National and Kapodistrian University of Athens
Faculty of English Language and Literature

ACADEMIC DISCOURSE
1ST SEMESTER

Course coordinators
Associate Professors
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Faculty of English Language and Literature

ACADEMIC DISCOURSE
1ST Semester
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Unit 11: Preparing for exams
A. STRUCTURE OF THE COURSE

This course is organized as a workshop in which students are invited to participate actively. For this reason, attendance is highly recommended.

Specifically, students in this course are invited to:
1. attend a weekly session
2. engage in self study work

1. WEEKLY SESSIONS

Weekly sessions aim, firstly, at familiarising students with academic texts and helping them understand and produce academic discourse successfully. To this end, these sessions embark on a detailed presentation of academic style and genres, and address issues such as interpreting data, quoting and synthesising from different texts. The second main aim of weekly sessions is to help students develop academic study skills such as note-taking, paraphrasing and summarising. A tentative course outline is the following:

Tentative outline

Week 1: Introduction to the course – Understanding academic texts
Week 2: Dealing with textbooks – Surveying material
Week 3: Note-taking
Week 4: Academic style
Week 5: Academic genres
Week 6: Generalisation, qualification and caution
Week 7: Interpretation of data
Week 8: Paraphrasing
Week 9: Summarising
Week 10: Quoting and referencing – Synthesising from sources
Week 11: Preparing for exams

2. SELF STUDY WORK

At university level, self study work aims at enabling students to become independent and autonomous learners, responsible for their own learning. In this course students are asked to systematically engage in self-study work in order to improve their overall language proficiency. This will lead to the successful completion of the Language Programme (4th semester, Genres in English) offered by the Department, which requires a C2 level of English Language Competence. Below are some suggestions for additional work:
(1) **Improve your grammar by working on a number of units from**


The suggested units are:

- Unit 12: Sentence structure: the simple sentence
- Unit 13: Sentence structure: the complex sentence
- Unit 15: The verb phrase
- Unit 16: Time and tense
- Unit 19: Modality
- Unit 22: The noun phrase
- Unit 26: Cohesion
- Unit 27: Texts

This book addresses teachers of English as a Foreign Language, and aims to raise their consciousness about language; in other words, to raise their *language awareness*. It is designed to be used for self study and it is based on the principle that “working out something for oneself pays greater dividends in terms of memory and understanding than simply having it explained” (Thornbury, 1997: xi). For this reason, the second part of the book (pp 183-255) includes extensive commentaries and keys to all tasks, which, in addition to providing sample answers to tasks, attempt to provide explanations for the answers. It is expected that in this way students will be better prepared to deal with language from a pedagogical perspective and consider pedagogical implications and classroom applications.

(2) **Use online resources for self-study**

Visit the new website of the *Self-Access Centre* of the Faculty of English Studies at http://www.enl.uoa.gr/centre. The site provides you with several opportunities for language practice:

- **A)** Click on ONLINE RESOURCES and select language activities from a list of more than 200 carefully selected websites. The websites are organized according to thematic categories. You are advised to use these online resources in the following way: choose one of the main categories (e.g. grammar or listening) and work systematically on the activities found in each one of the websites for a period of time. Be organized and prepare a programme for your self-study. It would be good to keep a record of the websites you visit and the activities you do every time you visit the website.

- **B)** Click on LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES and select vocabulary, reading and grammar activities. A number of quizzes will give you an opportunity to check what you have already learned.

(3) **Listen to lectures for self-study**

Visit the *Self-Access Centre* of the Faculty of English Studies (9th floor, Room 905) to watch lectures from the famous collection *The Great Courses- Teaching that engages the mind*. Professors from distinguished universities give lectures on a variety of themes (see short list below). You may watch the lecture while following the detailed outline of the lecture in the accompanying leaflet.

We suggest that you work on the lectures systematically over a long period of time in order to develop good listening skills, enhance your understanding of academic lectures, practice note-taking and outlining. When you start listening to lectures, you may be aided in your understanding by the detailed outline given in the leaflet. After a few weeks we suggest that you start keeping your own notes and outline which you may later compare to the suggested outline provided in the leaflet.

