion

- 5) How do students treat any writing task?
 - a. Start writing after some time
 - b. Put down whatever comes to mind
 - c. Do not pay much attention towards mistakes while writing
 - d. Start ignoring the given task

- 6) What is the common reaction of readers towards any piece of writing?
 - a. Picking out the relevant information
 - b. Going through the entire text seriously
 - c. Reading the reference books
 - d. None of the above

- 7) What is expected from the writers with regard to any writing task?
 - a. To produce a lengthy and irrelevant write up
 - b. To produce a polished and reader-friendly write up
 - c. To produce a complicated and confusing write up
 - d. To produce an erroneous and standardized write up

- 8) What are the common ways of writing?
 - a. Begin at the beginning
 - b. Throw in all your thoughts
 - c. Chaining
 - d. All of the above

- 9) How can we organize an essay?
 - a. By presenting a balanced view
 - b. By indirectly stating one's position
 - c. By presenting an imbalanced view
 - d. None of the above

- 10) What does represent a balanced essay?
- Present both sides of argument
 - Present our subjective view point
 - Present our side of argument
 - Present no side of argument
- 11) Weighted essay is organized as
- a unique work
 - a hierarchy
 - an official document
 - a research
- 12) What is an academic text?
- A formal piece of writing which focuses on specific academic subject/topic
 - An informal piece of writing which focuses on specific academic subject/topic
 - A communicative skill which focuses on specific creative subject/topic
 - A vocational skill which helps the learner to earn his/her livelihood
- 13) In academic writing, the theory or viewpoint is generally based on.....
- Non-academic findings
 - Academic findings
 - Academic findings and research
 - Irrelevant findings
- 14) Identify the example(s) of academic text out of the following.
- Scholarly Essays
 - Research Papers
 - Literary Criticism
 - Above all
- 15) What is a non-academic text?
- An informal piece of writing
 - A formal piece of writing
 - A research proposal
 - None of the above

Answer for Self Assessment

- | | | | | |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. D | 2. A | 3. C | 4. B | 5. B |
| 6. A | 7. B | 8. D | 9. A | 10. A |
| 11. B | 12. A | 13. C | 14. D | 15. A |

Review Questions:

- What is written communication?
- What is the importance and need of writing skills?

3. What is academic writing?
4. What are major complexities in academic writing?
5. How one can overcome writing difficulties?
6. What is a balanced essay?
7. What do you understand by a weighted essay?
8. What is the first reaction of students towards any writing task?
9. How do readers react towards any writing task?
10. What are the points that a writer needs to keep in mind while attempting any writing task?
11. Throw light on the common ways of writing?
12. What is academic writing?
13. What are major complexities in academic writing?
14. How one can overcome writing difficulties?



Further Reading

1. A Course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd.
2. English Grammar by Rajeevan Karal, Oxford University Press
1. A course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd.
2. English Grammar by Rajeevan Karal, Oxford University Press
3. Oxford EAP: A Course in English for Academic Purposes by Edward De Chazal And Sam Mccarter, Oxford University Press
4. MLA Handbook by Modern Language Association of America, Modern Language Association
5. A Course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd.
6. MLA Handbook by Modern Language Association of America, Modern Language Association
7. A Course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd.
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9. Oxford EAP: A Course in English for Academic Purposes by Edward De Chazal And Sam Mccarter, Oxford University Press

Unit 02: Academic Writing: Brainstorming and Outlining, Gathering Information, Sorting the Material

Digvijay Pandya, Lovely Professional University

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Objectives

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

- understand the meaning and importance of brainstorming and outlining in terms of academic writing.
- analyze the importance of gathering information while writing any academic text.
- elucidate the use and importance of sorting the material while attempting any academic text.
- acquire the skill to develop any topic to the initial level.

Introduction

An essay on a paper requires information - facts, figures, examples, etc. In closed book examinations, you must remember and recall such information, and you are rewarded for your memory. But at the University and later, the focus shifts from remembering information to presenting an argument supported by evidence from research papers that you find in the library or on the internet. This opens up a vast Universe of information, but it also throws up new problems.

1. How do you find and select the information you need? This part of the writing process properly comes under the skill of reading. You need to have fluent reading skills if you want to write.

2. The facts in the material you find. Which research findings are correct? You will need to critically examine and evaluate the information.

3. If the information is available to everyone, what should I write?

This chapter goes through the air steps in the writing process. To do this, we will pick up a general topic: Noise pollution.

The three main steps are:

1. Brainstorming for ideas and creating an outline.
2. Gathering information from sources that include:
 - (a) Evaluating the quality of sources, and

(b) Avoiding plagiarism

3. Sorting the material that includes:

(a) Skimming and revising the outline

(b) Taking notes

(c) Rewriting the material using quotations, summaries, paragraphs, and acknowledging the sources.

From this should be clear that writing is not a one-shot effort it requires time and frequent revisions. It is better to use a word processor because otherwise, you will have to write your revisions by hand.

2.1 What Is Brainstorming?

Madison Avenue advertising executive Alex Osborn developed the original approach and published it in his 1953 book, "Applied Imagination." Since then, researchers have made many improvements to his original technique.

The approach described here takes this research into account, so it's subtly different from Osborn's approach.

Brainstorming combines a relaxed, informal approach to problem solving with lateral thinking. It encourages people to come up with thoughts and ideas that can, at first, seem a bit crazy. Some of these ideas can be crafted into original, creative solutions to a problem, while others can spark even more ideas. This helps to get people unstuck by "jolting" them out of their normal ways of thinking.

Therefore, during brainstorming sessions, people should avoid criticizing or rewarding ideas. You're trying to open up possibilities and break down incorrect assumptions about the problem's limits. Judgment and analysis at this stage stunts idea generation and limit creativity.

Evaluate ideas at the end of the session – this is the time to explore solutions further, using conventional approaches.

Why Use Brainstorming?

Conventional group problem solving can often be undermined by unhelpful group behavior . And while it's important to start with a structured, analytical process when solving problems, this can lead a group to develop limited and unimaginative ideas.

By contrast, brainstorming provides a free and open environment that encourages everyone to participate. Quirky ideas are welcomed and built upon, and all participants are encouraged to contribute fully, helping them develop a rich array of creative solutions.

When used during problem solving, brainstorming brings team members' diverse experience into play. It increases the richness of ideas explored, which means that you can often find better solutions to the problems that you face.

It can also help you get buy-in from team members for the solution chosen – after all, they're likely to be more committed to an approach if they were involved in developing it. What's more, because brainstorming is fun, it helps team members bond, as they solve problems in a positive, rewarding environment.

While brainstorming can be effective, it's important to approach it with an open mind and a spirit of non-judgment. If you don't do this, people "clam up," the number and quality of ideas plummets, and morale can suffer.

2.2 Types of Brainstorming

1) Individual Brainstorming

While group brainstorming is often more effective at generating ideas than normal group problem solving, several studies have shown that individual brainstorming produces more – and often better – ideas than group brainstorming.

This can occur because groups aren't always strict in following the rules of brainstorming, and bad behaviors creep in. Mostly, though, this happens because people pay so much attention to other people that they don't generate ideas of their own – or they forget these ideas while they wait for their turn to speak. This is called "blocking."

When you brainstorm on your own, you don't have to worry about other people's egos or opinions, and you can be freer and more creative. For example, you might find that an idea you'd hesitate to bring up in a group develops into something special when you explore it on your own.

However, you may not develop ideas as fully when you're on your own, because you don't have the wider experience of other group members to draw on.

Individual brainstorming is most effective when you need to solve a simple problem, generate a list of ideas, or focus on a broad issue. Group brainstorming is often more effective for solving complex problems.

2) Group Brainstorming

Here, you can take advantage of the full experience and creativity of all team members. When one member gets stuck with an idea, another member's creativity and experience can take the idea to the next stage. You can develop ideas in greater depth with group brainstorming than you can with individual brainstorming.

Another advantage of group brainstorming is that it helps everyone feel that they've contributed to the solution, and it reminds people that others have creative ideas to offer. It's also fun, so it can be great for team building!

Group brainstorming can be risky for individuals. Unusual suggestions may appear to lack value at first sight – this is where you need to chair sessions tightly, so that the group doesn't crush these ideas and stifle creativity.

Where possible, participants should come from a wide range of disciplines. This cross-section of experience can make the session more creative. However, don't make the group too big: as with other types of teamwork, groups of five to seven people are usually most effective.

How to Use the Tool

You often get the best results by combining individual and group brainstorming, and by managing the process according to the "rules" below. By doing this, you can get people to focus on the issue without interruption, you maximize the number of ideas that you can generate, and you get that great feeling of team bonding that comes with a well-run brainstorming session!

To run a group brainstorming session effectively, follow these steps.

Prepare the Group

First, set up a comfortable meeting environment for the session. Make sure that the room is well-lit and that you have the tools, resources, and refreshments that you need.

How much information or preparation does your team need in order to brainstorm solutions to your problem? Remember that prep is important, but too much can limit – or even destroy – the freewheeling nature of a brainstorming session.

Consider who will attend the meeting. A room full of like-minded people won't generate as many creative ideas as a diverse group, so try to include people from a wide range of disciplines, and include people who have a variety of different thinking styles.

When everyone is gathered, appoint one person to record the ideas that come from the session. This person shouldn't necessarily be the team manager – it's hard to record and contribute at the same time. Post notes where everyone can see them, such as on flip charts or whiteboards; or use a computer with a data projector.

If people aren't used to working together, consider using an appropriate warm-up exercise, or an icebreaker.

Present the Problem

Clearly define the problem that you want to solve, and lay out any criteria that you must meet. Make it clear that the meeting's objective is to generate as many ideas as possible.

Give people plenty of quiet time at the start of the session to write down as many of their own ideas as they can. Then, ask them to share their ideas, while giving everyone a fair opportunity to contribute.

Guide the Discussion

Once everyone has shared their ideas, start a group discussion to develop other people's ideas, and use them to create new ideas. Building on others' ideas is one of the most valuable aspects of group brainstorming.

Encourage everyone to contribute and to develop ideas, including the quietest people, and discourage anyone from criticizing ideas.

As the group facilitator, you should share ideas if you have them, but spend your time and energy supporting your team and guiding the discussion. Stick to one conversation at a time, and refocus the group if people become sidetracked.

Although you're guiding the discussion, remember to let everyone have fun while brainstorming. Welcome creativity, and encourage your team to come up with as many ideas as possible, regardless of whether they're practical or impractical. Use thought experiments such as Provocation or Random Input to generate some unexpected ideas.

Don't follow one train of thought for too long. Make sure that you generate a good number of different ideas, and explore individual ideas in detail. If a team member needs to "tune out" to explore an idea alone, allow them the freedom to do this.

Also, if the brainstorming session is lengthy, take plenty of breaks so that people can continue to concentrate.

2.3 Different Techniques of Brainstorming

Taking Your Brainstorming Further

If you're not getting enough good quality ideas, try using the approaches below to increase the number of ideas that you generate

The Stepladder Technique

- This improves the contribution of quieter group members by introducing one person at a time.

Brain writing

- This is a written approach that you can use to encourage all individuals to generate and develop ideas.

Online Brainstorming or Brain-netting

- An electronic method of brainstorming, this uses a document stored on a central server, or on a Cloud-based system.

Crawford's Slip Writing Approach

- You can use this approach to get plenty of ideas from all participants, and to get a view of each idea's popularity.

The following techniques help you in specific situations:

Reverse Brainstorming

- This is used to improve a product or service.

Star bursting

- Star bursting helps you develop questions that you need to ask to evaluate a proposal.

Charette Procedure

- This helps you brainstorm with large groups of people. (Conventional brainstorming becomes increasingly ineffective when more than 10 or 12 people are involved.)

Round-Robin Brainstorming

- You can use this approach to get people to contribute ideas without being influenced by others.

Role storming

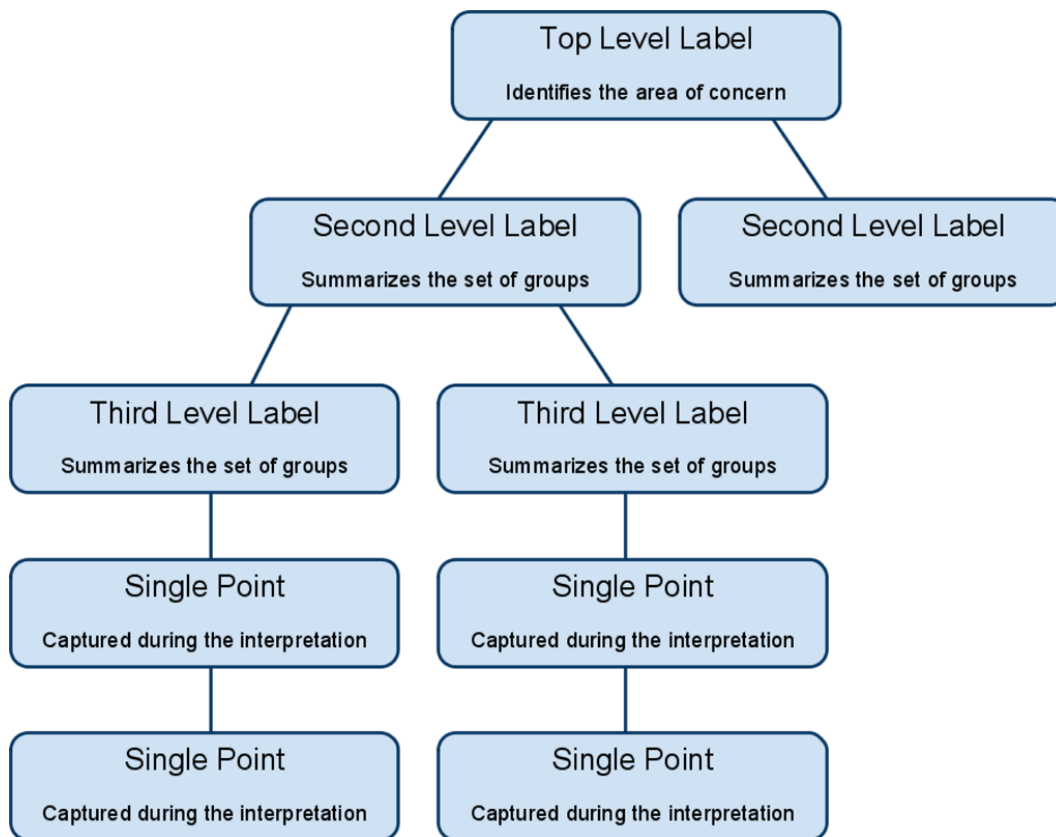
- This technique encourages group members to take on other people's identities while brainstorming, thereby reducing their inhibitions.

The Next Step

- Taking Action

After your individual or group brainstorming session, you'll have a lot of ideas. Although it might seem hard to sort through these ideas to find the best ones, analyzing these ideas is an important next step, and you can use several tools to do this.

Use Affinity Diagrams to organize ideas and find common themes.



Affinity Diagram

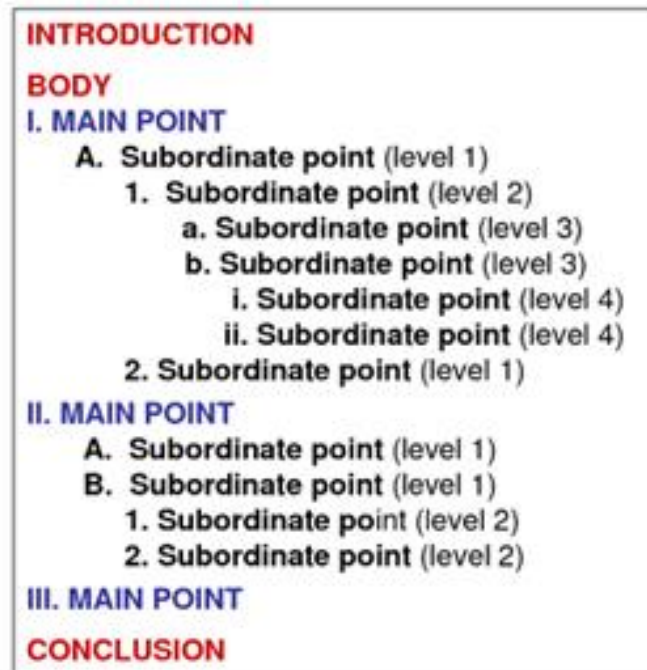
Decision Matrix Analysis and Paired Comparison Analysis will help you choose between different options. You can also use the Six Thinking Hats technique to look at ideas from different perspectives; and the Modified Borda Count and Multi-Voting can help you choose between options as a team, particularly where the differences between options are quite subjective.

2.4 Outlining

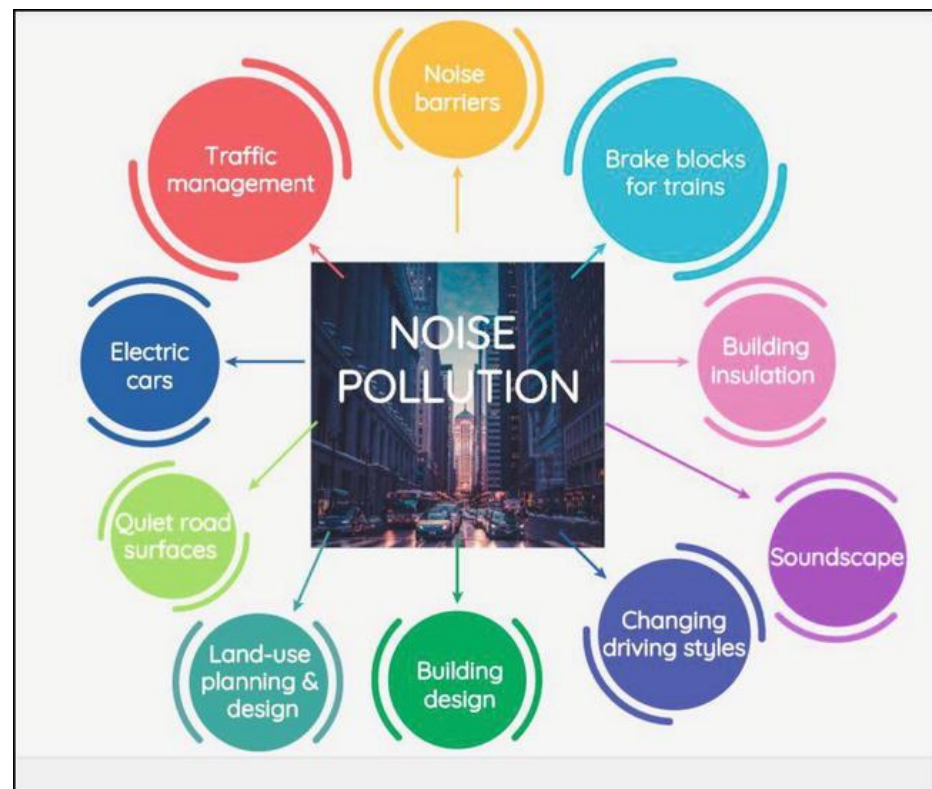
The first step in writing a paper is to jot down your ideas. This is called brainstorming. It doesn't matter if you have very few or very simple ideas, because you will add to them as you read.

The following is the traditional outlining text format:

Traditional outline format



Next, organise your ideas in the context of the topic 'Noise Pollution' into groups and you might get something like the figure below.



Pay attention towards the characteristics of this outline. To begin, we only use phrases rather than full sentences; if you start writing sentences, you will get lost in the language and lose track of your point. Second, the description is a work in progress; any of the points have? Since, there is no proof

for it in the human world. Can we rearrange the points later, discarding the ones that don't fit and reading the others while you read or think? This outline should be in front of you, either above your desk or at the start of your article, so you can refer to it when writing.

For a long taper such as a report or dissertation, point works very well. You can put only a limited amount of text on one side which stops you from writing complete sentences and paragraphs. Write your thesis statement and main points on different slides; this helps you see the structure of the document clearly.

Next, need to find more information on the topic. For this, you will have to go to the library or check the internet. But here is the important part. The formation you find will widen your knowledge of the topic, your basic argument should remain the same. Use the information to support your argument. , glued the sources of the information as if to say, 'This is not just my opinion; many respected people say the same and here are their names.'

Gathering Information

The second step in the writing process is gathering information. Here we encountered two issues.

1. Evaluating the quality of the information. All sources are equally reliable.
2. Plagiarism or copying.

Evaluating sources

We are lucky that will live in the information age, where information is no longer controlled and available to all. We can get the information we need from television newspapers magazines journals and the internet. But is it that easy? Different web pages tell different stories. Some are out of date, do not know defects, have their own biases, some have not proofread their documents.

So, where do we find credible information? The most reliable sources are those that go through a rigorous review for content and language. They include printed encyclopaedias and referred journal articles; however, a rigorous review process can take a year or longer , they are often out-of-date by the time they are printed. Commercial databases are up to date but like encyclopaedias and journal articles, extremely expensive and out of the reach of even libraries and students.

The answer seems to be the internet. But you need to check whether the sites are reliable. Anyone and everyone are writing on the internet - giving their unsubstantiated opinions, promoting products and themselves, writing tributes. The use of adjectives is a giveaway: If the piece has a lot of following adjectives, hit promotional material for a fan site and if the adjectives are negative, is using the internet to wear his or her personal grievances.

The solution is, to begin with, a fairly reliable site such as Wikipedia. From there, to track all the references and read the original papers to check the facts.

Avoiding Plagiarism

Plagiarism is copying other people's work and passing it off as your own. This can range from copying sentences and paragraphs to copying and tyre papers. The internet has made it easy to both find and copy material; in fact, rites have begun copying from one another and you find identical paragraphs on multiple websites.

What does plagiarism look like? Look at the two texts below, which are taken from two novels.



First Novel Example

" Bridget is my age and lives across the street. What the first twelve years of my life , unification were all I needed in a best friend. That was before Bridget's braces came off and her boyfriend Burke got on...." (*Sloppy Firsts* by Megan McCafferty, pp. 07, 2001)



Second Novel Example

"Priscilla was my age and lived two blocks away. For the first 15 years of my life, those were the only qualifications I needed in a best friend.... But that was before freshman year when Priscilla's glasses came off, and the first in a long string of boyfriends got on." (*How*

Source: Wikipedia (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/KaavyaViswanathan>)

Because Viswanathan's text is so close to the original, literary career.

The internet is a great source of information. It is also a great resource for copying paragraph and even entire papers. It is tempting to copy and paste the information you find on the Internet and turn it in as your own work.

If this is your strategy, think about why you do it. Which of the following apply to you?

- My English language skills are weak.
- The original text says it better than I can ever hope to state it.
- There is no difference between copying from the internet and reproducing an essay from a Kunji, that it is faster to copy-paste than to type.
- Material on the internet is free for anyone to use. I can download music and movies. So, why not download papers?
- The term paper carries only five marks, so why should I put in any effort?
- The paper is due tomorrow and I have no time.
- I do not know how to write a paper, I was never taught how to do so.

Reasons 1-3 are common among East Asian students for whom English is a foreign language. Some Non-native students have the opinion that the one thing they learn from the writing class was that they do not care how bad their English oriented knowledge is but the paper had to be written in their own words. A few Non-native students honestly accept that at their undergraduate level they copied assignments, dissertations, papers, etc. from other students.

Reasons 4-7 are more common in India. The perception that material on the internet is free for anyone to use is so rampant that even commercial organisations copy material from websites and try to pass it off as their own. The internet is viewed as a giant Wastepaper basket in the sky that everyone can dip into.

The main reason why students and researchers copy work is that they have never been taught how to write a paper, how to select relevant information, express it in their own words, and use it to build an argument. The rewards for doing original work are so small that many people think that is not worth the time and effort of learning how to do the work. Go to the internet and get what you want.

Spotting Plagiarism

It is very easy to spot plagiarism material. You can use the internet to copy material it can be used to find your sources also. If anyone has any doubt, he/she simply needs to type a few words from the paper into Google and the original paper pops up. Software like SCAM and companies like *turnitin.com* match someone's paper against other papers to check how much has been copied.

People try to circumvent this by using synonyms and inserting a few errors so that the software does not detect the copy. You cannot fool teachers; in a disorganised essay, a logical paragraph in brilliant English stands out. We now have Plagiarism detection tools that match the style of different paragraph in an essay and can detect who wrote which section of the essay.

What is the limit of copying?

There is an old joke that if you copy from one source, plagiarism, if you copy from two sources, it is research. But how much can you copy from someone else work? The rule of thumb is not more than 10 consecutive words can be copied.

Some material does not have to be acknowledged because everyone knows it. Everyone accepts that the sun rises in the east and that language is a system of communication. These are accepted facts and broad concepts that you need not acknowledge. If you got specific ideas and examples from another source, how to rewrite them in your own words and acknowledge the source.

Consequences of Plagiarism

If you are caught plagiarizing, it can be extremely embarrassing for you. A long string of famous people has written faces or books that have plagiarized material from other walks. Plagiarism became an issue in India in 2015 when International journals pointed out that several Indian scientists had copied the data and papers from other Publications. Now, Indian universities are required to use plagiarism detection software on all dissertations that students submit.

Most teachers do not want to take the trouble of confronting a student with plagiarism, one can get away with it for a while. In academic settings, is regarded as a serious offence and can lead to a lower grade, grid korma suspension. The first is a copyright issue. Aman else has put a lot of time and effort into researching and writing the material, copying their work amounts to stealing; like copying images and songs from the internet and selling it as your own material. Reason has to do with the purpose of academic work when you write an assignment for a Research report, great it on your views and ideas. Submit an assignment lifted from other sources, the original author deserves the grid korma you get a zero or worse.

2.5 Sorting the Material

Once you have found some material on your topic, what do you do with it? Many students get stuck. Sentences or paragraphs from here and there and try to assemble it into a text. The result is a Patchwork of random sentences that don't make sense even to the author.

Look at the material you found on noise pollution. How much of it can you use? When it is searched, it is found numerous canned essays that say nothing; you can do better. Also, much of the material says the same thing in different words because they have copied from one another. In such a case original or the most coherent article and drop the rest. Reduce the volume of material.

Next, step back from the material. You will get demoralized or lost it you read the brilliant work done by other writers. Then follow these three steps in drafting your paper.

1. Skim through the material and revise your outline:

Skim through the copied material to become better informed about the topic and to gather support for your arguments. Revise your outline.

2. Take notes:

Read some material carefully and note down points you can use.

3. Rewrite the material and acknowledge your sources:

Paraphrase or summarize for quoting the material you have chosen in order to provide support for your argument then your sources in the references. This way you avoid the charge of plagiarism; also give weight to your arguments by showing that you have done your reading and some authority is on the subject hold the same view.

Skimming and revising your outline

Once you have your outline, begin looking at the material you have downloaded or photocopied. Your purpose is to extend your knowledge about the topic and to see what material is available. You may have to revise your outline as you come across new information or find that no information is available. Read rapidly, not carefully. Skim through the text to get the overall idea. Here is how it works:

1. Read the title and subtitle(s), if there are any.
2. Read the first sentence of all the paragraphs.
3. Read the whole of the first and last paragraphs if the piece is long.

Try to read the text below. By doing this, you will be skimming the text. Information in the text also tells you how to skim a text.



In the age of information, we are bombarded with information from all sides. To sift through this information, need to read quickly and efficiently. For this, we use a technique called skimming. In skimming, read the select portions of the text only. What are these portions? The first paragraph usually provides an overview of the text, so read it carefully.

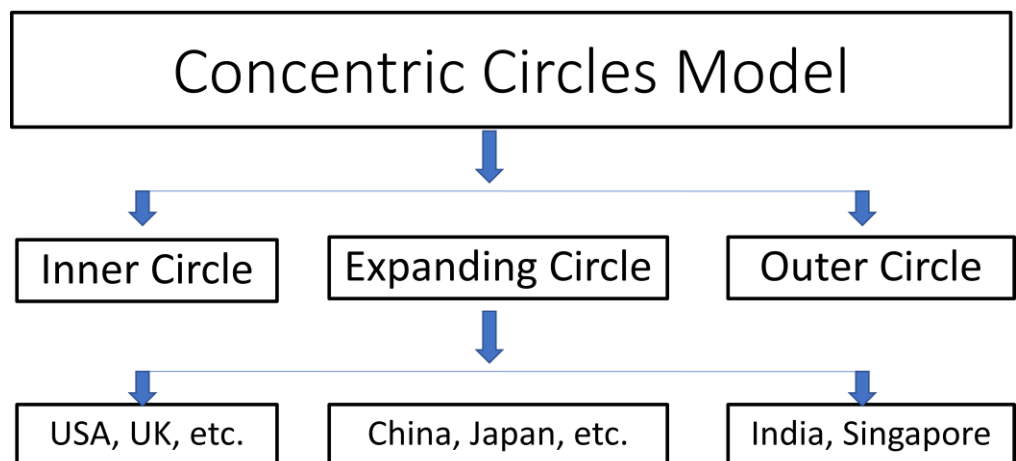
Sometimes the first paragraph is nearly a warming up or too general to give you an idea of the gist. In this case, the second paragraph too. Now you have some idea of the text, you do not need to read every paragraph. Don't read every word for every sentence just takes in keywords. The first sentence of each paragraph contains the main point and the rest is supporting detail so you can skip that portion. In addition to the main point, to get specific fact just like names, dates, numbers, etc. Do not be afraid to leave out half or more of each paragraph. Do not get interested and read everything. If the text is long, the organisers, headings, subheadings, illustrations, graphs, etc. Once you get the main points, always go back and read the text more carefully. Read details and evaluate the facts. We use skimming for numerous text, reports, newspapers, blogs, etc. Read the final paragraph carefully. These usually summarise the main points. Note that skimming is useful to get an overview of the text.

Now that you have some information on your topic, go back to your outline and refine it. You may need to delete some ideas because you could not find information or include ideas that came up in your reading.

Taking Notes

Once you have identified a few useful articles, them carefully and extract the main points. There are two ways to do this.

1. Highlight the most important point in each paragraph. The text is written clearly, will usually be the first sentence of your paragraph. Can either use a highlighter or write the main point in the left margin.
2. Diagram the information. Students find this strategy very helpful when they have to extract information from technical or dense texts. Below is a paragraph from a research paper. To understand this material, you can create a diagram as follows:



One useful framework for examining bilingual advertising is the concentric circles model of the spread of English (Kachru, 2005). In this model, countries like the US, Australia, and Canada are there in the Inner Circle. These countries use English as their first language, where is in the Expanding Circle, English is primary a foreign language as is seen in China, Japan, Taiwan, Thailand, Russia, etc. Countries in the Outer Circle, such as India and Singapore, fall between these two groups, in these countries, English is "used as an institutionalized additional language" (Kachru, 2005:p.14)

Rewrite the Material

if text provides support for your argument, you may want to include the information in your essay. It is critical to acknowledge the sources from where you obtained the information. This helps you avoid the charge of Plagiarism as well as lends credibility and weight to your argument. There are three ways to include material in your text.

1. Quotation

These are the exact words from the source and are placed within quotation marks. You cannot change the words or punctuation marks. You should give the source and the page number where the quotation appears. Quotations are useful for definitions and if you intend to argue against someone's opinion. Avoid long for numerous quotations because they give the impression that you are filling up the pages.

2. Paraphrase

In a paraphrase, you rewrite the original sentence in your own words.

3. Summary

A summary captures only the main ideas in a paragraph or text. Here also, you are expected to use your own words. Here is a paragraph from a research article, with one sentence in bold type. Below that you can see how this sentence is used in a quotation, after a phrase and a summary.



One objective of the study was to determine the perceptions of people who would be involved in implementing technology in the classroom. The pivot in the process is the classroom teacher; in the teaching of writing, it is the English language teacher. We designed a questionnaire to access teacher's perceptions and use of computers. The question was distributed in 24 schools and 127 English teachers responded. The results show that although school teachers have access to computers, they use them for limited purposes and many are not comfortable using them; for instance, 53% of the teachers said that they are afraid of computer (page 92).

Source: Gupta, R., Hvitfeldt, R. and Saravanan, V. (1998). 'The use of computers in the teaching of writing.' In S. Gopinathan, A. Pakir, Ho Wah Kam, and V. Saravanan (eds) *Language, Society and Education in Singapore* (pp. 91-104). Singapore: Times Academic Press.

Quotation

In Singapore "...although school teachers have access to computers, they use them for limited purposes and many are not comfortable using them". (Gupta, Hvitfeldt, and Saravanan 1998: p.92)

Paraphrase

In Singapore, computers are available in the schools, but teachers use them for a few tasks and the majority is not confident about using computers. (Gupta, Hvitfeldt, and Saravanan 1998)

Summary

Although computers are available in Singapore schools, teachers make limited use of them for teaching. (Gupta, Hvitfeldt, and Saravanan 1998)

Keywords

Brainstorming, outlining, gathering, information, sorting, material

Self Assessment

- 1) How does outlining help to develop any topic?
 - a. By organizing your ideas

- b. By scattering your thoughts
 - c. By disorganizing your points
 - d. None of the above
- 2) What is brainstorming?
- a. Activity to sharpen your brain
 - b. Jotting down one's ideas
 - c. A type of thunder storm
 - d. Activity to make children engage
- 3) What is the benefit of outlining?
- a. Provides a sound basis for topic building
 - b. Not to ensures direction
 - c. There is no such benefit as such
 - d. Provides no checklist to tally the important points
- 4) What is expected while outlining the topic?
- a. Jotting down the broad terms regarding the topic
 - b. Prepare a random sequence
 - c. Do not try to be more critical about your ideas
 - d. Above all
- 5) Outlining is
- a. tentative
 - b. permanent
 - c. final
 - d. lucrative
- 6) What are the steps in writing process?
- a. brainstorming and outlining-gathering information-sorting the material
 - b. sorting the material- brainstorming and outlining-gathering information
 - c. gathering information -sorting the material- brainstorming and outlining
 - d. None of the above
- 7) What are the major issue(s) one encounters while gathering information?
- a. Electricity
 - b. Availability of laptop or desktop
 - c. Plagiarism
 - d. Knowledge of resources
- 8) What are the credible sources?
- a. Referred and peer reviewed journals
 - b. Printed encyclopedia
 - c. Commercial databases
 - d. Above all
- 9) What is plagiarism?
- a. Turning in someone else's work as your own
 - b. Getting on the nerves of someone for favour
 - c. Producing genuine material without copying from somewhere
 - d. Helping others to develop any topic

- 10) Up to what limit copying is generally accepted in research?
- 15%
 - 10%
 - 13%
 - 18%
- 11) What do we do after collecting the required and relevant information?
- Delete the relevant sentences and paragraph into the text
 - Disorganize the thoughts for a better outcome
 - Assemble the relevant sentences and paragraph into the text
 - Directly send the relevant information to the publisher
- 12) What is one of the major problems while gathering information?
- Same information is shared in different sources
 - Unique information is available on different sources
 - Irrelevant and worthless information is available on most of the sources
 - Internet does not provide authentic information
- 13) What is the first step to draft any text?
- Rewriting the material searched on internet
 - Skim through the material and revise the outline
 - Rewriting the material and acknowledge the sources
 - None of the above
- 14) In which step to draft any text do we take notes?
- First
 - Third
 - Fifth
 - Second
- 15) What is the last step to draft any text?
- Scanning the material and make revision
 - Rewriting the material and acknowledge the sources
 - Taking down important points to develop further
 - Sorting the material and identify the relevant ones

Answer for Self Assessment

- | | | | | |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. A | 2. B | 3. A | 4. D | 5. A |
| 6. A | 7. C | 8. D | 9. A | 10. B |
| 11. C | 12. A | 13. B | 14. D | 15. B |

Review Questions:

- How to ensure the quality of information while gathering data?
- What is plagiarism?
- How to avoid plagiarism in writing?

4. What are the consequences of copying someone else ideas or words?
5. What do we understand by brainstorming?
6. How does brainstorming is useful in writing?
7. Differentiate individual and group brainstorming.
8. Which techniques are helpful in specific situations?
9. What does outlining mean?
10. What do we keep in mind while making an outline of any topic?
11. Discuss different steps of drafting?
12. What are the major problems faced by the writer while gathering information?

Further Reading



A Course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd.

English Grammar by Rajeevan Karal, Oxford University Press

A course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd.

English Grammar by Rajeevan Karal, Oxford University Press

Oxford EAP: A Course in English for Academic Purposes by Edward De Chazal

And Sam Mccarter, Oxford University Press

MLA Handbook by Modern Language Association of America, Modern Language Association

Unit 03: Writing Paragraphs: Introduction, Types of Paragraphs, Enumeration

Digvijay Pandya, Lovely Professional University

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Answer for Self Assessment

Review Questions:

Further Reading

Objectives:

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

- understand the meaning and types of paragraph
- analyze various key elements of a paragraph
- elucidate enumeration in paragraph writing
- apply learning to develop enumerative paragraph

Introduction

In this chapter, we will look at how to write a paragraph. A paragraph such as the following is an information dump that is difficult to understand.



In India, there are over 40,000 fuel retail outlets, with only 2000 belonging to private companies. The private companies are Essar, Reliance, and Shell. BPCL, HPCL, IBP, and IOC have a market share of 80%. The market share of private retailers has been affected by the fixed prices for domestic fuel and the lack of government compensation for the price subsidies. Most of the LPG and all kerosene is sold by government oil companies.

When you write well-connected sentences in a paragraph, you are not far from writing a good as a. Here is the text we will walk with.



In order to understand the scope of the problem, the government decided to conduct a survey of the schools in the area. The survey found several problems with the schools in the area. 9:00 schools were identified - six primary schools and three Secondary Schools. True School visits, teacher interviews and classroom observations, data was collected and the findings submitted as a report to the government. The survey was conducted during the school year - from July to March - when teachers and students would be available. Teachers were frequently

absent and come when they did appear, their teaching was of poor quality. Most of the schools had no electricity. Many teachers do not have adequate qualifications; while most have a BA degree, they do not have a teaching certificate. There are no sports facilities and students spend the break in the classrooms. Some schools did not even have separate rooms for the classes. Teachers complained that many students do not buy textbooks. In winter, the lack of electricity means that students cannot read their textbooks or see what they are writing.

3.1 Key Elements to Write a Paragraph

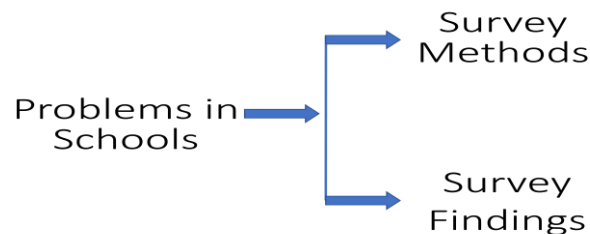
There are few key elements in writing a coherent paragraph.

1. One paragraph should contain only one idea.
2. The sentences should be arranged in some order.
3. There should be a topic sentence.
4. The supporting details should follow the topic sentence.
5. Irrelevant information should be deleted.
6. A concluding sentence can be added.

Let's walk our way through these six steps, using our text as an example.

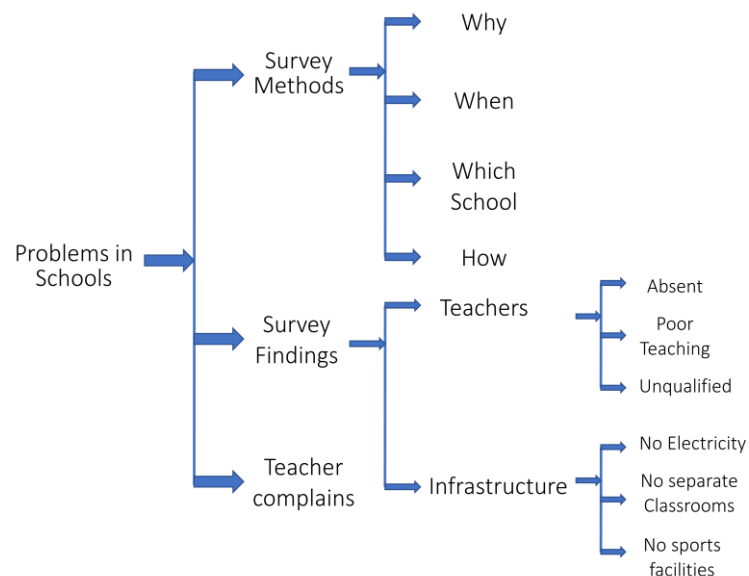
One Paragraph One Idea

A paragraph should contain only one idea. If there are two ideas, write two paragraphs, or you will confuse The Reader. The sample text is about problems in schools, but there are two distinct ideas: how the survey was conducted and the findings of the survey. The following figure shows the basic outline of the sample text.



