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## The Graduate Writing Center

### ***1. Overview:***

This packet discusses successful writing in academic discourse fields. As part of this focus, this packet will address reading the field-specific practices critically. This packet will also suggest a variety of organizational patterns for certain academic genres, present some major strategies for developing a process model of writing, and offer methods for citing sources appropriately.

### ***2. Goals:***

1. Discuss some of common obstacles faced by new graduate scholars as they adapt to the conventions of academic English.
2. Present strategies and tools to address common challenges of genre-awareness, composing, paraphrasing, grammar, etc.
3. Workshop writing practices to enable utilization of resources you already possess (i.e. multiple language repertoires, cosmopolitan perspectives, social capital, etc.)

### ***3. A Note About this Packet and the Graduate Writing Center***

Please note that this packet and the workshop it is based on are designed to address general writing principles. As a result, you may not always find the information in this packet or the workshop to be directly applicable to your field or your current study. The best way to view this packet is as a summary of general writing skills that should transfer across disciplines. This means that the workshop and the packet are **not substitutes** for becoming literate in the writing practices in your own field, or for asking questions of peers and advisors within your discipline.

The Graduate Writing Center (GWC), located at 111 H Kern, provides free, one-on-one consultations for graduate students working on any kind of writing project – from seminar papers to presentations to articles to dissertations. Scheduling an appointment with the GWC is an excellent way to follow up on the practical information you receive during the workshops and this packet.

To learn more about the GWC please visit the center's website at:  
<http://pwr.la.psu.edu/resources/graduate-writing-center/GWC>.

Please note that the appointment schedule is posted one week in advance and appointment times book quickly.

### ***4. What is Academic Writing?***

The current consensus on academic knowledge, based on antifoundational philosophical deliberations, views such knowledge as field-specific and subject to its own frameworks of reality. Specifically, written knowledge is understood as contextual and relational. Texts aim for

an audience and their meanings are always co-constructed between the writer, the text, the audience, and the context.

As they become familiar with their disciplines, graduate workers develop the dispositions, skillsets, practices, of the fields in which they work, supported by material, cognitive, and social resources. They “go-native” or negotiate nativeness through their academic projects and discourse communities.

#### ***4.1 Principles of Academic Writing***

Academic writing aims at the creation of knowledge and communication. Rather than thinking of writing in the academy in terms of *belle lettres* – poetry, novel, essays, etc. - it is more accurate to think of as a collective process for specific purposes and towards specific audiences.

The characteristics of academic writing are:

- Communicates knowledge, does not aim to impress.
- Follows discourse field conventions.
- Situates in suitable information.
- Organizes information carefully.
- Keeps discourse-field audiences in mind.
- Credits sources adequately.
- Is based on continuous revision and input from multiple people.

*Written to communicate, not to impress:*

Academic writing aims to communicate the point that the material and the object of study is interesting. The focus is always on the topic you are presenting rather than on the writer. Good academic writing is “invisible writing.” In fact, it is actually detrimental if academic writing tries to appear too clever too often. You do not want to condescend to your audience, who are either your peers or professional superiors.

*Follows discourse-field conventions:*

Academic writing follows the conventions of its discourse-fields. Whether it is in the form the standard genres used in the field or standard background genres that enable learning, academic writing tries to use the practices of the disciplines efficiently and responsibly. To learn these genres, the most important thing is to imitate the practices of more experienced persons.

One good way to develop this field-awareness is to read journals in your field regularly. Get to know these platforms by talking to your mentors and advisors, who can identify good journals in your field or those in which you should publish your work. Reading articles, commentaries, and other pieces in these journals will give you a sense of the current state of the field, where it’s going, and how to position yourself within it. The recurring list of citations in these journals will also provide you the information you need to know in your own research.

*Situated in suitable information:*

Your research will be situated in your field in as far as you use its traditionally valued citations, acceptable methods, and targeted objects. You will primarily learn these points by working with mentors in your field. You will also have to glean these points by continuously developing

literature reviews. To do this it is critical that you make it a habit of noting sources of information and using citation generators (e.g. Zotero, Mandaley, Evernote, Endnote, etc.). It will save you from having to build a new bibliography each time you start a project. Another good practice is to work with librarians specializing in your fields.

You can contact discipline-specific librarians directly through this link:  
<http://www.libraries.psu.edu/psul/ask.html>

*Organizes information carefully:*

Remember that the literature you review for any given project or topic will eventually be organized into a literature review for publication or reference. Whether this review takes the form of an annotated bibliography or a synchronized section in an article, you can save yourself a lot of time by following an outline or schematic table when you are conducting your research. As Robert A. Day, author of *How to Write and Publish a Scientific Paper*, says: “The preparation of a scientific paper has less to do with literary skill than with organization.”