Select a lecture from the detailed catalogues available in the Centre, identify the specific DVD where you can find it and then borrow the DVD and a set of headphones from the Centre staff.
(4) Explore the language of lectures

Visit the Self-Access Centre of the Faculty of English Studies (9th floor, Room 905) to use the multimedia programme Listening to Lectures, an interactive CD-ROM designed to help you improve your academic listening skills. It contains digital video clips from 40 authentic lectures given in 25 different departments across the range of faculties – sciences, social sciences and humanities. There are hundreds of interactive exercises based on the video clips. This CD-ROM has been specifically designed for students:
- whose first language is not English
- who have to listen to lectures in English
- who wish to improve their academic listening and speaking skills.

In addition to listening, the CD-ROM also includes several vocabulary and grammar activities.

Below are the contents of the CD-ROM:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unit 1: Opening of lectures</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Includes exercises on: ways to introduce a topic, talking about earlier lectures, structure and structural phrases, use of questions, vocabulary, notetaking, formal words vs everyday words.</td>
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<tr>
<th>Unit 2: Structure and organization</th>
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<tr>
<td>Includes exercises on: opening and closing summaries, signaling words, markers, transitions, vocabulary (idioms and metaphorical usages, connotations).</td>
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<tr>
<th>Unit 3: Definition, classification, comparison/contrast &amp; exemplification</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Includes exercises on: defining, classifying (the language of classification, categories), comparing &amp; contrasting, exemplifying (signalling examples, using examples), notetaking.</td>
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<tr>
<th>Unit 4: Referring to and evaluating sources, indicating cause, effect and purpose</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Includes exercises on: referring to sources, evaluating sources, indicating cause &amp; effect, indicating purpose, interacting, notetaking.</td>
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<tr>
<th>Unit 5: Qualification, markers of attitude and significance</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Includes exercises on: markers indicating importance, paraphrasing, making connections, listening for significant points, importance markers, qualification and strength of claim, style and manner, attitude, non-literal meaning, vocabulary, nouns in groups, prepositions.</td>
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<th>Unit 6: Argumentation</th>
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<tr>
<td>Includes exercises on: thesis (the lecture as argument), identifying the thesis, antithesis, the language and structure of arguments, vocabulary (terminology, explanatory phrases).</td>
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B. COURSE ASSESSMENT

Students will be assessed on the basis of the following:

a. Assignment 10 points  
b. Final Exam 90 points  

Total final mark 100 points

Students are requested to hand in individual assignments in accordance with the allocated deadlines, beyond which no assignment will be accepted.

Students who do not attend classes regularly may find assignment topics in the e-class of the course (http://eclass.uoa.gr).

C. COURSE COORDINATORS

Elly Ifantidou Office: 904, 9th floor E-mail: ifelly@enl.uoa.gr
Bessie Mitsikopoulou Office: 902, 9th floor E-mail: mbessie@enl.uoa.gr
Angeliki Tzanne Office: 903, 9th floor E-mail: atzanne@enl.uoa.gr

D. COURSE BOOKS

Section(s) taught by Elly Ifantidou

Section(s) taught by Bessie Mitsikopoulou

Section(s) taught by Angeliki Tzanne

All sections
  (Key to the ADOPW is available in the e-class of the course)

E. THE E-CLASS OF ACADEMIC DISCOURSE

E-class is an asynchronous e-learning platform developed by the University of Athens to support traditional educational processes of teaching and learning with multi-media content and educational software. Students are advised to use the e-class of Academic Discourse regularly for latest information about the course. They are also asked to enroll in the e-class of the course in order to receive all course announcements at their email address.

How to use the e-class of the course

Steps
1. Go to http://eclass.uoa.gr
2. Click on “Κατάλογος Μαθημάτων”
3. Click on “Αγγλικής Γλώσσας και Φιλολογίας”
4. Click on “Τομέας Γλώσσας-Γλωσσολογίας”
5. Click on “Academic Discourse”
6. Go to “Documents” to download useful information for the course.
How to enroll in the e-class of the course

Steps
1. Go to http://eclass.uoa.gr
2. Click on “Εγγραφή Χρήστη”
3. Select “Λογαριασμός Εκπαιδευόμενου. Νέος Λογαριασμός”
4. Complete the form.
TYPING GUIDELINES AND STYLE MANUAL FOR
STUDENT WRITING

Generally, all work submitted to your instructors for evaluation should be typed. The following information about layout and style will help you organise your work.