Organise the Information

After the implementation of the first key element, we should organise the information. We will put each piece of information under the appropriate heading. The following figure shows how the pieces of information are arranged in a systematic and ordered way.



Delete Irrelevant Information

After arranging the points systematically, if we find any piece of information not going well with the topic, we should delete that irrelevant information. In the example given above, the sentence "teachers complaint that many students do not buy textbooks.", appears to destroy the unity of the text so better to delete the sentence. The modified outline of the sample topic would appear in the following way:

Example

Modified Paragraph

To understand the scope of the problem, the government decided to survey the schools in the area. The survey was conducted during the school year - from July to March - when teachers and students would be available. Nine schools were identified - six primary schools and three Secondary Schools. Through School visits, teacher interviews and classroom observations, data was collected and the findings submitted as a report to the government.

The survey found several problems with the schools in the area. Teachers were frequently absent and, when they did appear, that teaching was of poor quality. Many teachers do not have adequate qualifications; while most have a BA degree, they do not have a teaching certificate. Most of the schools had no electricity. In winter, the lack of electricity means that students cannot read their textbooks or see what they are writing. Some schools did not even have separate rooms for the classes. There are no sports facilities and students spend the break in the classrooms.

The government conducted a survey of the schools to understand the problem.



Topic



Controlling Idea

Location of the topic sentence

The topic sentence is usually placed at the beginning of the paragraph; this helps the reader by acting as a guide. The rest of the paragraph provides details to support the main idea.

Topic sentence - In order to understand the scope of the problem, the government decided to conduct a survey of the schools in the area.

Supporting details - The survey was conducted during the school year - from July to March - when teachers and students would be available. Nine schools were identified six primary schools and three Secondary Schools. Through School visits, teacher interviews and classroom observations, data was collected and the findings submitted as a report to the government.

In nutshell we can say that:

- The topic sentence is usually the first sentence of the paragraph.
- The topic sentence helps the reader by acting as a guide or map.
- The topic sentence helps you write the paragraph. Once you have a topic sentence, it is easy to fill in the supporting details.

The topic sentence should not be too general or too specific. If it is too general, you won't know what to include or exclude. If it is too specific, you have nothing left to say or write.

Now, Let's look at the second paragraph of our sample text. Here is the content of the paragraph. Level one is the topic, level two is the controlling Idea coma and level 3 gives the supporting details. From this outline, it is easy to write a clear topic sentence that has a topic and a controlling idea.

The survey found problems with both the teachers and the infrastructure.



Topic



Controlling Idea

Add supporting details

After you have stated your main point in the topic sentence, you need to back it up. Supporting details land credibility to your claims by providing evidence, explanations, statistics, facts, examples, etc. Supporting details merely back up the topic sentence and do not introduce new ideas.

Notice how this is done in the second paragraph of the sample text.

Topic sentence - In order to understand the scope of the problem, the government decided to conduct a survey of the schools in the area.

Evidence - Teachers were frequently absent and, when they did appear, that teaching was of poor **(Teachers)** quality. Many teachers do not have adequate qualifications; while most have a BA degree, they do not have a teaching certificate.

Evidence - Most of the schools had no electricity. In winter, the lack of electricity means that **(Infrastructure)** students cannot read their textbooks or see what they are writing. Some schools did not even have separate rooms for the classes. There are no sports facilities and students spend the break in the classrooms.

Write a concluding sentence

How does one end a paragraph? In long paragraphs, we usually restate the topic sentence in different words to remind The Reader of the main point. We do not introduce any new ideas here, since that would make it a new paragraph. For example, a suitable concluding sentence about the Sample paragraph would be written in the following way.

From the findings, the main problem areas in schools are teachers and inadequate infrastructure.

3.2 Types of Paragraph

There are four types that are ideally suited for this genre. Each has different characteristics that'll work best in different areas of study, as explained below:

1. Expository Paragraph: This type is used to inform and educate the reader.
2. Descriptive Paragraph: This type is used to paint a picture in the reader's mind.
3. Narrative Paragraph: This type is used to bring the reader along your character's emotional journey.
4. Persuasive Paragraph: This type is used to convince the reader to side with you and your beliefs.

Each one of the four paragraph types fulfills a different purpose:

- The expository paragraph type is used to convey well-researched findings to back up your solution in a way that establishes you as an expert in the reader's eyes.
- The descriptive paragraph type is used to paint vivid pictures in your reader's mind of someone like them, both before and after they apply your solution.
- The narrative paragraph type is used to take your reader through an emotional journey from problem to solution, as lived by the characters in your case studies.
- The persuasive paragraph type is used to convince your reader why your solution will be different than any other than they might have tried in the past.

Characteristics of the Expository Paragraph:

The expository paragraph type is used to build your credibility as an expert. You'll achieve this goal by presenting facts, statistics and other data required to back up your solution.

What is This Paragraph Type Not Used For?

This paragraph type is not used to express your opinion or to influence your reader. Try to stay away from "loaded words" that carry a high emotional charge, since they'll create a conflict with the factual nature of the type.



"The fundamental question of work and leisure raised by Weiss is particularly relevant as a generation called Millennials moves firmly into the workforce. I know many Millennials and in general they're hard-working, passionate young men and women who are eager to work, but they want to enjoy and draw meaning from their jobs.

Most are sensible enough to have a day-job to pay the bills, but many have a "side hustle" - a hobby or a business idea into which they pour their passion and hope to one day monetize.

Weiss recognizes this trend in workers, but an interesting disconnect between Weiss' article and today is the discussion of self-employment. Weiss notes that self-employed workers are generally most satisfied even if they earn less, but also makes the observation that self-employment has significantly declined."

In this example the author is using expository paragraphs to present and analyze research findings by a recognized expert in the field.

Characteristics of the Descriptive Paragraph:

As the old adage says, a picture is worth a thousand words, and this is where the descriptive paragraph type comes in handy. One of the best devices to engage your reader's senses is to paint a clear picture of how your solution will work in their life.

The descriptive paragraph type is not only used to engage your audience's five senses but also their feelings. Your goal is to engage your reader so closely that they feel they're actually "there." This is a powerful literary device used to great effect in the fiction genre and you'll be borrowing from it for your nonfiction book.

What is This Paragraph Type Not Used For?

This paragraph type is not used to narrate. In other words, the descriptive type is never used to tell a story or to give insights into the thoughts or the emotional state of characters in your book.



“Coming down to Bridge Park had been a good idea, he decided. Leaving the crowded mass of the city behind he’d ridden the train south, through the razed land and out onto the delta.

Rice paddies stretched to every horizon, blurring the line between land, river and sea. And then, in the shadow of the ruined supports of the bridge, the park rose like a garden oasis above the lowlands.

He obviously wasn’t the only person with the same idea today, and the park was lifted by the shrieks of children playing on the bridge replica fun zone behind him.”

In the above passage, the author is using the descriptive paragraph type to paint a picture in the mind of the reader by using specific adjectives and adverbs that appeal to the reader’s senses.

Characteristics of the Narrative Paragraph:

Narrative writing can be used very effectively in problem-solving nonfiction through the power of story-telling. Nonfiction books without any story-telling are not as engaging as they could be.

Use stories to create an emotional connection with your readers by making them become invested in characters that they can relate to – characters that also “feel their pain.” They could be about yourself, past clients, or fictional characters that combine the experiences of multiple clients.

What is This Paragraph Type Not Used For?

The narrative paragraph type is not used to introduce facts and figures and it’s not used to influence or persuade your audience.



“Christopher Reeve was one courageous person who fully accepted an unexpected change in direction in his life. The icon of superhuman strength in the 80’s, he was the quintessential Superman. An actor of great appeal and talent, he represented the ideal combination of manliness, strength, seeker of justice, and savior of humankind.

In May 1995, he was riding his horse and had a serious fall. The accident damaged his spinal cord such that he was left a quadriplegic and had to use a machine to help him breathe. The accident sent shock waves around the world. How could Superman be rendered a quadriplegic? It was unfathomable.

After many months of grueling physical therapy, he learned how to function in this new altered state. The emotional toll was great as he and his family struggled with the changes this accident brought into their lives.

Within a year, however, he had founded a charitable organization called the Christopher Reeve Foundation in order to raise money for research on spinal cord injuries and made it his mission to find a way for all victims of these devastating injuries to walk again.”

Here the author is using the narrative paragraph type to portray the dramatic fall in the fortunes of a celebrity after a traumatic life event, and how he resolved the conflict in his life to become a real-life superhero in the eyes of his followers

Characteristics of the Persuasive Paragraph:

The persuasive paragraph type can be used to great effect in problem-solving nonfiction books. Your goal is not just to communicate and teach new skills, but also to persuade your reader to take action and implement your solution in their lives.

You want to persuade readers by appealing to them on an emotional level and using your connection and your credibility as an expert to convince them to side with you. The aim of persuasive writing is to align your reader's goals with your own.

What is This Paragraph Type Not Used For?

Doing anything that takes your reader out of the plane of reality – such as by going into a detailed description of places, circumstances or events or into a deep narrative.



“‘I’m too old’ or ‘It’s too late to change’ are nothing but limiting beliefs. Like any other beliefs, they’re fully under your control and are totally replaceable. In the end, you’re the one who truly runs the show, as much as you’re taught to believe the opposite. When it comes to making changes in your life, you have the ultimate say. If you end up doing what others think you should, it’s only because on some level you’ve made the decision to believe that their ideas are more worthy than your own.

If you want to change, you have to start believing in what you want to do, no matter what other people’s ‘opinions’ are. And you have to believe that the changes you want to make are worth it, regardless of your age or your circumstances.

Life consists of a collection of ‘moments.’ This very moment and every moment after it are what your life is made of. If you live your life worrying about the future, regretting the past or even living how others tell you to live, then you aren’t living ‘your’ moments.

All it really takes to become in charge of your own life is to simply decide to do so. Your process of reinvention is 100% yours. Don’t be afraid to use it fully to our advantage. Don’t be afraid to think big thoughts. Remember, you can make a difference: you are the difference!”

In this example, the author is using persuasive writing to influence readers to take action by changing their belief system through replacing limiting beliefs with empowering ones

Conclusively we can say that the use of the above four paragraph types will add more texture to your nonfiction writing, and when used strategically it’ll make your writing much more engaging for your readers.

3.3 Text Types

So far we have looked at the structure of a generic paragraph. But open paragraph (and even texts) has an additional layer that is familiar to readers. Readers begin reading a paragraph and say, here is the procedure or here come the causes and results. There are six clear text types (ways to include information in a paragraph) that are familiar to readers and that you can use when writing a paragraph or text.

1. Enumeration for listing
2. Exemplification for giving examples
3. Sequence of events or activities
4. Comparison of items
5. Cause-Effect relationships
6. Description of visuals

A long text uses a combination of these text types moving from one to another seamlessly. However, scrutinizing each Text type separately helps you recognize how they are structured and how to write such texts.

The text type is also signaled by certain words that show the connection between sentences. These words are called transition signals or connectives.

Example

Enumeration: There are several reasons why women are paid less than men for equal work. First.....

Cause and effect: women receive lower wages primarily because men are in charge of setting salaries.

If you on these transition signals are the connection between the sentences remains unclear. Transition words are not interchangeable because they signal different relationships, and for each relationship, you should use the appropriate signaling words. For each Text type, we have given a partial list of transition signals along with common pitfalls.

3.4 Enumeration

The simplest way to provide information is to list it.

- In sentences: she bought apples, spinach and sugar.
- In paragraphs: several factors have led to the problems in schools. First, the lack of funding....

Since this is the lowest form of organisation, there is a danger that the information will turn into a list of facts that cannot be easily understood or remembered. Here is an example where several effects have been thrown in.

Example

Employees will be assessed on four parameters: level of responsibilities, independence, accountability, project completion, quality of the project, client satisfaction, and client feedback.

The paragraph says there are four parameters, but the list contains 7 items. If we examine the 7 items closely, we see that they fall into four groups:

1. Responsibilities
2. Independence and accountability
3. The project
4. Client responses

This is what the writer means to say:

The employees were assessed on four parameters: level of responsibilities, Independence and accountability, project completion and quality, and client satisfaction and feedback.

The list becomes clear if similar items are grouped with the word *and*, and different groups of items are separated by commas.

3.5 Criteria for a List

When texts begin with the words and sentences given below, we expect a list of items to follow.

- Two *methods* are commonly used to analyse such data: quantitative and qualitative.
- A paragraph has three *sections*: a topic sentence, supporting details, and a concluding sentence.

As far as possible, we try to organise the list of items. For example, given a laundry list is not arbitrary but is sorted by some criterion as follows.

- Size - large versus small items
- Colour - white versus coloured clothes

So, enumeration is a text type in which we use some criterion to sort information before we list it.

Organising a List***Order of Importance***

When you have a list of points, the simplest way to organise them is by order of importance. Begin with the most important and end with the least important.



Relevant skills for the position of Project Leader

- Good interpersonal skills (most important skill)
- Excellent technical knowledge (next most important skill)
- Most senior person on the staff (least important skill)

There are other ways also to list items. Let's have a look of them

.Order of Mention

Suppose you mention two facts for examples and then go on to describe each one. In your description, you should describe them in the order in which you mentioned them. This is because readers set up a Framework in their heads that tends to be a hierarchy and not a chain.

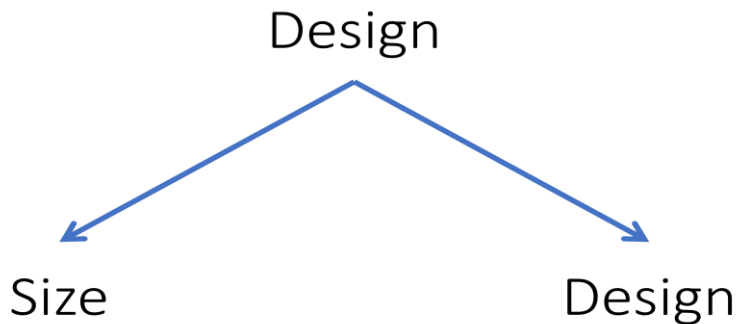
Example of a Chain

This Smartphone is both small and elegant. It has a sleek design and it fits in the palm of your hand.

Size → Design → Design → Size

Example of a Hierarchy

This Smartphone is both small and elegant. It is only as big as your palm and it has a sleek design.



3.6 Transition Signals for Enumeration

In sentences, we sometimes reel of a series of items. Notice that we use *and* before the last item.

Example

The system uses a television screen, an amplifier, and five speakers.

But to connect sentences we do not use *and*, because it is considered to informal in writing. Instead, we use signals such as *also*, *moreover*, or *in addition*.

Example

1. The camera is light. Also, It is inexpensive.
2. The camera is light. Moreover, It is inexpensive.
3. The camera is light. In addition, it is inexpensive.

Transition Signals for Enumeration		
And	Further	Moreover
Too	Besides	In addition
Again	Also	Equally important

One transition signal is enough. The sentence below has two transition signals that mean the same - further and also. Delete one of them.

- Further, the administrative procedures are also complicated. (**inappropriate**)
- Further, the administrative procedures are complicated. (**appropriate**)

Summary

- Effective writing has become an essential skill in academics.
- There are six key features need to keep in mind while writing a paragraph.
- One paragraph should contain one idea.
- The sentences should be arranged in some order.
- There should be a topic sentence.
- The supporting details should follow the topic sentence.
- Irrelevant information should be deleted.
- A concluding sentence can be added.
- Expository, Narrative, Descriptive, and Persuasive are common purposes for which a paragraph is generally written.
- There are six ways/types to incorporate information in a paragraph.
- Enumeration or listing is the first type/way to order information in a paragraph.
- Two *methods* are commonly used to analyse data: quantitative and qualitative.
- A paragraph has three *sections*: a topic sentence, supporting details, and a concluding sentence.
- There are two ways which are order of importance and order of merit to organize information in a paragraph.
- When you have a list of points, the simplest way to organise them is by order of importance.
- In ordering the information according to its importance, begin with the most important and end with the least important.
- In ordering the information according to its merit, in your description, you should describe them in the order in which you mentioned them.
- Transitional signals like *and, further, moreover, besides, also, again*, etc. are used for enumeration.

Key Words: paragraphs, types, enumeration, features

Self Assessment

- 1) What do we need to write an effective paragraph?
 - A. One paragraph - One idea

- B. submitting the final draft
 - C. submitting the first draft
 - D. entertaining questions from the readers
- 2) What is the first key element to write an effective paragraph?
- A. Plagiarize the ideas from the available material
 - B. Making selection of audience for discussion
 - C. Arrangement of ordering of sentences
 - D. Ordering and arrangement of sentences
- 3) Writing effective topic sentence is the key element to write an effective paragraph?
- A. first
 - B. second
 - C. third
 - D. fourth
- 4) What do we understand by a 'Topic Sentence'?
- A. The main resource of the paragraph
 - B. The main challenge that is addressed in the book
 - C. The main source from which the thoughts been extracted
 - D. The main point(s) of the particular paragraph
- 5) To develop an effective paragraph, it is important to?
- A. delete irrelevant information
 - B. publish it in an authentic journal
 - C. bring it in the notice of readers
 - D. discuss relevant points with others
- 6) An effective paragraph must have?
- A. topic, salutation, body, and concluding paragraph
 - B. topic sentence, body, and concluding sentence
 - C. research question, topic sentence, and research outcomes
 - D. topic strength, body, and concluding sentence
- 7) How many paragraph/text types are there?
- A. 4
 - B. 5
 - C. 6
 - D. 7
- 8) is the first type of paragraph/text?
- A. Exemplification
 - B. Comparison of items
 - C. Description of visuals
 - D. Enumeration

- 9) Identify the types of paragraph/text out of the following.
- A. Enumeration and Exemplification
 - B. Sequence of events and Comparison of items
 - C. Cause-Effect relationships and Description of visuals
 - D. All of the above
- 10) Exemplification is a type of
- A. Research
 - B. Paragraph/text
 - C. Stream of education
 - D. book/journal
- 11) What is enumeration in the context of paragraph writing?
- A. A rhetorical device used for listing details
 - B. A rhetorical technique used in IT
 - C. A rhetorical device used for speaking
 - D. A rhetorical device used for listening to important points
- 12) Enumeration helps to
- A. rearrange and recognize the challenges in writing
 - B. sort the material from the relevant sources
 - C. cut out irrelevant information for better comprehension
 - D. elucidate any topic for better comprehension
- 13) Identify the example of enumeration in sentence.
- A. He wrote a paragraph.
 - B. She is the most intelligent student in the class.
 - C. She bought files, pens, and an office bag.
 - D. Workers are committed to work with honesty.
- 14) Identify the problem lies with enumeration in paragraph writing?
- A. The process of enumeration is topic centric
 - B. The process of enumeration is too slow
 - C. The process of enumeration is too difficult
 - D. The loosest form of organization
- 15) Identify the transition signal in the following sentence.
- The computer setup includes a screen, a CPU, keyboard, and a mouse
- A. Includes
 - B. A
 - C. And
 - D. Computer

Answer for Self Assessment

- | | | | | |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. A | 2. D | 3. B | 4. D | 5. A |
| 6. B | 7. C | 8. D | 9. D | 10. B |
| 11. A | 12. D | 13. C | 14. D | 15. C |

Review Questions:

1. What are the key features to write an effective paragraph?
2. How many ideas a paragraph should have?
3. What is a topic sentence?
4. What should follow a topic sentence?
5. What is concluding sentence?
6. Define expository paragraph and comment upon its objectives.
7. Define narrative paragraph and comment upon its objectives.
8. What do you understand by a descriptive paragraph?
9. What are the objectives of writing a persuasive paragraph?
10. What is enumeration?
11. How many methods are used to analyze data? Define.
12. Explain different sections of a paragraph in detail.
13. How many ways are there to organize any paragraph? Explain in detail.
14. What are transitional signals?
15. Discuss the transitional signals used for enumeration along with suitable examples.

Further Reading



A Course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd.

English Grammar by Rajeevan Karal, Oxford University Press

A course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd.

English Grammar by Rajeevan Karal, Oxford University Press

Oxford EAP: A Course in English for Academic Purposes by Edward De Chazal

And Sam Mccarter, Oxford University Press

MLA Handbook by Modern Language Association of America, Modern Language Association

Unit 04: Academic English: Writing Paragraphs: Exemplification, Complex Paragraphs, Sequence

Digvijay Pandya, Lovely Professional University

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Objectives

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

- understand the meaning of exemplification
- analyze the complexities of complex paragraph
- elucidate the use and importance of sequence in paragraph writing
- apply learning to use exemplification and sequence in paragraph writing

Introduction

Exemplification, in the philosophy of language, is a mode of symbolization characterized by the relation between a sample and what it refers to. When authors provide examples or cases in point to support their claims, they employ the rhetorical strategy of exemplification.

Definitions

4.1 The American Heritage® Dictionary of the English Language, 5th Edition

(noun) The act of exemplifying, One that exemplifies; an example.

(noun) Law An officially certified copy of a document.

The Century Dictionary

(noun) The act of exemplifying; a showing or illustrating by example.

(noun) That which exemplifies; something that serves for illustration, as of a principle, theory, or the like.

(noun) A copy or transcript; especially, an attested copy, as of a record, under seal; an exemplified copy (which see, under exemplify).

4.2 The GNU version of the Collaborative International Dictionary of English

(noun) The act of exemplifying; a showing or illustrating by example, that which exemplifies; a case in point; example.


(Law) A copy or transcript attested to be correct by the seal of an officer having custody of the original.

4.3 Word Net 3.0 Copyright 2006 by Princeton University

(noun) a representational or typifying form or model, showing by example


This powerful strategy allows authors to back up what they are saying with examples, which can be persuasive to audiences. Overall, exemplification occurs in many different types of examples, such as facts, statistics, quotations, personal experiences, and interviews, all of which you have seen throughout your life.

By providing these examples, authors demonstrate deductive or inductive reasoning. Furthermore, exemplification occurs in various forms of communication, whether this be an academic essay, a speech, a casual conversation, or an advertisement. In this way, exemplification is both widely prevalent and persuasive. Exemplification occurs in many different rhetorical situations, including conversations with others in your day-to-day life.

 When you assert that Michael Jordan is the greatest basketball player, you may cite his number of championships or career points-per-game. These statistics can effectively support your claim. Or, you may state that the makeup brand Ulta is a better business than Sephora because it has a higher Better Business Bureau rating. In either case, you are using exemplification—in these instances, statistics and facts—to support your claims. Thus, even in simple claims of personal preferences, you often invoke exemplification.

Additionally, you have probably used exemplification in academic essays. When you use transitional phrases such as “for example,” “for instance,” or “in one passage,” you are signaling to readers that you are going to employ exemplification.

Let’s take a look at the following selection from an academic essay:

 To begin, Selingo presents an important argument about early adulthood. More specifically, he states that “in the journey to adulthood, there are either Sprinters, Wanderers or Stragglers” (17). Here, Selingo argues that these are the three different journeys that each type of person takes to get into their respective careers.

In this excerpt, the author states that Selingo has an important argument, provides a direct quote of it from the text, and rephrases the argument in their own words. The example—in this case, the direct quote—persuades the audience by letting them “see” the argument in its original form. Thus, the excerpt is well-supported in part because the author employs exemplification.

In this way, the rhetorical strategy of exemplification can strengthen academic writing through supporting claims with evidence, similar to the way a lawyer presents evidence to a jury in support of claims in a case. Ultimately, exemplification is powerful in college essays because it clarifies and supports what you are trying to assert. Similar to the selection above, you make consistent use of exemplification in body paragraphs by quoting and providing textual evidence. Exemplification does not just occur in academic essays, however. It is also commonly found in advertisements.



When learning about the rhetorical appeals, you may have come across this famous SPCA advertisement with Sarah McLachlan regarding donating to help prevent animal cruelty: This advertisement begins by flashing a fact and a statistic:

“Every single hour in BC, an animal is violently abused” and “3,000 animals were rescued last year.” Both of these sentences are exemplification at work. The video creators want you to donate to the SPCA by providing two reasons for why it is important that you give money to their organization. These facts and statistics about animal cruelty are extremely powerful to the audience and allow them to see exactly how their money will be used for the greater good. Overall, the rhetorical strategy of exemplification drives the beginning of the video with its appropriate, striking facts and statistics.

As you may have guessed, exemplification can also take on a visual form. In the advertisement, when you see repeated images and clips of animals, you feel more inclined to donate, both because of the rhetorical appeal of pathos and because the clips themselves function as a type of exemplification. That is, by depicting abused animals, the authors provide visual examples supporting why it is important to donate to humanitarian campaigns and how these donations may truly help. Exemplification, then, is a key persuasive strategy for the creators of the video, both textually and visually.

Ultimately, exemplification is a powerful rhetorical strategy that you have seen and used throughout your life. By viewing communication in terms of this strategy, you can become a better critical thinker, analyzing exactly why you marshal the evidence that you do and how what you say is persuasive through the examples you provide your audience. Whether you are arguing a point in a paper, discussing personal preferences with friends, or being sold an item in an advertisement, you can witness and wield the persuasive power of exemplification almost anywhere.

4.4 Uses of exemplification

Product samples exemplify certain properties they possess.

- As a part in ostensive definition, i.e. definition by exemplification of what is defined. For example, an artist can define a new style by showing works that exemplify it.
- Defined exemplification is a pattern of essay development that uses specific instances (examples) to clarify a point, to add interest, or to persuade (Clouse, 2006).
- Exemplification means using examples to explain, convince, or amuse. Lending interest and information to writing, exemplification is one of the most common and effective ways to developing ideas. Examples may be developed in a sentence or more, or they may be only phrases or even single words, as in the following sentence: "Children like packaged breakfast foods, such as Wheaties, Cheerios, and Rice Krispies."

There are several transition signals which are used to represent exemplification in a paragraph.

Transition Signals for Exemplification		
e.g.	To illustrate	Take the case of
For instance	As an illustration	In another case
For example	To demonstrate	Such as

Common Mistakes

Examples are the easiest way to explain your ideas, but be careful when writing. Here are some incorrect ways of giving examples. Can you spot the errors?

1. For example, Toyota, Mitsubishi, and Honda.
2. Many companies, eg. Toyota, use JIT.
3. Many companies, for e.g., use JIT.
4. Many companies, such as Toyota, Mitsubishi, etc. use JIT.

Answers

1. The sentence does not have a verb. We can correct this by adding a verb.

- For example, Toyota, Mitsubishi, and Honda use JIT.
- Examples include Toyota, Mitsubishi, and Honda.

2. Spelling of e.g.

e.g. is spelt incorrectly. Note the full stops between the letters, followed by a comma.

- Many companies, e.g., Toyota, use JIT.

We avoid using *e.g.* in formal writing. Use it if you are short of space, but otherwise use a complete form such as *for example*.

3. Using for e.g.

e.g. means for example. If you write for e.g., you have said for for example.

4. Using etc. with examples

This is repetition, because such as and etc. mean the same. Use only one of these phrases.

- Many companies, such as Toyota and Mitsubishi, use JIT.
- Toyota, Mitsubishi, etc. use JIT.

4.5 Complex Paragraphs

Listing items and giving examples are two simple ways to organize information in paragraphs. But there can be more complex relationships between ideas. There are two ways to organize paragraphs that describe as follows:

A sequence: We know this from stories and our history textbooks. It comes up again at the university in lab reports, case studies, and your resume.

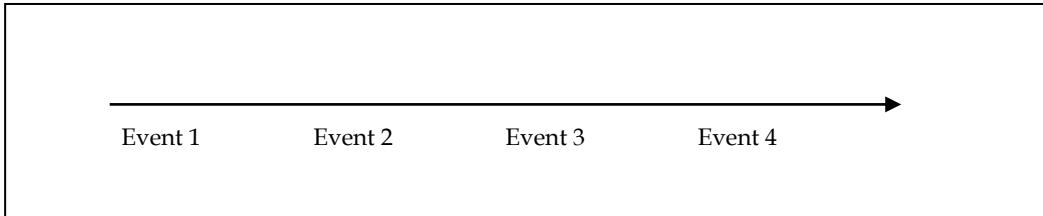
A comparison of items: You may be asked to evaluate two theories or two solutions. For this, you have to find the points on which they are similar, but also identify their differences.

Although students use these two text types in school, they find it difficult to read and write such texts at the university, perhaps because they cannot see the link. Here, we have covered the basic logic of these text types, and the steps to follow. The exercises use non-academic texts so that you can check whether or not you understand the logic.

4.6 Sequence

Sequence Paragraph In a sequencing paragraph, you are writing to describe a series of events or a process in some sort of order. Usually, this order is based on time. Example: Write a paragraph outlining how a person becomes the prime minister.

Several texts describe a sequence of events. Think of a cookery book, a computer manual, a history text, or your bio-data. In all of them, the events are listed in an order that is based on the passage of time. In effect, it is a timeline.



Texts that are structured based on a sequence of events fall into two types: a chronology of events and a process/procedure.



In the early 21st century, housing loans were often given to individuals who did not have the means to pay back these loans. Presently, in the midst of the current housing crisis, these subprime loans are no longer being offered to unqualified candidates.

Explanation

In these sentences, the author is drawing on sequence or time, highlighting what happened both before and after the housing crisis.

4.7 Chronology

This is a description of events arranged by the time when they occurred. Here are some areas where we find such texts.

1. **Narratives:** A narrative is a story. The term can be used as a noun or an adjective. As a noun, narrative refers to the story being told. It is the account of events, experiences, and details. It also refers to the story-telling process. As an adjective, it describes the form or style of the story being told.

The adjective use of the word narrative has its roots in the Latin word, *narrativus*, which means "suited to narration." The noun usage of the word appeared in the French language in the 15th century and is defined as "a tale, story."



Once upon a time, there was beautiful princess. One day she saw a frog in the forest. She went up to the frog and kissed it. She turned into a frog. They lived happily ever after.



It was July 21, 1969, and Neil Armstrong awoke with a start. It was the day he would become the first human being to ever walk on the moon. The journey had begun several days earlier, when on July 16th, the Apollo 11 launched from Earth headed into outer space. On board with Neil Armstrong were Michael Collins and Buzz Aldrin. The crew landed on the moon in the Sea of Tranquility a day before the actual walk. Upon Neil's first step onto the moon's surface, he declared, "That's one small step for man, one giant leap for mankind." It sure was!

- Historical events:** Historic and historical are used in slightly different ways. Historic means 'famous or important in history', as in a historic occasion, whereas historical means 'concerning history or historical events', as in historical evidence; thus a historic event is one that was very important, whereas a historical event is something that happened in the past.



Financial liberalization affected the US and UK financial systems in the 1970s, most other advanced countries in the 1980s, and the less developed economies only in the past decade.

In the earlier years of the 1900s many historical events took place such as World War I, the Great Depression, World War II and many others were a groundbreaking part of history that affected many lives. The main event I will be talking about throughout my report is World War II. It first began on September 1, 1939 and ended six years later, in 1945 around the same exact time. The event was set off from the previous one, World War I. The instability that occurred in Europe in 1914 set the point....

- Case studies:** A case study is an in-depth study of one person, group, or event. In a case study, nearly every aspect of the subject's life and history is analyzed to seek patterns and causes of behavior. Case studies can be used in a variety of fields including psychology, medicine, education, anthropology, political science, and social work. The hope is that learning gained from studying one case can be generalized to many others.

Unfortunately, case studies tend to be highly subjective and it is sometimes difficult to generalize results to a larger population. While case studies focus on a single individual or group, they follow a format that is similar to other types of psychology writing.

A marketing case study is one of the most compelling content items in your sales funnel.

It's the perfect way to guide people into and through the decision phase, when they have the best options laid out on the table and they're ready to puzzle through that final selection. Because of this, case studies are uniquely useful as bottom of the funnel content.

By the time prospects are ready to read case studies, they have a nuanced grasp of the problem in front of them. They also have a good selection of potential solutions and vendors to choose from.

Example: Adobe: Royal Bank of Scotland

Adobe Customer Story

RBS, earning customer trust.
Focus on modern banking, outstanding service, and inventive marketing transforms customer experiences at leading multinational bank.

RBS
The Royal Bank of Scotland

"We don't expect customer trust—we earn it. Using Adobe Marketing Cloud, we are more helpful and relevant in every customer interaction online, through call centers, and in branches."
Giles Richardson, Head of Analytics, RBS

SOLUTION
Adobe Experience Manager, Adobe Analytics, and Adobe Target solutions within Adobe Marketing Cloud

RESULTS

- 20% INCREASE**
CONVERSION
Boosted loan application completion from mobile channels
- FASTER OPTIMIZATION**
Accelerated time to market for new experiences from months to two weeks—from initial idea and testing to final deployment
- COMMUNICATE**
Improved communications across business units with rich data and clear communications
- SIMPLIFY**
Reduced content management workload from 40 different solutions to one consolidated platform

Source: [DocSend](#)

This study focuses on the solutions Adobe provided for the Royal Bank of Scotland. Their top challenges included fostering a culture of data driven decision making, eliminating disjointed systems, and delivering digital experiences that are relevant and easy to use.

Adobe's approach resulted in a 20 percent increase in conversion, as well as improved internal communications, faster optimization, and a reduction of their content management footprint.



Global Ltd. faced a crisis in 2009. After it was set up in 1970, it slowly grew into the country's leading manufacturer of cathode ray tubes. By the 1990s, it was also supplying CRTs to a company in Japan. It faced its first crisis when the Japanese company opted out of the TV hardware business in 2007 and Global Ltd. had to look for an alternative market. In 2008, it identified a company in China, but....

4. **Curriculum vitae:** A CV (short for the Latin phrase curriculum vitae, which means "course of life") is a detailed document highlighting your professional and academic history. CVs typically include information like work experience, achievements and awards, scholarships or grants you've earned, coursework, research projects and publications of your work. You may be asked to submit a CV when applying for jobs in academia or jobs outside India.

A CV and resume are similar in that they're both documents that summarise your professional history, education, skills and achievements. They're also both documents you might provide an employer for consideration for an open position.

It is important to note that in the United States and most of Europe, resumes and CVs are not interchangeable. A resume is a shorter-form document that provides a concise overview of your previous roles, skills and details about your education. (The French word *résumé* translates to "abstract" or "summary".) A CV, on the other hand, is typically a longer, more detailed document focused largely on academic coursework and research. There are a few exceptions, however. In India, South Africa and Australia, the terms CV and resume are interchangeable.



This is usually in reverse chronological order, which the most recent event listed first.

- 2016 Project Leader, Wunderkind Solutions
- 2014 Team member, Prodigious Enterprises
- 2012 B.A. in English, University of Hyderabad

John Smith

IT Project Manager

774-987-4009
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linkedin.com/johnutw
@johnsmithutw

IT Professional with over **10 years** of experience specializing in **IT department management** for international logistics companies. I can implement effective **IT strategies** at local and global levels. My greatest strength is business awareness, which enables me to permanently streamline infrastructure and applications.

Experience

2006-12 - present

- Senior Project Manager**
Seton Hospital, ME
 - Oversaw all major hospital IT projects for 10+ years, focus on cost reduction.
 - Responsible for creating, improving, and developing IT project strategies.
 - Implemented the highly successful Lean Training and Six Sigma projects for all employees.
 - Reduced the costs of IT infrastructure maintenance by 5%.
- Junior Project Manager**
Seton Hospital, ME
 - Streamlined IT logistics and administration operation cutting costs by 25%.
 - Diagnosed problems with hardware and operating systems and implemented new solutions.
 - Maintained the user database of over 30000 patients.
 - Managed project for lean training for all IT Support Officers.

2004-09 - 2006-11

Education

- BS/MS in Computer Science, University of Maryland**
 - Graduated Summa Cum Laude.
 - Member of Student Association of Computer Science.
 - Managed a student project to organize a conference for 50+ professionals.

1996-09 - 2001-05

Skills

- Business Process Improvement** - history of successful innovations leading to cost savings.
- Vendor Management** - managing vendors in projects with budget over \$1'000'000.
- Project Scheduling** - over 90% of projects led were finished in due time.
- Sales Analysis** - background in IT Sales with deep understanding of negotiating contracts.

Software

- Microsoft Project, MS Windows Server, Linux/Unix
- MS Windows Server

Certifications

- PMP - Project Management Institute
- PRINCE2® Foundation

2015-05
2014-04

Transition Signals

Transition Signals for Time		
Earlier	Later	Now
Previously	Soon	At this time
Before this	Then	At this point
After	Following this	

Process/Procedure

Processes are common in the sciences.



The water cycle describes how water circulates between the land and the atmosphere. Heat from the sun causes water from rivers and oceans to turn into vapour that rises. When the vapour meets the cooler air in the atmosphere, it condenses into droplets in clouds. If the clouds meet cold air, the water condenses and falls to earth as rain.

A procedure describes a sequence of steps to accomplish a task. This is found in manuals, instruction booklets, cookery books, etc.



1. How to change your password in Gmail.
Step 1: Sign in to Gmail.
Step 2: Click Settings at the top of any Gmail page, and open the Accounts and Import tab.

Step 3: Click Google Account settings.

Step 4: In the new window, click Change password under the personal information option.

Step 5: Enter your current password and then your new password.

2. Procedures are common in disciplines such as physics, chemistry and biology where manufacturing or laboratory procedures are described. In the social sciences, this text type is used to describe data collection and analysis.

- The questionnaire was administered to 36 participants. Their responses were coded into four categories....

To reduce the number of variables, a one-way ANOVA was conducted, using Government textbooks and Commercial textbooks as the two factors

Unless there is a compelling reason, describe events in the order in which they occur; otherwise you confuse the reader.



After the law was passed, the number of working women increased to 56% by March 2009 and to 47% by March 2008.

This is confusing because the year 2008 comes before 2009. Narrate events in the order in which they occur. It is better to write:



After the law was passed, the number of working women increased to 47% by March 2008 and to 56% by March 2009

Key Words: exemplification, complex, paragraphs, sequence, transition, signals,

Summary

- Exemplification means using examples to explain, convince, or amuse.
- Exemplification, in the philosophy of language, is a mode of symbolization characterized by the relation between a sample and what it refers to.
- This powerful strategy allows authors to back up what they are saying with examples, which can be persuasive to audiences.
- Overall, exemplification occurs in many different types of examples, such as facts, statistics, quotations, personal experiences, and interviews, all of which you have seen throughout your life.
- Exemplification is used as a part in ostensive definition, i.e. definition by exemplification of what is defined.
- Listing items and giving examples are two simple ways to organize information in paragraphs.
- There are two ways to organize paragraphs: sequence and comparison of items.
- Sequence Paragraph In a sequencing paragraph, you are writing to describe a series of events or a process in some sort of order.
- Chronology is a description of events arranged by the time when they occurred.
- A procedure describes a sequence of steps to accomplish a task. This is found in manuals, instruction booklets, cookery books, etc.

Self Assessment

- 1) What is exemplification in the context of paragraph writing?
 - A. Using an example to illustrate an idea, opinion, etc.
 - B. Using authentic sources to extract relevant information
 - C. Using rhetorical devices for improving LSRW skills
 - D. Using effective techniques to reduce plagiarism

- 2) How does exemplification help to develop any paragraph?
 - A. By rearranging and recognizing the challenges in writing
 - B. By sorting the material from the relevant sources
 - C. By cutting out irrelevant information for better comprehension
 - D. By linking abstract ideas to concrete instances

- 3) Identify the example of transition signals used for exemplification.
 - A. e.g.
 - B. to illustrate
 - C. take the case of
 - D. All of the above

- 4) Identify the correct exemplification out of the following?
 - A. For example, Toyota, Mitsubishi, and Honda.
 - B. For example, Toyota, Mitsubishi, and Honda use JIT.
 - C. For example Toyota, Mitsubishi and Honda written.
 - D. For example, Mitsubishi, Toyota, Honda.

- 5) Identify the exemplification error in the following sentence?
 “Many companies, eg, Toyota, use JIT.”
 - A. The comma after ‘Toyoota’ is redundant
 - B. The comma after ‘companies’ is redundant
 - C. No full stops in between ‘eg’
 - D. Wrong form of the verb ‘use’

- 6) Other than enumeration and exemplification there can be more relationships among thoughts/ideas.
 - A. Complex
 - B. comfortable
 - C. compromising
 - D. comprehensive

- 7) What is sequence in the context of paragraph writing?
 - A. A sequence of ideas
 - B. A sequence of orders
 - C. Rearrangement of thoughts
 - D. A sequence of events.

- 8) Identify the option that represents sequencing.