*Keeps discourse-field audiences in mind:*

Always remember that your writing is targeted towards audiences in your field. While the general audience might be the field as such, the immediate audience might be a professor, advisor, or committee members, or the editor or reviewer for a journal. Get to know these people by reading their work. Subsequently, utilize the work they have done and published to establish communicative common ground with them. They are literate in a set of readings and methods, and communicating with them will be easier if you draw on those sets of knowledge in your own writings.

*Credits sources adequately:*

In general, citations ought not make up more than ten-fifteen percent of your research articles your write-ups. You need to have read what people have said on your topic, but then incorporate those statements in your own words and arguments.

When you do use others’ words, put the materials into quotation marks if it is short, indent if it is long (more than three lines), and always cite your source. The most common citation styles are APA, MLA, and Chicago Style. You can google formatting standards for each. (Look below for some basic tips and notes on citations.)

*Is based on continuous revision and input from multiple people:*

You write well when you treat composing as a process; academic writing is no different. A process view of writing employs outlining, drafting, organizing your drafts into outlines, rewriting, peer-reviewing, and continuous revisions. (Note: always let your second/third drafts sit for a week before you start revising.)

### **5. Academic Genres: What You Need to Know**

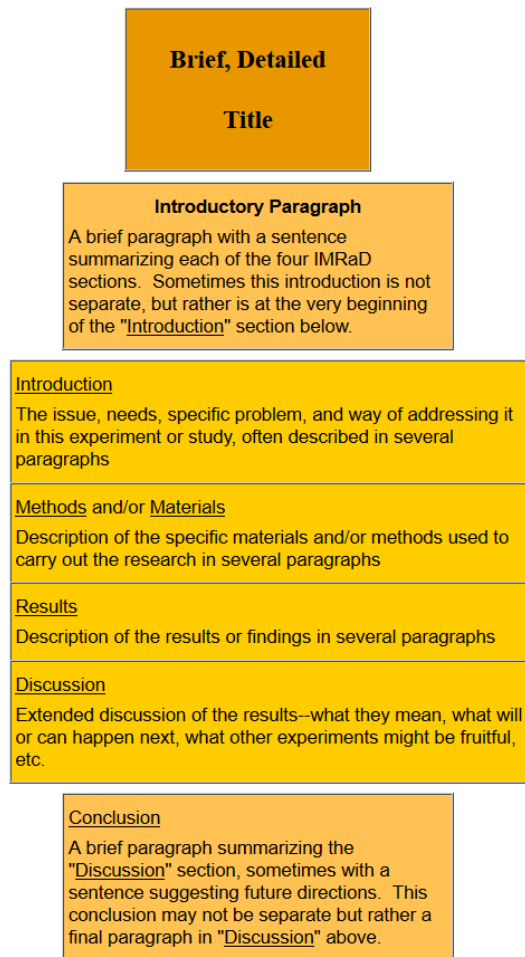
Academic genres comprise “a class of communicative events” (Swales, 1990, p. 58), made up for common purposes. While all academic fields share common genres, some fields have their own unique writing genres for their requirements, and even the ubiquitous research article takes different forms in different disciplines.

Some of the common academic writing genres are:

<b>The Sciences</b>	<b>The Humanities</b>
Research Articles (strict model)	Research Article (more essayistic)
Lab-reports and record of procedures	Book reviews and review essays
Lecture notes, fieldnotes, bibliographies	Lecture notes, archival notes, annotations and bibliographies
Monographs and multi-author monographs	Monographs
Dissertation and grant proposals	Dissertation and grant proposals
Abstracts, conference papers, and conference proposals	Abstracts, conference papers, and conference proposals
Teaching philosophies, course syllabi, assignment sheets	Teaching philosophies, course syllabi, assignment sheets
Emails	Emails

### ***5.1 The Research Article:***

Most research articles in the sciences (i.e. natural or human sciences) follow a strict template. This template can be visualized in the following format, often called the IMRD format:



Source:  
Writingforcollege.org

## **5.2 Common Sections in Academic Documents:**

### *Introductions:*

Introductions in academic writing articulate the general topic and the research question, as well as provide a literature review and an organizational paragraph. Swales (1990) identified the three moves most articles must make in its introductory section. He explains these moves as “creating a research space.”

#### **Creating a Research Space**

Adapted from Swales, J. & Feak, C. (1994). *Academic Writing for Graduate Students*, Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

#### **Moves in Research Paper Introductions**

##### **Move 1---Establish a research territory**

- a. Show that the research area is important, interesting, problematic, or relevant in some way. (optional)
- b. Introduce and review items of previous research and theory in the area. (obligatory)

##### **Move 2---Establish a niche**

- a. Indicate a gap in the previous research, raise a question about it, or extend previous knowledge (obligatory)

##### **Move 3---Occupy a niche**

- a. Outline purposes or state the nature of the present research. (obligatory)
- b. Announce principal findings. (optional)
- c. Indicate the structure of the research paper. (optional)

### *Methods/Methodologies:*

In this section you lay out how you collect and analyze your data. To this end, you will list the method of your data collection: interviews, field notes, experiments, etc. Your methods/methodologies section might include discussions of how you selected your data, why and how the subjects were chosen, an identification of your equipment, reagents, organisms.