Paper and Margins
Your assignments should be typed on good quality white A4 paper (210x297mm). Only one side of the paper should be used. If you use a computer, Times New Roman, font size 12 or 13 is recommended. Leave a margin of 3cm. on each side of the paper (top, down, left and right).

Spacing
Leave one blank space between your paragraphs but do not indent them. The whole text should be double-spaced.

Pagination
Assign a number to all pages of your assignment. On the cover page the number is not shown but the page is counted in the pagination.

Cover Page
Always submit a cover page for your assignments. Double space all information included in the cover page. There are four pieces of information that should appear on the cover page: Title of assignment: Centre on a line about one-third down from the top of the page. If title is long, divide into two parts between phrases and type the second part below the first. Capitalise the first letter of all words of the title (excluding articles, prepositions and conjunctions). Do not underline nor put the title in quotation marks. Student’s name/Student I.D. number: Centre on a line in the middle of the page. Course information: (about 2cm down from name and I.D.) Type the name of the course and instructor’s name below that line. Date of submission: Centre on next line below the course information.

Proofreading
Always proofread your text for grammar and spelling mistakes before you hand it in to your instructor.

Formal Academic Language
A characteristic of academic texts is formal language. The following are some general guidelines to help you use formal language when you write:

1. Do not use contracted forms of verbs (e.g. doesn’t, it’s, etc.)
2. Avoid two-word verbs, especially those that have one-word synonyms (e.g. bring up, look over, etc.)
3. Do not use colloquial expressions (e.g. blow off, kid, etc.)
4. Avoid the use of ‘a lot’; use the more formal equivalents of ‘a great deal of’, ‘a large number of’, or ‘many’.
5. Make your word choices as accurate as possible. Words like ‘thing’ and ‘way’ should be avoided in favour of more precise terms.

A friendly advice:
Always keep an electronic copy of your work for future reference.
CHOOSING A DICTIONARY

When choosing a dictionary, consider the following:

Size: Pocket, Paperback, Hardback, etc.

Level: Junior dictionaries (EFL), Advanced learner’s dictionaries, College dictionaries, etc.

Type: General - Specialized Dictionaries
     e.g. Dictionary of Linguistics, Dictionary of Literary Terms
     Notice also: Dictionary of Music, Dictionary of Fashion
     Monolingual (e.g. English to English), English-Greek, Multilingual

Some types of dictionaries

ADVANCED LEARNER’S DICTIONARIES
 e.g. Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary
      Collins Cobuild Advanced Learner’s English Dictionary
      Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners
      Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary

GENERAL DICTIONARIES
 e.g. Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture

AMERICAN DICTIONARIES / COLLEGE DICTIONARIES
 e.g. The American Heritage College Dictionary (Houghton Mifflin)

THESAURUS
 e.g. Oxford Thesaurus of English
      Penguin Thesaurus
      Roget’s International Thesaurus

DICTIONARY & THESAURUS
 e.g. Collins Essential Dictionary & Thesaurus

VISUAL DICTIONARIES
 e.g. 6Γλώσσα Πλήρες Εικονογραφημένο Λεξικό (Kafkas Publications)

ON-LINE DICTIONARIES
 e.g.  http://dictionary.cambridge.org/
ACTIVITY
Visit the site of a dictionary or thesaurus and find definitions, synonyms and antonyms for the words below.

1. extemporaneous:

2. inundate

3. apprehend

4. vehemently

Now find the meaning of the following idioms:

5. in the red

6. blow your top

7. a red-letter day
Unit 1
Academic Study Skills and Self-Directed Learning

STUDY SKILLS & INDEPENDENT LEARNING

TASK 1
Read the text by Pennie Hedge and fill in the table below with each student’s problem. Do you feel you resemble any of these students? If so, which one?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STUDENT</th>
<th>PROBLEMS</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Neo</td>
<td>e.g. lack of discipline &amp; organizing skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bingo</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ricky-Tic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cherry</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Get to know your study strengths and weaknesses and you may be able to work more effectively, says Pennie Hedge.