- A. Cookery book
 - B. Computer manual
 - C. Bio-data
 - D. All of the above
- 9) How does sequencing work?
- A. Events are listed in an order based on the passage of time
 - B. Events are not listed in an order
 - C. Time has no concern with regard to sequencing
 - D. Events are listed in an order irrespective of time
- 10) How many types of sequencing are there?
- A. 4
 - B. 3
 - C. 2
 - D. 1
- 11) "A chronology of events" is a type of
- A. complex situation
 - B. sequencing
 - C. paraphrasing
 - D. plagiarism
- 12) Identify the correct types of sequencing out of the following options?
- A. Chronology of thoughts and their process
 - B. Chronology of paragraphs and its process
 - C. Chronology of events and Process
 - D. Order of merit
- 13) Process/Procedure is common in
- A. Humanities
 - B. Literature
 - C. Sociology
 - D. Sciences
- 14) Identify the example of process out of the following?
- A. Reading a novel
 - B. Water cycle
 - C. locating errors in a written text
 - D. Pointing out Plagiarism
- 15) Identify the type of example representing chronological sequencing?
- "Glassgo Ltd. Faced a crisis in 2008. After it was set up in 1960, it slowly grew into the country's leading manufacturer of cathode ray tubes."
- A. Narrative
 - B. Historical event
 - C. Case study

D. All of the above

Answer for Self Assessment

- | | | | | |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. A | 2. D | 3. D | 4. B | 5. C |
| 6. A | 7. D | 8. D | 9. A | 10. C |
| 11. B | 12. C | 13. D | 14. B | 15. C |

Review Questions:

1. What is exemplification?
2. What does exemplification do?
3. How to use exemplification in a paragraph. Discuss with a suitable example.
4. What are the transition signals for examples? Give suitable examples.
5. What are the points to remember while using exemplification?
6. What is a complex paragraph?
7. What is sequence?
8. Where do we see the use of sequence? Give suitable examples.
9. Explain the types of sequencing along with suitable examples.
10. Explain chronology of events with suitable examples.

Further Reading



- A Course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd.
English Grammar by Rajeevan Karal, Oxford University Press
A course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd.
English Grammar by Rajeevan Karal, Oxford University Press
Oxford EAP: A Course in English for Academic Purposes by Edward De Chazal
And Sam Mccarter, Oxford University Press
MLA Handbook by Modern Language Association of America, Modern Language
Association

Unit 05: Writing Paragraphs: Comparison of items, cause effect in Paragraph Writing, Visuals in Paragraph Writing

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Objectives:

- Understand the meaning and use of comparison of items in paragraph writing
- Analyze cause-effect paragraph writing
- Illustrate the use of visuals in paragraph writing
- Differentiate and deduce cause-effect and comparison of items in paragraph writing

Introduction

Comparison in writing discusses elements that are similar, while contrast in writing discusses elements that are different. A compare-and-contrast paragraph, then, analyzes two subjects by comparing them, contrasting them, or both.

The key to a good compare-and-contrast paragraph is to choose two or more subjects that connect in a meaningful way. The purpose of conducting the comparison or contrast is not to state the obvious but rather to illuminate subtle differences or unexpected similarities. For example, if you wanted to focus on contrasting two subjects you would not pick apples and oranges; rather, you might choose to compare and contrast two types of oranges or two types of apples to highlight subtle differences. For example, Red Delicious apples are sweet, while Granny Smiths are tart and acidic. Drawing distinctions between elements in a similar category will increase the audience's understanding of that category, which is the purpose of the compare-and-contrast paragraph.

Similarly, to focus on comparison, choose two subjects that seem at first to be unrelated. For a comparison paragraph, you likely would not choose two apples or two oranges because they share so many of the same properties already. Rather, you might try to compare how apples and oranges are quite similar. The more divergent the two subjects initially seem, the more interesting a comparison paragraph will be.

Comparing and contrasting is also an evaluative tool. In order to make accurate evaluations about a given topic, you must first know the critical points of similarity and difference. Comparing and contrasting is a primary tool for many workplace assessments. You have likely compared and contrasted yourself to other colleagues. Employee advancements, pay raises, hiring, and firing are typically conducted using comparison and contrast. Comparison and contrast could be used to evaluate companies, departments, or individuals.

5.1 Structure

The compare-and-contrast paragraph starts with a thesis that clearly states the two subjects that are to be compared, contrasted, or both and the reason for doing so. The thesis could lean more toward comparing, contrasting, or both. Remember, the point of comparing and contrasting is to provide useful knowledge to the reader. Take the following thesis as an example that leans more toward contrasting.



Thesis statement: Organic vegetables may cost more than those that are conventionally grown, but when put to the test, they are definitely worth every extra penny.

Here the thesis sets up the two subjects to be compared and contrasted (organic versus conventional vegetables), and it makes a claim about the results that might prove useful to the reader.

You may organize compare-and-contrast paragraph in one of the following two ways:

According to the subjects themselves, discussing one then the other

According to individual points, discussing each subject in relation to each point

See the figure below, “Comparison and Contrast Diagram”, which diagrams the ways to organize our organic versus conventional vegetables thesis.

The organizational structure you choose depends on the nature of the topic, your purpose, and your audience.

Given that compare-and-contrast paragraph analyze the relationship between two subjects, it is helpful to have some phrases on hand that will cue the reader to such analysis. See the below table “Phrases of Comparison and Contrast” for examples.

5.2 Writing a Comparison and/or Contrast Paragraph

First choose whether you want to compare seemingly disparate subjects, contrast seemingly similar subjects, or compare and contrast subjects. Once you have decided on a topic, introduce it with an engaging opening paragraph. Your thesis should come at the end of the introduction, and it should establish the subjects you will compare, contrast, or both as well as state what can be learned from doing so.

The body of the paragraph can be organized in one of two ways: by subject or by individual points. The organizing strategy that you choose will depend on, as always, your audience and your purpose. You may also consider your particular approach to the subjects as well as the nature of the subjects themselves; some subjects might better lend themselves to one structure or the other. Make sure to use comparison and contrast phrases to cue the reader to the ways in which you are analyzing the relationship between the subjects.

After you finish analyzing the subjects, write a conclusion that summarizes the main points of the paragraph and reinforces your thesis.

Many business presentations are conducted using comparison and contrast. The organizing strategies—by subject or individual points—could also be used for organizing a presentation. Keep this in mind as a way of organizing your content the next time you or a colleague have to present something at work.

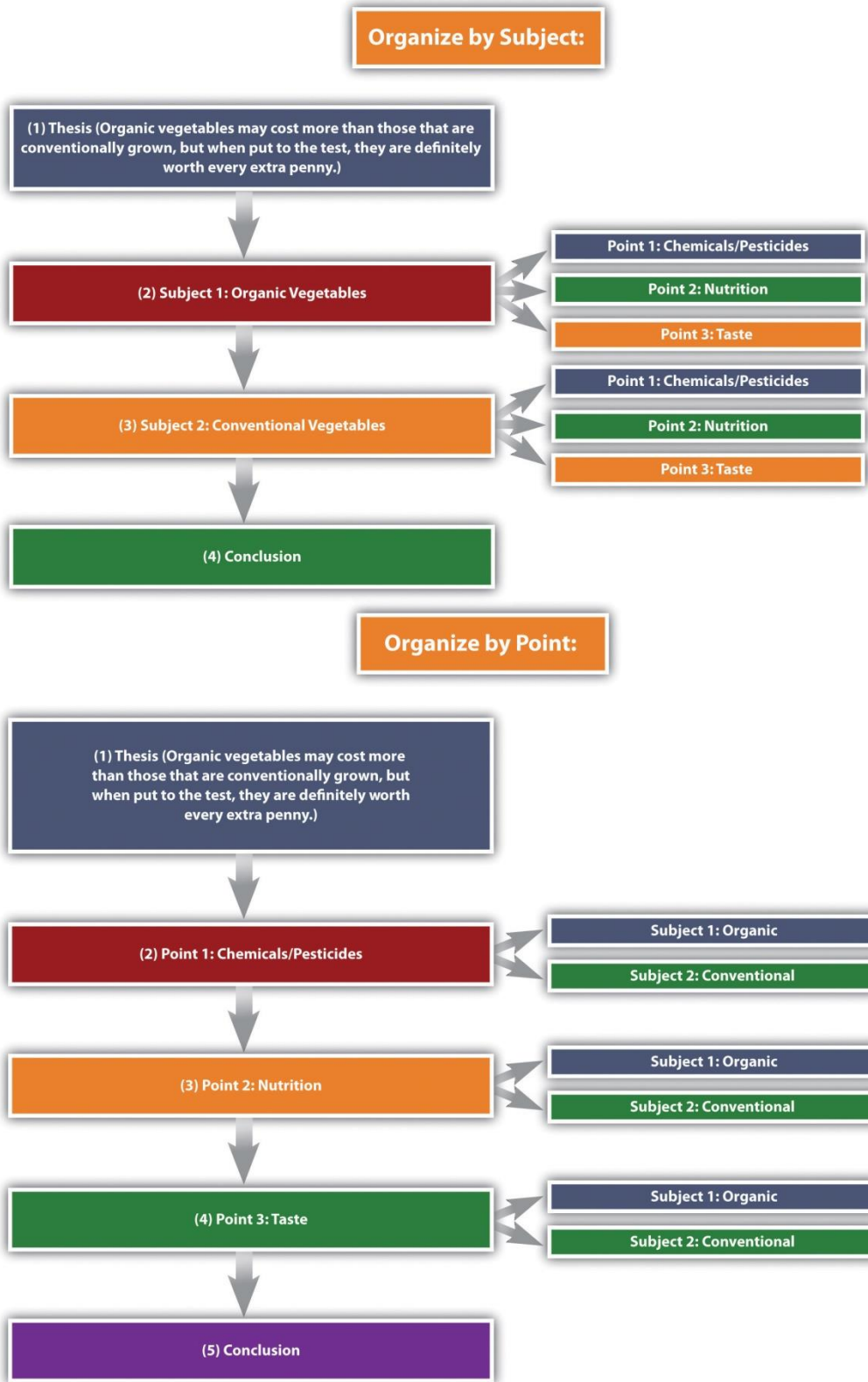


Figure 10.1

Comparison of Items



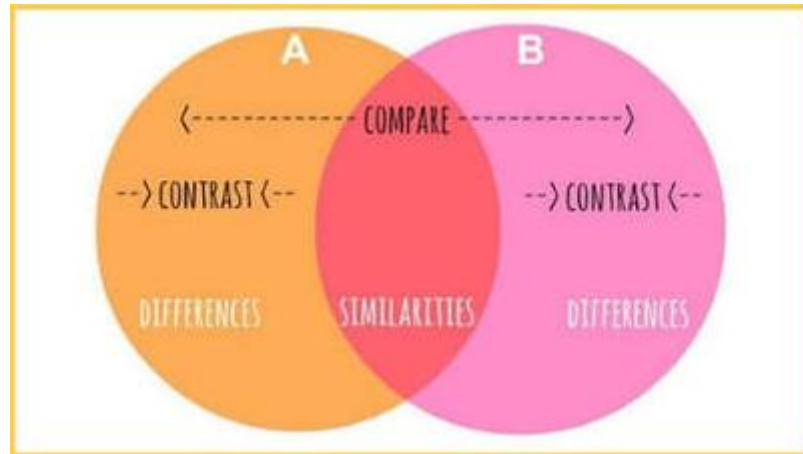
Two people are discussing where to go for a holiday.

- John: Mumbai is an oven. Let's go where the weather is cooler.
- Jenny: How about Manali.
- John: Shimla is better. It's as cold but there are a fewer tourist and more Scenic

Sports.

When we compare two items, we need:

- At least two objects to compare. Here, these are Shimla and Manali.
- Some common features. Here, it is cold weather.
- Some features on which they differ. Here, it is the number of tourists and the number of scenic spots.



This is a very common question in examinations where you are asked to compare and evaluate two or more items. You could be asked to compare two economic trends, three environmental scenarios, four poets, or five techniques.

Block Organisation

In block organization you first describe how the two items are similar and follow this with a paragraph on their differences.



Similarities	Both tortoises and turtles are reptiles that are amphibious, that is, they can live on both land and water. Their bodies are protected by a hard shell.
Differences	Although people confuse the two species, there are several important differences between tortoises and turtles. They are found in different parts of the world; Africa is home to both species, but tortoises are found in Asia, whereas turtles are found in America.

Feature by Feature Organisation

You can also compare the two items on each feature.



Topic Sentence	People confuse tortoises and turtles because they are so similar, but there are also important differences between the two species.
Location	In terms of their geographical distribution, both species are found in Africa but, whereas tortoises are mainly found in Asia, turtles are more common in America.
Species and Habitat	Both tortoises and turtles are reptiles that can live on both land and water; however, tortoises are mainly found on land, whereas turtles prefer water.

Shell	This preference of habitat is reflected in their physical characteristics; tortoises have heavy dome-shaped shells whereas a turtle's shell is flat and light, which is suitable for swimming...
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Transition Signals

Comparison	Contrast
one similarity	one difference
another similarity	another difference
both	conversely
like	in contrast
likewise	unlike, on the other hand
similarly	while
in a similar fashion	Whereas, nevertheless
In the same way	but, however, yet

Cause-Effect in Paragraph Writing

Now, let's wrap up the discussion on text types by covering two types of paragraphs.

1. Cause-Effect

These paragraphs or texts describe the causes or results of an event or action. This text type appears to be the most difficult one for readers to understand, often because the connection between the cause and the effect is not clearly stated.

2. Description of Visuals

Many academic texts contain visuals such as graphs, images, and diagrams. If you use visuals, you need to describe them.

Cause-Effect Relationships

The two sentences below express a cause-effect relationship. In the first sentence, the cause is mentioned first, but in the second sentence the effect comes first.

- a. The earthquake *caused* a tsunami.
Cause → Effect
- b. The tsunami *was caused* by an earthquake.
Effect → Cause

Next, look at a sentence that does not show a cause-effect relationship.



India spends little on education *and* literacy levels are low.

The writer states two facts, but does not say that one causes the other. If there is a causal link, the sentence would be:



India spends little on education, so literacy levels are low.

Cause-effect relationships lie at the heart of all disciplines. Every discipline tries to identify the reasons for a phenomenon or the effects of an action. You can see this in the table below that tries to identify the causes and consequences of rural migration.

Causes	Phenomenon	Consequences
Natural disasters (floods, droughts)	Rural migration	Food insecurity for the country
Poor living conditions (healthcare, education)		Overcrowding in cities

A cause-effect relationship is often complex, involving a chain of causes and consequences. Causal relationships are at the core of any work. In industry, there are constant efforts to identify problems and improve processes. Often, a team uses a fishbone diagram to identify all possible causes. It is also common in trouble shooting or problem solving.

Although cause-effect relationships are important in academic writing, they are often not explicitly signalled but are implied through verbs.

- x allows y
- x enables y
- x influences y
- x generates y
- x gives rise to y

Many writers use a simple connective such as *and*, leaving it to the reader to figure out the causal relationship.

Transition Signals for Cause-Effect Relationships	
Cause	Effect
As	Hence
Due to	Thereby
Because	Thus
Since	As a result
The reason	Consequently
	Therefore

5.3 Visuals in Paragraph Writing

Words are not the only way to present and share information with an audience. Technical writing often utilizes visuals to accompany written information and further deliver information to the audience. Visuals take many forms; they can be as simple as a photograph of a plant specimen or pie chart breaking down enrollment data or as complex as an embedded video or multi-page, hyperlinked, organizational chart. Visuals must be carefully selected to support the audience's understanding of the topic.

Many texts do not merely use words, but, for various reasons, they include visuals, such as images, line drawings or graphs. These are especially common in the sciences, where texts include illustrations of apparatus or spectrograms, or flowcharts. These visuals help the reader by showing unfamiliar material (in an image), depicting abstract concepts (in a line drawing), or collapsing information in a visual form (graphs).

However strong they are on their own, visuals must be integrated into the text of the document. The written word supports the visuals, and the visuals further exemplify the meaning of the text. The two work in tandem to support the main idea of the document.

The problem is that readers may not understand the visual. All the information is presented simultaneously instead of piece by piece, which can be bewildering to readers. Further, some visuals, such as photographs, are packed with information, some of which may not be relevant to your point. Which part of the picture should the reader look at? You need to direct the reader's attention to the salient parts of the visual. A line drawing is sparser than an image; in fact, it can be so sparse that the reader cannot understand what it means, so you have to explain what the drawing means.

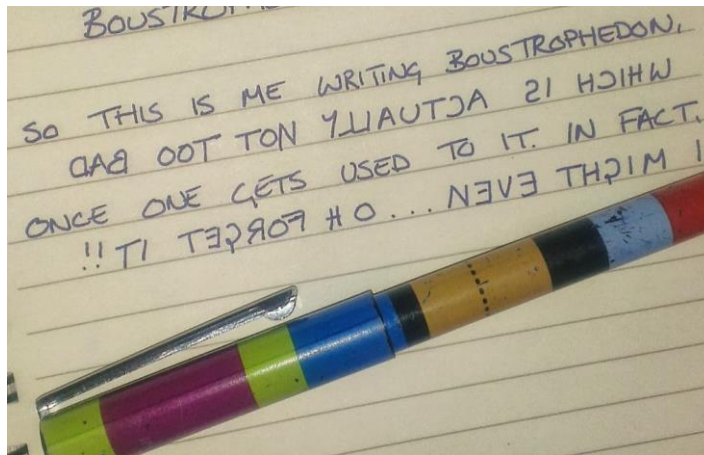
Here we cover two aspects: Spatial order and describing visuals in a research paper.

Spatial Order

Spatial order presents the details of a visual or scene in terms of their location in a space. For example, we could describe a visual from left to right or from the centre to outwards. However, there are a few complications.

Left to Right

The following figure shows what a three and a half year old child produced when (s)he was learning to write.



After (s)he learnt the letters of the English alphabet, (s)he tried to arrange them in a sequence and came up with Boustrophedon writing – left to right, then right to left.

Incidentally, this form was used in some ancient scripts before they settled down to using either left to right as in English, or right to left as in Hebrew or Urdu, much like the 3 and ½ year old child did. Adults become used to one reading pattern and apply it to visuals. So, English readers scan a visual from left to right, but it is the reverse with Urdu readers. This fact is usually ignored in an English-centric world.

HERE IS AN ENGLISH EXAMPLE OF
BOUSTROPHEDON IN WHICH THE LINES
OF WRITING CHANGE VERSE, LIKE AN OX
TILTING A FIELD

Centre to the Periphery

Sometimes, we use a spatial order that begins from the centre and then moves outwards.

Example

The Earth is spherical. The Equator runs around the centre, with the...

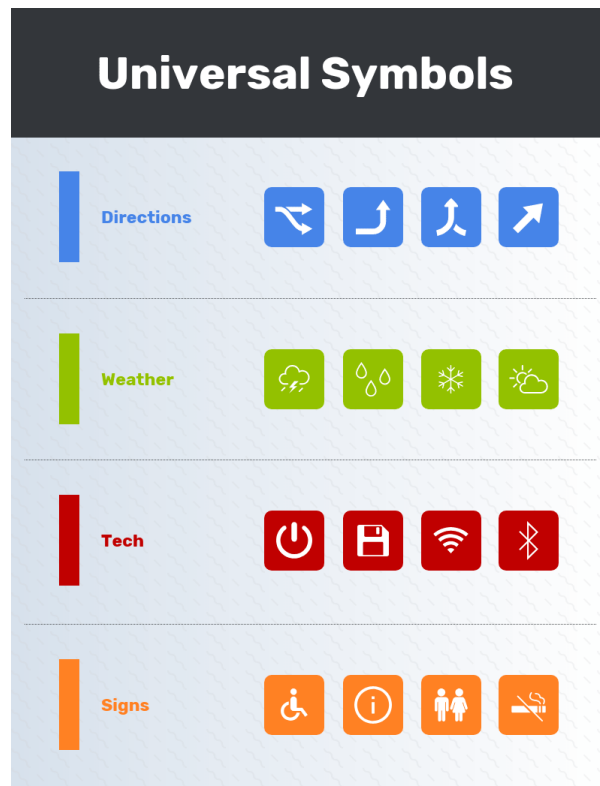
Global, followed by details

A third method of describing an object is to first give a global picture and then provide details. This method is generally used in describing buildings.



The shopping mall has four floors. Groceries are located on the first floor, men's wear on the second, women's wear on the third, and a food court right on top.

A few symbols which are used to describe visuals are as follows:



Summary

- A compare-and-contrast paragraph analyzes two subjects by either comparing them, contrasting them, or both.
- The purpose of writing a comparison or contrast paragraph is not to state the obvious but rather to illuminate subtle differences or unexpected similarities between two subjects.

- The thesis should clearly state the subjects that are to be compared, contrasted, or both, and it should state what is to be learned from doing so.
- There are two main organizing strategies for compare-and-contrast paragraphs.
- Organize by the subjects themselves, one then the other.
- Organize by individual points, in which you discuss each subject in relation to each point.
- Use phrases of comparison or phrases of contrast to signal to readers how exactly the two subjects are being analyzed.
- Cause-effect paragraphs describe the causes/results of an event/action.
- Cause-effect paragraphs are bit complex for readers to understand.
- Cause-effect paragraphs can be organized in two ways: first cause then effect and first effect then cause.
- Visuals stand for the use of images, line drawings, graphs, etc. instead of words to describe any topic.
- Visuals are commonly used in sciences.
- There are three methods to describe visuals: spatial order, centre to the periphery, and global followed by details.

Keywords: comparison, contrast, cause, effect, visuals, methods, steps, signals.

Self Assessment

1. What do we need to make comparison in paragraph writing?
 - a. At least two points/person/items to be compared
 - b. Some common features
 - c. Some different features
 - d. All of the above
2. Identify the first step in making comparison?
 - a. Distinguish similarities and differences by drawing a table
 - b. Sorting relevant material to be included in the paragraph
 - c. Cutting out irrelevant information and use internet to locate sources
 - d. None of the above
3. Describing similarities of two items followed with a paragraph on their differences is called
 - a. Block chain technique
 - b. Block organization
 - c. Open chain technique
 - d. Open organization
4. In feature-by-feature comparison we compare items on?
 - a. selected features
 - b. modified features
 - c. each feature

- d. some features
5. Identify the transition signal used for comparison out of the following.
 - a. Similarly, In the same way
 - b. and, or
 - c. though, although
 - d. there, here
6. Identify the transition signal used for contrast out of the following.
 - a. Further, Furthermore
 - b. eventually, conclusively
 - c. But, whereas, yet
 - d. Moreover, In the beginning
7. Identify the transition signal used for contrast in the following sentence. "Tortoises are mainly found on land whereas turtles prefer water."
 - a. Whereas
 - b. Prefer
 - c. Mainly
 - d. On
8. What is cause-effect paragraph?
 - a. Describe the resources and related quality of the material
 - b. Describe the causes/results and resultant effect of an event/action
 - c. Describe the importance of the selected topic and related challenges
 - d. All of the above
9. Cause-effect paragraphs are bit for readers to understand.
 - a. easy
 - b. satisfying
 - c. complex
 - d. effective
10. Into how many ways any cause-effect paragraph/essay can be organized?
 - a. 1
 - b. 2
 - c. 3
 - d. 4
11. Identify the first way to organize any cause-effect paragraph?
 - a. Discuss the cause first then effect
 - b. Write the introduction first
 - c. Discuss the objective first then topic
 - d. Write the rough draft first
12. Identify the second way to organize any cause-effect paragraph in the following sentence. "The tsunami was caused by an earthquake."

- a. problem then solution
 - b. cause then effect
 - c. effect then cause
 - d. reason then result
13. What do we understand by visuals?
- a. Use of internet, books, paintings, etc.
 - b. Use of images, line drawings, graphs, etc.
 - c. Use of relevant study material
 - d. Use of LSRW skills to develop any paragraph
14. Identify the methods to describe visuals out of the following?
- a. Spatial order
 - b. Centre to the periphery
 - c. Global followed by details
 - d. All of the above
15. What is the major problem with the use of visuals in writing?
- a. Writers may not use the techniques and get confused
 - b. Writers may not interpret and get confused
 - c. Readers may not interpret and get confused
 - d. Writers may use them more than words

Answer for Self Assessment

- | | | | | |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. D | 2. A | 3. B | 4. C | 5. A |
| 6. C | 7. A | 8. B | 9. C | 10. B |
| 11. A | 12. C | 13. B | 14. D | 15. C |

Review Questions:

1. How do we use comparison in paragraph writing?
2. What do we need to compare?
3. Discuss steps in comparing items.
4. What do you understand by block organization?
5. What is feature-by-feature organization?
6. Which transition signals are used for comparison? Give suitable examples.
7. What is cause-effect paragraph?
8. Discuss cause-effect relationships. Give suitable examples.
9. Which transition signals are used for cause-effect paragraph?
10. What do you understand by visuals?
11. Where do we see the use of visuals?
12. Discuss the methods to describe visuals.



Further Reading

1. A Course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd.
2. English Grammar by Rajeevan Karal, Oxford University Press
1. A course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd.
2. English Grammar by Rajeevan Karal, Oxford University Press
3. Oxford EAP: A Course in English for Academic Purposes by Edward De Chazal
And Sam Mccarter, Oxford University Press
4. MLA Handbook by Modern Language Association of America, Modern Language
Association

Unit 06: Basics of Reports and Research Papers

Digvijay Pandya, Lovely Professional University

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Objectives:

- Understand the meaning of report.
- Analyze different types of report.
- Elucidate the format of report.
- Illustrate the writing of assessment report.

Introduction

Report writing is an essential skill in many disciplines. A report aims to inform and sometimes to persuade. They should be written as clearly and succinctly as possible, with evidence about a topic, problem or situation. Some academic assignments ask for a 'report', rather than an essay, and students are often confused about what that really means. Likewise, in business, confronted with a request for a 'report' to a senior manager, many people struggle to know what to write. Confusion often arises about the writing style, what to include, the language to use, the length of the document and other factors.

Most academic courses will require you to write assignments or reports. The related knowledge helps you to develop the skills you need to write effectively for academic purposes. A report is a distinctive kind of written communication. More than any other form of written communication, a report is designed to provide information that will lead to some kind of decision by the reader. It requires more preparation, has a broader range of external factors to consider, needs more follow up and demands better time management than do most other forms of written communication.

What is a report?

A report is a specific form of writing that is organised around concisely identifying and examining issues, events, or findings that have happened in a physical sense, such as events that have occurred within an organisation, or findings from a research investigation.

These events can also pertain to events or issues identified within a body of literature. A report informs the reader simply and objectively about all relevant issues. There are three features that characterise report writing at a very basic level: a pre-defined structure, independent sections, and reaching unbiased conclusions.

6.1 Types of Reports

Academic English

All your facts and information presented in the report not only have to be bias-free, but they also have to be 100% correct. Proof-reading and fact-checking is always what you do as a thumb rule before submitting a report.

Reports are written with much analysis. The purpose of report writing is essential to inform the reader about a topic, minus one's opinion on the topic. It's simply a portrayal of facts, as it is. Even if one gives inferences, solid analysis, charts, tables and data is provided. Mostly it is specified by the person who's asked for the report whether they would like your take or not if that is the case.

In many cases, what all is required, is your suggestions for a specific case after a factual report. That depends on why you are writing the report and who you are writing it for in the first place. Knowing your audience's motive for asking for that report is very important as it sets the course of the facts focused on your report.

Based on some special characteristics, a report can be a certain kind. Why classify them in kinds? Well, depending upon the purpose of the report, it's always best to know what kind would be the best for that case. For example, informal reports in office formal contexts may not be suitable. In that case, even if your report is on point and the best, just the structure or format or language could work against your report.

Small things like that should not stand in the way of you conveying your point. And thus for these reasons and more, let's dive into the kinds of reports that exist so we can make clear decisions of their usage.

6.2 Informal versus Formal Reports

While there is no single difference between informal and formal reports, we can typically distinguish between the two based on their length and sections.

Some say the wording and phrasing changes between informal reports and formal reports from more conversational to more formal. Writing issues such as those are explored throughout this module. Specifics of wording and phrasing vary by company and by type of report. In any case, authors must remember their reports enhance their image and credibility in the workplace. The accuracy of each report, the professionalism in the layout, and the clarity of the writing all reflect the writer's reliability, validity, and full comprehension of the proposed solutions. Essentially, you should focus on simple, clear phrasing and organization. Focus on how to make the full meaning easiest to grasp for the audience.

Informal Reports

Informal reports tend to be shorter, although the quantity of pages or words is not defined. Think of informal reports as documents of under ten pages. An informal report usually has specific topics grouped in paragraphs, and these topics tend to have simple headings. Note that while informal reports often don't have required headings, you can take inspiration from the headings required in formal reports.

For General Release	
REPORT TO:	CABINET 12 October 2009
AGENDA ITEM:	7
SUBJECT:	Total Place in Croydon – Improving outcomes for Children and Young People
LEAD OFFICER:	Director of Strategy and Communications
CABINET MEMBER:	Deputy Leader (Performance Management) & Cabinet Member for Children, Young People & Learners - Councillor Tim Pollard
WARDS:	ALL
<p>CORPORATE PRIORITY/POLICY CONTEXT: Croydon is one of 13 pilot areas identified by HM Treasury to pilot the Total Place initiative. Designed to identify opportunities for providing better services at less cost. Total Place takes a "whole" area approach by considering the totality of spending and the effectiveness of all the public services in a local area to improve (in Croydon's case) outcomes for children and young people.</p>	
<p>LOCAL AREA AGREEMENT (LAA) TARGETS: The focus of Total Place in Croydon will impact on all indicators relating to Children and Young People but implementation is likely to be beyond the timescale of the current LAA.</p>	
<p>FINANCIAL SUMMARY: One off funding for the pilot programme of £250k has been provided by the Treasury and any initial costs will be contained within this budget. Total Place requires that public spending across all local and national agencies in the borough is identified and looked at in detail for the particular area of focus. Business cases will be prepared for any projects resulting from this work to outline potential costs and efficiency savings.</p>	
<p>FORWARD PLAN KEY DECISION REFERENCE NO.: This is not a key decision</p>	
<p>1. RECOMMENDATIONS</p> <p>1.1 To support Croydon's status as a Total Place pilot, one of only 13 in the country (Appendix 1).</p> <p>1.2 To endorse the focus of Total Place in Croydon on the health and well being of Children and Young People with a particular emphasis on child development in early years.</p>	

Formal Reports

A formal report tends to be longer; although, again, the quantity of pages or words is not defined. It may start at ten pages and in some cases exceed one hundred pages. With a formal report, the topic of the report or the policy of the company it's being written for determines which sections, labels, content, and purpose should be used as the basis for the report. These reports address complex topics that require substantial description of background, research on the topic, and evidence to support any proposed solutions. Both the data gathering and the summary of the topic generate length. To keep this abundance of information organized, the report requires formal headings and tight organization in order to help the reader stay on track.

Formal Project Report Format/Specifications	
*All sections of this report must be computer generated to be considered in the grading process	
Page One:	<p>Title page - This should include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Course name and number B. Date submitted / date due C. Name of faculty member(s) and their associated department D. Name of the project E. Name of the preparer
Page Two:	<p>Project Objective You are to describe the purpose or objective of the course project. This should be a brief but complete statement of what you intend to design and prototype. A bulleted list of design criteria should be included. Be sure to classify hard, soft, or firm requirements.</p> <p>Parts List List all parts used, including name, manufacturer's part numbers, and quantity for the project. Use a table and be sure to provide a table number and description in a similar format to a standard textbook.</p>
Page Three and beyond:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Theory A brief section is to be included which should detail any theoretical foundation of the project. Start by explaining the theory behind the real time operating system used. Be sure to detail "hard", "soft", and "firm" requirements, deadlocks, priority inversion, task synchronization, and other "real-time" terminology required to understand your project. Then in a new paragraph, detail the theory of operation of the interfacing circuitry used in the project and how it connects to the microprocessor. Then explain the technical details of the microprocessor used and how they relate to the project. • Hardware/Interface Detail the hardware interfacing circuitry and other important circuitry included in the project. Give each unique hardware interface its own section within this section. Schematics are an essential part of any engineering work and should be included in each hardware-interfacing section. The last section within this section should include final schematic and explain how it all comes together at the hardware level. Then the use of Ultiboard should be explained and the final Ultiboard drawing should be inserted. Submitted drawings are to be neat and clearly labeled with both figure numbers and descriptions similar to the format of a standard textbook. All schematics and other drawings MUST be computer generated. • Procedure/Data Collection Detail briefly, the procedure used for designing, programming, and prototyping the project. Include the lab activity which involved testing each portion of the project. Must be a clear bulleted list that provides the steps involved in completing the project. Use a new bulleted list for each part of the procedure. In other words, make a list for designing, a new list programming and setting up the development environment, and a new list for prototyping and testing. Be sure to clearly label each list. • Calculations Include ALL pertinent computations as part of your report. You must give a sample calculation for each unique relationship used in the project. Label each calculation according to the quantity that is being solved. Do not label calculations based on parts or sections of a lab activity. For example label an equation "Ohm's law" instead of "Part I" even if ohm's law was used in part one of the lab activity. After the label, be sure to show the transfer function or formula and then under that show the numbers plugged into that transfer function or formula followed by the answer. How well you present

6.3 Informational versus Analytical Reports

Now that we've defined the difference between informal reports and formal reports, let's dive in a little deeper. Informal reports and formal reports have two major categories: informational and analytical reports. It's important to keep in mind that both informal and formal reports can fall into these categories (i.e., you can have an informal informational report or a formal informational report).

Informational Reports

An informational report provides a summary of information and data found on a particular topic. One such report is the expense report: this report is a set of information that is used to request allocation of funds. The format is strictly pre-determined and it is often completed at the end of a business trip.

Sharks

There are more than 500 different species of shark, including the great white shark, grey reef shark, hammerhead shark, tiger shark, blue shark, bull shark and mako shark.

Sharks have five to seven gill slits on the sides of their head and pectoral fins that are not attached to their head. Sharks have a layer of dermal denticles all over them that protects their skin from parasites and damage.

Where do they live?

Sharks can be found in every ocean in the world, but are more common in seas with a depth of more than 2,000 metres. Most sharks don't live in freshwater, but there are a few exceptions, like the river shark and the bull shark, who can live in both freshwater and seawater. Most shark attacks happen in Australia, South Africa, America and Brazil.



Analytical Reports

The other category of report is an analytical report. In this report type, information is researched and collected, then the report provides an analysis that leads to one or more recommendations. For example, consider a report that helps a company determine where to open a new store. The report might look at three properties with respect to road traffic, cost of the land, and adjoining stores, and then recommend the best site from the alternatives.

Long Report and Short Reports

These kinds of reports are quite clear, as the name suggests. A two-page report or sometimes referred to as a memorandum is short, and a thirty-page report is absolutely long. But what makes a clear division of short reports or long reports? Well, usually, notice that longer reports are generally written in a formal manner.

1

DATE: October 11, 2003
TO: Damon Moore, Director, Human Resources
FROM: Diane Adams, Executive Assistant *DA*
SUBJECT: MEASURES TO HELP EMPLOYEES STOP SMOKING

At your request, I have examined measures that encourage employees to quit smoking. As company records show, approximately 25 percent of our employees still smoke, despite the antismoking and clean-air policies we adopted in 1991. To collect data for this report, I studied professional and government publications; I also inquired at companies and clinics about stop-smoking programs.

This report presents data describing the significance of the problem, three alternative solutions, and a recommendation based on my investigation.

Significance of Problem: Health Care and Productivity Losses

Employees who smoke are costly to any organization. The following statistics show the effects of smoking for workers and for organizations:

- Absenteeism is 40 to 50 percent greater among smoking employees.
- Accidents are two to three times greater among smokers.
- Bronchitis, lung and heart disease, cancer, and early death are more frequent among smokers (Johns, 1999, p. 14).

Although our clean-air policy prohibits smoking in the building, shop, and office, we have done little to encourage employees to stop smoking. Many workers still go outside to smoke at lunch and breaks. Other companies have been far more proactive in their attempts to stop employee smoking. Many companies have found that persuading employees to stop smoking was a decisive factor in reducing their health insurance premiums. Below is a discussion of three common stop-smoking measures tried by other companies, along with a projected cost factor for each.

Alternative 1: Literature and Events

The least expensive and easiest stop-smoking measure involves the distribution of literature, such as "The Ten-Step Plan" from Smoketree Enterprises and government pamphlets citing smoking dangers. Some companies have also sponsored events such as the Great American Smoke-Out, a one-day occasion intended to develop group spirit in spurring smokers to quit. "Studies show, however," says one expert, "that literature and company-sponsored events have little permanent effect in helping smokers quit" (Woo, 2002, p. 107).

Cost: Negligible

Avoids revealing recommendation immediately

Uses headings that combine function and description

Discusses least effective alternative first

Introduces purpose of report, tells method of data collection, and previews organization

Documents data sources for credibility; uses APA style citing author, date, and page number in the text

Internal and External Reports

As the name suggests, an internal report stays within a certain organization or group of people. In the case of office settings, internal reports are for within the organization.

We prepare external reports, such as a news report in the newspaper about an incident or the annual reports of companies for distribution outside the organization. We call these as public reports.

Example: Internal Report

REPORT TO MANAGEMENT

Trust Fund Branch
 Bureau of Prisons
 Washington, D.C.

We have audited the financial statements of the Bureau of Prisons Commissary Trust Fund as of and for the year ended September 30, 1995, and have issued our report thereon dated April 30, 1996.

We conducted our audit in accordance with generally accepted auditing standards; *Government Auditing Standards*, issued by the Comptroller General of the United States; and Office of Management and Budget Bulletin 93-06, *Audit Requirements for Federal Financial Statements*. Those standards require that we plan and perform the audit to obtain reasonable assurance about whether the financial statements are free of material misstatement.

In planning and performing our audit of the financial statements of the Commissary Trust Fund for the year ended September 30, 1995, we considered its internal control structure in order to determine our auditing procedures for the purpose of expressing an opinion on the financial statements and not to provide assurance on the internal control structure.

During our audit, we noted certain matters involving the internal control structure and its operation that we believe warrant management's attention. Our discussion of these matters forms the remainder of this report.

Reconciliation of Fund Balance with Treasury

The Bureau of Prisons, Accounting Operations Section of the Finance Branch performed a consolidated reconciliation of the Fund Balance with Treasury account in the Financial Management System (FMS) and Treasury's TFS 6653, Undisbursed Appropriation Account Ledger, for the year ended September 30, 1995. This reconciliation resulted in an adjustment of \$976,654 for unidentified differences. In prior years, the Trust Fund Branch asserted that all reconciling items between the Treasury and the FMS were caused by timing differences between the dates transactions were recorded by the institutions and the dates those same transactions were processed by the Treasury. Differences between the FMS and Treasury were reported on the financial statements as an asset (in transit deposits) or a liability (outstanding disbursements); however, the reconciling items were not specifically identified. Although each institution confirms receipts and disbursements processed by the Treasury with the transactions recorded in the FMS and identifies reconciling items each month, a consolidated reconciliation is not prepared. In addition, reconciling items are not monitored by the Finance Branch or the Trust Fund Branch to ensure that all reconciling item are properly identified and

External audit: Progress report**Purpose**

1. The purpose of this paper is to provide the Committee with an update on progress made against the external audit plan for 2015-16.

Background

2. The report provides an update of external audit progress to date relating to governance, review of the core financial controls, IT control environment and early substantive testing.

Recommendations

3. The Committee is invited to consider and comment on the report.

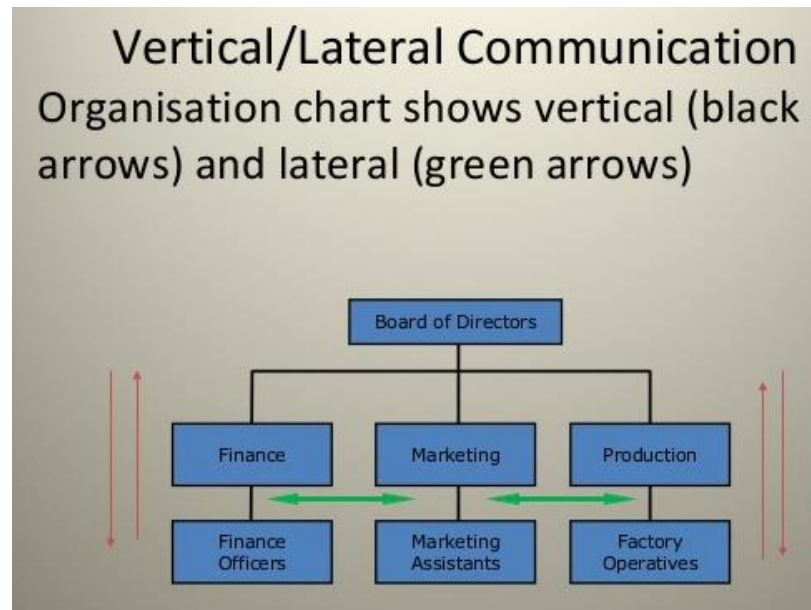
Publication

4. The paper will be published on the Council website and the attached report will be withheld from publication on the Council website under the Freedom of Information (Scotland) Act 2002, Section 30: Prejudicial to the effective conduct of public affairs.