You will then explain how you analyzed your data. Analytical lenses are also called methodologies, and include practices such as ethnographic triangulation, feminist discourse analysis, ANOVA testing, regression, etc. Finally, you will provide the limitations of your analysis.

### *Results/ Discussions:*

The results section lays out and explicates your findings. While it might be tempting to interpret your results, avoid making definitive statements in this section. Academic research does not make definitive statements on findings. Rather, you should communicate an argument on a topic based on your findings. The only requirement in this section is a factual statement of your results. Brett (2002) groups the typical moves in this section around three kinds of communicative categories: metatextual (text about text), presentation (objectively report, present, or highlight results), and comment (which interprets, comments on, or states opinions about the results).

- Metatextual categories
  - Pointers (statements that indicate which data is being discussed—i.e. “table one shows”)
  - Structure of section
- Presentation categories
  - Procedural (comments that indicate how and why data were produced)
  - Hypothesis restated (may also generate further hypotheses from findings)
  - Statement of findings/results
    - Comparison (between subjects in the study)
    - Time-related change (indicates trends or changes in the subjects over time)
    - Relationship between variables
  - Substantiation of finding
  - Non-validation of finding (indicates data that doesn’t support finding)
- Comment categories
  - Explanation of findings
  - Comparison of findings with literature (may indicate the ways in which they are the same different, or neither the same nor different)
  - Evaluation of findings regarding the Hypothesis (whether they confirm the hypothesis or not)
  - Further question(s) raised by findings
  - Implications of finding
  - Summarizing

Upon listing these facts, you are then expected to connect your findings to the published literature in your field in the “discussion” section. This section, as Penrose and Katz (2010) indicate, explains how the initial research question has been answered (at least in part) by the research presented in the article and suggests how this information represents a legitimate contribution to the field (in other words, this section may situate the results in relation to the results of other researchers). For example, “Published literature. (i.e. xx ([2010]) said this and my findings corroborate/refute/modify that statement.”

The discussion section includes:

- Background information (may include repetition of main points, reminders, etc.)
- Statement of results
- (Un)expected outcome (may be rare)
- Reference to previous research
- Explanation (reasons for a particular result)
- Exemplification
- Deduction and hypothesis (making a claim about the generalizability of some or all of the results)
- Recommendations for further research (although this move may be decreasing, as researchers are sometimes reluctant to give an advantage to others).

*Addendum for the Humanities:*

Unlike the sciences, though, a research article in the humanities is less strictly organized and more a “subtly ritualized form of communication” (Fahnestock and Secor, 1991, p. 95). It aims to “judge past performances (evaluate texts), implies future work (what to teach)... create[s] and

reinforce[s] communities of scholars sharing the same values.” What this means is that, unlike scientific writing, writing in the humanities is more explicitly value-laden. It is about presenting an essay that is simultaneously aesthetic and communicative.

### **5.3 Exercise: Identifying Moves in a Research Paper Introduction** (20 minutes)

Read the following sample research paper introduction and, working with a partner, answer the questions following it.

#### **The Position of Sentence Connectors in Academic English**

C. B. Feak and J. M. Swales

##### Introduction

Many commentators have noted that sentence connectors (e.g., however) are an important and useful element in expository and argumentative writing. Frequency studies of their occurrence in academic English extend at least as far back as Huddleston (1971). ESL writing textbooks have for many years regularly included chapters on sentence connectors (e.g. Herber, 1965). Most reference grammars deal with their grammatical status, classification, meaning, and use. Some attention has also been given to the position of sentence connectors in clauses and sentences. Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) observe (a) that the normal position is initial; (b) that certain connectors, such as hence and overall, “are restricted, or virtually restricted, to initial position” (p. 248); and (c) that medial positions are rare for most connectors, and final positions even rarer. The only attempt known to us to explain differences in position on semantic grounds is an unpublished paper by Salera (1976) discussed by Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983). The Salera paper deals only with adversatives like *however* and suggests that initial position reflects something contrary to expectation, while medial position reflects a contract that is not necessarily unexpected. However, neither of these studies provides any descriptive evidence of the actual positions of sentence connectors in academic texts. In the present paper, we report on a preliminary study of sentence connector position in a sample of twelve published articles.