CONGRATULATIONS! You've made it to the fellowship of students. And a wonderfully diverse group it is - from the inside. From the outside, students are often seen as an unpleasant, homogeneous mass made up of people rather worse than school children. Unfortunately advice for students sometimes also seems to assume that there is only one type of student and only one way of studying.

The fact is that as you have been accepted on to a course you have the ability to succeed at it. What often makes the difference in getting a good class of degree is doing that little bit more than other students, or working more effectively. And here we return to the different ways of studying and who they suit.

Students are people and therefore unique. But they follow certain patterns of studying. The trick is to understand your natural approach to study. Once you know your strengths and weaknesses, you can be selective about the advice you take and make it work for you.

Let me introduce some of my favourite students: Neo, Bingo, Ricky-Tic and Cherry. Everyone knows Neo, always the first to the library in pursuit of a new subject. He ignores all catalogues and bibliographies, makes straight for the shelf and the book with the brightest cover. Three interesting facts and two names later, he drops it on the desk and heads for the coffee bar to impress his friends. Then he skips a lecture to buy some new trainers, starts reading ahead for next week's tutorial, but is called to the Union to set-up the new disco equipment.

At exam time, Neo disappears, but his light blazes all night. He re-emerges in the exam room with manic eyes, where he fills several books with fascinating facts, some relevant, others not, and finishes none of the questions.

Ricky-Tic feels smug while Neo stammers out another excuse for not finishing an essay. She has a large timetable on her wall, filled with targets for the whole term. Each time she ticks off one of these goals she feels closer to being a qualified lawyer.
She has at least three goals to tick off each week. Her essays are always on time, although the marks aren't brilliant. She can't understand why other students with perfectly good brains waste so much time; college is just the boring slog on the way to a good job.

At exam time, her concise and indexed notes are a breeze to revise. But one year she caught a virus a month before the exam. It laid her up for a week putting an unfillable hole in her timetable, so she refused to sit the paper.

You won't ever find poor Bingo in the bar much before closing because he's always behind with his work. It isn't that he doesn't put in the hours, so he thinks it must be because he's thick. But as he really wants a good Civil Service career he's got to aim for an upper second at least. And that means reading through the entire book list, and more, to lift his essays above average. Bingo gets very dispirited if he gets lower than A— for a piece of work, so after all his revisions he's often late handing work in. You can always spot Bingo at the exam room door: he's the one still reading his notes.

Cherry, of course, is everybody's darling. She doesn't believe that she deserves to be at college, so is determined to enjoy it before she is slung out. She belongs to several clubs, but always makes sure that her work is on time. She doesn't use the library much, preferring to rely on her lecture notes, but does read recommendations from the lecturer. Her essays aim for a rounded view.

Cherry conscientiously learns her notes for the exams, but it doesn't take very long. She has no trouble finishing the right number of questions within the set time, but then worries that she hasn't used much paper.

**THEY'RE** all very different and they can all get their degrees. But they might achieve more, with less angst if they learnt a bit from each other. Imagine Neo with Bingo's set periods of work and a book list. He could still exploit his flair and serendipity, but within a framework. And if Bingo would only lift his eyes from the page, he would see that it is realism not cleverness that gives other students more time. With Ricky-Tic's goals and more of Cherry's limitation of research and reading added to his conscientiousness, he could really succeed.

Ricky-Tic herself doesn't need any more study skills, but her world is fragile and built on future enjoyment. With some of Neo's flexibility and less tunnel-vision she might enjoy college and improve her marks.

Finally, Cherry would not be any less likeable if she adopted some of Ricky-Tic's ambition, looking forward instead of over her shoulder. And she would find essays more interesting if she added Neo's approach of taking a vigorous line of argument to her good understanding of the various views.