Vertical and Lateral Reports

This is about the hierarchy of the reports' ultimate target. If the report is for your management or for your mentees, it is a vertical report. Wherever a direction of upwards or downwards comes into motion, we call it a vertical report.

Lateral reports, on the other hand, assist in coordination in the organization. A report traveling between units of the same organization level (for example, a report among the administration and finance departments) is lateral.

**Periodic Reports**

Periodic reports are sent out on regularly pre-scheduled dates. In most cases, their direction is upward and serves as management control. Some, like annual reports, is not vertical but is a Government mandate to be periodic in nature.

That is why we have annual or quarterly or half-yearly reports. If they are this frequent, it only makes sense to pre-set the structure of these reports and just fills in the data every period. That's exactly what happens in most cases too.

○ Prepared by:

Liz Rockwell, Director of campus recruiting for the Minneapolis office of an accounting firm . Rockwell has this to say about her report

“Campus recruiting is a big deal for our firm because we hire most of our staff right out of college. Between January and April we visit eight or ten campuses and screen about 500 candidates in an effort to hire roughly 20 people. During the recruiting season I prepare a memo twice a month to let my boss know where we stand. The rest of the year I submit my report on monthly basis.”

Proposal Reports

These kinds of reports are like an extension to the analytical/problem-solving reports. A proposal is a document one prepares to describe how one organization can provide a solution to a problem they are facing. There is usually always a need to prepare a report in a business set-up. The end goal is usually very solution-oriented. We call such kinds of reports as proposal reports.

Proposal Format

A proposal may take one of the following forms:

- an informal memo or letter
- A semi-formal report, including a cover page and appendices.
- A formal report with an accompanying letter of transmittal.

To make your proposal easy to read, use visual cues such as headings, subheadings, and numbered or bulleted lists. For long or more formal reports, be sure to include a table of contents and a title page that gives the title and also details the authors, recipient, and the date the proposal was submitted.

Parts of the Proposal

Executive Summary

The executive summary appears first but is written last, after the entire report has been written. This summary should be self-contained and include an overview of every part of the proposal and all key points. The executive summary is written with the busy decision-maker in mind.

Introduction

Begin the introduction as if the executive summary were not there. First, state the purpose so that it is clear that you are proposing something. Next, define the need for investigation by telling what problem, situation, or unsatisfactory condition you would like to improve or study. Then establish the significance of the investigation by telling your reader what benefit will be derived from conducting the investigation. Last, briefly preview the contents of the proposal.

Project Description

The project description should answer these questions:

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. What do you propose to do? | 4. What equipment will be required to complete the investigation? |
| 2. What are the technical specifications for the proposed investigation? | 5. What specific tasks will be performed? |
| 3. How will current research be used? | 6. What is the timeline for this project? |

Functional Reports

These kinds of reports include marketing reports, financial reports, accounting reports, and a spectrum of other reports that provide a function specifically. By and large, we can include almost all reports in most of these categories. Furthermore, we can include a single report in several kinds of reports.

Functional Behavioral Assessment: What, Why, When, Where, and Who?

by
Stephen Starin, Ph.D.

The recent amendments to IDEA are final. School districts are now required to conduct functional behavioral analyses of problem behaviors, under certain circumstances.

Unfortunately, IDEA does not provide specific guidelines regarding the conduct of a functional behavioral assessment. Each school district is left to its own devices when interpreting the guidelines and may opt for lower quality standards. Below are my comments on conducting a functional behavioral assessment (FBA). These comments are based upon my formal training as a behavior analyst and over 20 years experience working with children, adolescents, and adults with serious problem behaviors. I've tried to avoid technical jargon for ease of discussion.

What is a "Functional Behavioral Assessment"?

The term "Functional Behavioral Assessment" comes from what is called a "Functional Assessment" or "Functional Analysis" in the field of applied behavior analysis. This is the process of determining the cause (or "function") of behavior before developing an intervention. The intervention must be based on the hypothesized cause (function) of behavior.

Why Do Functional Behavioral Assessments?

Failure to base the intervention on the specific cause (function) very often results in ineffective and unnecessarily restrictive procedures.

For example, consider the case of a young child who has learned that screaming is an effective way of avoiding or escaping unpleasant tasks. Using timeout in this situation would provide the child with exactly what he wants (avoiding the task) and is likely to make the problem worse, not better. Without an adequate functional behavioral assessment, we would not know the true function of the young child's screaming and therefore may select an inappropriate intervention.

How Do You Determine the Cause or Function of Behavior?

There are three ways of getting at the function (cause) of the behavior:

- (a) interviews and rating scales.
- (b) direct and systematic observation of the person's behavior, and
- (c) manipulating different environmental events to see how behavior changes.

The first two are generally referred to as **functional assessments** whereas the third is generally referred to as a **functional analysis**.

Several different interviews and rating scales have been developed to try to get at the function (cause) of behavior. However, reliability is usually poor and these should be used *only as a starting point* for systematic and direct observation of the person's behavior. Relying exclusively on interviews and rating scales should *never* be considered a functional assessment. Besides having poor reliability, it would never hold up in court with an expert witness.

Observe and Analyze Behavior in Natural Environment

A more **reliable method** involves directly observing the person's behavior in his or her natural environment and analyzing the behavior's antecedents (environmental events that immediately precede the problem behavior) and consequences (environmental events that immediately follow the problem behavior).

Types of Problem Behavior

Problem behavior typically falls into one or more of three general categories:

- (a) behavior that produces attention and other desired events (e.g., access to toys, desired activities),
- (b) behavior that allows the person to avoid or escape demands or other undesired events/activities, and
- (c) behavior that occurs because of its sensory consequences (relieves pain, feels good, etc.).

The antecedents and consequences are analyzed to see which function(s) the behavior fulfills. Problem behavior can also serve more than one function, further complicating the matter. The interview, combined with direct observation of the behavior is what most people use in determining the function of the behavior. This is fine when the data collected on the antecedents and consequences is clear. Most of the time this is sufficient in determining the behavior's function(s).

Systematic Manipulation of Environment

In some cases, however, direct observation does not give a clear picture of the behavior's functions and systematically manipulating various environmental events becomes necessary. The most common way of systematically manipulating the environment is to put the person in several different situations and carefully observe how the behavior changes.

Documentation Report

These reports document what was done. They are used to monitor progress and to maintain a record of the action taken and money spent.



An NGO received funding from the agency to conduct an educational programme. The NGO has to write progress reports and a final report so that the agency can determine if the money was wisely spent. Such reports can be used to apply for further funds.

Format of a Report

Unlike research papers, there is no common format for reports. Organisations usually have their own templates and these vary across organisations. In general, the audience and purpose dictate the format of the report – from the number of pages down to the page layout.

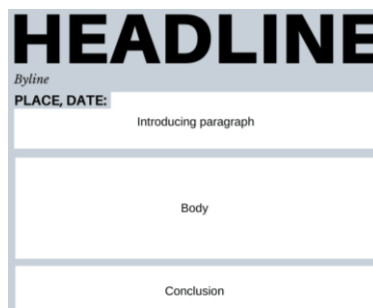
Here is a short documentation report that illustrates the main features of a report. Look at the comments in the left column.

Title	<p>Update on English Proficiency Course in Sanskaar College, Punjab University</p> <p>Prepared by Dr. Digvijay Pandya, Course Director</p>
Context and purpose given	As part of the initiatives to re-design the English curriculum, this report describes the English Proficiency Course (EPC) conducted in Sanskaar college and recommends specific actions.
Numbered headings relevant facts given	<p>1. Course Implementation</p> <p>A diagnostic test was conducted on February 1, 2020 at the college (Appendix A). Of the 80 students who took the test, 32 students were selected; their scores on the test ranged from 40% to 70%. The students were divided into two groups: Class A and Class B.</p>

Additional information given in appendices	<p>The course ran from February 3 to March 15, 2020 with 18 hours of classroom instruction per week. The classes were held from 9 a.m. to 3 p.m. three times a week - Monday, Wednesday, and Friday. At the end of the course, students took a final test (Appendix B).</p> <p>The classes were taught by Dr. Priya Rai (Class A) and Dr. Manohar Singh (Class B), who are full-time faculty at the college. Both teachers have Ph. D. degrees in English Literature, but Dr. Manohar also has a certificate in language teaching. The classes were observed by Dr. Meena Sarkar, head of the English department.</p> <p>The pre- and post-test scores for each student are given in the Appendix C. Of the 32 participants, only 15 showed an improvement in their scores.</p> <p>2. Course Content</p> <p>The course emphasised the spoken skills. Teachers were given a list of sub-skills, such as reading a poem out loud (Appendix D), but were free to design their own activities.</p> <p>3. Results</p> <p>When the student scores were analysed, it was found that students in Class B performed better on the final test on spoken language.</p>
Based on data	<p>4. Recommendations</p> <p>These recommendations are based on an examination of student scores, classroom observation, and faculty feedback.</p> <p>The difference in scores can be attributed to the different teaching methods employed. Students in Class B were given extensive practice in speaking during class, whereas students in Class A listened to lectures by the teacher.</p>
Numbered sub-sections	<p>4.1 Teacher Qualifications</p> <p>A strong background in language teaching is necessary. Teachers who do not have a teaching certificate tend to lecture and do not encourage student participation.</p> <p>4.2 Course Content</p> <p>Teachers may be unable to devise their own activities; hence, the content of the course and the activities should be clearly laid out and teachers told to follow them.</p> <p>4.3 Teacher Training</p> <p>Since teachers are paid extra for conduction the classes, several teachers were interested in teaching the classes. The university should consider running certificate courses to train faculty in teaching English in order to meet the shortfall.</p>
Information in lists	<p>5. Impact of the Project</p> <p>The project shows that students' language proficiency improves when they are taught by trained English teachers. Given the increasing demand for English proficiency courses and the vast pool of English literature teachers, the university should investigate ways to tap this market. For this, the following needs to be done:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Design English courses and textbooks that emphasise language skills rather than literature. • Re-vamp existing English courses so that they cater to workplace literacy.

Academic English

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Train faculty to conduct these courses, both in the short-term and as part of the B.A./M.A. curriculum.
Additional information	<p>Attachments</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Appendix A. Diagnostic test • Appendix B. Final test • Appendix C. Students scores on Pre-test and Post-test • Appendix D. List of sub-skills

Common Report Format**Assessment Report**

These reports assess a situation before action is taken. Such reports gather information on a specific situation and often contain a section on recommendations. Their purpose is to help decision makers arrive at a decision. They are frequently written by or for business organisations, government organisations, the United Nations and the World Bank. They could be for internal circulation as in a business organisation or for wider dissemination to lay people as with the UN. Depending on the complexity of the situation, their length can vary from twenty pages to eight hundred pages.

Assessment reports provide an in-depth analysis of a situation, sometimes with recommended actions. They have become a necessary genre due to the high volume of information. In situations where people have to make decision, such as business or government organisation, a team of people gather up-to-date information, select what is pertinent to the situation, and present it in a report to the decision-makers. There is no room for *perhaps* and *maybe*; instead, there needs to be a high level of certainty so that action can be taken.

To make the information accessible to different levels of readers, the information is structured in layers. The Executive Summary is only one page written in bullet points, which summarises the main findings and the recommended actions; this is for the busy CEO, who may not read further. Important information in the text is boxed; detailed tables, statistical analyses, and lists of people are moved to the Appendix for people down the line who want to check the accuracy of the data or replicate the study.

Most assessment reports are not written by an individual but by a team, because of the amount of data that has to be collected and sifted. Because of the vast amount of work that it entails, most reports are not available to the general public but have to be bought. However, it is possible to view sample reports to get an idea of how such reports are written and structured.

A funding agency wants to invest in education in India. It needs information on the status of education, the different models, and the most appropriate method and segment for investment. It asks for a report on the status of education in India.

Summary

- A report is a document that presents information in an organized format for specific audience and purpose.
- There are three features that characterise report writing at a very basic level: a pre-defined structure, independent sections, and reaching unbiased conclusions.
- Reports avoid slang, idiom, metaphor, and jargon as they have nuances that might complicate the message.

- Reports include technical terms, structure, figures, tables, footnotes, end-notes, and references to external sources.
- Based on some special characteristics, a report can be a certain kind.
- Some of report types are formal, informal, informational, analytical, long, short, vertical, lateral, periodic, proposal, functional, documentation, and assessment report.
- In a broad way, a report should have title, date, introduction, body, and conclusion.
- Assessment reports assess a situation before action is taken.
- Assessment reports provide an in-depth analysis of a situation, sometimes with recommended actions.

Keywords: reports, types, format, basics, importance, need.

Self Assessment

1. A document that presents information in an organized format for specific audience and purpose is known as a.....

- A. paragraph
- B. report
- C. essay
- D. novel

2. Which style does a report adopt?

- A. Ambiguous and indirect
- B. satisfying and indirect
- C. Straight-forward and clear
- D. effective, satisfying, and indirect

3. What does a report avoid?

- A. Phrase, Clause, Gerund
- B. Slang, Jargon, Idiom
- C. Infinitive, Participle, Clause
- D. Clause, Concord, Conjugation

4. How many types of reports are there depending on purpose?

- A. 1
- B. 2
- C. 3
- D. 5

5. Reports used to monitor progress, maintain a record of the action taken, and money spent are called

- A. deconstruction reports
- B. demonstration reports
- C. cause-effect reports
- D. documentation reports

6. Reports which assess a situation before action is taken are known as.....

- A. general reports
 - B. assessment reports
 - C. executive reports
 - D. evaluation reports
7. What dictate the format of any report in general?
- A. Audience and Purpose
 - B. The presenter and Reason
 - C. The organization and Audience
 - D. The language and Manner
8. What should one ask to himself/herself before penning down any report?
- A. Who are the readers
 - B. What is the purpose
 - C. What is the need and what to include
 - D. All of the above
9. What does summary include in any report?
- A. Major points, Conclusions, Recommendations
 - B. Recommendations, Appendices, Major findings
 - C. Abstract, Conclusions, Content, Sources
 - D. None of the above
10. What comes after introduction in any report?
- A. Abstract
 - B. Research
 - C. Body
 - D. Recommendations
11. The section that has all the technical details that support conclusion(s) in any report is called
- A. Appendices
 - B. Problem statement
 - C. Topic sentence
 - D. Research question
12. What are the salient features of any assessment report?
- A. High volume of information and brief executive summary
 - B. No room for perhaps and maybe
 - C. High level of certainty and information in layered structured
 - D. All of the above
13. Which tense is advised to be used in writing any assessment report?
- A. Present
 - B. Past
 - C. Future
 - D. Future indefinite

14. The aim of is to give the service team further points to be considered during the next stage of development.
- A. conclusion(s)
 B. abstract
 C. recommendations
 D. discussion
15. What are the major problems of writing an assessment report?
- A. Too long
 B. Too many researchers
 C. Biased attitude of researchers
 D. All of the above

Answer for Self Assessment

1. B 2. C 3. B 4. B 5. D
 6. B 7. A 8. D 9. A 10. C
 11. A 12. D 13. B 14. C 15. D

Review Questions:

1. What does a report stand for?
2. What do reports avoid?
3. What do reports include?
4. What is the aim and significance of writing a report?
5. Discuss various types of reports.
6. What do you understand by documentation report? Give suitable example.
7. What is an assessment report? Give suitable example.
8. Which format does a report follow? Discuss in detail.
9. What are the salient features of an assessment report?
10. How to write recommendations and requirements in an assessment report?
11. Which problems a researcher may face while writing an assessment report?
12. How can one avoid common problems of an assessment report?



Further Reading

A Course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd.
 English Grammar by Rajeevan Karal, Oxford University Press
 A course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd.
 English Grammar by Rajeevan Karal, Oxford University Press
 Oxford EAP: A Course in English for Academic Purposes by Edward De Chazal
 And Sam Mccarter, Oxford University Press
 MLA Handbook by Modern Language Association of America, Modern Language
 Association

Unit 07: Basics of Research Papers: Writing a Report, Understanding the Text, Data Collection, Writing a Research Paper

Digvijay Pandya, Lovely Professional University

CONTENTS

Objectives:

Introduction

- 7.1 Common Problems
- 7.2 Points to Remember
- 7.3 The Structure of a Report
- 7.4 Executive Summary
- 7.5 Conclusions and Recommendations
- 7.6 Writing Style
- 7.7 Understanding the Text
- 7.8 Collecting Data
- 7.9 Write the Method Section
- 7.10 Write the Result Section
- 7.11 Write the Introduction and References

Summary

Keywords:

Self Assessment

Answer for Self Assessment

Review Questions:

Further Reading

Objectives:

- Understand how to write a report in an effective and accurate way.
- Analyze the ways to develop adequate understanding about any text
- Deduce various methods to collect data for writing a report
- Illustrate the manner and steps to write a research paper

Introduction

Reports may contain a description of a sequence of events or a situation along with some interpretation of the significance of these events or situation, whether solely your own analysis or informed by the views of others, always carefully referenced of course. Further, they throw light on the evaluation of the facts or the results of your research. Discussion of the likely outcomes of future courses of action, recommendations as to a course of action, and conclusions are some other important points that a report in general has. Not all of these elements will be essential in every report. If one is writing a report in the workplace, (s)he is expected to check whether there are any standard guidelines or structure that (s)he needs to use. For example, in the UK many government departments have outline structures for reports to ministers that must be followed exactly.

A report is designed to lead people through the information in a structured way, but also to enable them to find the information that they want quickly and easily. Reports usually, therefore, have

numbered sections and subsections, and a clear and full contents page listing each heading. It follows that page numbering is important.

Modern word processors have features to add tables of contents (To C) and page numbers as well as styled headings; you should take advantage of these as they update automatically as you edit your report, moving, adding or deleting sections.

A report should be accurate, brief and complete. The Economist Intelligence Unit (EIU) shows how they write their reports and this is a useful guide.

1. **Accurate:** The information and data is reliable and up-to-date.
2. **Brief:** Since you do not have to build argument, you merely give the facts. However, this is not an information dump/ you have to offer insights into the issues or recommendations.
3. **Complete:** Within a report, all the relevant information is given. It is a standalone document. The reader should not have to hunt for additional documents or information.

7.1 Common Problems

Writing a report sounds straightforward: gather the facts, organize them, and write them clearly. What could go wrong? Plenty! Here are some common problems.

1. Too Long

When researchers are paid a lot of money to write a report, they feel they need to provide value for money; however, instead of adding insights, they add pages to the report. Remember that less is more: it is easier to keep adding pages than to distil the main ideas. Report padding is done in different ways; check your reports for these padding strategies.

a. Explain every figure

Example

Figure 2 compares mobile phone use in India and China from the year 2000 to date. The figure shows that in India, mobile phone use increased from the year 2000 to 2001, dipped in the year 2003, but picked up again in 2004 from where it continued to rise steadily. In contrast, usage has grown at a steady rate in China from the year 2000 to date.

No figure should be used if the same is explained in detail.

b. Describe the data in detail

Example

During the survey, one participant said, 'My grandson has shown me that a mobile phone has many features. He knows a lot because he studies in an English-medium school and is a very clever boy. He showed me how to take pictures and ...'

This is interesting to the researcher who spent hours in the field; however, it does not move the report forward.

c. Historical perspective

Example

The mobile service has seen phenomenal growth since 2000. India's mobile phone subscriber base grew exponentially from around 10 million in 2002 to 350 million by the start of 2009.

How does this help the reader in the year 2017? Do not include a historical narrative unless you are writing a history of the field.

2. Too many researchers

It is said that a camel is a horse that has been designed by a committee. We find this problem in a report written by several project members; each person wants his or her section to be included. As the report moves to senior levels, people add information instead of subtracting it. This results in a 'lumpy' report.

3. A biased report

A company asks you to write a report about their competitors. You know they would love to see a report that criticizes the competition, but such a report is not objective and undermines your credibility in future projects.

7.2 Points to Remember

1. Be accurate, brief, and complete.
2. Use a direct and informative style. Be factual. Do not use adjectives or emotive words.
3. Report facts, supported by data. Move references and sources for footnotes, endnotes.
4. Save your opinion for the recommendations.

Prior Preparation and Planning

The structure of a report is very important to lead the reader through your thinking to a course of action and/or decision. It is worth taking a bit of time to plan it out beforehand. The following steps will help to get better clarity in the matter.

1. Know the brief

You will usually receive a clear brief for a report, including what you are studying and for whom the report should be prepared.

First of all, consider your brief very carefully and make sure that you are clear who the report is for and why you are writing it, as well as what you want the reader to do at the end of reading: make a decision or agree a recommendation, perhaps.

2. Keep the brief in mind at all times

During your planning and writing, make sure that you keep your brief in mind: who are you writing for, and why are you writing? All your thinking needs to be focused and which may require you to be vigorous in your reading and thinking. Anything irrelevant should be discarded.

As you read and research, try to organize your work into sections by theme, a bit like writing a Literature Review.

Make sure that you keep track of your references, especially for academic work. Although referencing is perhaps less important in the workplace, it is also important that you can substantiate any assertions that you make so it's helpful to keep track of your sources of information.

7.3 The Structure of a Report

Like the precise content, requirements for structure vary, so do check what is set out in any guidance. However, as a rough guide, you should plan to include at the very least an executive summary, introduction, the main body of your report, and a section containing your conclusions and any recommendations.

Element	Explanation
Title Page	Unit code and title, tutor's name, report title and purpose, your name and student number. Check your Learning Guide to find out what information you need to include here.
Table of contents	A list of sections and subsections indicating which page each section begins on (usually only needed for longer reports of 10 pages or more). Each section and subsection is numbered in a cascading way, e.g. Section 2 has three subsections, 2.1, 2.2, 2.3. Use a numbered list in your word processing program to create the Table of Contents.
List of abbreviations and/or glossary	A list of any abbreviations, acronyms or technical terms you use in your report. This should be on a separate page in your report.
Executive summary	A brief overview of the whole report that stands alone and does not refer

	to the report the way an abstract would. The purpose of the executive summary is so a reader who doesn't have time to read the whole report can find all the important information 'at a glance'. You should summarize each section of the report in one or two sentences, with any recommendations often given in full. Check your assignment instructions for word length.
Introduction	Introduces the topic and its background and significance, identifies the specific problem within that topic area that you are investigating, previews the sections of the report, and defines any important terms used.
Body	Treatment of the problem is divided up into different aspects (e.g. definition of the problem, analysis of its features, stages, and/or causes, and proposals for different ways of approaching or managing the problem or situation)
Conclusion	Summarizes the report's main points. There is no new information here, since each idea or piece of information should already have been introduced in the body of the report.
Suggestions & Recommendations	Presents specific suggestions for action that arise from the analysis and findings of the report.
Bibliography or reference list	Any sources you have referred to should be listed here in alphabetical order. Use the referencing system indicated in your Learning Guide.
Appendices	If you have any large tables, figures, or other material that is too long for your report but is necessary for the reader to be able to refer to while reading your report, you should include these as appendices at the end of the report. Each one should be numbered and given a title to tell the reader what it contains. They should be included in the Table of Contents as well.

7.4 Executive Summary

The executive summary or abstract, for a scientific report, is a brief summary of the contents. It is worth writing this last, when you know the key points to draw out. It should be no more than half a page to a page in length. Remember the executive summary is designed to give busy 'executives' a quick summary of the contents of the report.

Introduction

The introduction sets out what you plan to say and provides a brief summary of the problem under discussion. It should also touch briefly on your conclusions.

Main Body

The main body of the report should be carefully structured in a way that leads the reader through the issue. You should split it into sections using numbered sub-headings relating to themes or areas for consideration. For each theme, you should aim to set out clearly and concisely the main issue under discussion and any areas of difficulty or disagreement. It may also include experimental results. All the information that you present should be related back to the brief and the precise subject under discussion.

7.5 Conclusions and Recommendations

The conclusion sets out what inferences you draw from the information, including any experimental results. It may include recommendations, or these may be included in a separate section. Recommendations suggest how you think the situation could be improved, and should be

specific, achievable and measurable. If your recommendations have financial implications, you should set these out clearly, with estimated costs if possible.

7.6 Writing Style

When writing a report, your aim should be to be absolutely clear. Above all, it should be easy to read and understand, even to someone with little knowledge of the subject area. You should therefore aim for crisp, precise text, using plain English, and shorter words rather than longer, with short sentences.

You should also avoid jargon. If you have to use specialist language, you should explain each word as you use it. If you find that you've had to explain more than about five words, you're probably using too much jargon, and need to replace some of it with simpler words.

Consider your audience. If the report is designed to be written for a particular person, check whether you should be writing it to 'you' or perhaps in the third person to a job role: 'The Chief Executive may like to consider...', or 'The minister is recommended to agree...', for example.

As with any academic assignment or formal piece of writing, your work will benefit from being read over again and edited minutely for sense and style.

Pay particular attention to whether all the information that you have included is relevant. Also remember to check tenses, which person you have written in, grammar and spelling. It's also worth one last check against any requirements on structure.

For an academic assignment, make sure that you have referenced fully and correctly. As always, check that you have not inadvertently or deliberately plagiarized or copied anything without acknowledging it.

7.7 Understanding the Text

To understand the steps in writing a research paper, we will select a small topic and work with that in the following way:



What makes a city live able?

Countries have begun to assess the quality of their cities and cities are now ranked on how live able they are, but citizens may have their own ideas about what makes a city liveable. This is what you will find out for this paper.

- What factors do the studies consider?
- What factors are important to students in your college?
- Is there a difference?

Since research work is usually a collaborative effort involving several researchers, we will replicate this practice. You should work in groups of three and then submit individual papers for your grade. In the Appendix, you will find a sample research paper that can help you understand the sections and the language used in a research paper.

There are two main steps in writing a research paper:

a. Collecting Data

This is group work. First, you get an overview of the area by looking up information on the internet to see what people have studied and found. Then you design a short questionnaire and ask relevant and required number of people for their opinions. When you have the responses, the group will summarise the data in a table and create a bar chart.

b. Writing the Paper

This is individual work. You have the data and so you can begin writing the paper. The paper should be at least 2-4 pages and 1.5 line spacing. The main sections are given in the figure below.

7.8 Collecting Data

1. Overview of the field

Find articles, reports and news items on the topic which you have selected. Thereafter, you should look for information on why this topic is important, what studies have found and what criteria they used. Write down the references. The information thus gathered will be used at the time of writing the introduction. Besides, this is the stage when you should start thinking about your questionnaire. Look at the criteria that studies have used. Decide whether you wish to use those criteria or any different one.

2. Collect data

The first step is to design a short questionnaire to help you get information on your research question. You can be lazy and ask an open-ended question such as 'What do you think makes a city live able?', but most of the researchers may not know where to start. It is better to give them a list of options and ask, 'Which one is the most important to you?'. Include a category called 'Other' that may trigger some interesting responses.

When the questionnaire is ready, you will have to interview the relevant and required number of people. Split the interviews among the number of groups in which you have divided the people. If the research is of academic nature and been conducted by students then the participants will be students, but you could include faculty or staff at the college. It is worth printing copies of your questionnaire so that you can add notes to each sheet; include the date and time, and relevant information about the participant, such as name, gender, and home town. If you have the category 'Other', you can write their responses on this sheet.

When you have finished conducting the interviews, get back together and summarize the responses. Create a simple coding sheet that lists the options and count the number of responses for each option. If 12 people said that option 1 was the most important, put 12 in the cell for option 1. Then, convert your coding sheet into a bar chart, so that it is easier to visualize the data.

If you offer participants an 'Other' option, you might get some interesting responses that are not on your list. Summarize these answers in a separate section along with any interesting comments made by the participants.

Writing a Research Paper

People get tempted to start writing a research paper by writing the *introduction*. In fact, the introduction is written last. We usually start with what we have in hand – the data. So, we begin by writing the *Method* and *Results*.

7.9 Write the Method Section

The method section is ready and you can write it up. We use the past tense in this section because the work has been done. In this section, you first describe the materials (what), participants (who), and procedure (how).

- **Materials:** Mention that you used a questionnaire and include a copy in the *Appendix*. Briefly explain why you chose certain options and not others.
- **Participants:** Describe the number of participants and their background. Where they students, faculty or workers? If they were students, which year were they studying in? You should give sufficient background on the participants, so that readers can say, 'Okay, this is true of first-year students in a Tier 2 town'. At the same time, you have to conceal the identity of your participants, so create different names for them.
- **Procedure:** Describe how you conducted the interviews. Write this as a walkthrough, so that readers can visualize step-by-step what participants did.

The next step is to describe how you analyzed the data. In this study, you counted the number of responses for each option. However, you may have to drop some of the data. For example, if some participants gave unacceptable responses that you had to drop, mention this.

7.10 Write the Result Section

In this section, you report the findings from your data. Begin with a summary of the findings. At first, you report the numbers, which is called quantitative data. Your coding sheet will be too long and difficult for readers to understand, so this is where a figure helps. You have used the simplest figure for data – a bar chart – but research papers often provide tables for statistics, photographs of equipment, etc. You need to number your figures, e.g. Figure 1, Figure 2, etc. Direct the reader to the visual. Then, highlight the main trends and any significant numbers. Do not describe every number in tedious detail.

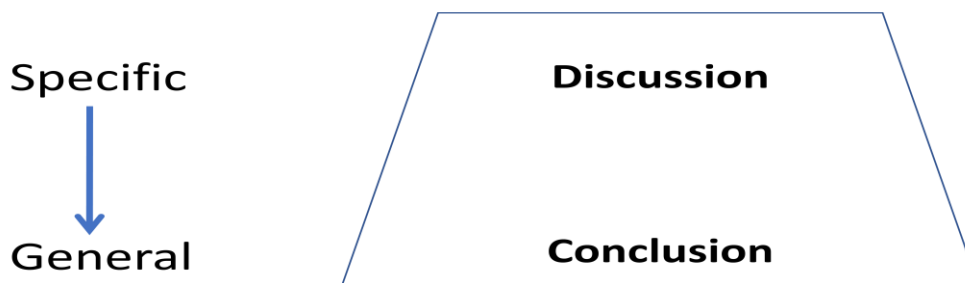
If you included an ‘Other’ category, you will have qualitative data. People will give widely differing responses and comments that are interesting but difficult to summarise. Researchers get tempted to include all this chatty information in their research paper, but it is exhausting for the reader. Pick out the most important or the most interesting information and give a few examples.

Discussion

In this section, you discuss what the data means. What do the numbers and responses tell up? Go back to the questions you raised at the beginning of the research project and see if you have answered the questions.

Write the Conclusion

This section begins with a summary of your study and then widens to the broader research area. It uses a mixture of tenses: past tense for what is finished, present tense for general implications, and the future for further research. This section does not introduce new facts.



Here, you should lay required emphasis on the following points also.

- State the purpose of the study.
- Summarise the main findings.
- Propose future directions.

7.11 Write the Introduction and References

You are now ready to write the *Introduction* because you know what you want to say. The *Introduction* consists of four sections, which are as follows:

1. Why the topic is important?
2. What research has been done?
3. What has not been done?
4. What this paper will do?



References are written in different ways in each discipline, and journals often have their own style. The quantitative paper uses the standard APA style from the American Psychological Association whereas the qualitative one uses the standard MLA from the Modern Language Association style sheet which is commonly used for the social sciences.

Write the Abstract

This is the final section you will write. An abstract is a summary of the content of your paper that helps readers decide whether to read the paper or not.

The abstract is very short – between 150 to 250 words and written as a single paragraph. At the same time, the abstract should be complete; the reader should be able to get the gist of your paper without reading the entire paper. The reason is that the abstract is frequently available to a wide audience through journal websites or collections of abstracts. Researchers skim through thousands of abstracts, trying to decide with ones is relevant for their research. So, your abstract should allow the reader to decide whether to read your entire paper. Although an abstract is only one paragraph, the following information is packed into it.

1. Background information: It provides the background to the problem. This is written in the present tense because it is still a problem.
2. Purpose of the study and its scope.
3. Method: How you collected and analysed the data.
4. Results: Most abstracts do not give the results; for the results, you have to get a copy of the paper.
5. Implications or recommendations

You have finished writing the first draft of your paper. The next step is to edit the language – check grammar and spelling and proofread for errors.

Summary

- A report is designed to lead people through the information in a structured way, but also to enable them to find the information that they want quickly and easily.
- A report should be accurate, brief and complete.
- Length, data description, historical perspective, number of researchers, and biased attitude are the common problems of report-writing.
- Reports, generally, have title page, executive summary, contents, introduction, body, discussion, conclusions, recommendations, references, and appendices in its structure.
- There are two main steps in writing a research paper: 1) Collecting Data 2) Writing the Paper.
- In collecting data, the researcher should, at first, take the overview of the field then start collecting data.
- Research paper writing should start from deciding about the method.
- After deciding the method, the research should write the result, discussion, conclusion, and abstract of the paper.

Keywords: report, writing, text, data, research, collection, paper.

Self Assessment

1. Reading and deciding about the instructions and information made available to oneself is called

- A. terms of reference
- B. brainstorming
- C. outlining
- D. paraphrasing

2. What one is expected to think at the second place before writing a report?

- A. About the proposal
 - B. About the purpose
 - C. About the predictions
 - D. About the perpetuity
3. What comes after summary in any report?
- A. Conclusions
 - B. body of the report
 - C. Introduction
 - D. Recommendations
4. What do we include in appendices?
- A. Brochures, Spreadsheets, Large Tables
 - B. Findings, Spreadsheets, Recommendations
 - C. Findings, Content, Brochures
 - D. Discussion, Proofs, Findings
5. What one should check while revising the draft of prepared report?
- A. Assignment question
 - B. Review of literature
 - C. Readers' reaction
 - D. Organizational expectations
6. Texts endeavor to inform, instruct, or persuade through the use of facts and information are called
- A. Informative texts
 - B. Effective texts
 - C. Factual texts
 - D. Perpetual texts
7. Literary texts seek to emotion through a creative use of language and structure.
- A. entertain, enlighten, or elicit
 - B. increase, generate, or enlighten
 - C. affect, impact, or influence
 - D. elicit, impact, or fabricate
8. How does visualization help?
- A. To provide adequate time to read the text
 - B. To understand the need of writing
 - C. To develop in-depth understanding of the text
 - D. To provide enough space to think about the text
9. Literary text comprises of.....
- A. theme, resolution, characterization, setting, appendices
 - B. crisis point, setting, findings, setting, theme
 - C. characterization, theme, main body, resolution, setting
 - D. setting, theme, characterization, crisis point, resolution
10. What is one of the salient features of any factual text?
- A. Written in an objective style
 - B. Not concerned with specific facts
 - C. Include characters or individuals
 - D. Usually set in a particular time
11. What are the two main steps to write a research paper?
- A. Finding relevant books and writing the paper
 - B. Removing plagiarism and writing the paper
 - C. Discussion and writing the paper
 - D. Collecting data and writing the paper

12. From which point does data collection process start?
 - A. Find articles, reports and news on the topic
 - B. Visualizing the results and outcomes regarding the topic
 - C. Searching for the organization that assigned the work
 - D. Discussing the topic with the people around
13. In questionnaire, one may ask questions.
 - A. numerous
 - B. open-ended
 - C. frequent
 - D. interesting
14. It is advised to include a category called in the options provided against each question.
 - A. find
 - B. some
 - C. other
 - D. no one
15. Variables should be set according to
 - A. the research requirements
 - B. the audience requirements
 - C. the organization requirement
 - D. the time and place requirement
16. Where should one begin writing a research paper?
 - A. Writing the method and results
 - B. Writing the method
 - C. Writing the results
 - D. None of the above
17. Which tense should one use while writing the method?
 - A. Present tense
 - B. Past tense
 - C. Future tense
 - D. Present indefinite
18. Which methods are generally used to collect the required information?
 - A. Presentation and Speech
 - B. Open-ended discussion
 - C. Questions and Internship
 - D. Questionnaire and Interview

Answer for Self Assessment

- | | | | | |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. A | 2. B | 3. C | 4. A | 5. A |
| 6. C | 7. A | 8. C | 9. D | 10. A |
| 11. D | 12. A | 13. B | 14. C | 15. A |
| 16. A | 17. B | 18. D | | |

Review Questions:

1. What does terms of reference stand for in the context of writing a report?
2. Which points a researcher should ponder upon while locating the purpose of any report?
3. What does procedure mean in the context of writing a report?

4. Which questions does the researcher ask to himself/herself before writing a report?
5. What are the important points to think about while gathering information?
6. Discuss the common structure of a report.
7. Define *findings* in terms of report-writing? Explain its purpose and need.
8. Why do we use appendix in a report and what does it include?
9. What does conclusion include in report-writing?
10. Discuss the need and importance of suggestions and recommendations in report.
11. What is executive summary? Discuss its need and importance in report-writing.
12. Discuss the need and importance of references in report-writing.
13. What does the researcher need to keep in mind while revising the draft of report?
14. What is textual understanding?
15. Discuss different types of texts.
16. How does visualization help to develop textual understanding?
17. Discuss the role of language in the context of textual understanding.
18. What are literary texts?
19. Which tools are used to develop textual understanding in the context of literary texts?
20. What are factual texts?
21. Discuss the structure of factual texts.
22. Which tools are used to develop textual understanding in the context of factual texts?
23. Discuss the process of data collection.
24. Discuss various important points to be pondered upon before writing a research paper.
25. Discuss API and MLA style sheets used in writing research papers.
26. What is abstract and how to write it?



Further Reading

A Course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Black swan Pvt. Ltd.

English Grammar by Rajeevan Karal, Oxford University Press

A course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Black swan Pvt. Ltd.

English Grammar by Rajeevan Karal, Oxford University Press

Oxford EAP: A Course in English for Academic Purposes by Edward De Chazal And Sam Mccarter, Oxford University Press

MLA Handbook by Modern Language Association of America, Modern Language Association

Unit 08: Basics of reports and research papers: overview of a research paper, selection of a research paper, plagiarism, citing sources, publication sources

Digvijay Pandya, Lovely Professional University

CONTENTS

Objectives:

Introduction

8.1 Overview of a Research Paper

8.2 Selection of Research Paper

8.3 Plagiarism

8.4 Citing Sources

8.5 Publication Sources

Summary

Keywords:

Self Assessment

Answer for Self Assessment

Review Questions:

Further Reading

Objectives:

- Understand the manner to select a relevant research topic
- Illustrate the formatting and the process of research paper publication
- Analyze different ways to cite from various sources in academic writing
- Elucidate the meaning of plagiarism and the ways to avoid

Introduction

This unit is intended for researchers who need to write more than a simple term paper. We have already discussed the basic components and steps in writing a research paper but, in this unit, we will move to more advanced research papers and give examples of academic texts.

The process of formulating the research question, finding and reading the relevant papers, collecting and analysing the data, and finding worthwhile results is long and arduous. So far we have done our reading and Research, and now need to write it up as a paper for publication or as a dissertation or thesis.

How long does it take to write a paper for a thesis? Once you have your data and have read the relevant literature, you are hopefully clear about what you want to say. Then, writing the paper should take about one month of concentrated effort. However, If you are still exploring ideas through writing, it is going to take much longer.

8.1 Overview of a Research Paper

The research paper is part of the Academic tradition. It is normally written by University faculties, who conduct research and write up their findings in an article that they sent to a research journal in their area of expertise. The paper is then reviewed by two or three experts in the field. Their comments are sent back to the researcher who should address their comments and then re-submit the paper to the journal.

The purpose of this exercise is to advance the field in some way - by presenting a new analysis of another researcher's data, or by presenting new data to test theories in the field. Hence, it presents new work and is not merely a summary of other people's work.

A research paper is not a report. A report is an expository text that collects and presents information. Reviewers and dissertation supervisors frequently point out that the document is a report and not a research paper. A research paper, unlike a report, is an argumentative text in which the researcher identifies a gap in the current Research and attempts to fill that gap with his/her data and analysis.