1. Divide the text into the three basic moves based on the table above.
2. Where in the introduction would you divide Move 1 into 1a and 1b?
3. What kind of Move 2 do we use?
4. What kind of Move 3a do we use?
5. Underline any words or expressions in sentences 1 through 3 used to establish research territory?

### **5.4 The Abstract:**

An abstract is a stand-alone statement that briefly conveys the essential information of a paper, article, document or book. The abstract presents the objective, methods, results, and conclusions of a research project and has a brief, non-repetitive style. The abstract is an important genre to master because you will generally submit an abstract, not the actual paper, for conference applications.

An abstract of a paper or presentation should:

- Describe the objective, methods, results, conclusions.
- Detail descriptions of methods.
- Avoid reference to other literatures.

### 5.5 Exercise: Identifying Elements of an Abstract.

Read the following abstract and identify the objectives, methods, results, and conclusions. How detailed are the descriptions of the methods? Does it posit an innovative articulation of methods or analysis of findings? How might it be rephrased to make communicate that the findings will add something to the field? Why do you think it goes out of its way to avoid citations?

#### **Abstract**

This study's objective was to determine the strangeness measurements for red, green, and blue quarks. The Britt-Cushman method for quark analysis exploded a quarkstream in a He gas cloud. Results indicate that both red and green quarks had a strangeness that differed by less than  $0.453 \times 10^{-17}$  Zebes/m<sup>2</sup> for all measurements. Blue quarks remained immeasurable, since their particle traces bent into 7-tuple space. This study's conclusions indicate that red and green quarks can be used interchangeably in all He stream applications, and further studies must be done to measure the strangeness of blue quarks.

#### *Tips on writing an abstract*

1. Highlight the **objective and the conclusions** from the longer paper's **introduction and discussion sections**.
2. Bracket information in the **methods section** of the paper that contains **keyword** information.
3. Highlight the **results from the discussion or results section** of the paper.
4. **Compile** the above highlighted and bracketed information into a single paragraph. Do not explain the methods.
5. **Condense the bracketed** information into the key words and phrases that identify but do not explain the methods used.
6. **Delete** extra words, phrases, and background information.
7. **Rephrase** the first sentence so that it starts off with the **new information contained** in the paper, rather than with the general topic. **One way of doing this is to begin the first sentence with the phrase "this paper" or "this study."**
8. **Revise the paragraph** so that the abstract conveys the essential information.

### 5.6 Other Common Academic Genres

Other genres graduate workers must master as a part of their professional development are:

*Teaching philosophies:* A teaching philosophy is a self-reflective statement of your beliefs about teaching and learning. In addition to general comments, your teaching philosophy should discuss how you put your beliefs into practice by including concrete examples of what you do or anticipate doing in the classroom.

(Note: the GWC regularly holds workshops and draft-review sessions focused on Teaching Philosophies. Details can be found here: <http://pwr.la.psu.edu/resources/graduate-writing-center/graduate-workshops>.)



*Literature Reviews and Annotated Bibliographies:* The literature review is a functional look at the existing research that is significant to the work that you are carrying out. Think of the in the literature review in terms of a conversation. It provides background information on a topic and its importance for the field, as well as demonstrating the researchers' familiarity with previously published literature.

A packet on literature reviews can be found here: <http://pwr.la.psu.edu/resources/graduate-writing-center/handouts>.

*Course Syllabus:* The course syllabus is your articulation of the goals and curriculum of the course you are teaching. While it might simply seem like a list of assignments and readings, a good course syllabus also weaves in in-class activities and pedagogy into its text.

More details on preparing an effective syllabus can be found here:

<http://www.schreyerinstitution.psu.edu/cct>

*Emails to professors/editors:* Overlooked in most considerations relating to writing instruction as, emails are extremely high-stakes texts through which graduate workers negotiate assignment and publication deadlines. Do not assume anything in this genre. Speak with your mentors and peers about writing emails whenever you have any questions. A lot of publications are made or broken through email (i.e. "submit with revisions" does not mean rejection of an article – in fact it, means it is accepted).

Basic tips on writing emails can be found here:

<https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/636/1/>

## **6. Using References and Citations**

Good academic writing uses quotations, summarizations, and paraphrases tactically. You use them to strengthen your own points rather than reiterate the points of others. Quotations, summaries, and paraphrases all perform different functions.

**Quotations** must be identical to the original source, and use a narrow segment of that source. They must match the source document word for word and must be attributed to the original author.

**Paraphrasing** involves putting a passage from source material into your own words. A paraphrase must also be attributed to the original source. Paraphrased material is usually shorter than the original passage, taking a somewhat broader segment of the source and condensing it slightly. Use a paraphrase when certain specific elements of the original argument/research are important for your own work.

**Summarizing** involves putting the main idea(s) into your own words, including only the main point(s). Once again, it is necessary to attribute summarized ideas to the original source. Summaries are significantly shorter than the original and take a broad overview of the source material. Use a summary when the broad overview of the original argument/research is important for your own work.