**Study skills & independent learning**

`Study skills’ are the techniques you need for studying successfully. They are the ways of thinking and behaving that you need in order to learn any academic subject effectively. Whatever you are studying, your knowledge of the subject or of English is not enough to guarantee success. You will need additional skills.
Here is a list of the study skills a tertiary-level student might need. This list is indicative and by no means exhaustive. We are sure that you can contribute to this list by filling in your own ideas:

### Study skills at tertiary level
- take notes
- organize notes
- ask questions
- find a book in the library
  - find information in textbooks
- organize ideas around a theme
- write papers using correct layout

**TASK 3**
Now look at the cartoon strip below. Why did Snoopy return the collar? Think of your own attempts towards becoming an ‘independent’ learner.

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**Becoming an Independent Student**

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Starting university can be bewildering as well as stimulating. Among other things, you will definitely be faced with the challenge of learning independently. Remember that outside school you have learned many things on your own, and that you do know how to learn when you want to. The university can offer you real learning if you explore what is offered and if you are able to make your own independent decisions about learning.
TRANSITION TO SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING

A. Reading

Read the text and answer the questions that follow using your own words where possible.

‘Transition to self-directed learning: Issues faced by students in adjusting to the first-year at university’
Tanya Kantanis
Monash University, Australia

Introduction
Students’ transition to university is an international concern. In Australia, unlike some other countries, there is no generalist first-year to enhance adjustment; students launch immediately into study of their specific course.

Adjustment to the teaching and learning at university has proved to be difficult for first-year, school-leaver students over many decades. Academic transition is compounded by the occurrence of a number of other, simultaneous, transitions, notably: to an unfamiliar environment, to a new set of friends, to different cultural practices, to independent living, and from adolescence to early adulthood. The aforementioned issues mean that the transition from school to university is complex and fraught with multiple challenges. Moreover, significant changes in both the secondary and tertiary sectors (curriculum and assessment, and shift to mass education, respectively) have meant that factors other than academic achievement play an important role in affecting students’ transition to university. Despite these considerable, compelling and diverse factors of adjustment that affect first-year students little credence is given to measures other than academic achievement in gauging the success of students’ transition to university.

Student misconceptions about university learning
The majority of school-leaver students who gain entry to Monash University have a demonstrated record of high achievement through their Equivalent National Tertiary Entry Rank (ENTER). Although ENTER is still the best predictor of first-year university success for the high achieving students, for other students its predictive ability is less accurate (Meadley, 2001). Many school-leaver students, however, believe that the academic success they experienced at secondary school will translate to equivalent success at university. This view is founded largely (and falsely) on confidence in themselves as experienced learners (given they have had formal schooling for 13 years) and the presumption that teaching and learning at university will be similar to that at school.

School-leaver students assume academics perform the same role as secondary school teachers; there is little appreciation of the differences in teaching and learning between the two sectors. While the prime responsibility of school teachers is classroom teaching, this is not the case for university academics – whose focus is research. Students are neither aware of this distinct shift in emphasis, nor of the manner in which it affects academics’ perception of university teaching. For students, the
most significant implication to grasp is that at university, academics do not feel it is so much their responsibility to teach as it is students’ responsibility to learn. Moreover, in sharp contrast to their secondary school experience, students at university are seldom:

- monitored and followed up re: attendance (particularly lectures);
- prepared for the volume and pace of work;
- provided with guidance and/or criteria re: assessment task completion;
- reminded of assessment task due dates; and
- satisfied with the degree of support offered by academic staff.

While students discover quickly that academics are not as easily available, accessible and approachable as their secondary school teachers had been, they fail to appreciate the constraints faced by academics such as limited time, large class sizes and other duties. Moreover, school-leaver students often lack the confidence to interact purposefully with academic staff – the main prohibitive factor being a disproportionate power relation – resulting in a less than satisfactory interface with staff.