This aspect of the research paper is described in more detail in the introduction, but it is the heart of the research paper. It helps you understand why the research paper is an argument and not merely an expository essay, the importance of a theoretical framework, the purpose of the literature review, and why you collect and analyse data. Research papers have the following features.

- They are the culmination of a lot of reading, and most often data collection and analysis.
- They have a conceptual or theoretical framework that places the work within an established field.
- They present a new idea and are not merely an extension to 'the Indian context'.
- They are not expository texts; they are argumentative. That is, they try to persuade the reader or reviewer in an informed and objective fashion.

Problem Points

If you submit your article to a paid journal, it will get accepted. This is a good start for beginning researchers who want to show a list of publications for promotion. However, at some point, you might want to publish in referred journals either in India or abroad, that the standards are very high.

What can go wrong and what does not need to do you are the biggest issues. Some journal reviewers nearly right back, 'get an editor', these problems have become so common that numerous articles have begun to appear on websites that point out basic errors in writing a research paper for Publication.

Instructions not followed

Each journal has its own conventions that are given in a document called Instructions to Authors. Even before writing the paper former we usually identify a few journals and then write the paper to suit the audience and conventions of each journal.

However, a common mistake is to write a paper and then submit it to a journal without looking at sample papers in the journal for reading the Instructions to the Author. If writers took the time to look at other papers in the journal, they would realise that the introduction normally does not include figures, which their paper has done for a stop if writers read the Instructions to the Author, they would realise that the journal allows a particular number of words for a book review, whereas they have written much more than that.

No data Incorporated in the paper

Without data, the paper is nearly an opinion piece that belongs in a blog or on Facebook. Data is at the heart of papers in the Sciences and Social Sciences, but even literature and history include an analysis of primary texts or secondary documents; without this evidence, the researchers' opinion comes across as Grand statements that are easily dismissed or demolished.

No conceptual or theoretical framework

Researchers think that data is fascinating, but their analysis will depend on the theoretical or conceptual framework. For instance, if someone has collected classroom data on how Indian school children learn to read and write in English, he/she can frame the study in different ways -as a study of emergent literacy, as a critique of teaching methods, to explain how is school children learn to memorize, to describe the development of second language acquisition etc. For each paper,

Unit 08: Basics of reports and research papers: overview of a research paper, selection of a research paper, plagiarism, citing sources, publication sources

the theoretical or conceptual framework, literature review and analysis would be different, and he/she will have to submit each paper to a journal that specialises in that particular area.

Novice writers think that a literature review can take the place of a theoretical or conceptual Framework which becomes a problem in the Social Sciences where there are multiple ways of analysis analysing the same data depending on the theoretical or conceptual framework. This is reflected in the fact that there are hundreds of journals in a discipline, each with a slightly different orientation. Rejection by a journal does not necessarily mean that your paper is bad; you may have chosen the wrong journal.

The absence of a theoretical framework may be due to the recent Surge in paid journals that publish any paper that is submitted, resulting in a grab bag of articles from different disciplines, such as applied linguistics, literature and language policy. Researchers get the impression that they nearly need to include a few references.

Outdated or irrelevant review of literature

Too many researchers think that the purpose of the review of literature is 'display behaviour to show that they have covered the important material in the discipline, and they insert long quotations from the material they have read. However, it is assumed that as a serious researcher you have read and digested the books and papers in your field; citing and undergraduate textbooks such as Samuelson in an Economics paper shows that you are still learning economics. No one has time to read the history of the field; we all know it. All this is background information that readers know and assume that the researcher knows. In disciplines such as computer science, papers begin with a direct statement of the problem.

For the review of literature, you have to pick from the thousands of articles that have been published in your research area. Since the purpose of the research paper is to present an argument, you should pinpoint articles that are relevant to your argument - both for and against. This requires access to the original articles in JSTOR and extensive reading; you cannot cite abstracts that are found on the Internet, because the full article may discuss caveats that are not given in the Abstract.

Incorrect statistical analysis

If you have not done a course in statistics, please do not report statistical analysis. Social sciences researchers have started dressing up their papers with numbers that they get from a status statistician, but the test is often inappropriate for the data and undermines the credibility of both the researcher and the journal.

The best way to go about writing a research paper is to look at similar papers in your field. Identify an article from a referred journal in your field; try to find the most important journals in your field, which is called a Tier 1 journal. If you plan to publish your paper in a specific journal, get a copy of an article from that journal. Do not use a chapter from a Textbook or an article from a magazine, because those are different genres. Make a photocopy of the article. When going through this chapter, keep checking whether your photocopied article follows the conventions described. If it does not, think about why they differ. Perhaps they are different conventions in your field; computer science, for example, is such a recent field that research articles do not have established conventions.

If you are an acknowledged expert in your field, you can do what you want and your work will still be published. However, the structure that we have discussed in the previous unit is becoming increasingly frozen. Both journals and readers have come to expect the structure in all research papers and you risk losing out if you deviate from it.

The following figure shows the sections of a research paper, commerce thesis or dissertation. The shaded sections are the core sections, and the other sections may be included. The shaded sections would be divided further depending on your discipline; here we have shown the format for a typical paper in the Social Sciences but in your particular discipline you may not need to collect primary data, in that case, you would have different sections. For example, in a dissertation, you need to include a table of contents at the beginning, as well as a list of figures and tables.

Acknowledgements
Abstract
Introduction
Method
Result
Conclusion
References
Appendices

8.2 Selection of Research Paper

Submitting a paper to an unsuitable journal is a key cause of article rejection. When selecting a journal, take the time to review the journal's aims and scope to confirm that it is suitable for your manuscript. The sections and questions below will help you make the best choice when deciding where to publish your research.

Journal focus

The first step in publishing a research paper should always be selecting the journal you want to publish in. Choosing your target journal before you start writing means you can tailor your work to build on research that's already been published in that journal. This can help editors to see how a paper adds to the 'conversation' in their journal.

In addition, many journals only accept specific formats of article and may well have word limits and other restrictions. So by choosing a journal before you start, you can write your article to their specifications and audience, and ultimately improve your chances of acceptance.

Does the journal covers a wide range of topics or is it more focused should be your first question. For subject-specific journals, only relevant manuscripts will be considered for publication. If your article is cross-disciplinary or covers multiple topics, then a broader-scoped journal will be more suitable for publication of your article. You can easily find the aims and scopes of our journals on their websites and these will provide you will a clear understanding of what kind of research will be considered.

Journal content

After crosschecking journal's area, you should go through the type of content that the journal has published previously. As a reader, would you expect to see your article alongside the existing articles? Are they articles that you might have read during the course of your research? It is also worthwhile to check if a journal publishes *Special Issues* that are relevant to your area of research - these targeted, timely, and insightful collections of articles can give a very good indication of the kinds of content a journal publishes.

Journal metrics

It is important to know the average time it takes a submission to receive a final decision or how long it takes after an article has been accepted to being published. Knowing this information about the publication process means that you will understand when you can expect to hear from a journal Editor or when your paper will be published. It is also important to understand what proportion of submission is accepted by a journal so you can have the best idea of the likelihood or your article being accepted for publication. All of our journals have all of this information clearly displayed so you can make the most informed decision about where to publish.

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Journal impact factor

The *Impact Factor* of a journal is a consideration for authors, but many journals without Impact Factors are also important. It is generally skewed towards certain disciplines or types of publication and often journals without an Impact Factor are much more relevant to practitioners or very specific readerships. To help you make the best choice you may want to consider alternative statistical metrics, such as the Eigen factor or Cite score, in your decision making. Readership is also an important indicator of impact, and all of our journals now publish article-level metrics, such as usage statistics to help you better understand an article's impact.

Discoverability

Consider where a journal is distributed and whether it is indexed in the services that you use to discover articles. Journals indexed in major databases such as Scopus, Web of Science, and PubMed are likely to receive more downloads and citations as a result of their improved discoverability.

Publication cost

Before submitting the manuscript, researchers should always check for the current costs of publishing in the select journal and look for the provisions, If you meet certain criteria, you may be eligible for any waiver or not. Once you have become sure about the charges and rest of the pertinent issues that meet your needs, you are ready to begin the submission process.

Navigating the peer review process

Now you've submitted your manuscript, you need to get to grips with one of the most important parts of publishing your research paper – the peer review process.

Peer review is the independent assessment of your research article by independent experts in your field. Reviewers, also sometimes called 'referees', are asked to judge the validity, significance, and originality of your work.

This process ensures that a peer-reviewed article has been through a rigorous process to make sure the methodology is sound, the work can be replicated, and it fits with the aims and scope of the journal that is considering it for publication. It acts as an important form of quality control for research papers.

Peer review is also a very useful source of feedback, helping you to improve your paper before it's published. It is intended to be a collaborative process, where authors engage in a dialogue with their peers and receive constructive feedback and support to advance their work.

Almost all research articles go through peer review, although in some cases the journal may operate post-publication peer review, which means that reviews and reader comments are invited after the paper is published.

The production process

If your paper is accepted for publication, it will then head into production. At this stage of the process, the paper will be prepared for publishing in your chosen journal.

A lot of the work to produce the final version of your paper will be done by the journal production team, but your input will be required at various stages of the process.

8.3 Plagiarism

Plagiarism is a common problem, primarily among students. Merriam-Webster Dictionary defines plagiarism as follows:

“To steal and pass off (the ideas or words of another) as one's own: to use (another's production) without crediting the source”

Many people think plagiarism is stealing someone else's words, but it also means stealing someone else's ideas. In other words, even if you paraphrase a text, the idea still needs to be cited. The phrase “without crediting the source” means that it is okay to use the words and ideas of others, but you have to cite the source to avoid committing plagiarism.

Types of plagiarism

Plagiarism takes various forms. It ranges from reusing an entire document to rewriting a single paragraph. In the end, all types of plagiarism come down to passing off someone else's ideas or words as your own.

1. **Copy-and-paste plagiarism**

Copy-and-paste plagiarism, also known as direct plagiarism, means using a paragraph from another source without a citation. If you really want to include a passage from another source word for word, you should learn how to quote it.

2. **Mosaic plagiarism**

Copying and pasting different pieces of text together to create a kind of "mosaic" or "patchwork" of other researchers' ideas is plagiarism. Although the result is a completely new piece of text, the words and ideas aren't new.

3. **Self-plagiarism**

When you use parts of your previous work (e.g. a paper, a literature review or a dataset) without properly citing it, you commit what's called self-plagiarism. Although it sounds a bit crazy to be penalized for plagiarizing your own work, you should know that it is done because it goes against the expectations of the readers of your paper. They expect the work to be original.

4. **Global plagiarism**

When you use someone else's paper, you are committing plagiarism because you are pretending that the words and ideas are yours. Using someone else's work includes, for example, having a friend or family writes the text for you or buying an essay from a so-called essay mill.

Consequences of plagiarism

The consequences of plagiarism depend on the type of plagiarism and whether you are a first-year student, an experienced academic or a working professional. These are some possible consequences of plagiarism:

- Failing the course
- Expulsion or suspension from your university
- Copyright infringement
- Ruined reputation and potentially the end of your career

How to avoid plagiarism

To avoid plagiarism, simply follow these two steps:

- 1) Quote, paraphrase or summarize the words or ideas from someone else.
- 2) Give credit to the original source by including a citation in the text and the reference list.

Now the question arises that what information needs to be cited and the answer is that not all the information you use needs to be cited. Some information is considered common knowledge. Common knowledge is information that most people know.

Example

- 1) Donald Trump was the president of the United States.
- 2) The Amazon is the world's largest tropical rainforest.

The concept seems simple, but common knowledge can differ from person to person. Therefore, you should ask yourself who your readers are and what they consider to be common knowledge.

Detecting plagiarism

Detecting plagiarism isn't too difficult. Either the reader of your text notices a change in tone and writing style when reading a passage or uses plagiarism detection tools. These days, all documents submitted to a university or journal is automatically checked for plagiarism using software like Turnitin. Turnitin is the leading company in plagiarism detection software. Institutions make use of plagiarism checkers, and you can too!

Functioning of plagiarism checkers

Plagiarism checkers compare your document to a database of existing texts. The plagiarism software searches for similarities and highlights passages that contain potential plagiarism. Not all

Unit 08: Basics of reports and research papers: overview of a research paper, selection of a research paper, plagiarism, citing sources, publication sources

plagiarism checkers are reliable. Where one plagiarism checker detects 2% plagiarism, another might detect 45% plagiarism. The accuracy of plagiarism depends on two things:

1. Database size

Some plagiarism checkers only compare the uploaded document with web pages, while others also check books, publications and papers from other students.

2. Plagiarism algorithm

Most plagiarism checkers are only capable of detecting exact similarities. However, if the sentence structure is changed, if synonyms are used or if two sources are combined, most plagiarism checkers won't detect the plagiarism.

8.4 Citing Sources

A Bibliography is a list of books and papers that are read or consulted; it shows the breadth of your reading and acts as a suggested list for further reading on the topic. There is no space in a journal for a bibliography.

References, On the other hand, are books and papers that are mention hot site in your paper. They are used to support and extend your argument, and they lend credibility to your work. Sometimes the editor returns your article with comments such as 'Reference?' or 'can you substantiate this statement?' or even 'sweeping statement'. In such cases, it helps to site published work that supports your point. You can see this in Wikipedia articles that are written by anonymous authors; the editor frequently adds a note that says 'citation needed'.

The material used site could be books, journal articles, magazine articles, software programs, websites, etc. References to external sources are especially dense in sections such as the review of the literature. However, they also in the Method section if you discuss a procedure, in the Discussion section when you link your results to those studies, and in the Conclusion if you discuss the research.

There are two parts to a citation: in-text citation and the list of references. When you mention any material in your paper, it is an in-text citation. In the reference list, you give sufficient detail about the publication so that readers can track it down. Disciplines and journals have their own method of citing material and organising the reference list. For instance, in the Social Sciences, author names are given in the text, but in computer science, they are nearly number to save space.

To find out how to site material, you should consult the style guide in your discipline. You should buy a copy of the style guide because you will need to consult it frequently.

- American Psychological Association (APA) for papers in the Social Sciences.
- Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineering's (IEEE) for Computer Science and Engineering.
- Modern Language Association (MLA) for papers in the Humanities.

However, Disciplines may follow a modified version of these styles. For instance, economics seems to follow a modified version of the APA style. In addition, a journal may decide to use a 'house style', which it describes in its Institutions to Authors. Since these guidelines are not comprehensive, it is best to use a sample article and format your references along the same lines.

In-text citations

a) Single author

Gelb (1952) proposes an evolutionary model for writing systems, but it is now accepted that there are six distinct types of writing systems (Daniels, 1996).

b) Multiple sources are listed alphabetically and separated by semi-colons.

The transition into this discourse community involves learning rules of use and 'academic literacy' (Bartholomae, 1985; Johns, 1991).

c) A direct quotation should include the page number.

Collaboration requires 'the coming together of diverse interests and people to achieve a common purpose via interaction, information sharing, and coordination of activities' (Jassawalla and Sashithal, 1998; p.239)

Reference list

To help the reader locate your sources, complete information about the source is given under *References*. This allows readers to check the original source to see if your interpretation is correct or to read the original article for their own work. You should give enough information for the readers to find the source. The sources should be arranged alphabetically by the last name of the first author.



Example

Daniels, P. (1996). The world's writing systems. In P. Daniels and W. Bright (eds.), *The Study of Writing Systems*, (pp. 3-17). New York: Oxford University Press.

Gelb, I. (1952). *A Study of Writing*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

If you do not have access to a library, you may not be able to read the original research paper. Some people cheat and cite the reference as if they have read the original work. The correct procedure is to give the original reference and say *Cited in*.



Example

The use of a schema enables the reader to resort to 'fuzzy parsing' (Burton, 1976; cited in de Beaugrande, 1980)

Under *References*, list both sources in alphabetical order.



Example

Burton, R. (1976). *Semantic Grammars: An Engineering Technique for Constructing Natural Language Understanding Systems*. Cambridge, MA: Bolt, Beranek and Newman (Technical Report No. 3453).

De Beaugrande, R. (1980). *Text, Discourse, and Process: Toward a Multidisciplinary Science of Texts*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Co.

Format of References

A reference has four major elements namely author's name, title of work, source, and year. To get an idea of just how different these styles are, here is a reference written in the three different styles. APA and MLA use the author-date style, i.e., the references are arranged alphabetically; however, IEEE uses the Vancouver style in which the references are listed by the order in which they are mentioned in the text. Notice that the four elements - author's name, title of work, source, and year - are in different positions and each style uses different punctuation marks.



Example

APA Style

- Twigg, A. & Wood, B. (2009). Japanese text entry on mobile phones versus computers. *Journal of Text Entry*, 4, 5, 1-19.

MLA Style

- Twigg, Ann and Wood, Bob. "Japanese text entry on mobile phones versus computers." *Journal of Text Entry*, 4.5 (2009): 1-19.

IEEE Style

- [1] A. Twigg and B. Wood, "Japanese text entry on mobile phones versus computers," *J. Text Entry*, Vol. 4, pp. 1-19, 2009.

8.5 Publication Sources

Publication sources are the sources in which, according to the field of study, you try to get your research work published. Following are the major publication sources categories which serve the purpose.

1. Scholarly publications (Journals)

A scholarly publication contains articles written by experts in a particular field. The primary audience of these articles is other experts. These articles generally report on original research or case studies. Many of these publications are "peer reviewed" or "refereed". This means that scholars in the same field review the research and findings before the article is published. Articles in scholarly publications, in most cases:

- are written by and for faculty, researchers, or other experts in a field
- use scholarly or technical language
- include a full bibliography of sources cited in the article
- are often peer reviewed (refereed)

2. Popular sources (News and Magazines)

There are many occasions on which reading articles from popular sources can help to introduce you to a topic and introduce you to how that topic is being discussed in society. Articles in popular sources, in most cases:

- are written by journalists or professional writers for a general audience
- written in a language that is easy to understand by the general public
- rarely have a bibliography - rather, they are fact-checked through the editorial process of the publication they appear in
- don't assume prior knowledge of a subject area - for this reason, they are often very helpful to read if you don't know a lot about your subject area yet
- may contain an argument, opinion, or analysis of an issue

3. Professional/Trade sources

Trade publications are generally for practitioners. They are focused on a specific field but are not intended to be "scholarly". Rather, they communicated the news and trends in that field. Articles in trade publications, in most cases:

- are written by practitioners in a field (nurses, teachers, social workers, etc)
- use the language (and jargon) of the field

4. Books / Book Chapters

Many academic books will be edited by an expert or group of experts. Often, books are a good source for a thorough investigation of a topic. Unlike a scholarly article, which will usually focus on the results of one research project, a book is likely to include an overview of research or issues related to its topic.

5. Conference proceedings

Conference proceedings are compilations of papers, research, and information presented at conferences. Proceedings are sometimes peer-reviewed and are often the first publication of research that later appears in a scholarly publication (see above!). Proceedings are more commonly encountered (via databases and other searching) in science and engineering fields than in the arts and humanities.

6. Government Documents

The Government Printing Office disseminates information issued by all three branches of the government to federal depository libraries (including NMSU). Additionally, the many departments of the government publish reports, data, statistics, white papers, consumer information, transcripts of hearings, and more. Some of the information published by government offices is technical and scientific. Other information is meant for the general public.

7. Theses & Dissertations

Theses and dissertations are the result of an individual student's research while in a graduate program. They are written under the guidance and review of an academic committee but are not considered "peer-reviewed" or "refereed" publications.

Summary

- The research paper is part of the Academic tradition.
- It is normally written by University faculties, who conduct research and write up their findings in an article that they sent to a research journal in their area of expertise.
- A research paper is not a report.
- A report is an expository text that collects and presents information.
- A research paper, unlike a report, is an argumentative text.
- To submit a research paper in a paid journal is a good start for beginners.
- Researchers must go through *Instructions to Author* section before submitting the manuscript.
- Data is at the heart of every paper without which the paper would become a mere piece of opinion.
- The analysis of data will depend on the theoretical or conceptual framework that makes the paper logical and acceptable.
- Review of the literature must not be outdated or irrelevant.
- Statistical analysis must be apt and correct.
- Before submitting the paper to any journal, the researcher should check its focus, content, matrix, impact factor, discoverability, publication cost, review process, and production process.
- Plagiarism is to steal and pass off (the ideas or words of another) as one's own: to use (another's production) without crediting the source.
- There are four types of plagiarism – copy-and-pest, mosaic, self, and global plagiarism.
- Plagiarism may ruin the reputation and career of the researcher.
- A Bibliography is a list of books and papers that are read or consulted.
- References are books and papers that are mention hot site in your paper.
- There are two parts to a citation: in-text citation and the list of references.
- There are three major style guides - American Psychological Association (APA) for papers in the Social Sciences, Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineering's (IEEE) for Computer Science and Engineering, and Modern Language Association (MLA) for papers in the Humanities.
- Publication sources are the sources in which, according to the field of study, you try to get your research work published.
- Major publication sources are scholarly publication, popular sources, professional or trade sources, books, book chapters, conference proceedings, government documents, thesis and dissertations.

Keywords: basics, report, research, selection, plagiarism, citation, publication, sources

Self Assessment

1. What do you understand by a research paper?
 - A. Research attempt
 - B. A persuasive text
 - C. An argumentative text
 - D. An expository text

2. Research paper is a framework that places the work within an established field.
 - A. conceptual or theoretical
 - B. effective or meticulous
 - C. subjective or objective
 - D. illusive or exemplifying

3. What is the most essential feature of any research paper?
 - A. Effectiveness
 - B. Regularity

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- C. Novelty
 - D. Narrativity
4. Review of literature is
- A. To research literature on a particular topic
 - B. To identify the authentic sources on the topic
 - C. To locate literary texts to enhance knowledge about the topic
 - D. None of the above
5. Variables should be set according to
- A. the research requirements
 - B. the audience requirements
 - C. the organization requirement
 - D. the time and place requirement
6. The research topic must be enough to find adequate information.
- A. contemporary
 - B. interesting
 - C. narrow
 - D. broad
7. What should at first be checked before finalizing any topic?
- A. Theory
 - B. Fesibility
 - C. Concept
 - D. Organizational guidelines
8. Thesis statement states that what is to be
- A. written and asked
 - B. inquire and search for
 - C. answered and proven
 - D. search and illustrate
9. What can make a select topic difficult to be researched?
- A. Local confinement
 - B. Relevance and aptness
 - C. Old concepts and theories
 - D. Unique concepts and theories
10. What can define plagiarism out of the following?
- A. To use other's words or ideas and present it as one's own
 - B. To use another's production without crediting the source
 - C. To commit literary theft
 - D. All of the above
11. Which style sheet should be used for qualitative research work?
- A. APA
 - B. MLA
 - C. CMOS
 - D. CHICAGO
12. What is work cited?
- A. List of illustrations that goes at the end of any research paper
 - B. List of primary texts that goes at the end of any research paper
 - C. List of sources that goes at the end of any research paper
 - D. List of primary and secondary texts that goes at the end of any research paper
13. Identify the good source for citing in any research paper?
- A. Renowned University Presses
 - B. Major Publishing Houses
 - C. Government Websites
 - D. All of the above

14. What is the process of research paper publication?
 - A. Submission, Review, Acceptance
 - B. Submission, Review, Decision
 - C. Submission, Decision, Review
 - D. Submission, Decision, Resubmission, Acceptance
15. What comes after resubmission in research paper publication process?
 - A. Rejection
 - B. Acceptance
 - C. Re-review
 - D. None of the above
16. are written by practitioners and for practitioners.
 - A. Primary sources
 - B. Trade sources
 - C. Secondary sources
 - D. Internet sources

Answer for Self Assessment

- | | | | | |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. C | 2. A | 3. C | 4. A | 5. D |
| 6. D | 7. B | 8. C | 9. A | 10. D |
| 11. B | 12. C | 13. D | 14. B | 15. C |
| 16. B | | | | |

Review Questions:

1. Differentiate between report and research paper.
2. Discuss the features of a research paper.
3. What to look at before submission of a research paper?
4. What are the important points to be remembered while preparing and submitting a research paper?
5. What is literature review?
6. What do you understand by the review of literature?
7. What is annotated review of literature?
8. How to make review of literature meaningful and relevant?
9. How to select a suitable topic for a research paper?
10. Discuss literary orientation and feasibility in terms of research paper writing.
11. Discuss the need and importance of flexibility and availability of material in relation with research paper writing.
12. What is thesis statement?
13. What makes a paper topic difficult to research?
14. Discuss the helpful resources for research paper writing.
15. What is plagiarism?
16. How to avoid plagiarism while writing a research paper?
17. How to cite in MLA style sheet pattern? Give suitable example.
18. How to cite in APA style sheet pattern? Give suitable example.
19. Explain how to cite in indirect quote, direct quote, paraphrasing, and from an online source. Give suitable example.
20. What is work cited?
21. Give suitable examples to cite a book, essay or chapter from a book, article, website, and page on a website in a research paper.
22. What are the important points to be remembered before finalizing the research paper?
23. Discuss the good and bad sources to collect information for research paper writing.
24. Discuss in detail the process of publication.
25. What are the various sources of publication?



Further Reading

A Course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd.

English Grammar by Rajeevan Karal, Oxford University Press

A course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd.

English Grammar by Rajeevan Karal, Oxford University Press

Oxford EAP: A Course in English for Academic Purposes by Edward De Chazal And Sam Mccarter, Oxford University Press

MLA Handbook by Modern Language Association of America, Modern Language Association

Unit 09: Presenting your Ideas: Presentation, Components of a Presentation, when to Read or Speak, Preparation

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CONTENTS

Objectives:

Introduction

- 9.1 What is a Presentation?
- 9.2 Importance of Presentation Skills
- 9.3 Purpose of a Presentation
- 9.4 Structuring your Presentation
- 9.5 10 - 20 - 30 Rule
- 9.6 6 x 6 Rule
- 9.7 Components of a presentation
- 9.8 When to Read or to Speak
- 9.9 Preparation

Summary

Keywords:

Self Assessment

Answer for Self Assessment

Review Questions:

Further Reading

Objectives:

- understand the purpose and components of presentation
- illustrate the components of presentation
- analyze where to read or speak in the presentation
- elucidate how to prepare for the presentation

Introduction

Presenting information clearly and effectively is a key skill in getting your message across. Presentation skills can be defined as a set of abilities that enable an individual to: interact with the audience; transmit the messages with clarity; engage the audience in the presentation; and interpret and understand the mindsets of the listeners. These skills refine the way you put forward your messages and enhance your persuasive powers.

Presentations have become an integral part of professional life. Academics present research papers at conferences; in business organizations, people present their proposals and reports within the organization or to clients; and government officials present their recommendations to their supervisors or the public. Even consultants have to present their work to the organization if they want to get paid. Since presentations have become such an important part of the workplace, universities and even schools have begun preparing students by showing them how to plan and present their work to an audience. The present era places great emphasis on good presentation skills. This is because they play an important role in convincing the clients and customers. Internally, management with good presentation skills is better able to communicate the mission and vision of the organization to the employees.

Today, presentation skills are required in almost every field, and most of us are required to give presentations on occasions. While some people take this in their stride, others find it much more challenging. It is, however, possible to improve your presentation skills with a bit of work.

9.1 What is a Presentation?

A presentation is a means of communication that can be adapted to various speaking situations, such as talking to a group, addressing a meeting or briefing a team. It can also be used as a broad term that encompasses other 'speaking engagements' such as making a speech at a wedding, or getting a point across in a video conference. To be effective, step-by-step preparation and the method and means of presenting the information should be carefully considered.

A presentation requires you to get a message across to the listeners and will often contain a 'persuasive' element. It may, for example, be a talk about the positive work of your organisation, what you could offer an employer, or why you should receive additional funding for a project.

The formal presentation of information is divided into two broad categories: Presentation Skills and Personal Presentation. These two aspects are interwoven and can be described as the preparation, presentation and practice of verbal and non-verbal communication.

9.2 Importance of Presentation Skills

Interaction with others is a routine job of businesses in today's world. The importance of good presentation skills is established on the basis of following points:

They help an individual in enhancing his own growth opportunities. In addition, it also grooms the personality of the presenter and elevates his levels of confidence.

In case of striking deals and gaining clients, it is essential for the business professionals to understand the audience. Good presentation skills enable an individual to mold his message according to the traits of the audience. This increases the probability of successful transmission of messages.

Lastly, business professionals have to arrange seminars and give presentations almost every day. Having good presentation skills not only increases an individual's chances of success, but also enables him to add greatly to the organization.

9.3 Purpose of a Presentation

An oral presentation may appear to be unnecessary duplication. After all, you have written a dissertation or a research paper, a memo or a report. People can read your document. Why do they ask you to talk about it? There are four situations in which why you may be called on to present your work.

- a) **Establishes your credibility:** The viva voce for a Master or Ph. D. degree fulfils this function and ensures that you are the actual author of the dissertation.
- b) **Helps to get feedback:** It gives authors a forum where they can get feedback. This happens in conferences where researchers present work in progress; based on feedback from the audience, they revise the paper and publish it in a journal.
- c) **Disseminating information:** Oral presentations are an effective way to disseminate information; it is a short summary for busy people.
- d) **Helps in decision making:** This is crucial in business organizations where time is important; the group can make an immediate decision after an oral presentation.

9.4 Structuring your Presentation

What is a structure?

Structure is important because a well organized presentation creates an impression that you know what you are talking about-you will gain the audience's trust and they will be more likely to listen to you. A structure provides a logical flow so that you can provide the information that the audience needs to follow your presentation. The structure will help you become more comfortable

following this flow. There is a natural structure to presenting and the following structure formalizes this process.

1. Purpose

To determine your purpose ask "What are the main points I want my audience to take away from my presentation"? This provides focus for you and the audience is clear on what they will gain listening to your presentation.

2. Audience pre-assessment

It is important to identify the characteristics, knowledge and needs of your audience so that you are delivering the 'right' presentation to the 'right' audience. Know who your audience is, what they want/need to know and what their background is. This step is done before the presentation or throughout.

3. Opening your Presentation/Bridge

This is also known as the hook. It is designed to grab the audience's attention and provide them with a reason to be interested in the presentation.

4. Body of Presentation

This is the major portion of the presentation. It is necessary that it connects directly to your purpose or bridge. Cover enough points to achieve your purpose (no more) and be sure to support your points clearly and concisely.

5. Closing your Presentation

This is the final impression that you will leave with your audience-make sure it is a strong one. Connect back to your purpose and let them know where you have been. Leave your audience with a clear understanding of your points.

9.5 10 - 20 - 30 Rule

In 2005, Guy Kawasaki, a venture capitalist in Silicon Valley wrote on his blog about a rule of thumb in making great presentations. Focusing on conciseness and visibility, he suggested the 10 - 20 - 30 Rule of PowerPoint Presentations.

1. 10 Slides

By having a limit of 10 slides, you will be managing the cognitive load for your audiences. They can easily follow the flow of your presentations. It also challenges you to design your presentations well: choose what's important and leave out what's unnecessary

2. 20 Minutes

By giving yourself limited time on your presentation, you are challenging yourself to leave out unnecessary details and focus on the important stories that will convey your message. Even if your session has been allotted with more time, you can devote the remaining minutes to discussions, questions or any technique that involves audiences with your presentation. There are events and organizations that specialize in presentations with time constraints such as Pecha Kucha and the Three-Minute Thesis.

3. 30-size Font

Depending on the room and screen size, most audiences will be able to see text that is at least 30-size font. When designing your presentation, keep in mind that anything you show must be visible to everybody in attendance, especially those in the back.

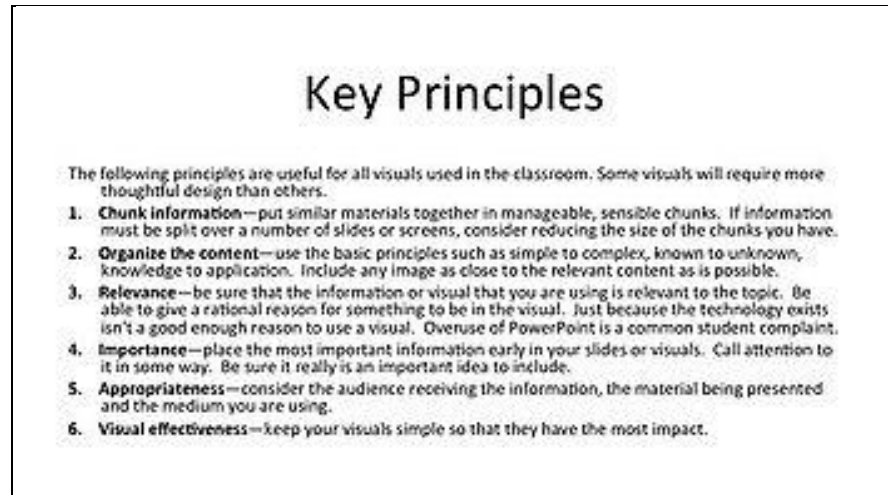
If you are concerned about fitting more text in a slide, always remember they do not necessarily make a better presentation.

Keep in mind that these rules are very subjective and each situation is unique. Apply them as a good rule of thumb to guide you in planning your presentations. Other circumstances may come and you need to be flexible however, have your visible and concise presentations.

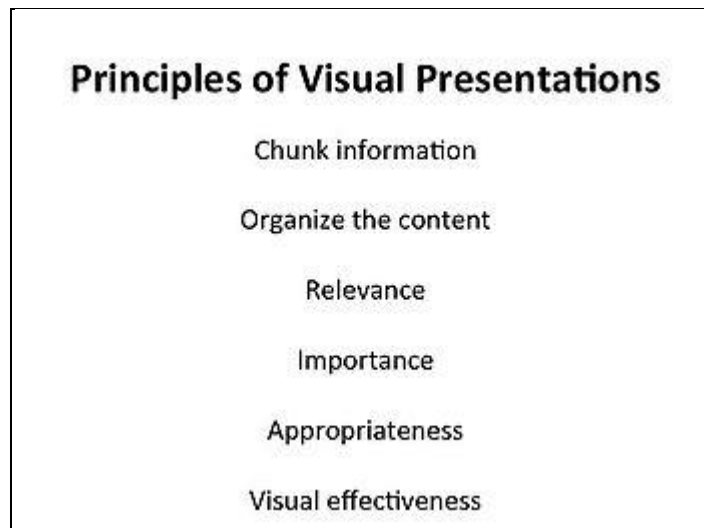
9.6 6 x 6 Rule

Following the 6 x 6 rule, limits any text to 6 words per line and 6 lines per slide. Similar to the 10 - 20 - 30 rules, it focuses on readability and conciseness.

When used effectively, text can be useful in conveying ideas in presentations. Too much text though can look monotonous and tiring for audiences to read. You are reminded to distill your thoughts into short lines and use your presence to expand into more detail. Audiences are there to listen and watch you, not read your slides.



The above slide is very text heavy using a small-sized font



The above slide is visually less cluttered and allows audiences to see the main ideas immediately.

9.7 Components of a presentation

There are three primary parts to an oral presentation:

1. The speech

It is the most important. The average time for a presentation is 15 to 20 minutes because the audience's attention span dwindles after 15 minutes. However, the length of the presentation depends on the situation. Whatever the time limit, it is a limit; the audience gets restless if you go over the time limit and moderators Mein cut you off.

15 minutes sounds like a lot of time, but you will find that it goes very fast if you have something important to say. Hands, you need to plan and maybe even rehearse you are speech to make sure that you do not go over the time limit.

By convention, you speak uninterrupted during your presentation. Listeners have to save their comments and questions for the question and answer session that follows.

2. Question and answer session

After you finished speaking, the audience can ask questions to stop this is the difficult part because you have to listen carefully and answer to the point. The amount of time varies; in a conference, 5 minutes is the norm because this allows the audience to ask you to clarify for explain specific points you have made; if people are interested in further details, they speak with you after you have left the podium. In situations where a decision has to be made, this session lasts much longer to discuss critical points.

What is the purpose of the question and answer session?

In a dissertation why the question and answer session is an opportunity for professors to test the candidates understanding of the content. In other situations the presentation is really like a classroom lecture; the audience listens and tries to gain knowledge for their own purposes. However, many people misunderstand the purpose of the question and answer session was stopped people in the audience sometimes think that this is an opportunity for them to give a speech or they treat it as a confrontation and attack the presenter. The role of the moderator is crucial here in making sure that the presenter is not bullied and that the discussion remains on track; (s) he has to step in and firmly cut off the questioner.

3. Handouts

Some present IAS like to prepare handouts for the audience. Handouts have several advantages. Some people are more visual and prefer reading to listening. Those who missed your talk can get a version through the handout and it is good reference material for people who attended your talk. In a small group that has to arrive at a decision, handouts make sure that everyone can refer to a document for the discussion.

Handouts can be distributed either before or after the talk. If you distribute them before the talk per the audience can make notes on the handout, which is particularly helpful in decision-making contexts; the disadvantage in normal presentation is that the audience will be reading the hand out rather than listening to you. Most presenters refer to distribute handouts after the presentation, where it serves as a take away for the audience.

9.8 When to Read or to Speak

Experienced speakers can stand up and talk without the benefit of notes or slides, and charismatic speakers can hold the attention of the audience for an hour. Most of us lose our weight during a talk forget points, stumble over numbers, and suffer from Stage Fright.

There are two tools that can help you through an oral presentation. You can read out a paper or you can rely on transparencies/slides.

1. Reading out a paper

Some present IAS right out the entire speech including notes like 'pause here' and then read it out to the audience. This helps nervous presenters who think they may forget what they have to say or do not want to look at the audience. Besides being boring coma such a presentation is slow - people can read your paper faster than you can read it out loud.

2. Using transparencies or slides

You can write important for dense information on transparency is or slice, project them on a screen and talk about the information. This method Falls between a speech with no notes and reading an entire paper out loud. Important information is put on the slides so that the speaker does not forget them; at the same time, the speaker can talk in a natural manner about this information.

9.9 Preparation

The first and obvious step in preparing your presentation is to gather material. Once you have the material of what do you do with it?

First, think about your audience. Who is the talk for? How much do they know and much should they know? This decides the type and level of information that you provide.

Second, organise your information. Use index cards for PowerPoint to organise your points. You need to tell a coherent story.

1. Creating slides

At this point, you start thinking in terms of what the audience will see projected on a screen. You can use overhead transparencies or a software program like PowerPoint; it depends on the technology available to you. This section discusses how to use PowerPoint but many of the principles are simpler than overhead transparencies.

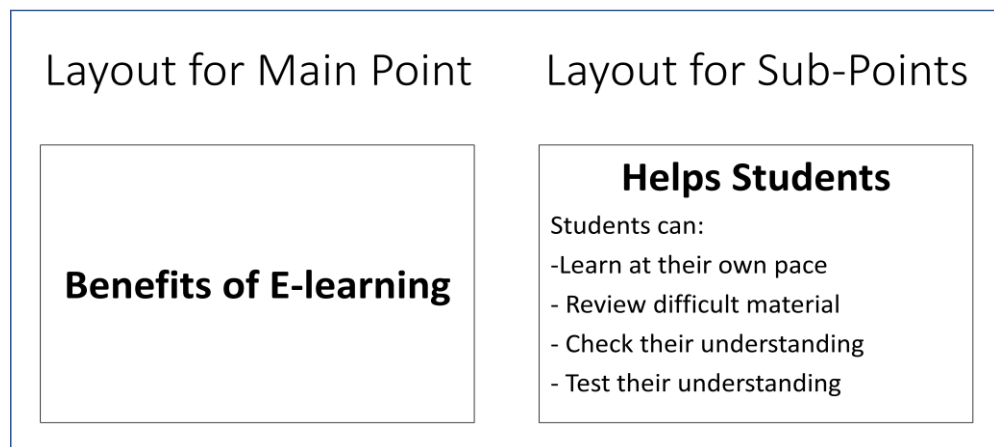
2. Purpose of the slides

PowerPoint is useful for three reasons. First, your speech is backed up by text for listeners who prefer to read. Second, you do not have to remember information or read from a paper - the slides act as your map and a memory aid. But the most important reason is that you can project information that cannot be conveyed through speaking or text. You can embed and play audio files, video clips, animations and simulations. For example, in Economics, you can show changes in a graph through simulations, and in communication skills, you can play a video of a scenario.

3. Designing the slides

The overarching rule is that your slides should be clear. Use a clear structure, bullets, and plenty of white space. The number of slides is roughly one slide for introduction, one slide for the organisation of the talk, a few slides as per the requirement for the body, and one slide for the conclusion. In most cases, 10 slides are enough to give an ideal presentation. The bulk of the slides come in the body and depends on the amount of time you have for your presentation.