*Some tips on appropriate use of quotations, paraphrasing, and summaries:*

- Summary and paraphrase are related citations types with slightly different purposes. A **summary** provides a concise statement, in your own words, of the author's most important points. A **paraphrase**, which also provides your own restatement, offers more specific detail about an author's arguments, examples, or values. Summary is thus a general restatement of another's work, while paraphrase provides more particular details. In order to paraphrase appropriately, your sentence cannot replicate the word choice or sentence structure of the original.
- **Use direct quotations sparingly.** You may use them to call attention to terms or phrases that have specific resonance in your field, or when the language of the quotation is particularly powerful.
- If you do use a quotation, make sure you **introduce the quote** and/or **explain its significance** so that readers understand how the quotation adds to your argument.
- Because a literature review is a review of other people's ideas, it is **crucial that you use appropriate in-text citation and complete references.** Be sure to follow whichever style guide is standard for your field (APA, Chicago, MLA, etc.).
- **Keep accurate citation records** of your sources as you read and compile your notes; this will make your final task of integrating quotations and providing appropriate citations much easier.

#### *Using a quotation*

Despite pleasant depictions of home life in art, the fact remains that for most Seventeenth-century Dutch women, the home represented a curtailment of some degree of independence. Art historian Laurinda Dixon writes that "for the majority of women, however, home was a prison, though a prison made bearable by love and approval" (1995, p. 136).

#### *Using a paraphrase or summary*

During pleasant depictions of home life in art, the fact remains that for most Seventeenth-century Dutch women, the home represented a curtailment of some degree of independence. Art historian Laurinda Dixon argues that the home actually imprisoned most women. She adds that this prison was made attractive by three things: the prescriptions of doctors of the day against idleness, the praise given diligent housewives, and the romantic ideal based on love and respect (1995, p. 136).

#### *Some things to avoid*

Plagiarism: Despite pleasant depictions of home life in art, the fact remains that for most Seventeenth-century Dutch women, *home was a prison, though a prison made bearable by love and approval.* **(This writer has listed the italicized phrase from the source; this writer needs to paraphrase the plagiarized phrase, or put it in quotation marks, and cite the author.)**

Irrelevant quotation: In painting, images of caged birds were often associated with the bonds of marriage or the voluntary imprisonment of love. Somewhat ironically, Dixon notes that the “image of the fragile, passive, housebound woman has always been a reflection more of male wish fulfillment than of female reality” (3). **(This quote has nothing to do with the claim made in the first sentence.)**

Unintroduced quotation: In some quarters, Seventeen-century Dutch women were accorded considerable respect. “Beverwijck solves the dichotomy between the public and private woman’s role by lauding the superior qualities of women that make them not only capable rulers, artists and savants, but also good daughters, wives, and mothers” (Moore, 1994, p. 642). **(Although this quote relates to the topic of the paragraph, the author needs to explain this relationship.)**

*How to quote, summarize, or paraphrase?*

1. Read the entire text, noting the key points and main ideas.
2. **Summarize** in your own words the single main idea of the essay.
3. **Paraphrase** important supporting points that come up in the essay.
4. Consider any words, phrases, or brief passages that you believe should be **quoted directly**.

### **6.3 What are Citations?**

Any time you quote, paraphrase, summarize, or reference a source, you must cite that source in a parenthetical note or a footnote, and append a bibliography, which, depending on the discipline, may be called “Works Cited” or “References.” There are basically two types of citations, information prominent (APA and Chicago-Style) and author prominent. Each academic field utilizes one or more of these citation styles.

APA (6<sup>th</sup> edition):

Author, A. A., Author, B. B., & Author, C. C. (Year). Title of article. Title of Periodical, volume number(issue number), pages. <http://dx.doi.org/xx.xxx/yyyy>

In-text (Author, year, p.x)

Example:

Scruton, R. (1996). The eclipse of listening. *The New Criterion*, 15(3), 5-13.

In text (Scruton, 1996, p. 5).

Note: In the APA style it is always assumed that the references are to the article (the printed work itself) rather than the writers. So you would use the pronoun “it” unless you specifically want to refer to the writers of the article.

MLA (7<sup>th</sup> edition):

Author(s). "Title of Article." *Title of Journal* Volume.Issue (Year): pages. Medium of publication.

In-text: (Author, p. x)

Example:

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

In-text: (Baghi, p. 41).

Note: In the MLA it is assumed that the references are to the writers (the authors). So you would use pronouns such as “s/he” or “they,” unless you specifically are referring to the text.

Chicago Style (16<sup>th</sup> Edition)

n. First name, last name, “name of article,” name of journal Volume, issue (date of publication):  
p. x.