It is essential for first-year students to have realistic expectations of university and strategies to cope with their changed educational setting in order to experience a successful transition to university. The need for ‘balance’ at university is crucial. It is important to balance freedom with responsibility. Although school-leaver students look forward to the increased freedom they will experience at university, few appreciate the gravity of the responsibilities that accompany that freedom. Students lacking in self-discipline find themselves succumbing easily to the ‘slippery slope’ mentality in relation to attendance – having missed one class without obvious penalty, it becomes easier to miss the next and the one after that. Consequently, some students fail subjects not because they cannot cope with the academic demands of university but because they have been unable to meet satisfactorily the requirements of course attendance policy. It is necessary to balance the numerous competing demands facing young adults continuing their education, e.g., study, social activities, paid employment, financial commitments, independent living, etc. Few first-year students consider seriously how they will manage the less structured educational environment of university. Inability to balance study with other demands is usually the result of poor organisation and time management skills – often a consequence of not having had to accept such responsibility in the past. Especially as the majority of assessment tasks are due in the latter part of the semester, students who have relied on others for reminders to help ‘structure’ their lives experience considerable difficulty.

All school-leaver students face unexpected learning challenges as a consequence of the preconceptions they have formed about the first-year university experience from the mythology that surrounds it. Although for some students, e.g., ‘pioneers’ (first in the family), the dissonance between their expectations and the reality may be greater, all students are affected by the transition to university, and will need to develop strategies as well as utilise resources to manage the dilemmas they face.

Teaching and learning: Common university delivery modes and their implications

Lecture

The lecture is the most common of all university teaching delivery modes. It is a very cost-effective method of delivery for on-campus students. As the majority of first-year subjects have very large numbers of students, the seating capacity for lecture theatres can be several hundred. Attending lectures can be daunting for some first-year students, especially rural students, who may be surrounded in a single lecture theatre by more people than the total enrolment of the country secondary school from which they have come. Large lectures, in particular, are not conducive to interactivity between lecturer and students, and appear to be quite alien compared to secondary classrooms. Students seldom have the opportunity to engage in dialogue with the lecturer or seek clarification, and even if the opportunity exists, the environment is too intimidating.
Rarely are first-year students told explicitly what is expected of them during a lecture. Most appreciate that they should take notes but lack the proficiency to do so effectively. Consequently, especially at the beginning of the year, in first-year lectures two distinct groups of students are evident. Those who try frantically to copy lecturers’ comments verbatim, and the others who accept the futility of such attempts and give up writing altogether. Distinguishing the pertinent from the peripheral is the essence of successful note taking. Over time, students come to recognise signs that typify the lecturing style of particular individuals’ means of communicating the significance of important information, for example:

- the blunt preface: ‘this is important’, ‘remember this’, etc.;
- emphasis through repetition;
- emphasis through increased volume of voice;
- change in the tone of voice;
- use of visual aids, e.g., overhead transparencies, videos to highlight key ideas;
- use of diagrams, notes, dates on the board;
- use of hand gestures and/or other non-verbal behaviour; and
- a range of other idiosyncratic means.

**Self-directed learning**

The most common expectation academic staff have of students at university is that they become self-directed learners. This is founded on the precept that the university treats all students as adults (irrespective of age upon entry), and expects them to accept responsibility for their learning because they have motivation, interest and inclination/desire to learn. Self-directed learners determine what, where, when, how and with whom learning occurs, the role of university ‘teachers’ is to act as facilitators in this process but the onus clearly rests with students.

This is a quantum leap for school-leaver students coming from an education system that fosters high dependency. Enculturation is a process that takes time; students can only be expected to make that adjustment gradually – at their own pace and in their own manner. The expectation that they be self-directed learners at the commencement of their university studies is unrealistic. Due to the nature of course structure in Australia, as already noted, students do not have the luxury of adjusting to the new tertiary setting over a period of extended time. Instead, they simultaneously have to adjust to the environment, teaching and learning styles, life, procedures, practices and culture of the university.