Structuring the body of the talk presents problems peculiar to PowerPoint. The structure of the talk can get lost as one slide follows another similar looking slide. The distinction between main points and sub-points is easily lost and the hierarchical structure gets flattened. To get over this problem, we use different layouts for main points and sub-points. The following figure will clarify the point.

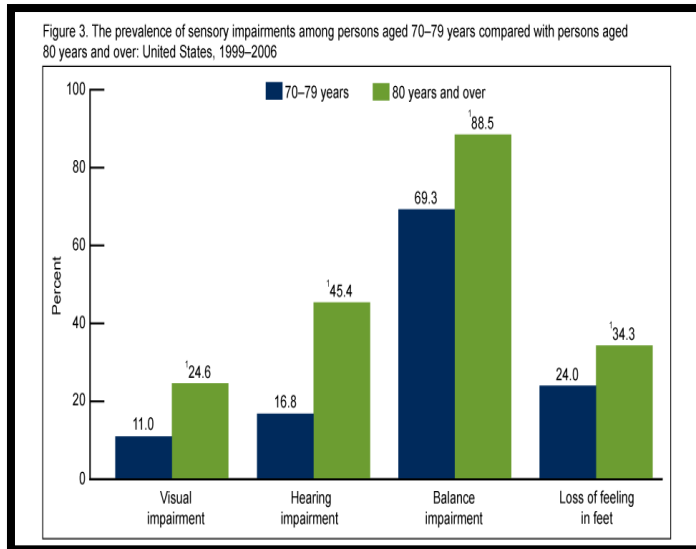


4. Displaying data

If you use any kind of data, you cannot really talk about it; the audience needs an image or text that they can follow. Imagine trying to describe a graph that no one can see; it will make no sense. Data that is displayed has another advantage, this one for the present. Instead of stumbling over complicated numbers, you can point to the slide and nearly say,

'the numbers show....' or 'these are the dimensions'. The slides will give the audience the hard facts, seeing you talk about the important aspects.

When you create a visual, select a format that is easy to understand. It is difficult to read tables fast, so, if possible, convert them into another format, such as a graph or a map. Below are two ways to show data: in a figure and as a table. Notice that it is easier to understand the image than to work your way through the numbers in the table.



Data in a Bar-Chart

GDP, based on exchange rates, over time. Values in billion USDs.

	2003	2002	2001	2000	1999	1998
USA	10,882	10,383	10,020	9,762	9,213	8,720
EU	10,970	9,040	8,303	8,234	8,901	8,889
UK	1,765	1,564	1,430	1,438	1,460	1,423
China	1,575	1,434	1,345	1,252	1,158	1,148
India	599	510	479	457	447	414

Data in a Table

5. Notes and Handouts

If you really cannot do without a written text, you can make notes on a few index cards. Do not use too many index cards because they can get mixed up. In *PowerPoint* you can type your notes into the *Notes* section. When you print out this section, you will have a copy of each slide with the relevant notes for your talk. As handouts, you can print out your slides (say, six slides on one page). A more useful handout is a one-page sheet that summarizes the main points of your talk.

How to Improve Presentation Skills

Development of good presentation skills requires efforts and hard work. To improve your presentation skills, you must:

- Research the Audience before Presenting: This will enable you to better understand the traits of the audience. You can then develop messages that can be better understood by your target audience. For instance, in case of an analytical audience, you can add more facts and figures in your presentation.
- Structure your Presentation Effectively: The best way to do this is to start with telling the audience, in the introduction, what you are going to present. Follow this by presenting the idea, and finish off the presentation by repeating the main points.
- Do a lot of Practice: Rehearse but do not go for memorizing the presentation. Rehearsals reduce your anxiety and enable you to look confident on the presentation day. Make sure you practice out loud, as it enables you to identify and eliminate errors more efficiently. Do not memorize anything as it will make your presentation look mechanical. This can reduce the degree of audience engagement.

Summary

- A presentation is a means of communication that can be adapted to various speaking situations, such as talking to a group, addressing a meeting or briefing a team.
- The importance of good presentation skills is that it helps an individual in enhancing his own growth opportunities.
- Presentation skills groom the personality of the presenter and elevate his/her levels of confidence.
- Good presentation skills enable an individual to mold his message according to the traits of the audience.
- The purpose of presentation is to establish your credibility, to help the individual to get feedback, to disseminating information, and to help the forum/committee in decision-making.
- A structure provides a logical flow so that you can provide the information that the audience needs to follow your presentation.
- Purpose, audience pre-assessment, opening your presentation/bridge, body of presentation, and closing your presentation, are the points to formulize the structure.
- There are three primary parts to an oral presentation: the speech, question and answer session, and handouts.
- There are two tools that can help you through an oral presentation. You can read out a paper or you can rely on transparencies/slides.
- The first and obvious steps in preparing your presentation are to gather material, think about your audience, and organise your information.
- To improve your presentation skills, you must research the audience before presenting, structure your presentation effectively, and do a lot of practice.

Keywords: presentation, ideas, purpose, components, preparation, read

Self Assessment

1. Why do we need to present?
 - A. To establish credibility
 - B. To show your talent
 - C. To satisfy the organizational needs
 - D. To research

2. Identify the purpose of presentation out of the following options.
 - A. Getting feedback from the academic heads
 - B. Getting approval from market experts/committee
 - C. Getting feedback from experts/forum/committee
 - D. None of the above

3. Presentation is an effective way to information and saves that helps the administrative/governing bodies to take immediate decision.
 - A. disforest, money
 - B. disintegrate, labor
 - C. disassociate, money
 - D. disseminate, time
4. What is the component of any presentation?
 - A. Time or length
 - B. Expense or need
 - C. Security or satisfaction
 - D. Research or publication
5. Questions and answers session is also know as.....
 - A. Fruitful session
 - B. Group discussion session
 - C. Interaction Session
 - D. Clarification session
6. For more clarification, audience may talk to the speaker once he/she the podium.
 - A. Fruitful session
 - B. Group discussion session
 - C. Interaction Session
 - D. Clarification session
7. How does someone who missed a portion of one's presentation get clarity?
 - A. By discussing with others
 - B. By reading
 - C. By handouts
 - D. By gathering information
8. Why do people forget points, take pauses, perspire, and struggle while giving presentation or delivering speech?
 - A. Due to lack of understanding
 - B. Due to stage fear
 - C. Due to physical disability
 - D. Due to lack of research
9. What is considered a wrong practice while giving presentation?
 - A. Listening to the experts patiently
 - B. Speaking in a low voice
 - C. Reading out the paper
 - D. None of the above

10. What can be proved helpful in presentation?
- A. Transparencies
 - B. Good looks
 - C. Excellent outfits
 - D. Very detailed and long presentation
11. Slides, used in any presentation, should be at the same time?
- A. decked and designer
 - B. elaborative and expensive
 - C. satisfying and interesting
 - D. reflective and interactive
12. What is required to prepare for the presentation?
- A. Financial management
 - B. Collect relevant information
 - C. Higher expert services
 - D. Getting favor from the higher authorities
13. What are the important points one should think about the audience while preparing for the presentation?
- A. Who is the talk for
 - B. How much do they know
 - C. How much they should know
 - D. All of the above
14. What is important after gathering the relevant information?
- A. To organize
 - B. To address
 - C. To inform the authorities
 - D. To acknowledge
15. Slides prepared for the presentation should be but
- A. interesting, detailed
 - B. well formatted, designer
 - C. informative, less crowded
 - D. illustrative, more interactive

Answer for Self Assessment

- | | | | | |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. A | 2. C | 3. D | 4. A | 5. C |
| 6. B | 7. C | 8. B | 9. C | 10. A |
| 11. D | 12. B | 13. D | 14. A | 15. C |

Review Questions:

1. What is the purpose of presentation?
2. Why do we need to present?
3. What are the components of presentation?
4. What is stage fear?
5. What is considered as a wrong practice while giving any presentation?
6. Discuss the helpful tools for a presentation.
7. What to keep in mind while preparing for the presentation?



Further Reading

A Course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd.

English Grammar by Rajeevan Karal, Oxford University Press

A course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd.

English Grammar by Rajeevan Karal, Oxford University Press

Oxford EAP: A Course in English for Academic Purposes by Edward De Chazal And Sam Mccarter, Oxford University Press

MLA Handbook by Modern Language Association of America, Modern Language Association

Unit 10: Presenting your Ideas: before the Podium, Handling Questions, Strategic Planning

Digvijay Pandya, Lovely Professional University

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Objectives:

Introduction

10.1 Before the talk

10.2 On the Podium

10.3 Handling Questions

10.4 Strategic Planning

Summary

Keywords:

Self Assessment

Answer for Self Assessment

Review Questions:

Further Reading

Objectives:

- Understand how to prepare and what to prepare for before giving presentation/talk
- Illustrate important points to be remember while giving presentation/talk
- Analyze how to handle questions in a presentation/talk
- Elucidate how to plan your presentation strategically

Introduction

Presentations are forks in the road. If you succeed in your objectives, you may open the door to a new job, a promotion, a funding for your latest venture, or good grades but if you fail, you could leave with a damaged reputation and a lost opportunity. The stakes are too high for you to go on stage and wing it.

Unfortunately, most students/professionals don't know how to effectively prepare for a presentation. They focus all their energy on making colorful PowerPoint slides, or try to memorize specific facts with which to wow the audience, rather than taking a look at the fundamental environment in which they will be presenting.

10.1 Before the Talk

Before you even start creating the outline of your presentation, be sure you're asking these seven questions:

1. Who is the audience?

This is the first question you should ask, and you shouldn't always assume you know the answer. Pretend you're an entrepreneur and you have a new product, and a friend of yours asks you to present it for his company. It could be your friend and a few of his coworkers you're meeting with, but it could also be the president and board of directors.

Each situation would require a different approach and a different level of formality. Understand exactly what types of people are going to constitute your audience--otherwise, you could end up writing for the wrong crowd.

2. How big is the audience?

This is another important question that will help you prepare effectively, though it's more about the actual presentation than the writing process itself. With a large audience, you'll need to be concise, direct, and fast-paced to keep their attention, looking around the room for eye contact and generally going about your presentation with minimal interruptions. With a small audience, you'll have to pace your presentation more slowly, pausing for potential questions from the audience and gearing your body language to engage fewer participants. If you don't know the exact number attending, a range is often suitable here.

3. Where will you be presenting?

This will help you determine how to prepare. Imagine you have a prototype of your new product, and you're going to be presenting before a small group of people. If you'll be meeting around a table in a small boardroom, you can bring the prototype itself and show it off firsthand to your audience. If you're in a large auditorium, however, you'll need a much bigger, visually accessible medium for your distant audience. Knowing the location will also allow you to understand and prepare your voice for the acoustics of the room.

4. What materials will be available to you?

First, think of all the basics. Let's say you have a PowerPoint presentation ready--will you bring it on a flash drive, or will you need to bring a laptop in? Will they even have the proper equipment to hook your device up to a projector? Will they have a microphone system or will you need to project your voice? Is there a podium or a stage, or is it a more informal gathering? These questions will help you understand what you need to bring as well as how to prepare your presentation.

5. How long will you have to speak?

This is a critical question that too many people overlook. It is never safe to assume how long you'll have to speak. If your audience is expecting your presentation to last a few minutes and you end up going half an hour, you could bore them to death. If it's supposed to be more than an hour and it's only a half hour, you'll look like you don't have much worthwhile material. Either way, you'll look underprepared, so find out the ideal length of a presentation and practice it until you're confident that you're well within the time constraints. Knowing exactly how much time you'll have is one of the most fundamental (and important) presentation tips.

6. Practice your talk

Although you may have created slides for your presentation, the audience comes to hear you and not to read your slides. So, you need to rehearse your speech. Practice your talk imagining that you are speaking in front of an audience. Time the talk to make sure that you do not go over the time limit.

7. Will there be a Q&A afterward?

If you walk into a presentation and get hit with a Q&A session you aren't prepared for, you could be assaulted with tough questions that undermine whatever reputation you built up during the course of your initial speech. Find out if there's a Q&A session afterward, and find out approximately how long it will last.

Think of the hardest possible questions someone could ask you, and have answers ready for each and every one of them. Anticipate questions you may be asked. A trick is to keep

some material in reserve, so that you can dazzle the audience with your off-the-cuff brilliance.

8. Who else is speaking?

Unlike the other questions in this list, this question won't ruin you if you don't know the answer. Your presentation won't change much based on who else is presenting before or after you, but knowing the answer will help you better understand the dynamics of the event. For example, if you're the only speaker, there's going to be more pressure on you than if you are only one in six. It won't kill you, but it's worth knowing in advance.

9. Do not just read from the slide

The audience is capable of doing it for themselves. Instead, use the slides as your guide. In case you lose your way during the talk, the slides will bring you back on track.

10. Do not depend on the technology only

Be aware that you depend on technology, and technology may fail. The electricity may fail; another common glitch is that the computer may work but the projector may not. So, have a backup plan ready. Carry a printout and handouts. Carry a copy of your presentation on a thumb drive; you can also email the file to yourself if there are facilities to download it from the internet at the other end.

Hopefully, you can answer most of these questions on your own or with a bit of research. If not, ask the person who invited you to present, or call the venue to get more specific information. These should always be your first step in preparing a presentation, and only then should you move onto sketching an initial draft. The better prepared you are, and the more you know about the circumstances of your presentation, the better you'll perform in the end.

10.2 On the Podium

Standing at a podium and reading your script has the potential to create a boring, un-engaging, and frustratingly long experience for your audience. Here's how to make sure that doesn't happen when you are the speaker.

A lot of people are nervous about doing an oral presentation because they have never spoken in front of an audience. We are more used to a system where children should be seen and not heard or the nail that sticks out will be hammered down. This is not a problem for groups of people – teachers and actors. Teachers speak to groups every day of their working lives, and they enjoy it. This is because they are not focused on the impression they are making but on getting their message across. Actors are also comfortable speaking in public; if you are extremely nervous, imagine that you are acting on stage. Before you begin your talk, take a deep breath, relax and try to enjoy yourself.

When you are asked to speak at a meeting, conference or event, you may not have time to prepare and practice adequately, which requires you to bring – and use – your speaking notes. You may also be given the option of using a podium.

It depends on how you use the podium. Because how you use the podium will be the difference between a bored, unengaged, frustrated audience....and an audience that has just had a meaningful, valuable experience – because of you!

Here is the problem. All too often, when a speaker is standing at a podium and reading a speech, they may speak in a rushed, disinterested or monotonous voice, barely look at the audience, and fidget their way through the speech. Hands may tap on the podium, legs may dance around, and any show of emotion can be nonexistent. On top of that, reading notes can drain the energy of the room if the speaker isn't making eye contact, and as a result, isn't connecting with their audience.

If you have got a presentation coming up where you know that you'll be speaking at a podium and using your notes, you've got to balance your need to present in a way that's comfortable for you, with the need to keep your audience engaged, interested, and connected with you and your topic.

With that in mind, here are 8 essential elements to remember when you're going to speak from a podium using notes and still create a meaningful and engaging experience for your audience:

1. Impact Words

Go through your script and pull out the words that you want to emphasize for impact. If you read your speech out loud – which you should certainly make the time to do before the big day – take note of which words or phrases require extra impact. This has the dual benefit of working as a 'monotone avoidance mechanism', ensuring that you modulate your voice and keep it more conversational, and will highlight important points for the audience's benefit. Consider putting these words in Bold or all caps, so that they are easy for you to see on your script.

2. Eye Contact

Look at your audience when you say "you" or "we", when discussing a shared vision, telling a story, and during your introduction and conclusion, and you'll have a better chance of connecting, and staying connected, with them. Consider circling these words in your script, or creating another scripting cue that will remind you to look up from your script.

3. Speech Awareness

Be aware of your speaking speed. Don't speak too quickly. If people miss too many of your words, they will stop listening to you altogether.

4. Authenticity, Enunciation, Pausing and Repeat

If you are speaking quickly because you are excited, or because that is your speaking style that is fine. However, you must ensure that you enunciate your words, do not let them trail off at the end of sentences, and pause more often when you make new points and between transitions. This gives your audience time to 'digest' what you're saying, and more easily follow the flow of your presentation.

5. Voice modulation

Try to avoid a monotone voice, which can happen so much more easily when reading your notes. Vary the speed, pitch and volume at which you speak, so as to keep the speech more interesting to listen to. Your audience will respond better to your content if you present it in a more conversational tone, with more interest and excitement in your voice.

6. Smile

Are you happy to be there? Does it even matter? When you're on stage, you've got to make the effort to look like you appreciate the opportunity to speak to the audience. Try to avoid "serious resting face" that is sometimes [unknowingly] exhibited when you feel nervous.

7. Do's about Body Language

Do's pertaining to your body language: Stand straight, both feet on the ground in a parallel position. Keep both feet behind the podium. Watch your posture. And this bears repeating: Look up at your audience often, make eye contact with people throughout the whole room, and not just those closest to – or smiling at – you.

8. Don'ts about Body Language

Do NOT: Bend your knee back and forth; lean on your hip, your elbow, or lean back on your heel (so that the audience sees the bottom of your shoe); sway side-to-side, or shift back and forth; tap your fingers on the podium or tap your foot on the ground; let your foot stick out the side of the podium; cross your legs; stretch your arms out over the

podium to hold the farthest end of it; hunch your shoulders. And just as a reminder of the point that I'm trying to hammer home in this article: Don't read your entire speech.

As a speaker, are you aware of just how much impact you have on the audience? A presentation is about much more than getting up on stage, giving your speech, and "getting it done." As a speaker, you have the opportunity to educate, inspire and persuade your audience, and create amazing results. So even if you're going to be speaking at a podium and relying on your notes to get through it - remember that it's not only about WHAT you say, but HOW you say it. Make the most of your time in front of your audience, because this time is crucial to the success of your presentation - and to the value that you can pass onto your audience.

10.3 Handling Questions

The questions at the end of a presentation can be terrifying for many speakers as they can't be controlled and are hard to prepare for. However, questions form an important part of the presentation for the whole audience as they allow for clarification and consolidation of learning.

When your presentation is over, people will ask questions and you should be prepared for this. In fact, consider questions a compliment because this means that your presentation was interesting; it is disappointing not to be asked questions.

Think about questions you might be asked and prepare your answers. If you have planned well, you might even have prepared a slide on this and you can say, 'I have a slide here' as you move to that slide.

Another strategy is to save some information for the Q&A session. You cannot include everything in your presentation, so consider keeping some information in reserve that you can bring out in the questions and answer session.

The presenter can enhance the usefulness of the question and answer session by treating it as a formal part of the presentation that requires as much careful planning and control as the delivery of the core material.

Identify possible questions and scope in your preparation

The background work that you undertook whilst planning your presentation is the key to handling questions effectively and understanding what type of audience you'll be faced with. If you have defined a focus for your presentation and have explored this thoroughly in your research and planning, you are more likely to be able to confidently respond to questions.

When planning your presentation, you will need to prepare prompts for questions that are open and straightforward, for example saying "That's the end of my presentation. I'll be taking questions for the next 10 minutes".

You might also want to define topics for discussion before taking questions, by stating the areas you're willing to field questions in. Your preparation will help you identify topics you are not confident with and want to avoid in the questioning.

Setting rules for asking questions

At the start of your presentation, make it clear when you would prefer to deal with questions - as you go along or at the end of the presentation. Some speakers prefer questions to be raised as they arise during the presentation. The advantage of this approach is that any misunderstandings can be dealt with immediately. However, there is also a danger that the question will disrupt or distract the speaker, or that questions are raised that would have been covered later in the presentation. If you leave questions until the end, plan to leave plenty of time for questions so that the audience doesn't feel rushed.

Framework for your response

Answering questions under pressure can make you say things you shouldn't have - the nerves can force you to give an inappropriate response. In your panic you might have misinterpreted the question or given away company information that was sensitive. Use the following framework to help you respond effectively to your audience.

1. Listen to the whole question

You don't have to answer a question immediately. Pause for a few seconds, actively listen to all parts of the question and think about the best way to answer. Frequently questions can change direction at the last moment, particularly if the questioner is thinking on their feet. This can throw you if you have already started to prepare an answer. Remember that questioners will frequently try to make a point whilst asking their question – it's therefore important to both hear the content of the question and try to decipher the questioner's intention.

2. Understand the context

If you are worried that you haven't understood a question, ask them to clarify what they mean. Check for confirmation by paraphrasing the question back to the questioner - "You want me to list the improvements of X."

3. Involve the whole audience

It is important to remember that even though you are taking a question from one member of the audience, you are still responsible for the interest of the other audience members. This is particularly important in large groups as the audience will become bored if the presentation descends into a series of one-to-one discussions.

To involve the rest of the audience, make sure the whole audience has heard and understood the question by repeating it or paraphrasing it to the audience.

4. Respond concisely

While replying a question, better to direct your answer to both the questioner and other members of the audience. Try to keep your responses as focused as possible, leaving space for other questions. To avoid going into too much detail, check back with the questioner to see if you have answered their query - "Does that answer your question in enough detail?"

5. Allow follow-up questions via email

You can also encourage your audience to ask questions after the event has finished by providing your email address. This shows a high level of respect for your audience and implies that the topic still has much further scope for enquiry.

10.4 Strategic Planning

Preparing a presentation can be an overwhelming experience if you allow it to be one. The strategies and steps below are provided to help you break down what you might view as a large job into smaller, more manageable tasks.

1. Analyze your audience

The first step in preparing a presentation is to learn more about the audience to whom you'll be speaking. It's a good idea to obtain some information on the backgrounds, values, and interests of your audience so that you understand what the audience members might expect from your presentation.

2. Select a topic

Next, if possible select a topic that is of interest to the audience and to you. It will be much easier to deliver a presentation that the audience finds relevant, and more enjoyable to research a topic that is of interest to you.

3. Define the objective of the presentation

Once you have selected a topic, write the objective of the presentation in a single concise statement. The objective needs to specify exactly what you want your audience to learn from your presentation. Base the objective and the level of the content on the amount of time you have for the presentation and the background knowledge of the audience. Use this statement to help keep you focused as you research and develop the presentation.

Preparing the Content of Your Presentation

4. Prepare the body of the presentation

After defining the objective of your presentation, determine how much information you can present in the amount of time allowed. Also, use your knowledge about the audience to prepare a presentation with the right level of detail. You don't want to plan a presentation that is too basic or too advanced.

The body of the presentation is where you present your ideas. To present your ideas convincingly, you will need to illustrate and support them. Strategies to help you do this include the following:

- Present data and facts
- Read quotes from experts
- Relate personal experiences
- Provide vivid descriptions

And remember, as you plan the body of your presentation it's important to provide variety. Listeners may quickly become bored by lots of facts or they may tire of hearing story after story.

5. Prepare the introduction and conclusion

Once you've prepared the body of the presentation, decide how you will begin and end the talk. Make sure the introduction captures the attention of your audience and the conclusion summarizes and reiterates your important points. In other words, "Tell them what you're going to tell them. Tell them. Then, tell them what you told them."

During the opening of your presentation, it's important to attract the audience's attention and build their interest. If you don't, listeners will turn their attention elsewhere and you'll have a difficult time getting it back. Strategies that you can use include the following:

- Make the introduction relevant to the listeners' goals, values, and needs
- Ask questions to stimulate thinking
- Share a personal experience
- Begin with a joke or humorous story
- Project a cartoon or colorful visual
- Make a stimulating or inspirational statement
- Give a unique demonstration

During the opening you want to clearly present your topic and the purpose of your presentation. Clearly articulating the topic and purpose will help the listeners focus on and easily follow your main ideas.

During the conclusion of your presentation, reinforce the main ideas you communicated. Remember that listeners won't remember your entire presentation, only the main ideas. By reinforcing and reviewing the main ideas, you help the audience remember them.

Practicing and Delivering**6. Practice delivering the presentation**

Most people spend hours preparing a presentation but very little time practicing it. When you practice your presentation, you can reduce the number of times you utter words and phrases like, "um," "well," and "you know." These habits can easily diminish a speaker's credibility. You can also fine-tune your content to be sure you make your most important points in the time allotted.

In addition to planning the content of your presentation, you need to give advanced thought to how you want to deliver it. Do you want to commit your presentation to memory, use cards to guide you, or read from a script? Or, you might want to use a combination of methods. To help you decide, read the advantages and disadvantages of the four delivery methods described below.

7. Speaking from Memory

A distinct advantage of speaking from memory is your ability to speak to the audience without relying on notes or a script. This allows you the flexibility to move away from the podium and to maintain eye contact with the audience. However, speaking from memory has disadvantages, too. Presentations from memory often sound rehearsed and the possibility exists that you'll forget an important point, present information that's inaccurate, or completely loses your train of thought. If you decide to deliver your presentation from memory, have notes handy to jog your memory just in case!

8. Speaking from Notes

Many people like to speak from notes. Typically these notes are either on cards or paper in outline form and contain key ideas and information. If you are using an electronic presentation tool, you may be able to include your notes in the presentation itself. The benefit of delivering a presentation from notes is that you sound natural rather than rehearsed and you can still maintain relatively good eye contact with the audience. The down side is that you might not express your key ideas and thoughts as well as you may have liked had you planned your exact words in advance.

9. Speaking from Text

Speaking from text involves writing your speech out, word for word, then basically reading from the text. As with speaking from memory, an advantage of this method is that you plan, in advance, exactly what you're going to say and how you're going to say it. A disadvantage is that you might appear to the audience to be stiff or rehearsed. You will need to make frequent eye contact and speak with expression to maintain the audience's interest.

10. Using a Combination of Methods

You may find the best method to be a combination of all three. For instance, experts suggest you memorize the first and last ten minutes of your talk so that you can speak flawlessly and without notes. Notes may be suitable for segments of your presentation that you know very well, for example, relating a personal story. Finally, speaking from a text might be appropriate when you have quotes or other important points that you want to make sure you communicate accurately and completely. You can make a smooth segue to written text by saying something like: "I want to read this quote to you verbatim, to ensure that I don't distort the original intent."

Summary

- While giving the presentation, if you succeed in your objectives, you may open the door to a new job, a promotion, a funding for your latest venture, or good grades but if you fail, you could leave with a damaged reputation and a lost opportunity.
- Who is the audience should be the first question to ask to yourself and you shouldn't always assume you know the answer.
- Although you may have created slides for your presentation, the audience comes to hear you and not to read your slides. So, you need to rehearse your speech.
- Think of the hardest possible questions someone could ask you, and have answers ready for each and every one of them. Anticipate questions you may be asked.
- Do not just read, the audience is capable of doing it for themselves.
- Do not depend on the technology only rather better have a backup plan ready.
- If you are on the podium, you will have to balance your need to present in a way that's comfortable for you, with the need to keep your audience engaged, interested, and connected with you and your topic.
- At the start of your presentation, make it clear when you would prefer to deal with questions - as you go along or at the end of the presentation.
- You don't have to answer a question immediately. Pause for a few seconds, actively listen to all parts of the question and think about the best way to answer.
- If you are worried that you haven't understood a question, ask them to clarify what they mean.
- To involve the rest of the audience, make sure the whole audience has heard and understood the question by repeating it or paraphrasing it to the audience.
- Try to keep your responses as focused as possible, leaving space for other questions.
- You can also encourage your audience to ask questions after the event has finished by providing your email address.
- The first step in preparing a presentation is to learn more about the audience to whom you'll be speaking.
- Once you have selected a topic, write the objective of the presentation in a single concise statement.
- After defining the objective of your presentation, determine how much information you can present in the amount of time allowed.
- Once you've prepared the body of the presentation, decide how you will begin and end the talk.
- By practicing you can fine-tune your content to be sure you make your most important points in the time allotted.
- A distinct advantage of speaking from memory is your ability to speak to the audience without relying on notes or a script.
- Experts suggest that you should memorize the first and last ten minutes of your talk.
- You should take help of the notes for those segments of your presentation that you know very well.
- Finally, speaking from a text might be appropriate when you have quotes or other important points that you want to make sure you communicate accurately and completely.

Keywords: talk, podium, handling, planning, strategy, questions, presentation

Self Assessment

1. What is advised to be done before the talk?
 - A. Prepare notes
 - B. Organize information**
 - C. Collect information
 - D. Sort information
2. What is expected while giving presentation?
 - A. Should not read slide**
 - B. Should read slide
 - C. Should include as much information as possible
 - D. Should ignore audience reactions
3. A good presenter always anticipates.....
 - A. reaction
 - B. appreciation
 - C. questions**
 - D. answers
4. Presenters are advised not to depend on the alone.
 - A. contacts
 - B. collected information
 - C. skills
 - D. technology**
5. Make and prepare well final presentation.
 - A. arrangement, before
 - B. rehearsal, before**
 - C. slides, during
 - D. the audience understand, before
6. On the podium a presenter should not
 - A. stand on one place
 - B. talk much
 - C. relax
 - D. Panic**
7. What is expected from a presenter?
 - A. Be confident**
 - B. Be cooperative
 - C. Be quick
 - D. Be intelligent
8. A presenter should always keep the in mind.
 - A. appreciation
 - B. impression

- C. **time limit**
D. reaction
9. For anticipating questions, before giving the presentation better all the areas which may create in the mind of audience.
- A. understand, impression
B. **locate, confusion**
C. search, impact
D. identify, effect
10. What is expected from a presenter for effective handling of questions?
- A. Neglect difficult questions
B. Make comparison
C. Arrange refreshment
D. **Prepare extra slides**
11. It is an important point to be remembered while handling questions that one should not
- A. **get into much argument**
B. get into much explanation
C. get into much details
D. get into much agreement
12. What should a presenter keep in mind while handling questions?
- A. To engage audience
B. **To keep subjectivity aside**
C. To disagree with the audience
D. To keep objectivity aside
13. Trying to get to know about the prospective audience and their mental level is a part of...
- A. disintegrated planning
B. **strategic planning**
C. fourth coming planning
D. previous planning
14. Identify the important features of strategic planning out of the following options.
- A. Make thorough practice
B. Manage the presentation time
C. Treat interaction session seriously
D. **All of the above**
15. For presentation, it is highly recommended to prepare the ready for anydisturbance.
- A. speech, unexpected
B. projector, unwanted
C. **backup, technological**

D. None of the above

Answer for Self Assessment

- | | | | | |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. B | 2. A | 3. C | 4. D | 5. B |
| 6. D | 7. A | 8. C | 9. B | 10. D |
| 11. A | 12. B | 13. B | 14. D | 15. C |

Review Questions:

1. Why do we need to organize the information before the talk?
2. What to keep in mind while designing slides?
3. How does anticipation of questions help the speaker?
4. Why should a presenter not depend on the technology alone?
5. How does rehearsal help the presenter?
6. What is the importance of time while giving presentation?
7. How can a presenter be relaxed on podium?
8. How do extra slides help the presenter and why do we need them?
9. What to remember while answering audience's questions?
10. What is the importance of strategic planning and how does it work?



Further Reading

- A Course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd.
- English Grammar by Rajeevan Karal, Oxford University Press
- A course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd.
- English Grammar by Rajeevan Karal, Oxford University Press
- Oxford EAP: A Course in English for Academic Purposes by Edward De Chazal And Sam Mccarter, Oxford University Press
- MLA Handbook by Modern Language Association of America, Modern Language Association

Unit 11: Grammar for Editing: Basic Sentences, Verbs, Nouns, Editing a Sentence

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Keywords:

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Objectives:

- Understand the meaning and use of comparison of items in paragraph writing
- Analyze cause-effect paragraph writing
- Illustrate the use of visuals in paragraph writing
- Differentiate and deduce cause-effect and comparison of items in paragraph writing

Introduction

A sentence is a group of words that are put together to make one complete thought. To understand sentence structures in the English language, you must first have a general understanding of the types of words that are used to make sentences.

There are two classifications of the types of sentences:

1. Types of sentences based on function
2. Types of sentences based on structure

11.1 Important Parts of Sentences

Every word in a sentence serves a specific purpose within the structure of that particular sentence. According to rules of grammar, sentence structure can sometimes be quite complicated. For the sake of simplicity, however, the basic parts of a sentence are discussed here.

The two most basic parts of a sentence are the subject and predicate.

1. Subject

The subject of a sentence is the person, place, thing, or quality that is performing the action of the sentence. The subject represents what or whom the sentence is about. The simple subject usually contains a noun or pronoun and can include modifying words, phrases, or clauses.



The **man** builds a house.

Subject

2. Predicate

The predicate expresses action or being within the sentence. The simple predicate contains the verb and can also contain modifying words, phrases, or clauses.



The man **builds a house**.

Predicate

The subject and predicate make up the two basic structural parts of any complete sentence. In addition, there are other elements that add meaning or detail. These elements include the direct object, indirect object, and complement. All of these elements can be expanded and further combined into simple, compound, complex, or compound-complex sentences.

3. Direct Object

The direct object receives the action of the sentence. The direct object is usually a noun or pronoun.



The man builds **a house**.

DO (as a noun)

The man builds **it**.

DO (as a pronoun)

4. Indirect Object

The indirect object indicates to whom or for whom the action of the sentence is being done. The indirect object is usually a noun or pronoun.



The man called **the boys** fool.

IO (as a noun)

The man called **them** fool.

IO (as a pronoun)

5. Complement

A subject complement either renames or describes the subject, and therefore is usually a noun, pronoun, or adjective. Subject complements occur when there is a linking verb within the sentence (often a linking verb is a form of the verb to be).



The man is a good father. (Father = noun which renames the subject)

The man seems kind. (Kind = adjective which describes the subject)

11.2 Basic Sentences

There are five types of basic sentences. They are:

1. Declarative/Assertive Sentences
2. Interrogative Sentences
3. Exclamatory Sentences
4. Imperative Sentences
5. Optative Sentences

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Let us discuss all these types in some detail which will develop a better understanding in this context.

1. Declarative/Assertive Sentences

A declarative or assertive sentence is the most basic type of sentence. Its purpose is to relay information, and it is punctuated with a period. In this category there can be either affirmative or negative sentences. Simple declarative sentences can make basic statements, such as:



- a. The girl walked home.
- b. I love football.
- c. My father is a doctor.

Declarative sentences can also be compound sentences.



- a. She wants to eat pizza, but she doesn't know the recipe.
- b. My friends plan to visit Mumbai, and we're spending a day at Disneyworld.
- c. Jason doesn't know how to swim, so he's taking lessons.

Complex sentences can also be declarative.



- a. He ordered a cappuccino when he got to the coffee shop.
- b. While cats are more independent, dogs love being around people.
- c. Stacy found a new job because she enjoys working from home.

If you really want to change it up, you can even use compound-complex sentences to make declarative statements.



- a. Alice doesn't enjoy dinner parties and she hates dressing up, although she does like being with her friends.
- b. Although the service at the restaurant was slow, the food was really good and the prices were fair.
- c. The weather was good at the hilly village, so we stayed until it started raining.

As you can see, these sentences make statements, whether of fact or opinion. Declarative sentences can be simple, as in the first two examples, or compound, as in the final example. They can also be in any tense, as long as they do their basic job of presenting information. This makes them the most common sentence type.

2. Interrogative Sentences

Interrogative sentences ask questions (or interrogate). These are direct questions, and they are punctuated with a question mark.



- a. Why does he go there?
- b. Whose book is that?
- c. Will Shown get to keep all his lottery winnings?

The category may have compound sentence structures.



- a. Who are they and why are they looking at him?
- b. How much does it cost and where can I get it?
- c. I don't know her contact number, so can you provide me the same?

Complex interrogative sentences can also be framed.



- a. When Marry gets in, can you give him this book?
- b. Can you call him when it's time to go?
- c. Did you cheat on the test because you were unprepared?

We may also use compound-complex structure for interrogative sentences.



- a. Have there been any problems since Nancy was hired, or has it gone smoothly?
- b. Is the case solved and the suspect is in jail, or are you still working on it?
- c. Molly moved to Montana and Kyle stayed in town, but are they officially divorced?

Many interrogative sentences start with question words like "how" or "why," but others are yes/no questions that begin with the verb instead of the noun. It is important to remember that interrogative sentences still require a noun and a verb to be complete.

3. Exclamatory Sentences

Exclamatory sentences express strong emotions. They are similar to declarative sentences in that they provide information, but they end in an exclamation point instead of a period.



- a. What a lovely flower!
- b. How well she sings!
- c. Wow! she just won a gold medal in the competition.

Exclamatory sentences are often used in casual conversation and in written dialogue to show emotion, but they are not typically useful in academic or expository writing. It is better to make your point with well-written declarative sentences instead.

4. Imperative Sentences

Imperative sentences tell someone to do something. These can be in the form of advice, basic instructions or more forceful commands. Many imperative sentences end in periods, but some of the more forceful demands may end in an exclamation point to highlight the emotion.



- a. Please shut the door to keep out the bugs.
- b. Turn left at the bridge.
- c. Stop bothering me!

Compound imperative sentences are also possible.



- a. Put the novel away and listen to me!
- b. There was an accident, but don't worry.
- c. Please order me a soft drink or pick up a can for me.

Like compound structures, we may have complex imperative sentence structures also.



- a. Since Catherin was up all night, please let her sleep now.
- b. Don't ever interrupt your elders when they are talking to someone!
- c. Hand the baby his bottle now that she's done playing.

And if you want to get more complicated, try out these compound-complex imperative sentences.



- a. Please knock and take my permission to come in, unless there's an emergency.
- b. As much as I'd like to help, I'm unavailable this afternoon, so ask Jessica instead.
- c. Don't stay out too late or forget to call me, even if you're having some work.

You can identify an imperative sentence because it appears to be missing a subject. However, the command of each imperative is directed at you, making these sentences second-person. The subject of the sentence may be omitted, but it's called "you understood" because the reader is aware that each sentence could be written as "you do this" or "you do that."

5. Optative Sentences

Optative sentence is a grammatical category of mood which expresses wish, prayer, hope, desire, curse or etc. This kind of sentence generally starts with 'may' and 'wish'. Sometimes, 'may' remains hidden.



- a. May the king live long.
- b. Long live India.
- c. May God bless us all.
- d. May the almighty help in this tragedy.
- e. Wish you a very successful married life.
- f. Wish you a happy journey together.
- g. Hope to see you soon.

11.3 Verbs

A verb is a word or a combination of words that indicates action or a state of being or condition. It is such a part of a sentence that tells us what the subject performs. Verbs are the hearts of English sentences. They change their forms based on time/tense (past, present, and future), person (first person, second person, and third person), number (singular, plural), voice (active and passive), etc.

Verb forms the main part of the predicate of a sentence. Every complete sentence must have a verb.



- a. He is a good cricket player.
- b. We learn many things by reading books.
- c. She speaks English.
- d. The inspector was thinking about the incident.

11.4 Types of Verbs

1. Finite Verbs

Finite verbs are the actual verbs which are called the roots of sentences. This form of verb is performed by or refers to a subject and uses one of the twelve forms of tense. It changes according to the number or person of the subject.



- a. Fredric went to the college. (Subject - Fredric - performed the action in the past. This information is evident only by the verb 'went'.)
- b. Rashmi plays hockey.
- c. He is planning for a new house.
- d. She is one of the best advocates of our firm. (Here, the verb 'is' directly refers to the subject itself.)

2. Non-finite Verbs

Non-finite Verbs do not work as verbs in the sentence rather they work as nouns, adjectives, adverbs, etc. These verbs do not change according to the number or person of the subject because they do not have any direct relation to the subject. Sometimes they become the subject themselves. The forms of non-finite verbs are - infinitive, gerund, and participle. But participles become finite verbs when they take auxiliary verbs.



- a. Johnson went abroad to study medical. (Infinitives)
- b. Reading books is his only hobby. (Present participle)
- c. I have a broken bat to be repaired. (Past participle)
- d. Swimming is a good exercise. (Gerund)

3. Action Verbs

Action verbs indicate what the subject of a sentence performs. These verbs can make the listener or reader feel emotions, see scenes more vividly and accurately.

Action verbs can be of two types: (a) transitive (b) intransitive

Transitive Verbs

Transitive verbs must have a direct object. A transitive verb demands something/someone to be acted upon.



- a. I wrote a novel. (The verb 'wrote' demands an object to be written)
- b. She is reading the magazine. (The verb 'read' asks the question "what is she reading?" - the answer is the object)

Intransitive Verbs

Intransitive verbs do not act upon anything. They may be followed by an adjective, adverb, preposition, or another part of speech. Subject + Intransitive verb is sufficient to make a complete sentence but Subject + Transitive verb is not sufficient because transitive verbs demand a direct object.