Footnote:

1. Susan Peck MacDonald, “The Erasure of Language,” *College Composition and Communication* 58, no. 4 (2007): 619.

Bibliography

MacDonald, Susan Peck. “The Erasure of Language.” *College Composition and Communication* 58, no. 4 (2007): 585-625.

**6.3. Common Types of Citation**

*Information-Prominent Citations*

Information prominent citations make the information contained in the study being referenced the main focus of the sentence(s) describing the study.

Information prominent citations:

- Refer to general concepts or ideas in the field
- Report factual information: information that is accepted as scientific fact or general facts about the research
- Use the **present tense**

Information	Reference
In most deserts of the world, transitions between topographic elements are abrupt.	(Smith, 1968)
The research on teacher cognition is driven by two basic assumptions.	(Clark & Peterson, 1986).

General statements about research (a type of information prominent citation)

- Refer to previous research activity or the literature related to a particular topic in general terms.
- Use **present perfect tense**
- Provide a reference if the information should be attributed to another source

Level	Verb	Fact	Reference
Little research	has been conducted	on teachers’ beliefs in instructional influence.	
The literature on teaching effectiveness	has established	few theoretical grounds to guide the selection of meaningful variables	(Doyle, 1978)

*Author-Prominent citations*

Author-prominent citations make the author of the study being referenced the main focus of the sentences (s) describing the study.

Author-prominent citations

- Refer to studies more closely related to your own
- Report the findings of individual studies
- Use the **simple present tense**

Author(s)	Reference	Information
Leopold	(1921)	listed foods, but gave no quantitative data.
Allen and Reiner	(1)	Described graphically the difference between various vibration scales.

Author prominent citations often use a verb of report (either objective or subjective) to introduce the findings.

Author(s)	Reference	Verb of Report	That	Findings
Magano and Allen	(1986)	found showed reported noted observed	that	Writing teachers approached classroom instruction differently depending on their beliefs about writing.
Munby	(1982)	suggested	that	The study of teachers' theoretical beliefs is essential since teacher thinking can only be understood in relation to the psychological context within which teachers plan and decide.

Weak author-prominent citations (a type of author-prominent citation)

- Focus on a research area studied by several authors
- Refer to the authors as a group
- Use **present perfect tense**

Topic	Verb	Fact	Reference
Several researchers	have proposed	that certain teachers possess certain theoretical assumptions about teaching	(Harste & Burke, 1977; Duffy & Anderson, 1982; Deford, 1983).

*Tense in author-prominent citations*

The verb of report used to introduce the findings is always **in the past tense**, while the verb tense used to describe the findings varies according to the attitude taken toward the findings themselves.

Findings limited to one study – If you believe the findings are restricted to the specific study you are citing, use the past tense in the complement verb.

<i>Author</i>	<i>Reference</i>	<i>Verb of Report</i>	<i>Finding (Past)</i>
Abramson	(1974)	reported	that mobile students <i>had</i> lower academic performance.

Findings presented as tentative by the author(s) – If you are citing findings that were viewed as tentative by the original authors, or were suggestions or proposals rather than findings, **use tentative verbs for the verb of report and a modal auxiliary** (can, may, should) with the complement verb.

<i>Author(s)</i>	<i>Reference</i>	<i>Verb of report</i>	<i>That</i>	<i>Findings (Present)</i>
Van Bennekom	(5)	Believed Proposed Suggested hypothesized	That	Aluminum may be common in diatom residues.

Findings accepted as fact – If you believe that the findings are generally accepted as fact, use the **present tense** in the complement verb.

<i>Author(s)</i>	Reference	Verb of Report	That	Findings (Present)
Leu and Knizer	(1987)	found	That	teachers' theoretical beliefs <i>influence</i> their instructional practices.

#### ***6.4 List of Adjectives and Reporting Verbs***

##### *Evaluative adjectives*

unusual	small	simple	exploratory
Limited	restricted	flawed	complex
competent	important	innovative	impressive
useful	careful		

##### *APA reporting verbs*

acknowledges	confirms	grants	reasons
adds	contends	hypothesizes	refutes
admits	continues	illustrates	rejects
argues	declares	implies	replies
asserts	denies	insists	reports
believes	describes	notes	responds
claims	disputes	notices	shows
comments	emphasizes	observes	studies
compares	explains	points out	suggests
concludes	finds	proposes	writes

##### *MLA reporting verbs (note the more value laden words)*

argue	evaluate
analyze	illustrate
believe	indicate
claim	investigate
compare	
comment	
concede	
conclude	
criticize	
define	
demonstrate	
describe	
discuss	
dispute	
estimate	
observe	
point out	
predict	
recognize	
report	
show	
state	
stipulate	
suggest	
validate	
verify	

***6.5 Exercise: Paraphrase or summarize the following passage.***

Students frequently overuse direct quotation in taking notes, and as a result they overuse quotations in the final [research] paper. Probably only about 10% of your final manuscript should appear as directly quoted matter. Therefore, you should strive to limit the amount of exact transcribing of source materials while taking notes. Lester, James D. *Writing Research Papers*. 2nd ed. (1976): 46-47.