**Assessment**

One of the most difficult challenges for school-leaver students in becoming self-directed learners is the management of assessment tasks. Unlike the context from which they have come, that provides considerable support at the preparatory phase of assignment completion through drafting and specific criteria that guide constructively students to satisfactory task completion, these are not often options available at university. In subjects where criteria for assessment do exist, little, if any, consideration is given to the provision of weightings for the criteria. Students are expected to appreciate the significance of each criterion and respond accordingly. While it may be self-evident to the assessors that, for example, ‘completion of all aspects of the task’ is worth considerably less than ‘analysis of the material’, this is not always the case, for first-year students interpreting the criteria. Moreover, where no criteria have been provided and an assignment is comprised of multiple parts, the inclination of school-leaver students is to devote equal attention to each part of the composite instead of evaluating the significance of each and responding appropriately.
Strategies to facilitate self-directed learning and transition to university

Much can be done to improve students’ transition to self-directed learning prior to university commencement, particularly through the promotion and embedding of skills valued at university, earlier – at secondary school. Introducing ‘life’ and ‘learning’ skills at school and developing these throughout secondary education will not only create a culture of learning that is more akin to that at university, but will also be beneficial for secondary studies. Students, parents and teachers have a shared responsibility in the development of the following life and learning skills: responsibility, including internal locus of control; independence; organisation; time management; effective communication – oral and written; IT literacy; assertiveness, self-esteem, confidence; And reflection. Moreover, an appreciation of preferred learning styles and metacognition, as well as specific skills, e.g., comprehension, analysis, synthesis, note taking, and examination technique will produce more effective and reflective learners.

Consciousness-raising in regards to the issues affecting students’ transition from school to university should include all stakeholders: students, parents and teachers. Universities have a role to play in providing information that is transparent in identifying the differences between secondary school and university learning contexts, and implementing strategies that will support students as they face the challenge of the first-year experience. For their part, secondary school teachers could assist the process of transition by refraining from making counter-productive comparisons between school and university. In addition to the aforementioned life and learning skills, parents should consider how they will address the changing relationship with their daughters and sons when they get to university; i.e., how to continue to provide encouragement and support and simultaneously learn to let go.

Conclusion

The transition to self-directed learning is more often than not complicated by factors that are beyond the control of first-year students. Some students will be better placed to manage the responsibilities of self-directed learning as a consequence of their prior experience, for the majority, however, this will not be the case. Most students will have to grapple with expectations for which they are neither prepared nor in a position to meet unsupported with great success. Their difficulties will be compounded through reluctance to seek assistance, leading many students to become frustrated because the strategies that have stood them in such good stead over many years of education no longer produce the same results. School-leaver students need to recognise the differences between school and university, and embrace the new educational setting before they can become encultured successfully.

For their part, university teaching staff need to accept the reality that first-year students in a mass education system present and assist them to become enculturated into the educational and cultural modus operandi of the university. There needs to be increased sensitisation to the issues affecting school-leaver students’ dislocation and sense of dissonance felt in the university environment. It is counter-productive to apportion blame to the secondary sector claiming it has failed to prepare adequately the students who proceed to tertiary education. University teaching staff need to support, encourage and assist first-year students to ‘learn’ how to learn in the ways that are most appropriate and suitable in the tertiary context.

Reference

(A report commissioned by the Director – Planning and Academic Affairs: Professor Merran Evans)
ACTIVITIES

Introduction

1) What kind of transition is the writer referring to?

2) Why do students find it difficult to adjust to the first year at university?

Student misconceptions about university learning

3) What leads many students to believe that “the academic success they experienced at secondary school will translate to equivalent success at university”?

4) Find at least five misconceptions of first-year students about university teaching and learning.

5) What is, according to the text, the ‘slippery slope’ mentality? How can students avoid the slippery slope?

Teaching and learning: Common university delivery modes and their implications

- Lecture

6) What are the advantages and disadvantages of teaching through lectures?

- Self-directed learning

7) What is the main reason why the university treats students as self-directed learners? Why are students unprepared to act as such?

- Assessment

8) What is the main problem first-year students face in relation to assessment? Complete the contrastive sentences below.

Secondary school teachers provide students with support and guidance in order to perform tasks whereas academic teachers ................................................................. In secondary school, there are specific criteria for assessment while ................................................................. Unlike secondary school where all parts of an assignment carry equal weight, at university, even in subjects where criteria exist, students have to.................................................................

Strategies to facilitate self-directed learning and transition to university

9) Find words or phrases used to refer to ‘life and learning skills’. Discuss how these skills can help students become more effective learners.