- a. She laughed. (The verb 'laugh' cannot have any object since the action of 'laughing' does not fall upon anything/anyone)
- b. He woke up at 10 AM. (No object is needed for this verb)

4. Linking Verb

A linking verb adds details about the subject of a sentence. In its simplest form, it connects the subject and the complement. It creates a link between them instead of showing action. Often, what is on each side of a linking verb is equivalent; the complement redefines or restates the subject.

Generally, 'be' verbs like is, am, are, was, were, etc. are used as linking verbs. However, there are some other verbs like act, feel, remain, appear, become, seem, smell, sound, grow, look, prove, stay, taste, and turn which can also function as a linking verb in a sentence.

Some verbs in this list can also be action verbs. To figure out if they are linking verbs, you should try replacing them with forms of the 'be' verbs. If the changed sentence makes sense, that verb is a linking verb.



- a. She appears ready for the competition. (She is ready for the competition.)
- b. The work seemed satisfactory. (The work was satisfactory.)
- c. He looks sad. (He is sad.)

5. Auxiliary Verbs

Auxiliary verbs are also called helping verbs. They help the main verb in the sentence. An auxiliary verb extends the main verb by helping to show time, tense, and possibility. The auxiliary verbs are - be, have, and do verbs. They are used in the continuous/progressive and perfect tenses. Linking verbs work as main verbs in the sentence, but auxiliary verbs do not. Do is an auxiliary verb that is used to ask questions, to express negation, to provide emphasis, and more.



- a. Shelley is going to the football academy.
- b. She is driving a car.
- c. I have seen a play in the theatre.
- d. Do you drink coffee?
- e. Don't waste my time.

6. Modal Verbs

A modal verb is a kind of an auxiliary verb. It assists the main verb to indicate possibility, potentiality, ability, permission, expectation, and obligation. The modal verbs are can, could, must, may, might, ought to, shall, should, will, would, need, dare, and have to.



- a. I may attend the meeting today.
- b. They must write to the principal about the incident.
- c. She should call the police at that time.
- d. I will go there to find the truth behind this rumor.

11.5 Nouns

A noun is a word that names something, such as a person, place, thing, or quality. In a sentence, nouns can play the role of subject, direct object, indirect object, subject complement, object complement, or appositive.

Everything we can see or talk about is represented by a word. That word is called a "noun." You might find it useful to think of a noun as a "naming word." Often a noun is the name for something we can touch e.g., "lion," "cake," "computer", but sometimes a noun names something we cannot touch e.g., "bravery," "mile," "joy". Here are some examples of nouns. (Notice that some have capital letters. The reason for this is explained in the next section on "Common Nouns and Proper Nouns.")

Person: soldier, Alan, cousin, lawyer

Place: house, London, factory, shelter

Thing: table, chisel, fan, pencil

Quality: confusion, kindness, faith, death, joy

Nouns basically are of five types which are discussed as follows.

1. Proper Noun

A proper noun is a name which refers only to a single person, place, or thing and there is no common name for it. In written English, a proper noun always begins with capital letters.



- a. Melbourne (it refers to only one particular city),
- b. Steve (refers to a particular person),

2. Common Noun

A common noun is a name for something which is common for many things, person, or places. It encompasses a particular type of things, person, or places.



- a. City (it can refer to any city but nothing in particular)
- b. Man (it refers to any man but nothing in particular)

So, a common noun is a word that indicates a person, place, thing, etc. In general and a proper noun is a specific one of those.

3. Collective Noun

A collective noun is a word for a group of things, people, or animals, etc.



family, class, team, jury, cattle, etc.

Collective nouns can be both plural and singular. However, Americans prefer to use collective nouns as singular, but both of the uses are correct in other parts of the world.

4. Material Noun

Material noun is the name given to the material, substance or things made up of alloy. It refers to the type of substance instead of individual particles of the substance. These nouns are not countable means we cannot count them because they are in the forms of liquid, semi-liquid or solid.



cloth, air, metal, gold, steel, salt, iron, silver, etc.

5. Abstract Noun

An abstract noun is a word for something that cannot be seen or touched but is there. It has no physical existence. Generally, it refers to ideas, qualities, and conditions.



Truth, lies, happiness, sleep, sorrow, time, friendship, patriotism, etc.

Here are some other categories in which nouns can be divided.

1. Countable Noun

The nouns that can be counted are called countable nouns. These nouns can take an article: a, an, the.



Chair, table, bat, ball, etc.

2. Non-countable Noun

The nouns that cannot be counted are called non-countable nouns.



Water, sugar, oil, salt, etc.

Abstract nouns and proper nouns are always non-countable nouns, but common nouns and concrete nouns can be both count and non-count nouns.

3. Compound Noun

Sometimes two or three nouns appear together, or even with other parts of speech, and create idiomatic compound nouns. These nouns behave as a unit and, to a lesser or greater degree, amount to more than the sum of their parts.



six-pack, five-year-old, and son-in-law, snowball, mailbox, etc.

11.6 Editing a Sentence

Even if you don't want to become an editor, you've got to learn how to edit. Is it really possible to edit your own work when all the words you just finished writing are so precious? Here's how to edit your own work.

Editing involves a close reading and re-writing of this version. It aims to improve the sense and logic of the written material. You may improve expression by eliminating redundancies, repetition, or inserting linking sentences between paragraphs.

If we talk about proofreading then it takes place after the editing process. In proofreading one looks for mistakes of spelling, punctuation, capitalisation, and noun-verb agreement errors. In proofreading one doesn't read for sense, but for *writing mechanics*.

Editing can be of two types:

1. Structural Editing - It involves checking your argument for structure, logic and sense.
2. Copy-editing - It involves checking your written expression.

Begin by checking the introduction. Does it provide all the necessary pieces of information such as aim, significance, argument, research question, contribution and findings? Thereafter, check the conclusion and determine whether or not it demonstrates how your argument has been proven.

Further, check the links (or transition sentences) between paragraphs and see whether the discussion flow logically or not. Check for the topic sentence and the signposting language. Review the workshop booklet relating to *cohesion for more elements*. You should also look for information which is repetitive and can be deleted without confusing the reader.

Check sentence structure first and avoid long, run-on sentences that put a strain on the reader. Try to do away with the ambiguous or vague expressions, redundancies, tautologies (unnecessary repetition), empty phrases and pointless adjectives and adverbs.

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Look for common errors including compound nouns, missing subjects or verbs in a sentence, plural-singular verb errors, check tense, pronoun agreement and the use of possessive apostrophes. Besides, identify the overuse of complex terms and replace them with simple and easy to understand words. When key terms and concepts are used ensure you define them at the first point for better understanding of the readers.

For a better and detail understanding about the do's and don'ts of sentence editing, let's discuss the major points in detail.

1. Cut long sentences in two

Many long sentences are grammatically correct. But long sentences often contain several ideas, so they can easily lose the reader's focus because they don't provide a break, leading readers to get stuck or lose interest, and perhaps the reader might get bored and stop reading.

See what do we mean? If you spot a comma-heavy sentence, try to give each idea its own sentence.

2. Axe the adverbs

Adverbs weaken your copy because these excess words are not truly descriptive. Rather than saying the girl runs quickly, say she sprints. Instead of describing the cat as walking slowly, say he creeps or tiptoes. The screen door didn't shut noisily, it banged shut. Find a more powerful verb to replace the weak verb + weak -ly adverb combo.

3. Stick to one voice

Sometimes it's necessary to use both first and second person, but that can be jarring for readers. For example, you might start your introduction talking about yourself, then switch halfway through the piece and start addressing the reader. Try to stick to "I" voice or "you" voice throughout one piece of writing. And if you must switch, start with one and finish with the other. Don't move back and forth between the two. Your readers will get lost.

4. Remove extra punctuation

A powerful hyphen here and a thought-provoking semicolon there can be effective. But a piece of writing littered with all sorts of punctuation – parentheses, colons, ellipses, etc. doesn't flow well. Often times, you can eliminate these extra pieces of punctuation with commas or by ending a sentence and starting a new one which will make your writing much stronger.

5. Replace negative with positive

Instead of saying what something isn't, say what it is. "You don't want to make these mistakes in your writing" could be better stated as, "You want to avoid these mistakes in your writing." It's more straightforward.

If you find negative statements in your writing that contain don't, shouldn't, can't or another such word, find a way to rewrite them without the "not." That will probably mean you need to find a more powerful verb.

6. Replace stuffy words with simple ones

Some people think jargon makes their writing sound smart, but you know better. Good writing does not confuse readers. If they need to grab a dictionary to finish a sentence, your writing has room for improvement. To get your point across, use words people are familiar with.

7. Remove redundancies

You don't need to say the exact same thing with two words. Did you catch the redundant words in that sentence? Here's a better version: you don't need to say the same thing with two words. Sometimes sneaky redundancies are separated by an "and." If you say your sentences are straightforward and to-the-point, they are neither. You don't need both words. Your sentences are straightforward. Or, your sentences are to-the-point.

8. Reduce prepositions

Though prepositions are helpful little words, they make sentences lengthier because they cannot stand alone. Prepositions need lots of friends. By cutting the preposition and the

words that follow, you can cut three, four or even five words. Sometimes a prepositional phrase can be replaced with just one more direct word, or cut completely. An easy way to cut prepositions is to look for opportunities to make something possessive. The car of your neighbor is really just your neighbor's car.

9. Ditch the passive voice

Passive voice sticks out to editors, but it can be difficult to notice in your own writing. Learning how to identify it and fixing these instances will make your writing stronger.

Here's an example of passive voice: "The door was left open."

To change that sentence to active voice, it would look like this: "Someone left the door open" or "He left the door open." The idea is to be clear about who or what is executing the action.

10. Steer clear of the "ing" trap

"We were starting to ..." or "She was skiing toward ..." Whenever you see an "ing" in your copy, think twice about whether you need it – because you probably don't. Instead, get rid of "were" or "was," then eliminate that "ing" and replace it with past tense: "We started to ..." or "She skied toward ..." Pruning excessive "ings" makes your writing clearer and easier to read.

11. Check your commas with "that" and "which"

When used as a descriptor, the word "which" takes a comma. But the word "that" doesn't.

For example: "We went to the house that collapsed yesterday" or "We went to the house, which collapsed yesterday."

12. Replace "over" with "more than" for numbers

Example: Over 200 people did not like this Facebook page – more than 200 people did.

Of course, everyone will know what you mean if you use "over." In fact, the AP Style guide, which many journalists follow as the bible of style, announced a few years ago that "over" is now acceptable in place of "more than." But if we're being really nit-picky, using "more than" instead is still one a little detail that will help your writing shine.

13. Hyphenate modifiers

Whenever you modify a noun with more than one word, you need a hyphen. Lots of people don't follow this rule, so it's a great way to show you actually walk the walk. That means you need a hyphen if you're writing about full-time work. But you don't need one if you're working full time. Got it? The exception: No need to hyphenate modifiers that end in "ly." Those are OK on their own. So your newly hired employee doesn't need that hyphen.

Summary

- A sentence is a group of words that are put together to make one complete thought.
- The two most basic parts of a sentence are the subject and predicate.
- Other elements are direct object, indirect object, and complement.
- There are five types of basic sentences which are declarative/assertive sentences, interrogative sentences, exclamatory sentences, imperative sentences, and optative sentences.
- A declarative or assertive sentence makes a declaration/assertion. It includes affirmative and negative sentences.
- Interrogative sentences ask questions (or interrogate).
- Exclamatory sentences express strong emotions.
- Imperative sentences tell someone to do something.
- Optative sentence is a grammatical category of mood which expresses wish, prayer, hope, desire, curse or etc.
- A verb is a word or a combination of words that indicates action or a state of being or condition.
- There are finite, non-finite, transitive, intransitive, linking, helping, auxiliary, and modal verb types.
- A noun is a word that names something, such as a person, place, thing, or quality.

Unit 11: Grammar for Editing: Basic Sentences, Verbs, Nouns, Editing a Sentence

- Nouns basically are of five types which are proper, common, collective, material, and abstract.
- Other categories of nouns are countable, non-countable, and compound nouns.
- Editing involves a close reading and re-writing of this version.
- Editing can be of two types: 1. Structural Editing - It involves checking your argument for structure, logic and sense 2. Copy-editing - It involves checking your written expression.

Keywords: sentence, verb, noun, structure, editing, basic

Self Assessment

1. What is a sentence?
 - A. A meaningful and logical set of words
 - B. A meaningless and logical set of words
 - C. A meaningful and illogical set of words
 - D. A set of words that defines something
2. How many types of sentences are there?
 - A. 2
 - B. 3
 - C. 4
 - D. 5
3. Which is an assertive type of sentence out of the following options?
 - A. Alex is a good football player.
 - B. Wow, that's sound quite interesting!
 - C. Don't smoke here.
 - D. May you live long.
4. A sentence which expresses a prayer, wish, curse, etc. is called an.....
 - A. affirmative sentence
 - B. interrogative sentence
 - C. optative sentence
 - D. assertive sentence
5. What do you understand by a verb?
 - A. Miss-spelt words
 - B. Action words
 - C. Derivative words
 - D. Gerunds
6. In regular verbs, and past are made by adding 'd' or 'ed'.
 - A. present, indefinite
 - B. past, participle
 - C. future, progressive
 - D. present, perfect
7. Identify the sentence in which linking verb is used out of the following.
 - A. Danial is learning a new language.
 - B. Danial is driving the car very fast.
 - C. Danial was going to play cricket.
 - D. Danial was the winner of the race.

8. What is an intransitive verb?
 - A. A verb that doesn't need any object
 - B. A verb that doesn't follow punctuation rules
 - C. A verb that need any object
 - D. A verb that doesn't need any subject

9. What is a noun?
 - A. Name of any person, place, or thing.
 - B. Name of any person, place, thing, or quantity.
 - C. Name of any person, place, thing, or quality.
 - D. Name of any person, place, and thing.

10. How many types of nouns are there?
 - A. 5
 - B. 4
 - C. 3
 - D. 2

11. Identify the common noun out of the following options.
 - A. Honesty
 - B. Swift
 - C. Merry
 - D. Museum

12. Nouns that show ownership/possession of something are known as.....
 - A. Persuasive nouns
 - B. Possessive nouns
 - C. Personal nouns
 - D. Predicament nouns

13. What does edition involve?
 - A. reading and comprehension
 - B. close reading and re-writing
 - C. close reading and writing
 - D. reading and subjective writing

14. There are two forms of editing which are
 - A. Syntactical and Proof editing
 - B. Structural and Proof editing
 - C. Syntactical and Copy editing
 - D. Structural and Copy editing

15. While doing editing for the purpose of clarity and brevity one should focus on checking for
 - A. ambiguous or vague expressions
 - B. coherent and cumulative expressions
 - C. relevant and contributive expressions
 - D. irrelevant and contributive expressions

Answer for Self Assessment

- | | | | | |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. A | 2. D | 3. A | 4. C | 5. B |
| 6. B | 7. D | 8. A | 9. C | 10. A |
| 11. D | 12. B | 13. B | 14. D | 15. A |

**Further Reading**

A Course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd.

English Grammar by Rajeevan Karal, Oxford University Press

A course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd.

English Grammar by Rajeevan Karal, Oxford University Press

Oxford EAP: A Course in English for Academic Purposes by Edward De Chazal And Sam Mccarter, Oxford University Press

MLA Handbook by Modern Language Association of America, Modern Language Association

Unit 12: Grammar for Editing: Delayed Subjects

Digvijay Pandya, Lovely Professional University

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Objectives

- Understand the meaning and use of delayed subjects
- Analyze the long and winding sentences
- Illustrate the use of short sentences
- Explore parallelism and its use in writing

Introduction

In English grammar, a delayed subject is a subject that appears at (or near) the end of a sentence, after the main verb. In such cases, the vacant subject position at the beginning is usually filled with a dummy word, such as *it*, *there*, or *here*.

For example, in this compound sentence, there are two delayed subjects (indicated by italics): "There are many men of principle in both parties in America, but *there is no party of principle*" (Alexis de Tocqueville, *Democracy in America*). Note that in the first clause the verb *are* agrees with the plural noun *men*; in the second clause, the verb *is* agrees with the singular noun *party*.

Merriam Webster defines delayed subject as:

"A subject following its verb when an expletive or an anticipatory subject precedes (as five people in "there are five people here" or to believe that in "it is easy to believe that")"

"Delayed Subjects and Sentences" simply denote sentences that have a placebo subject (almost always "it") with the meaningful subject delayed until later in the sentence.



- It is true that he was late.

It means

- That he was late is true.

Sometimes it may make more sense to consider the sentence, rather than the subject to be delayed.



- It was Bob who was playing baseball in his back yard.

It means

- Bob was playing baseball in his back yard.

In such cases, delaying the sentence emphasis on the question of who was playing. Ultimately, however, the delayed subject slides into the delayed sentence such that either explanation can be considered acceptable. Have a look of the following sentence:

- It was in the seventh year of these hopeless peregrinations, in the dawn of a similar springtime to that in which his wife had died, [that he came at last one night to the vicinity of this self-same patch that crowned the rise to the Red Cliff].

Whether one considers the "that" clause a delayed subject or a delayed sentence is really a question of terminology, so that either label can be accepted.

Because most delayed subjects are formed by infinitives or by subordinate clauses, the first two exercises in the "complete" books focus on each of these separately. You might want to skip these two, and start with the third exercise, which includes sentences that could be considered delayed sentences. The fourth exercise is for additional practice, if needed. The fifth is a passage for analysis, and the sixth asks students to write or find sentences and, at the teacher's option, create an exercise.

Students who have a solid command of subordinate clauses, and a minimal command of infinitives should find delayed subjects relatively easy to master.

The origin and stylistic purposes of this delaying construction might be an interesting area of research for a Master's thesis. As mentioned above, it can be used to shift the meaningful focus.

A famous British linguist, David Crystal, gives another suggestion and illustrates the same with the following two sentences:

- It was nice having Jake and Maria come and see us the other day.
- Having Jake and Maria come and see us the other day was nice.

He then claims that "I have put this choice before thousands of people, over the years, and they always opt for the first." He suggests that "We do not like long subjects." Thus we delay them.

(The Fight for English: How language pundits ate, shot, and left. OUP, 2006. 128-129.)

12.1 Examples and Observations

- It isn't easy to smile all day long.
- It seemed a good idea for me to study nuclear physics.

"Q. What's the relationship between *it* and the infinitive phrase in the sentence 'It took so long to get there'?"

- "A. . . . One role that an infinitive can fill is that of the delayed subject. Sentences with delayed subjects always begin with the dummy *it*, a dummy element that takes the place of some word(s) in a sentence. Dummy elements were once called expletives. The word expletive comes from the Latin *explere*, meaning 'to fill up,' and this is what it does. The dummy element or expletive fills the place of the subject.
- "In the caller's sentence, the dummy *it* fills the place of the subject to get there. The true subject, the infinitive phrase, is delayed till the end of the sentence. To verify that this is truly a delayed subject, replace the dummy *it* with the infinitive phrase: To get there took so long. The infinitive phrase moves easily from its place at the end as a delayed subject to

the front of the sentence where it becomes a normal subject." (Michael Strumpf and Auriel Douglas, *The Grammar Bible*. Owl Books, 2004)

- It is important that scientists police themselves.
- There are two methods of treatment for dental crowding.
- Here are some wild strawberries.
- Here are the supplies you ordered.

Delayed Subjects With Existential *There*

"Existential *there*, unlike *there* as an adverb of place, is unstressed.

The noun phrase following can be seen as a delayed subject and *there* as a dummy subject inserted to fill the vacant subject position.



- There has been a lot of money wasted

Compare with the more standard word order of:

- A lot of money has been wasted.

The delayed subject is usually indefinite in meaning, and sometimes shows its subject status by determining whether the verb phrase is singular or plural.

- There were too many people in the room.

Compare with -

There was too much noise in the room

Nevertheless, in other ways, the status of subject belongs to *there*.



There comes after the operator in questions - Is there anything happening?

It occurs as matching subject in tag questions - There's plenty of food left, isn't there?

Hence the question of what is the subject of an existential sentence is problematic." (Geoffrey Leech, *A Glossary of English Grammar*. Edinburgh University Press, 2006)

12.2 Delayed Subjects and Dangling Participles

"A common source of the dangling participle is the sentence with a 'delayed subject.'

Two common delayers are their transformation and the generalized it:

- Having moved the patio furniture into the garage, there was no longer room for the car.
- Knowing how much work I had to do yesterday, it was good of you to come and help.

In the last sentence the subject of the participle, *you*, is *there*, but it appears in the predicate rather than in the usual subject position. As readers and listeners, we process sentences with certain built-in expectations. We expect the subject of an introductory verb to be the first logical nominal. . . .

"Often the most efficient way to revise such sentences is to expand the participial phrase into a complete clause:

- After we moved the patio furniture into the garage, there was no longer room for the car.
- It was good of you to come and help yesterday when you learned how much work I had to do." (Martha Kolln and Robert Funk, *Understanding English Grammar*, 5th ed. Allyn and Bacon, 1998)

The Delayed Subject with *There*

In conversation we'd probably find ourselves tongue-tied if we couldn't begin sentences with the grammatical subject *there*:

- There are only three eggs left in the refrigerator.
- There's a lot of traffic on the freeway this morning.

In each example *there* begins the sentence, but the true subjects—eggs and a lot of traffic—are delayed until after the verb.

There is nothing grammatically wrong with this construction. Have you noticed that I just wrote a sentence beginning with *There is*. Simply placing the actual subject first would create Yod-speak:

Nothing grammatically wrong with this construction is.

Rewriting an expletive sentence, the kind that begins with a subject place-holder like *There*, requires more effort than simple reversal. That is probably why we let so many of them creep into our first drafts.

Compare the following:

There is research that shows that phonics is the most important component of beginning reading.

Research shows that phonics is the most important component of beginning reading.

Delayed subject pattern is wordy and it can lead to a lack of subject-verb agreement also. A few such examples are:

- There is good reason Em Care is the industry leader.
- There is an area of freezing drizzle/mist out there this afternoon.

There's schooling costs, there's health costs and they'll continue to be provided out of the centers for those who are being temporarily resettled...(This was a government minister.)

Informal conversation is one thing, but writing for a professional purpose is something else again. The delayed subject should agree with the verb that precedes it, if the *There is* opener is the preferred stylistic choice:

- There are good reasons Em Care is the industry leader
- There are areas of freezing drizzle
- There are schooling costs...

Linguistically speaking, *there's* may be the equivalent of French *il y a*, which can mean either "there is" or "there are" and *there's* no reason for this article.

Practically speaking, a great many English speakers—potential customers and clients—cringe when they hear "there's reasons," let alone see it written in a business context.

12.3 Long and Winding Sentences

Collins dictionary defines it as: ADJECTIVE [usually verb-link ADJECTIVE]

If you describe something that is written or said as long-winded, you are critical of it because it is longer than necessary.

The manifesto is long-winded, repetitious and often ambiguous or poorly drafted.

- I hope I'm not being too long-winded.



"Your sentences are so long," said a friend who teaches English at a local college to me. I could tell she didn't quite mean it as a compliment. The copy-editor to ask if I didn't want to break up my sentences or put less material in every one painstakingly went through my most recent book often put yellow dashes onscreen around my multiplying clauses. Both responses could not have been kinder or more considered, but what my friend and my colleague may not have sensed was this: I am using longer and longer sentences as a small protest

against – and attempt to rescue any readers I might have from – the bombardment of the moment.

When I made writing a means of earning, I thought that my task was to give the reader something vivid, quick and concrete that they could not get in any other form. In my opinion, a writer was an information-gathering machine and especially as a journalist, my job was to go out into the world and gather details, moments, impressions as visual and immediate as TV. Facts were utmost desirable. And if you watched the world closely enough, I believed, you could begin to see what it would do next exactly in the same way as you can with a sibling or a friend. Don De Lillo or Salman Rushdie is not mystics. However they can tell us what the world is going to do tomorrow because they follow it so attentively.

Yet nowadays the planet is moving too fast for even a Rushdie or De Lillo to keep up. Many of us in the privileged world have access to more information than we know what to do with. What we long for is something that will free us from the overcrowded moment and allow us to see it in a larger light. No writer can compete for speed and urgency with texts or CNN news-flashes or RSS feeds. But any writer can try to give us the depth, the nuances – the *gaps*, as Annie Dillard calls them – that do not show up on many screens. Not everyone wants her being reduced to a sound byte or a bumper sticker.

Enter the long sentence we find the collection of clauses that is so many chambered and lavish and abundant in tones and suggestions, that has so much room for near contradiction and ambiguity and those places in memory or imagination that cannot be simplified, or put into easy words, that it allows the reader to keep many things in her head, her heart at the same time, and to descend, as by a spiral staircase, deeper into herself and those things that will not be squeezed into either/or's. With each clause, we are taken deeper, further from trite conclusions or so at least is the hope and away from reductionism, as if the writer were a dentist, saying *Open wider* so that he can probe the tender and neglected spaces in the reader.

“There was a little stoop of humility,” Alan Hollinghurst writes in a sentence chosen almost at random from his recent *Stranger's Child*, “as she passed through the door, into the larger but darker library beyond, a hint of frailty, an affectation of bearing more than her 59 years, a slight bewildered totter among the grandeur that her daughter now had to pretend to take for granted” (and the reader may notice – though she does not have to – that “humility” has rather quickly elided into “affectation,” and the point of view has shifted by the end of the sentence and the physical movement through the rooms accompanies a gradual inner movement that progresses through four parallel clauses, each of which, though legato, suggests a slightly different take on things).

Many a reader will have no time for this. William Gass or Sir Thomas Browne may seem long-winded to him, the equivalent of driving from L.A., to San Francisco by way of Death Valley, Tijuana and the Sierras and a highly skilled writer, a Hemingway or James Salter, can get plenty of shading and suggestion into even the shortest and straightest of sentences. But too often nowadays our writing is telegraphic as a way of keeping our thinking simplistic, our feeling slogan-crude. The short sentence is the domain of uninflected talk-radio rants and shouting heads on TV who feel that qualification or subtlety is an assault on their integrity and not integrity's greatest adornment



Take this recent New Yorker passage written by Nora Ephron about her life in an apartment building called the Apthorp, which also once housed her friend Rosie O'Donnell. She is describing George, the doorman:

“Like most Apthorp doormen, George did not actually open the door – which was, incidentally, a huge, heavy iron gate that you often desperately needed help with – but he

did provide a running commentary on everyone who lived in the building, and whenever I came home he filled me in on the whereabouts of my husband, my boys, my babysitter, my sister, my brother-in-law, and even Rosie, who painted her apartment orange, installed walls of shelves for her extensive collection of Happy Meal toys, feuded with her neighbors about her dogs, and fought with the landlords about the fact that her washing machine was somehow irrevocably hooked up to the bathtub drain. Then she moved out. I was stunned. I couldn't believe that anyone would leave the Apthorp voluntarily. I was never going to leave. They will take me out feet first, I said."



Vladimir Nabokov - *The Gift* (96 words)

"As he crossed toward the pharmacy at the corner he involuntarily turned his head because of a burst of light that had ricocheted from his temple, and saw, with that quick smile with which we greet a rainbow or a rose, a blindingly white parallelogram of sky being unloaded from the van a dresser with mirrors across which, as across a cinema screen, passed a flawlessly clear reflection of boughs sliding and swaying not arboreally but with a human vacillation, produced by the nature of those who were carrying this sky, these boughs, this gliding façade."

Jose Saramago - *Blindness* (97 words)

"On offering to help the blind man, the man who then stole his car, had not, at that precise moment, had any evil intention, quite the contrary, what he did was nothing more than obey those feelings of generosity and altruism which, as everyone knows, are the two best traits of human nature and to be found in much more hardened criminals than this one, a simple car-thief without any hope of advancing in his profession, exploited by the real owners of this enterprise, for it is they who take advantage of the needs of the poor."

Vladimir Nabokov - *Lolita* (99 words)

"My very photogenic mother died in a freak accident (picnic, lightning) when I was three, and, save for a pocket of warmth in the darkest past, nothing of her subsists within the hollows and dells of memory, over which, if you can still stand my style (I am writing under observation), the sun of my infancy had set: surely, you all know those redolent remnants of day suspended, with the midges, about some hedge in bloom or suddenly entered and traversed by the rambler, at the bottom of a hill, in the summer dusk; a furry warmth, golden midges."

Laurence Sterne - *The Life and Opinions of Tristram Shandy* (107 words)

"The French are certainly misunderstood: but whether the fault is theirs, in not sufficiently explaining themselves, or speaking with that exact limitation and precision which one would expect on a point of such importance, and which, moreover, is so likely to be contested by us or whether the fault may not be altogether on our side, in not understanding their language always so critically as to know "what they would be at" – I shall not decide; but 'tis evident to me, when they affirm, "That they who have seen Paris, have seen everything," they must mean to speak of those who have seen it by day-light.

12.4 Short Sentences

The craft of simple writing begins with learning how to write short sentences. Getting a complete idea across in fewer words allows you to be succinct and direct, and it improves the readability of your story. Ernest Hemingway was a master of minimalism when it came to writing. Follow in his footsteps and learn how to construct short sentences.

Types of Sentences

In the English language, there are four kinds of sentences. Each sentence type can be written as succinctly to convey thoughts and ideas in a direct way.

Simple sentences: A simple sentence is a basic sentence with one independent clause—a complete thought that can stand on its own. There are different types of simple sentences based on how

many subjects and verbs are in the clause. The following examples of simple sentences show the variations. A basic simple sentence: "I am going for a run." A simple sentence with a compound subject: "Jill and I are going for a run." A simple sentence with compound verbs: "I am going to run and bike." A simple sentence that is an imperative – a command with an implied subject: "Give me the salt, please."

Compound sentences: Compound sentences consist of two or more independent clauses joined by a coordinating conjunction. The coordinating conjunctions are "and," "but," "for," "or," "nor," "yet," and "so." For example: "The girl hit the ball, and the ball flew out of the park."

Complex sentences: Complex sentences consist of an independent clause and one or more dependent clauses—a phrase with a subject and verb that does not express a complete thought—joined by a subordinating conjunction. Some subordinating conjunctions are "although," "when," "because," "so," "that," and "until." For example: "The fans cheered when the girl hit the ball."

Compound-complex sentences: Compound-complex sentences consist of multiple independent clauses as well as at least one dependent clause. For example: "When the girl hit the ball, the fans cheered, and the ball flew out of the park."

Benefits of Writing Short Sentences

Sentences are the basic building block of literature. A writer carefully crafts every sentence to convey an idea or express a thought. Stringing these independent lines together allows you to create a clear, engaging story. Here are reasons to write short sentences:

Short sentences provide a direct path to your main point. The shortest path between two objects is a straight line. Think of that axiom when you're writing. A verbose sentence will distract readers and bury your main point under unnecessary words.

Short sentences improve readability. Whether you're writing a novel, a short story, or a piece of academic writing, you can make your writing more accessible with short sentences. When sentences are short, the audience can easily understand your storyline. When readers have to go over lines multiple times to grasp the concept you run the risk of losing them altogether.

Short sentences are more striking. You don't have to write long, elaborate sentences to make an impact. Learning how to make a point in a crisp, short line is important for every writer. As you learn how to pare down your excess word usage and sculpt a sentence, your overall writing skills will improve.

Short sentences prevent you from over thinking. Often, when writers are staring at a blank page wondering what to write, they are most likely over thinking what they are trying to say. When facing writer's block, one approach is to step back and think of how to convey your point in the simplest way.

How to Write Short Sentences

To convey your point in just a few words is a skill every successful writer should master. Follow these eight writing tips for crafting a short sentence that makes a statement:

Start writing with small thought. The first sentence of your story needs to create intrigue that makes your audience want to keep reading. Keep this first sentence, and even your second sentence, brief to make it punchy and draw the readers in.

Think about what you are trying to say. Make sure every word contributes to the meaning of the sentence. Keep your main point front and center and support it with words that are relevant to your message.

Cut down your word count. Every single word in a sentence should feel necessary to your main point. If you have a sentence that is too wordy, it can feel clunky. Look at what you can cut out to create a smooth, coherent message.

Break up long sentences into two or more lines. If you have a sentence that feels too long, look at how many independent clauses it contains. If a sentence involves poly-syndeton—the repeated use of coordinating conjunctions to connect different items in a sentence—try replacing conjunctions with commas or semicolons. Or, simply break the thoughts out into two different sentences.

Use the active voice. When writing, use the active voice. In other words, when writing a sentence, put the subject first and have it perform an action. It is the most direct way to write a sentence. The passive voice, when an action happens to a subject, creates clunky sentences that use more words.

Remove redundant words. People often write redundant words and phrases.

For example: “In my opinion, I think” it could simply be “I think,” and

“close proximity” it could instead be just “close”

Lose fluff words. Writers often include unnecessary words in a sentence, like adverbs and modifiers. Look over every line for those filler words.

“I completely know what you mean” it could become “I know what you mean.”

If you use the words “actually” or “totally,” chances are you do not need them.

Write one-word and two-word sentences. In certain literary scenarios, like when you’re writing character dialogue, it’s stylistically acceptable to be extremely brief and write sentences with one or two words.

Review your work for sentence length. When you’ve completed your first draft, self-edit your story and review every single sentence. Reviewing the work can help you identify excess words. One long line is not bad but a book full of them will weigh your story down. Begin shortening sentences to create clear and concise thoughts. Writing short sentences will come naturally.

Software engineers generally try to minimize the number of lines of code in an implementation for the following reasons:

- Shorter code is typically easier for others to read.
- Shorter code is typically easier to maintain than longer code.
- Extra lines of code introduce additional points of failure.

In fact, the same rules apply to technical writing:

- Shorter documentation reads faster than longer documentation.
- Shorter documentation is typically easier to maintain than longer documentation.
- Extra lines of documentation introduce additional points of failure.

Finding the shortest documentation implementation takes time but is ultimately worthwhile. Short sentences communicate more powerfully than long sentences, and short sentences are usually easier to understand than long sentences.

Focus each sentence on a single idea

Focus each sentence on a single idea, thought, or concept. Just as statements in a program execute a single task, sentences should execute a single idea. For example: the following very long sentence contains multiple thoughts:

- The late 1950s was a key period for programming languages because IBM introduced *Fortran* in 1957 and John McCarthy introduced *Lisp* the following year, which gave programmers both an iterative way of solving problems and a recursive way.

Breaking the long sentence into a succession of single-idea sentences yields the following result:

- The late 1950s was a key period for programming languages. IBM introduced *Fortran* in 1957. John McCarthy invented *Lisp* the following year. Consequently, by the late 1950s, programmers could solve problems iteratively or recursively.

Exercise

Convert the following overly long sentence to a series of shorter sentences. Do not revise too much. Try to end up with a few sentences instead of only one.

In bash, use the *if then*, and *if* statements to implement a simple conditional branching block in which the *if* statement evaluates an expression, the *then* statement introduces a block of statements

to run when the if expression is true, and the if statement marks the end of the conditional branching block.

Convert some long sentences to lists. Inside many long technical sentences is a list yearning to break free.



To alter the usual flow of a loop, you may use either a break statement - which hops you out of the current loop or a continue statement - which skips past the remainder of the current iteration of the current loop.

When you see the conjunction or in a long sentence, consider refactoring that sentence into a bulleted list. When you see an embedded list of items or tasks within a long sentence, consider refactoring that sentence into a bulleted or numbered list.



The preceding sentence contains the conjunction:

To alter the usual flow of a loop, call one of the following statements:

- Break, which hops you out of the current loop.
- Continue, which skips past the remainder of the current iteration of the current loop.

Exercise

Refactor the following sentences into something shorter and clearer. Make sure that your answer contains a list:

To get started with the Frambus app, you must first find the app at a suitable store, pay for it using a valid credit or debit card, download it, configure it by assigning a value for the Foo variable in the /etc/Frambus file, and then run it by saying the magic word twice.

KornShell was invented by David Korn in 1983, then a computer scientist at Bell Labs, as a superset of features, enhancements, and improvements over the Bourne Shell (which it was backwards compatible with), which was invented by Stephen Bourne in 1977 who was also a computer scientist at Bell Labs.

Eliminate or reduce extraneous words

Many sentences contain filler – textual junk food that consumes space without nourishing the reader. For example, see if you can spot the unnecessary words in the following sentence:

- An input value greater than 100 causes the triggering of logging.

Replacing causes the triggering of with the much shorter verb triggers yields a shorter sentence:

- An input value greater than 100 triggers logging.

With practice, you'll spot the extra words and feel enormous happiness in removing or reducing them. For example, consider the following sentence:

- This design document provides a detailed description of Project Frambus.

The phrase provides a detailed description of reduces to the verb describes (or the verb details), so the resulting sentence could become:

- This design document describes Project Frambus.

The following table suggests replacements for a few common bloated phrases:

Wordy	Concise
at this point in time	now
determine the location of	find

Wordy	Concise
is able to	can

Exercise

Shorten the following sentences without changing their meaning:

- In spite of the fact that Arnold writes buggy code, he writes error-free documentation.
- Changing the sentence from passive voice to active voice enhances the clarification of the key points.
- Determine whether Rikona is able to write code in COBOL.
- Frambus causes the production of bugs, which will be chronicled in logs by the Log Generator method.

Reduce subordinate clauses (optional)

A clause is an independent logical fragment of a sentence, which contains an actor and an action. Every sentence contains the following:

- a main clause
- zero or more subordinate clauses

Subordinate clauses modify the idea in the main clause. As the name implies, subordinate clauses are less important than the main clause. For example, consider the following sentence:

- Python is an interpreted programming language, which was invented in 1991.

main clause: Python is an interpreted programming language

subordinate clause: which was invented in 1991

You can usually identify subordinate clauses by the words that introduce them. The following list (by no means complete) shows common words that introduce subordinate clauses:

- which
- that
- because
- whose
- until
- unless
- since

Some subordinate-clauses begin with a comma and some don't. The highlighted subordinate clause in the following sentence, for example, begins with the word because and does not contain a comma:

- I prefer to code in C++ because I like strong data typing.

When editing, scrutinize subordinate clauses. Keep the one sentence = one idea formula in mind. Do the subordinate clauses in a sentence extend the single idea or do they branch off into a separate idea? If the latter, consider dividing the offending subordinate clause(s) into separate sentences.

Exercise

Determine which of the sentences contain subordinate clauses that should be branched off into separate sentences. (Don't rewrite the sentences, just identify the sentences that should be rewritten.)

- Python is an interpreted language, which means that the language can execute source code directly.

- Bash is a modern shell scripting language that takes many of its features from KornShell 88, which was developed at Bell Labs.
- Lisp is a programming language that relies on Polish prefix notation, which is one of the systems invented by the Polish logician Jan Łukasiewicz.
- I don't want to say that Fortran is old, but only radiocarbon dating can determine its true age.

Distinguish that from which

That and *which* both introduce subordinate clauses. What's the difference between them? Well, in some countries, the two words are pretty much interchangeable. Inevitably though, alert readers from the United States will angrily announce that you confused the two words again.

In the United States, reserve *which* for nonessential subordinate clauses, and use *that* for an essential subordinate clause that the sentence can't live without. For example, the key message in the following sentence is that Python is an interpreted language; the sentence can survive without Guido van Rossum invented:

- Python is an interpreted language, which Guido van Rossum invented.

By contrast, the following sentence requires don't involve linear algebra:

- Fortran is perfect for mathematical calculations that don't involve linear algebra.

If you read a sentence aloud and hear a pause just before the subordinate clause, then use *which*. If you don't hear a pause, use *that*. Go back and read the preceding two example sentences. Do you hear the pause in the first sentence?

- Place a comma before *which*; do not place a comma before *that*.

12.5 Parallelism

Definition

The balance between two or more similar words, phrases or clauses is called parallelism in grammar. Parallelism is also called parallel structure or parallel construction. Parallel construction prevents awkwardness, promotes clarity and improves writing style and readability.

Examples:

- Nancy likes playing the piano, the trumpet and play the guitar. ✘
Nancy likes the piano, the trumpet and the guitar. ✔
Nancy likes playing the piano, the trumpet and the guitar. ✔
- She played basketball, had a shower and gone to school. ✘
She played basketball, had a shower and went to school. ✔
- You can apply to the job by filling this form or apply by telephone. ✘
You can apply to the job by filling this form or you can apply by telephone. ✔

Rules of parallelism

Parallelism is used to balance nouns with nouns, prepositional phrases with prepositional phrases, participles with participles, infinitives with infinitives, clauses with clauses.

Parallelism is used with elements joined by coordinating conjunctions.