*Paraphrase:*

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*A legitimate paraphrase:*

In research papers students often quote excessively, failing to keep quoted material down to a desirable level. Since the problem usually originates during note taking, it is essential to minimize the material recorded verbatim (Lester, 1976).

*Summarize:*

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*A legitimate summary:*

Students should take just a few notes in “direct quotation” from sources to help minimize the amount of quoted material in a research paper (Lester, 1976, p. 46).

***7. Writing Tips:***


The following are some tips to developing good academic writing.


- Consciously choose the active voice or passive voice.
- Use a clearly planned out organization.
- Make the paragraph your unit of thought.
- Use an organizational paragraphs, headings, and subheadings.
- Use the simplest tense you can use.
- Articles (a or the) must be used for any countable noun.
- Avoid nominalization, “to be” verbs, and use of that, which, who.



*Consciously choose the active voice or passive voice.*

Aside from academic writing in the hard sciences, active voice is preferred in most academic fields. In active voice sentences, the subject of the sentence performs the action expressed by the

verb. E.g.  *The dog bit the boy.* In passive voice sentences, the subject is acted upon; he or she

receives the action expressed by the verb. E.g.  *The boy was bitten by the dog.* Writers in the sciences conventionally use passive voice more often than writers in other discourse-fields. The passive voice is especially effective in experimental circumstances because it highlights the action and what is acted upon rather than the agent performing the action. (e.g. A new experimental liver-transplant operation *was performed* successfully yesterday.)

*Use a clearly planned out organization.*

Tighten organization: Write a “**scratch outline**,” consider **post-outlining** your draft, describe the **function** of each paragraph. Make your **logic explicit**. Check for **topic sentences**. “Foreshadow” your point at the beginning of paragraphs and sections.

*Make the paragraph your unit of thought.*

To be as effective as possible, a paragraph should contain each of the following: **Unity, Coherence, A Topic Sentence, and Adequate Development**. **Unity**: The entire paragraph should concern itself with a single focus. **Coherence** is the trait that makes the paragraph easily understandable to a reader. **A topic sentence** is a sentence that indicates in a general way what idea or thesis the paragraph is going to deal with. The topic (which is introduced by the topic sentence) should be discussed **fully and adequately**.

*Use an organizational paragraph, headings, and subheadings.*

Articulate an **organizational paragraph** at the end of the introductory section. An **organizational paragraph** states your **thesis** and how you will **lay out your argument** in the paper. (It is moves 3b and 3c in the CARS model.) Break down the paper into smaller sections, using **headings** and **subheadings**. (i.e. A twenty page paper is broken down into three discrete six-page papers.)

*Use the simplest tense you can use.*

When you are not citing reported research, always use the simplest tense in your own writings. Modals (i.e. could, should, ought) are useful if you want to avoid making definitive statements. Otherwise use direct action verbs when developing your argument, summarizing your findings, or presenting other ideas/information that is original to your work. Look at the following table and chose the tense by following a left to right, top to bottom, orientation.

Past	Present	Future
<b>Simple</b>	<b>Simple</b>	<b>Simple</b>
I walked	I walk	I will walk
<b>Simple Past Continuous</b>	<b>Simple Present Continuous</b>	<b>Simple Future Continuous</b>
I was walking	I am walking	I will be walking

<b>Past Perfect</b>	<b>Present Perfect</b>	<b>Future Perfect</b>
I had walked	I have walked	I will have walked
<b>Past Perfect Continuous</b>	<b>Present Perfect Continuous</b>	<b>Future Perfect Continuous</b>
I had been walking	I have been walking	I will have been walking

*Articles (a or the) must be used for any countable noun.*

The articles *a*, *an*, and *the* are difficult to learn to use properly. Some of the rules that govern article usage are very subtle; only years of experience with the language will enable you to understand and apply these rules. There are, however, some general principles that can be helpful. The two most important concepts for standard article use are **countability** and **definiteness**.

**Countable** nouns refer to people, places, or things that can be counted (one dollar/two dollars, one house, two houses). These countable nouns can always be made plural--usually by adding *-s* or some other variation of the plural ending, e.g. student(s), countri(es), child(ren). A few words are the same in both the singular and plural forms (deer, sheep). When using an article for a singular form of this noun, generally use an article. When you are tutoring or providing instructions, therefore, you are working with a student (if it is one person) or students (if it is more than one).

**Definite** nouns refers to something specific that is known to *both* the writer/speaker and the reader/listener. (Note: You should memorize this definition). For example, if Jane needs to drive somewhere, she might ask her father, "May I use *the* car?" She uses the **definite article** *the* because both she and her father know which car Jane is referring to (the family car). But later Jane might say to her friend Bill, "I saw *a* funny-looking dog today." She uses the **indefinite article** *a* because she knows which dog she saw, but Bill doesn't.

*Minimize use of conjugations such as that, which, who, "to be" verbs, and nominalization.*

To avoid run-ons and overly long sentences, **allow yourself only one conjugation** (that, which, who, and, but, however, etc.) per sentence. Trying to edit out these words can help you shorten sentences considerably. For example "The reason that I went to New York was to see the show which everyone is talking about" can (and probably should) be changed to "I went to New York to see the show everyone is talking about."

Most auxiliary verbs can be substituted by action verbs in academic writing. **Auxiliary verbs** are "to be" or "state-of-being" verbs (is, was, am, have been, had been, etc.), or verbs that indicate conditional, non-factual assertions ("might," "could," "does," etc) . Academic writing privileges active statements. In editing auxiliary verbs out, we make more direct sentences. So for example, "He had read the book yesterday" can be changed to "He read the book yesterday." This states the same point, but in fewer words.

Finally, **nominalization**, the use of a verb, an adjective, or an adverb as a noun or as the head of a noun phrase, with or without morphological transformation, usually **turns a sentence overly-long, passive, and creates a need for "to be" verbs**. For example, "This department collects

accounts,” becomes unnecessarily long, when using the nominal function, into “The function of this department is the collection of accounts”

*7.1 Exercises: Rewrite the Following Sentences* to remove nominalizations or “to be” verbs or conjugations.

1. The budget cuts for the writing center were the topic of our debate.

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2. He dropped out of school on account of the fact that it was necessary for him to help support his family.

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3. Trouble is caused when people disobey rules that have been established for the safety of all.

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4. The coroner did an examination of the body.

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5. A campus rally was attended by more than a thousand students. Five students were arrested by campus police for disorderly conduct, while several others are charged by campus administrators with organizing a public meeting without being issued a permit to do so.

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6. There was scorching of vegetation by the 2007 fires in Morgan Hill.

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7. In the not too distant future, college freshmen must all become aware of the fact that there is a need for them to make contact with an academic adviser concerning the matter of a major.

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8. The delay of the flight was caused by the storm.

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9. It is very unusual to find someone who has never told a deliberate lie on purpose.

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10. A demand must exist for clean energy.

7.2 Exercises: Working together with a partner, fill in the blanks with the right form of the article (a, an, the).

1. I want \_\_\_\_ apple from that basket.
2. \_\_\_\_ church on the corner is progressive.
3. Miss Lin speaks \_\_\_\_ Chinese.
4. I borrowed \_\_\_\_ pencil from your pile of pencils and pens.
5. One of the students said, " \_\_\_\_ professor is late today."
- 6 Eli likes to play \_\_\_\_ volleyball.
7. I bought \_\_\_\_ umbrella to go out in the rain.
8. My daughter is learning to play \_\_\_\_ violin at her school.
9. Please give me \_\_\_\_ cake that is on the counter.
10. I lived on \_\_\_\_ Main Street when I first came to town.
11. Albany is the capital of \_\_\_\_ New York State.
12. My husband's family speaks \_\_\_\_ Polish.
13. \_\_\_\_ apple a day keeps the doctor away.
14. \_\_\_\_ ink in my pen is red.
15. Our neighbors have \_\_\_\_ cat and \_\_\_\_ dog.

### 8. Recommended Texts:

- Becker, H. S. (2007). *Writing for social scientists: how to start and finish your thesis, book, or article* (2nd ed). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Brett, P. (2002). A Genre Analysis of the Results Section of Sociology Articles. *English for Specific Purposes*, 13(1), 1–13.
- Day, R. A. (1998). *How to write & publish a scientific paper* (5th ed). Phoenix, Az: Oryx Press.
- Fahnestock, J., & Secor, M. (1991). The Rhetoric of Literary Criticism. In C. Bazerman & J. G. Paradis (Eds.), *Textual Dynamics of the Professions: Historical and contemporary studies of writing in professional communities* (pp. 76–96). Madison, Wis: University of Wisconsin Press.
- Hayot, Eric. (2014). *The elements of academic writing*. New York: Columbia UP.
- Penrose, A. M. (2010). *Writing in the sciences: exploring conventions of scientific discourse* (3rd ed). New York: Pearson Longman.
- Sword, Helen. (2012). *Stylish academic writing*. Cambridge: Harvard UP.
- Swales, J. M., & Feak, C. B. (2004). *Academic writing for graduate students: essential tasks and skills*. Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan Press.