- My mother likes cooking and to read. ✘
- My mother likes cooking and reading. ✔

Parallelism is used with elements in lists or in a series.

- This task can be done individually, in pairs, or can be done in groups of four. ✘
- This task can be done individually, in pairs, or in groups of four. ✔

Parallelism is used with elements being compared.

- She is mad about watching TV more than to read a book . ✘
- She is mad about watching TV more than reading a book. ✔

Parallelism is used with elements joined by a linking verb or a form of be

- To learn is understanding the world. ✘
- To learn is to understand the world. ✔

Parallelism is used with elements joined by linking words.

- The teacher not only wants his students to keep quiet but also to do the task . ✘
- The teacher wants his students not only to keep quiet but also to do the task . ✔

Parallel sentence elements in grammar are just like parallel lines in geometry: they face the same direction and never meet.

More precisely, in grammar, it's less about meeting and more about balance. Parallelism in grammar is defined as two or more phrases or clauses in a sentence that have the same grammatical structure.

The Why

A sentence with parallel construction makes your writing effective, classy, and certain to impress anyone who reads your stuff.

The How

Here's a handy trick for testing parallelism: rewrite the sentence for each element that should be parallel. For example:

A sentence with parallel construction makes your writing effective. A sentence with parallel construction makes your writing classy. A sentence with parallel construction makes your writing certain to impress anyone who reads your stuff.

Effective, classy, and certain are all adjectives. Even though "certain to impress anyone who reads your stuff" is a mouthful compared to the other two, each sentence element is the same part of speech. That makes the sentence balanced, and therefore, parallel.

The What

Lack of parallelism can happen in a lot of ways, but the mistake is usually clear enough to make you wince when you hear it. Read on for the most common parallelism problems you'll encounter—and how to avoid them.

Verb Forms

Olympic athletes usually like practicing, competing, and to eat ice cream sandwiches.

In this sentence, practicing and competing are gerunds (verbs functioning as nouns) and "to eat" is an infinitive. It sounds pretty awkward—just like being an athlete with a sweet tooth.

Instead:

- Olympic athletes usually like practicing, competing, and eating ice cream sandwiches.

or

- Olympic athletes usually like to practice, compete, and eat ice cream sandwiches.

Note that you don't need to repeat the "to" in each instance of the infinitive form of the verb. As long as the form of the verb is the same in all three cases, you're good to go.

Nouns vs. Verbs

- For dinner we like lamb chops and to fry brussel sprout.

Lamb chops is a noun. Brussel sprout is a noun too, but to fry is a verb.

- For dinner we like lamb chops and brussel sprout.

or

- For dinner we like to grill lamb chops and fry brussel sprouts.

Noun Number

- Public transit such as buses or a train can help reduce air pollution.

Multiple buses, one train? That's not going to solve any environmental issues. Here's a better solution:

- Public transit such as buses or trains can help reduce air pollution.

More Mismatched Parts of Speech

- The detective deftly and with pizzazz outlined how the crime had been committed.

What's the adverb of pizzazz? Good question. Both deftly (adverb) and with pizzazz (a prepositional phrase) need to be the same part of speech for this sentence to be properly parallel. And if "pizzazzily" isn't a word, that means two nouns are needed.

With deftness and pizzazz, the detective outlined how the crime had been committed.

- Subject Matter

He decided to cover the gown in sequins, and had a steak for dinner.

Huh? Unless being a fabulous designer is a recipe for steak, these two actions don't seem to have much in common. Parallelism in subject matter means that everything discussed in a sentence should have at least some amount of clarity and relatedness.

- He decided to cover the gown in sequins, and to celebrate, he had a steak for dinner.

or

- He was hungry after he covered the gown in sequins, so he had a steak for dinner.

The possible connections are endless, but for proper parallelism, that connection must be clear to the reader.

Parallelism in Rhetoric

In rhetoric—that is, in the world of literature and speeches, or anytime you want to sound extra fancy—parallelism involves one or more sentences with similar structures to produce a pattern of repetition and balance.

- I celebrate myself, and sing myself, and what I assume you shall assume, For every atom belonging to me as good belongs to you. —Walt Whitman, "Song of Myself"
- Love me, love me, say that you love me, Fool me, fool me, go on and fool me. —The Cardigans, "Lovefool"
- Easy come, easy go. —Common saying

Parallelism helps make your writing as neat as a geometry equation specifically, one with parallel lines. To keep your writing lined up straight, don't forget to keep your eyes peeled for these elements:

Matching parts of speech Noun number Subject matter Rhetoric

You know what they say: you win some, you lose some. But use parallelism correctly in your writing and speech, and you're that much more likely to say: I came, I saw, I conquered.

Keywords: grammar, editing, delayed, subjects, long, winding, sentence, short, parallelism

Summary

- A delayed subject is a subject that appears at (or near) the end of a sentence, after the main verb.

- Most delayed subjects are formed by infinitives or by subordinate clauses.
- In conversation we'd probably find ourselves tongue-tied if we couldn't begin sentences with the grammatical subject *there*.
- If you describe something that is written or said as long-winded, you are critical of it because it is longer than necessary.
- The craft of simple writing begins with learning how to write short sentences. Getting a complete idea across in fewer words allows you to be succinct and direct, and it improves the readability of your story.
- A simple sentence is a basic sentence with one independent clause—a complete thought that can stand on its own.
- Compound sentences consist of two or more independent clauses joined by a coordinating conjunction.
- Complex sentences consist of an independent clause and one or more dependent clauses—a phrase with a subject and verb that does not express a complete thought—joined by a subordinating conjunction.
- Compound-complex sentences consist of multiple independent clauses as well as at least one dependent clause.
- Short sentences provide a direct path to your main point.
- Short sentences improve readability.
- Short sentences are more striking.
- Short sentences prevent you from over thinking.
- Focus each sentence on a single idea, thought, or concept.
- Many sentences contain filler—textual junk food that consumes space without nourishing the reader.
- *That* and *which* both introduce subordinate clauses.
- The balance between two or more similar words, phrases or clauses is called parallelism in grammar.
- Parallelism is used to balance nouns with nouns, prepositional phrases with prepositional phrases, participles with participles, infinitives with infinitives, clauses with clauses.
- In rhetoric—that is, in the world of literature and speeches, or anytime you want to sound extra fancy—parallelism involves one or more sentences with similar structures to produce a pattern of repetition and balance.

Self Assessment

1. Identify the use of 'it' as a delayed subject in the following sentence.

"Jack lives in India."

- A. India is the place where Jack lives.
- B. It is jack who lives in India.
- C. Nowhere else but India where jack lives.
- D. No one else but Jack who lives in India.

2. Identify the use of 'there' as a delayed subject in the following sentence.

"The study can be done in two ways."

- A. There are two ways in which the study can be done.
- B. Study can be done in two ways.

- C. There are two ways that the study can be done.
- D. Two ways can be used to undertake the study.

3. Identify the use of 'what' as a delayed subject in the following sentence.

"He wants to become a world-class doctor."

- A. It is a world-class doctor that he wants to become.
- B. He neither wants to become an architect or scientist but a doctor.
- C. A world-class doctor is his only wish.
- D. What he wants to become is a world-class doctor.

4. Why do many writers use long and complex sentence structures?

- A. To display their command over language
- B. To display their position in the field
- C. To display their contribution in language
- D. None of the above

5. What do the writers need to remember in using long and complex sentence structures?

- A. Following the guideline provided by previous researchers
- B. Using Gerund, Participle, and Infinitive
- C. Keeping the sources in mind
- D. Matching head words with main verb

6. Identify the mistake in the following sentence.

"Knowledge about the relationship between inflation and its determinants remain limited."

- A. between
- B. remain
- C. its
- D. determinants

7. Identify the correct sentence out of the following options.

- A. Each of the students were sick last week.
- B. Each of the students was sick last week.
- C. Every of the students were sick last week.
- D. Every of the student was sick last week.

8. Why do writers use short sentences?

- A. Easy to convey and illegible
- B. Easy to collect and writers' friendly
- C. Easy to understand and readers' friendly
- D. Easy to hold and create credibility

9. What should be avoided regarding the use of short sentences?

- A. Excessive use
- B. Various combinations
- C. Different structures
- D. Relevant words and unwanted ideas

10. Combing the following sentences into one.

“The mixture is yellow and absorbs water. It has a boiling point of 80 degrees.”

- A. The mixture is yellow absorb water and has a boiling point of 80 degrees.
- B. The mixture is yellow, absorbs water, and has a boil point of 80 degrees.
- C. The mixture is yellow, absorbing water, and having a boil point of 80 degrees.
- D. The mixture is yellow, absorbs water, and has a boiling point of 80 degrees.

11. Identify the correct combination of the following sentences.

“The boss had watched all of this. He had refused to become involved.”

- A. The boss had watched all of this, but he had refused to become involved.
- B. The boss has watched all of this but he has refused to become involved.
- C. The boss had watch all of this, but he had refuse to become involved.
- D. The boss had watched all of these, but he had refused to become involved.

12. What is parallelism?

- A. Phrases/clauses having same grammatical structure
- B. Phrases/clauses having same linguistic parallel
- C. Phrases/clauses having different grammatical structure
- D. Phrases/clauses having different linguistic parallel

13. Parallelism is about meeting and about balance.

- A. more, much
- B. all, nothing
- C. less, more
- D. Nothing, all

14. What is expected while using gerund and infinitive in any sentence?

- A. Do mix
- B. Do not mix
- C. Should not be used in one sentence
- D. Cannot use in one sentence

15. Identify the correct use of parallelism out of the following options.

- A. The programme assists schools in identifying their weaknesses and to select a development plan.
- B. The programme assists schools in to identify their weaknesses and selecting a development plan.
- C. The programme assists school in identify their weaknesses and to select a development plan.

D. The programme assists schools in identifying their weaknesses and selecting a development plan.

Answer for Self Assessment

- | | | | | |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. B | 2. A | 3. D | 4. A | 5. D |
| 6. B | 7. B | 8. C | 9. A | 10. A |
| 11. A | 12. A | 13. C | 14. B | 15. D |

Review Questions

1. What is delayed subject?
2. Give example of the use of 'It' as a delayed subject.
3. Give example of the use of 'There' as a delayed subject.
4. Give example of the use of 'What' as a delayed subject.
5. Why do writers use long and winding sentences?
6. Explain the pros and cons of the use of long and winding sentences?
7. What are the benefits of using short sentences in writing?
8. Discuss compound sentences with suitable examples.
9. Discuss complex sentences with suitable examples.
10. Discuss compound-complex sentences with suitable examples.
11. What is parallelism? Give suitable examples.
12. Discuss dos and don'ts of parallelism with suitable examples.



Further Reading

1. A Course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd.
English Grammar by Rajeevan Karal, Oxford University Press.
2. A course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd.
English Grammar by Rajeevan Karal, Oxford University Press.
3. Oxford EAP: A Course in English for Academic Purposes by Edward De Chazal
And Sam Mccarter, Oxford University Press.
4. MLA Handbook by Modern Language Association of America, Modern Language
Association.

Unit 13: Working with Words: Misleading Words

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Objectives

- Understand the meaning and use of misleading words
- Analyze one word for many and its related uses
- Illustrate the use of complicated words in academic writing
- Elucidate the purpose of avoiding metaphors and redundant words

Introduction

Vocabulary is a set of words within a language that are familiar to a particular person. Every person's particular vocabulary is unique and often not given much thought or attention as it tends to develop with age and grow and evolve over time. It is ordinarily defined as 'all of the words known and used by a particular person' although 'knowing' a word is not as simple as you may think.

It can be easy to say 'Yes I know this word' but in order to determine exactly how well you know the word there have been stages:

- Never encountered the word
- Heard the word, but cannot define it
- Recognize the word due to context or tone of voice
- Able to use the word and understand the general and/or intended meaning, but cannot clearly explain it
- Fluent with the word (its use and definition)

Further to the degrees to which you are familiar with a certain word there are also different levels of depth. There are many components that go into knowing a word which are as follows:

- Orthography - Written form
- Phonology - Spoken form
- Reference - Meaning
- Semantics - Concept and reference
- Register - Appropriate usage
- Collocation - Lexical neighbours
- Word Associations
- Syntax - Grammatical function

- Morphology - Word parts

Of course with these many facets of word knowledge come many different types of vocabulary. We have all, at some part of our lives made ourselves look slightly foolish by having a stab at a new word that we have only ever read and getting the pronunciation completely wrong. These occasions, although quite unbearable at the time, are perfect examples of a gap between your reading and speaking vocabulary.

Vocabulary is ultimately expression; having an extensive vocabulary will help you express yourself clearly and communicate well with clarity, a linguistic vocabulary is also identical to a thinking vocabulary meaning that you will be able to think concise thoughts with precision. Although much of your vocabulary is built up throughout childhood, it will certainly plateau once you leave education. In order to keep the vocabulary in order and expand after this time it is advisable to read, play word games or even set yourself goals to learn a new word each day.

Here are the top five reasons why vocabulary is so important and what does it improve:

1. Reading Comprehension

- Research has shown that kids need to understand 98% of the words they read to understand what they are reading. Improving vocabulary skills will improve their understanding of any written material.

2. Language Development

- Children who develop a rich vocabulary tend to be deeper thinkers, express themselves better and read more. Improving language and literacy skills early in life will help them be more successful academically.

3. Communicating Ideas

- Successful communication is dependent upon a good vocabulary. Using the right words at the time of communication makes you a more effective communicator.

4. Expressing Yourself

- Having a good vocabulary can help you write more effectively. Students need to use a more formal tone when writing than a colloquial or conversational language. For that, they need a richer vocabulary to tap into those words we don't use when we speak.

5. Occupational Success

- Researcher Johnson O'Connor found that "a person's vocabulary level is the best single predictor of occupational success." Success in academics or the business place depends on your communication skills.

Whether you are writing professionally, at work or for reports in school, you should have a vocabulary that will provide for clear communication of your ideas and thoughts. You need to know the type and level of your audience and adjust your vocabulary accordingly. It is worthwhile to constantly work at improving your knowledge.

1. Don't need long words

Television commentator William S. Buckley has a tremendous vocabulary and would often overpower his debate opponents through the use of long words, whose definitions only highly literate people would know. He wouldn't win on logic of argument but on frustrating his opponents.

If the reader cannot understand the words, you may seem intelligent, but the message you are trying to deliver is lost. Modern day readers do not possess the vocabulary that people had in the previous generation. Use caution with the words you employ to make sure the audience understands them.

2. Field-specific words

Unit 13: Working with Words: Misleading Words

One must be careful when using field-specific words. Each field has its own special jargon and words they like to use. Sometimes those words have other meanings outside that field or may seem meaningless to the average reader.

When writing for a special group, you can use their field-specific words, but you still should include the real meanings. It is surprising the number of people within an industry or field who don't know the true meanings of their jargon.

3. Improve Vocabulary

Writers should love words. There may be simple or/and complex words. Good writers will often use a dictionary to look up the meaning of a word they see or hear, as well as use a thesaurus to find alternate words. Even the simple thesaurus in your word processor is handy for this.

They feel that paying attention to words used around is the best way to increase one's working vocabulary. If you are really into improving the number of words you know, you can use such vocabulary-improvement lessons as are in the Reader's Digest. Word games and crossword puzzles often help strengthen your vocabulary.

Eventually, a good vocabulary does not mean you know many long or difficult words. Instead, it means that you know how to express yourself so that the reader will understand your writing. Sometimes it becomes necessary to use field/industry-specific jargon, but you still must make sure that everyone understands what you are writing.

13.1 Misleading Words

1. Homophones

A homophone is a word that is pronounced the same (to varying extent) as another word but differs in meaning. A homophone may also differ in spelling. The two words may be spelled the same, as in rose (flower) and rose (past tense of rise), or differently, as in rain, reign, and rein. The term "homophone" may also apply to units longer or shorter than words, for example a phrase, letter, or groups of letters which are pronounced the same as another phrase, letter, or group of letters. Any unit with this property is said to be "homophonous".

Some common examples of homophones, including the words used in a sentence, are:

1. brake/break
 - While teaching my son how to drive, I told him if he didn't hit the brake in time he would break the car's side mirror.
2. cell/sell
 - If you sell drugs, you will get arrested and end up in a prison cell.
3. cent/scent
 - I won't spend five cent on a phial of perfume until I know that I love the scent.
4. die/dye
 - If anyone drinks a bottle of fabric dye, he/she would die.
5. flour/flower
 - To bake a flower-shaped cake, you will need some flour.
6. for/four
 - I purchased four new pairs of trousers for my cousin's wedding.
7. heal/heel:
 - If the heel breaks on her shoe, she might fall. However, her injuries will heal over time.
8. hear/here
 - He wants to sit here to hear the music.
9. hour/our
 - We have one hour before our meeting with the CEO of this company.
10. idle/idol

- Being idle makes me unhappy, but listening to my idol singer makes me happy.
11. knight/night
 - The knight is traveling day and night to reach to the old city Jerusalem.
 12. knot/not
 - I do not know how to tie double-knot tie.
 13. poor/pour
 - I pour some milk in the saucer for a poor old man.
 14. right/write
 - It is right to write a cover letter along with job application.
 15. sea/see
 - I love to sit and see the beautiful scenery of sea side.
 16. sole/soul
 - I need to get a new sole put on my favorite pair of jogging shoes.
 - Early prayer is good for our soul.
 17. son/sun
 - Her son is fifteen years old and likes to spend time outside in the sun.
 18. steal/steel
 - The thief decides to steal the steel bars and sell in the black market.
 19. tail/tale
 - The dog was crazily chasing its tail while the old woman was reading a fair-tale to her grand children.
 20. weather/whether
 - I don't know whether to bring an umbrella or not as the weather looks unpredictable these days.

Confusing Homophones

There are several homophones in the English language that are quite confusing. A few such confusing homophones are as follows:

1. accept/except
 - Accept is a verb that means *to take or receive*.
 - Except is used in the sense of *but* or *exclude*.
2. affect/effect
 - Affect is a verb that indicates influence.
 - Effect is a noun that shows the result of an action or change.
3. compliment/complement
 - Compliment means to say something nice about someone or something.
 - Complement means something that enhances or completes.
4. then/than
 - *Then* is a versatile word used as an adverb, noun or adjective to show the order of how things happened.
 - *Than* is a subordinating conjunction you can use to make comparisons.
5. to/too
 - *To* can be used as a preposition or infinitive in the combination of a verb.
 - *Too* is an adverb or used as a synonym for also.
6. you're/your
 - *You're* is a contraction for you are.
 - *Your* is used as a pronoun.

2. Homonyms

Homonyms are the words which are homographs (words that share the same spelling, regardless of pronunciation) or homophones (words that share the same pronunciation, regardless of spelling), or both but different in meaning.

Merriam Webster defines homonyms as:

“One of two or more words spelled and pronounced alike but different in meaning (such as the noun quail and the verb quail).”



1. Address - Address
 - I can give you the address of a good doctor.
 - That letter was addressed to my father.
2. Band - Band
 - The band of musicians is playing an old Beatles songs.
 - She always ties her hair back in a band.
 - Many birds are banded black and yellow.
3. Bat - Bat
 - Children are afraid of bats.
 - It's her first time at bat in the major leagues.
4. Match - Match
 - If you suspect a gas leak do not strike a match.
 - His fingerprints match those found at the crime-scene.
5. Mean - Mean
 - What do you mean?
 - She wants to find a mean between frankness and rudeness.
6. Right - Right
 - They were sure that their decision was right.
 - I told the old man that he should take a right turn for the hospital.
7. Ring - Ring
 - He ordered a beautiful ring for his prospective wife.
 - Children sat on the floor in a ring and started playing.
8. Rock - Rock
 - He formed a rock band with some college friends.
 - To build the highway, they had to cut through 1000 feet of solid rock.
9. Rose - Rose
 - She has a rose garden at the back yard of her new house.
 - Sales rose by 50% over the Diwali period.
10. Spring - Spring
 - I'm sorry to spring it on you, but I've been offered another job.
 - My cousin was born in the spring of 2001.
11. Stalk - Stalk
 - He ate the apple, stalk and some cookies.
 - A stranger was stalking the girl.
12. Well - Well
 - The symposium was very well organized and a great success.
 - The can jumped into the well.
13. Clip - Clip
 - They are clips from the old James Bond film.

- The wire is held on with metal clips.
- 14. Date - Date
 - The date on the application was 20th July 2020.
 - Jackleen and Martin went to the famous restaurant on a date.
- 15. Drop - Drop
 - A few drops of blood splashed onto the floor.
 - The ripe mango dropped from the tree.
- 16. Fly - Fly
 - A fly was buzzing against the window.
 - I called my brother to fly a kite.
- 17. Letter - Letter
 - I received a letter from my old friend.
 - "D" is the fourth letter of the English alphabet.
- 18. Palm - Palm
 - He held the squirrel gently in the palm of his hand.
 - The coconut palm is a native of Malaysia.
- 19. Park - Park
 - I went for a walk in the park with my friends.
 - The basement is used as a car park.
- 20. Point - Point
 - She was arguing hard to prove her point.
 - The boy points at an ugly looking man in the court trial.

3. Homograph

'Graph' means *writing* like biography that means *life writing* and 'homo' means *same*. So, homograph means *same writing*. A homograph is a word that shares the same spelling with another word but with a different meaning.

However, some dictionaries insist that the words must also sound different, while the Oxford English Dictionary says that the words should also be of "different origin". In this vein, The Oxford Guide to Practical Lexicography lists various types of homographs, including those in which the words are discriminated by being in a different word-class, such as hit, the verb to strike, and hit, the noun a blow. The following are a few examples of homographs.

1. Accent
 - stress or emphasis
 - a manner of speaking or pronunciation influenced by the region in which one lives or grew up
2. Agape
 - wide open
 - a Greek word meaning "love"
3. Attribute
 - a characteristic or quality
 - to think of as belonging to or originating in some person, place or thing
4. Bass
 - a deep voice or tone
 - a kind of fish
5. Bat
 - a piece of sporting equipment used in baseball
 - a winged animal associated with vampires

6. Buffet
 - to hit, punch or slap
 - a self-serve food bar
7. Compact
 - small
 - to make small
 - a small case for holding makeup
8. Compound
 - to mix or combine
 - an enclosed area with a building or group of buildings inside
9. Content
 - happy or satisfied
 - all that is contained inside something
10. Coordinates
 - brings into proper place or order
 - a set of numbers used to calculate position
11. Desert
 - a hot, arid region
 - to leave
12. Discount
 - a reduction in price
 - to underestimate the significance of or give no credence to
13. Does
 - female deer (plural)
 - present, third person singular form of the verb “do”
14. Down
 - in a lower position
 - soft, furry feathers
15. Entrance
 - the place of entry
 - to bewitch, delight or enrapture
16. Evening
 - late afternoon
 - making more even
17. Fine
 - very good
 - sharp or keen
 - delicate or subtle
 - a sum of money paid to settle a matter
18. frequent
 - occurring regularly
 - to visit a place with regularity
19. Lead
 - to go first with followers behind
 - a type of metal
20. Object
 - a thing you can see or touch

- a goal
- a noun that receives the action of a verb
- to be opposed to

Summary

- Vocabulary is a set of words within a language that are familiar to a particular person.
- There are many components that go into knowing a word like orthography, phonology, reference, semantics, register, collocation, word associations, syntax, and morphology.
- Vocabulary improves reading and language comprehension, communication, expression, and determines occupational success.
- Use caution with the words you employ to make sure the audience understands them.
- When writing for a special group, you can use their field-specific words, but you still should include the real meanings.
- Good writers will often use a dictionary to look up the meaning of a word they see or hear, as well as use a thesaurus to find alternate words.
- A homophone is a word that is pronounced the same (to varying extent) as another word but differs in meaning.
- Homonyms are the words which are homographs (words that share the same spelling, regardless of pronunciation) or homophones (words that share the same pronunciation, regardless of spelling), or both but different in meaning.
- A homograph is a word that shares the same spelling with another word but with a different meaning.

Keywords: words, misleading, complicated, metaphors, redundant, academic, writing

Self Assessment

1. What are misleading words?
 - A. Creating confusion to the readers and presenter
 - B. Creating confusion to the readers and the organizers
 - C. Creating confusion to the writer and the authorities
 - D. Creating confusion to the writer and the readers
2. What are homophones?
 - A. Pairs of words that meaning is same but different in sound and spelling
 - B. Pairs of words that sound the same but vary in meaning and spelling
 - C. Pairs of words that sound the same but vary in syntax and context
 - D. None of the above
3. What are homonyms?
 - A. Words similar in spelling and sound but different in meaning
 - B. Words similar in meaning and sound but different in spelling
 - C. Words similar in sound and spelling but different in meaning
 - D. Words similar in meaning and context but different in spelling

4. What are homographs?
 - A. Words similar in sound but different in meaning.
 - B. Words similar in sound but different in spelling.
 - C. Words similar in spelling but different in meaning.
 - D. Words similar in meaning but different in sound.

5. What is one word substitution?
 - A. A word replacing a wordy phrase
 - B. A phrase replacing a word
 - C. A word replacing a sentence
 - D. A phrase replacing a sentence

6. Words to be used must be known properly by
 - A. the publisher
 - B. the interpreter
 - C. the writer
 - D. All of the above
7. are used for things or events that are difficult to understand because of complexity.
 - A. Redundant words
 - B. Long words
 - C. Conjugational words
 - D. Derivative words
8. Identify the correct one word substitute for the following phrase: "One who cannot be corrected"
 - A. Corrosive
 - B. Incurable
 - C. Irrefutable
 - D. Irrevocable

9. What is metaphor?
 - A. A figure of speech used to make distinction between two different species
 - B. A figure of speech used to make comparison between two different species
 - C. A figure of speech used to make comparison between two different objects
 - D. A figure of speech used to make distinction between two different objects

10. What is Clichés?
 - A. An overused phrase/opinion having original thought
 - B. An overused concept lacking original thought
 - C. An used phrase/opinion lacking original thought
 - D. An overused phrase/opinion lacking original thought

11. A mixed metaphor brings two images together.
 - A. illogical
 - B. meaningful
 - C. senseless

- D. relevant
12. What is redundancy in English?
- Needless repletion of words
 - Worthless use of words
 - Meaningful use of words
 - Complex use of words
13. What do writers need to remember about redundancy?
- Every work they contribute should be acknowledged world-wide
 - Every work they produce should be original
 - Every word they use shouldn't add something unacceptable to the piece of writing
 - Every word they use should add something new to the piece of writing
14. What is Clichés?
- An overused phrase/opinion having original thought
 - An overused concept lacking original thought
 - An used phrase/opinion lacking original thought
 - An overused phrase/opinion lacking original thought
15. Identify the use of redundant word in the following sentence.
"The companies merged together last month."
- Companies
 - Merged
 - Together
 - Last

Answer for Self Assessment

- | | | | | |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. D | 2. B | 3. A | 4. C | 5. A |
| 6. C | 7. B | 8. B | 9. B | 10. D |
| 11. C | 12. A | 13. D | 14. D | 15. C |

Review Questions

- What are misleading words?
- What do you understand by homophones? Give suitable examples.
- What are homonyms? Give suitable examples.
- How do homographs work in academic writing? Give suitable examples.
- Define one word substitution. Give suitable examples.
- Discuss the uses of complicated words along with appropriate examples.
- Explain the uses of long words with relevant examples.
- What is metaphor? Discuss with examples.
- Define clichés with suitable examples.
- What are mixed metaphors? Give examples.

11. What is redundancy in academic writing?
12. Explain how to avoid redundancy in academic writing.



Further Reading

1. A Course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd.
2. English Grammar by Rajeevan Karal, Oxford University Press
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Association

Unit 14: Working with Words: Linking Words

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Objective

- Understand the meaning and ways to avoid sexist language
- Analyze the need of expressing the degree of certainty
- Illustrate the use of capitalization in academic writing
- Elucidate the use of linking words in academic writing

Introduction

All sentences in a paragraph need to relate to the main idea in the topic sentence. The reader should be able to see how each sentence flows from the previous one and how each is connected to the topic sentence. Linking words and phrases weave sentences together to create a cohesive paragraph.

14.1 Linking Words

Linking words in English are used to combine two phrases, clauses or sentences presenting contrast, comparison, condition, supposition, purpose, etc. They are also called 'connective' or 'transition' words. They enable us to establish clear connections between ideas. Most linking words can either connect clauses within a sentence, or start a sentence to form a link with the previous statement.

Although some of these words can be used as sentence connectors, they can also be used to develop coherence within a paragraph that is linking one idea / argument to another.

The following are the examples of different linking words used for expressing the idea of sequence, result, emphasis, addition, reason, example, contrast, and comparison.

Sequence	First / firstly, second / secondly, third / thirdly, etc. Next, last, finally, In addition, moreover, Further / furthermore, Another, Also, In conclusion, To summarise
Result	So, As a result, As a consequence (of), Therefore, Thus, Consequently, Hence

	Due to
Emphasis	Undoubtedly, Indeed, Obviously, Generally, Admittedly, In fact, Particularly, /in particular, Especially, Clearly, Importantly
Addition	And, In addition / additionally / an additional, Furthermore, Also, Too, As well as
Reason	For, Because, Since, As, Because of
Example	For example, For instance, That is (i.e.), Such as, Including, Namely
Contrast	However, Nevertheless, Nonetheless, Still, Although / even though, Though, But, Yet, Despite / in spite of, In contrast (to) / in comparison, While, Whereas, On the other hand, On the contrary
Comparison	Similarly, Likewise, Also, Like, Just as, Just like, Similar to, Same as, Compare compare(d) to / with, Not only...but also

Examples of the use of linking words in sentences

1. His mother left him. As a result, he became very depressed.
2. She has lived in England, and as a consequence she speaks English fluently.
3. They do not have enough money. Therefore they cannot afford to buy a new house.
4. We do not own the house. Thus, it would not be possible for us to make any major changes to it.
5. There has been a heavy rain and consequently the lake is full.
6. The customer was displeased with his behavior, hence the manager fired him.
7. The paint is of low quality, for this reason, it is not a good choice for interior use.
8. Due to a broken wing, this plane can't fly.
9. Additionally, the bus service will run on holidays, every three hours.
10. He never had discussed the matter with her sister. Furthermore, he had not even tried to contact her.
11. We are unable to repair this toy. Also, this is the third time this has happened.
12. I love wearing the shoes of this brand. Our factory design and make them too.
13. Jerry as well as Diana is working on this project.
14. In conclusion, swimming is an excellent exercise to keep our body fit.
15. To summarize, this is the best way to solve the problem of global warming.
16. His thoughts belong to a great but vanished age. They are, in short, old-fashioned.
17. Briefly, our cricket team is now one of the best teams of the world.
18. There are many interesting places to visit in Udaipur, for example/instance, the City Palace, Fateh Sagar Lake, Zoo, Fish Aquarium, etc.
19. I prefer to wear formal clothes, such as trousers, shirt, and blazers.
20. Including Diwali and Dussehra, I've got a week off work.
21. Undoubtedly, the toy train itself is one of the main attractions of the zoo.
22. I don't mind at all. Indeed, I would be delighted to help the poor boy.
23. I had visited them three days ago.
24. Your name is before mine on report card.
25. His second marriage was likewise unhappy.
26. She's just as smart as her elder sister.

27. Despite/ In spite of the rain, I went for a walk in the evening.
28. In contrast to his good behaviour, his mean thoughts ruin the whole contract.
29. Laptops are convenient; On the other hand, they can be expensive.
30. He gets the ball off quickly compared to three years ago.

14.2 Expressing the Degree of Certainty

The degree of certainty is the claim that a given fact is true. Various words are used for this purpose such as: Modal verbs: could, may, must, and many more.

To understand the degree of certainty, let us analyze the point through an example. Here is a conversation between a customer and an employee at a telecom centre.

- Customer: Why is my SIM card not working?
- Employee: The SIM card has got corrupted. Your previous provider did not update the SIM card. Our electronic device did not accept your personal details.
- Customer: You have given me three explanations. Which one is it?

The problem here is that the employee offers three reasons as facts rather than as possibilities. He should have said:

- Employee: The SIM card *may* have got corrupted... *Perhaps* your previous provider did not update the SIM card... It is *possible* that our electronic device did not accept your personal details.

Words like *may*, *perhaps*, and *possible* indicate that the speaker is not sure about the accuracy of the information. These are called *hedges*.

When the employee is certain, he uses an *emphatic*.

- Employee: I have checked our database. It is *definitely* a problem with our electronic device.

Encyclopedias and dictionaries provide established facts, so they do not need to hedge or emphasize content. But in research papers and reports, the information may be debatable – some researchers hold one point of view, whereas others have a different opinion. Words like *perhaps* and *certainly* signal how confident the writer is about the accuracy of the information.

Notice what the table shows. First, there are more hedges than emphatics; in a complete list, the proportion of hedges is even larger. This is because we are wary of committing when we write.

For Example: Private colleges charge exorbitant fees.

This would raise questions like the following.

- Do 100% of private colleges charge exorbitant fees?
- Are there any exceptions?
- How much is considered exorbitant?
- Whether twice the norm or 20 times the norm would be considered exorbitant.
- Who considers it exorbitant – poor applicants, all applicants, the writer?

A careful writer would qualify this statement with hedges.

- *Most* private colleges charge *high* fees.

Also, the table includes the modals *could*, *will*, and *must* as examples, but there are more modal verbs – *can*, *may*, *might*, *shall*, *should*, *would*, and *must*. The primary function of modals is to indicate modality, which is the opinion and judgement of the speaker or writer about a statement. They are used to indicate possibility, probability, desire, necessity, obligation, etc. In the sentences below, the modal verb changes the meaning of the sentence.

1. The course includes problem sets. (Neutral)

2. The course might include problem sets. (Possibility)
3. The course should include problem sets. (Suggestion)
4. The course must include problem sets. (Obligation)

Modal verbs are used heavily in academic writing to indicate the author's stand. Most often, writers prefer to hedge rather than to commit. One rarely finds *must* in an academic paper.

Hedges

We use hedges or qualifiers when we do not want to commit or are unsure. Research articles make extensive use of hedges, because the readers are experts; the writer does not speak from a position of authority but has to establish his or her credibility. Hedges deflect criticism by toning down the strength of the claim, allowing other points of view, and providing room for negotiation.

However, hedges can be overused because the writer is trying to be careful. When we finish writing a paper, we usually go through it once to delete extra hedges.

Emphatics

Emphatics are words and phrases such as *obviously*, *certainly*, and *of course*. Emphatics should be used with care and only when you are certain about the claim. They can make your claims sound extreme, undercut your credibility, and alienate your readers. Avoid strong adjectives and, instead, add qualifiers such as *often* or *most*.

Mixing Hedges and Emphatics

If you do not pay attention to the purpose of hedges and emphatics, you might end up sending mixed signals that confuse the reader. In the following sentence, the degree of certainty is not clear because both hedges and emphatics have been used.

- I am *sure* the government *might* implement the plan.

14.3 Capitalization

Some students are taught to capitalize important words so that they stand out for the examiner. For example:

- Hydro-electric power can be effective in the following sectors of the state economy – Agriculture, Fiber Processing, Tourism, etc.

This is unnecessary, because we have other devices, such as bold and italics, to do the job. Capital letters also make reading difficult, so use them only when essential.

Some rules for capitalization are obvious. Use capital letters –

- a. To begin a sentence
 - The committee prepared a draft.
- b. For abbreviations
 - UGC, NCERT, JRF, NIRF
- c. For proper nouns
 - Rechal, Merry, Christina

14.4 Sexist Languages

By convention, English titles use the masculine form. The male pronoun was also used as a generic term to refer to humans. This kind of language creates problems today. For example, organizations are run by a chairman, but what if the chairman is female? The solution is to use a gender-neutral term such as *chairperson*. Does it matter? The bias does not even occur to most men; in fact, they are puzzled when they manage to offend most of their colleagues (given the rising numbers of women in the workplace).

But there is a further problem. For example:

- According to university regulations, every professor must provide accurate information about his academic qualifications.

Does it mean that the female professors are allowed to provide inaccurate information?

- Every student must bring his notebook.

Does it mean that the girls can leave their notebooks at home?

To avoid these problems, we use gender-neutral language in writing. This creates some tortured prose as we work with forms like *s/he*, *(s)he* and *her/him*. Another solution is to use the plural. For example:

- *Students* must bring *their* notebooks.

Summary

- All sentences in a paragraph need to relate to the main idea in the topic sentence.
- Linking words and phrases weave sentences together to create a cohesive paragraph.
- Linking words in English are used to combine two phrases, clauses or sentences presenting contrast, comparison, condition, supposition, purpose, etc.
- They are also called 'connective' or 'transition' words.
- There are different types of linking words used for expressing the ideas like sequence, result, emphasis, addition, reason, example, contrast, and comparison.
- The degree of certainty is the claim that a given fact is true.
- Various words are used for expressing the degree of certainty such as: Modal verbs: could, may, must, and many more.
- We use hedges or qualifiers when we do not want to commit or are unsure.
- Hedges deflect criticism by toning down the strength of the claim, allowing other points of view, and providing room for negotiation.
- Emphatics are words and phrases which are used to emphasize any point or to express the certainty. Some of such emphatics are *obviously*, *certainly*, and *of course*.
- Capitalization should be used to begin a sentence, for abbreviation, for proper nouns.
- Sexist Language is a language which excludes one sex or the other, or which suggests that one sex is superior to the other.
- It is best to avoid sexist language in order not to offend people.
- The solution is to use a gender-neutral term such as *chairperson*.
- Another solution to the problem is to use the plural form of words.

Keywords

Words, Linking, Degree, Certainty, Capitalization, Language, Sexist, Academic, Writing

Self Assessment

1. What are linking words?
 - A. Every work they contribute should be acknowledged world-wide
 - B. Every work they produce should be original
 - C. Words used to combine two clauses or sentences
 - D. Words used to define two words
2. When do we use *emphatics*?
 - A. In the state of surprise at the claim
 - B. In the state of dilemma about the claim

- C. In the state of certainty of the claim
 - D. In the state of clarity of the topic
3. Linking words enable us to establish connections between
- A. vague, words
 - B. clear, ideas
 - C. distinct, clauses
 - D. further, contexts
4. Identify linking word representing sequence out of the following options?
- A. Secondly
 - B. Last
 - C. Moreover
 - D. All of the above
5. Identify linking word representing result out of the following options?
- A. Next
 - B. Further
 - C. Consequently
 - D. Importantly
6. Identify linking word representing emphasis out of the following options?
- A. Hence
 - B. Admittedly
 - C. Additionally
 - D. Since
7. What does degree of certainty claim?
- A. Certain facts are true
 - B. A given fact is true
 - C. The superlative degree of comparison
 - D. Certainty may vary
8. Which types of words are used for showing the degree of certainty?
- A. Interpretive words
 - B. Complex words
 - C. Derivative words
 - D. Modal verbs
9. Why do we use *hedges*?
- A. To show lack of surety and commitment
 - B. To show lack of understanding and knowledge
 - C. To show lack of security and confidence
 - D. To show lack of reliability and confirmation
10. Identify the word used as *emphatics*?
- A. Of course
 - B. Obvious

- C. Humanity
D. Certain
11. Sexist language one sex or the other.
A. represent
B. exclude
C. infuse
D. reprehended
12. It is the best to sexist language in order not to people.
A. encourage, avoid
B. inculcate, communicate with
C. use, please
D. avoid, offend
13. What can be the solution for the use of sexist language?
A. Use of gender biased terms
B. Use of gender-neutral terms
C. Use of gender-acquainted terms
D. Use of gender-friendly terms
14. Identify the gender-neutral word in the following.
A. him/her
B. he/she
C. (s)he
D. All of the above
15. What is the second solution to avoid sexist language?
A. Use plural
B. Use adjectives
C. Use accurate words
D. Use additional words

Answers for Self Assessment

- | | | | | |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. C | 2. B | 3. D | 4. C | 5. B |
| 6. B | 7. D | 8. A | 9. C | 10. A |
| 11. B | 12. D | 13. B | 14. D | 15. A |

Review Questions

1. What are linking words?
2. Discuss different types of linking words with suitable examples.
3. Explain degree of certainty along with appropriate examples.
4. What are hedges? Discuss their uses.

5. What are emphatics? Discuss their uses.
6. Discuss the need and use of capitalization in academic writing.
7. What is sexist language?
8. How to avoid sexist language in academic writing? Discuss in detail.



Further Reading

1. A Course in Academic Writing by Renu Gupta, Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd.
2. English Grammar by Rajeevan Karal, Oxford University Press
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