Conclusion
10) What stance does the writer take concerning the role of students and academics respectively?

B. Language Focus

1) Look at the text again and find the words with the following meaning:

Introduction
1. change from one condition or set of circumstances to another
2. filled with, involving

Student misconceptions about university learning
3. chief, most important
4. exact, free from error
5. equal in value/amount/meaning
6. change
7. able to be reached/visited
8. relatively too large or too small
9. yielding
10. appointed/agreed for a certain time or date

Lecture
11. threatening
12. helping to produce
13. word for word
14. discouraging
15. relevant
16. irrelevant

Strategies to facilitate self-directed learning and transition to university
17. before (formal)
18. like/of similar character
19. self-confidence
20. good opinion of oneself

2) Paraphrase appropriately the following words or expressions:
1. self-directed
2. aforementioned issues
3. tertiary sector
4. enculturation
5. curriculum
6. assessment
7. mass education

3) Match the two halves:
1. meet a. raising
2. stand b. effective
3. shared c. the expectations
4. consciousness- d. productive
5. cost- e. responsibility
6. counter- f. sb in good stead
Unit 2
Dealing with textbooks and surveying material

Academic books have certain features in common. Find out what they are and how to use them.

TASK 1

THE TITLE PAGE
Look at the title page below and locate the following parts of the book
1. book title
2. book subtitle
3. author
4. publisher
5. place of publication
6. ISBN
TASK 2

THE TABLE OF CONTENTS

The table of contents can help you decide whether a book has the information you need and, if it does, where it is likely to be found.

a) You are writing a project on tourism and need to locate information on the topics which follow. You saw *Tourism* by Peter Murphy in the library and thought it might be useful. Use its table of contents to determine whether the following information is likely to be in the book, and, if it is, where.

1 planning tourism
2 local places of interest for tourists in Scotland
3 economic benefits of tourism
4 tourism in the 1960s
5 social changes resulting from tourism
6 local decision making
7 long-term financial loss
8 political influences of tourism
9 what makes a good holiday
10 influence on marine life of large-scale seaside hotels

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TASK 3

THE INDEX
Often the hardest part of using an index is thinking of the word to look up in the index. What words could you look up in an index from the two sources below in order to find the answers you need to the questions below?

The index is useful if you are looking for specific details or information. The information is always listed alphabetically at the back of the book.

In your essay on tourism, you need specific information on the following questions:
1. What are the effects of population growth on tourism?
2. Are safari parks an effective use of land resources?
3. What is REKA?
4. What examples are there of parks improving the tourist industry?
5. How does train travel affect tourism?
6. What is the difference between recreation and play?
7. How can different occupations influence the tourist trade?
8. How can outdoor recreation be educational?
9. How do package tours affect the over 60s?
10. How have the Olympic Games affected tourism?


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23
The problem with foreign students studying in English is how to cope with the vast amount of reading material. It's important that you find out quickly whether or not a book has the information you need and where it is located.

For the following task try to match the part of the book with the kind of information it contains. Some may have more than one answer.

1. The preface
2. Title page
3. Back of the title page
4. Table of contents
5. Index
6. Appendices
7. Introduction
8. Back cover ‘blurb’

a. When the book was published
b. The publisher
c. What the book is generally about
d. Data that supports the information in the book
e. Whether or not a specific topic is in the book
f. The point of view of the author
g. The general topics covered in the book
h. Title and author
i. Where the book was published
a) Answer the following questions which refer to several books listed in the bibliography extracts above.

1. What is the name of the book A. Bryan wrote?
2. When was *Much is Taken, Much Remains* written?
3. What is the name of the publisher of *Much is Taken, Much Remains*?
4. Where was *Much is Taken, Much Remains* published?
5. What book did J. M. Bryden write?
6. What edition of the book by F. S. Chapin was used?
7. Where was the book by Burkart and Medlik published?
8. When was the book edited by Coppock and Sewell published?
Unit 3
Academic Style

Similarly to all discourse types, academic discourse is written in its own unique style which is easy to identify among different types of discourse. Skim through the following extracts in order to identify the types of discourse they belong to and discuss the features of the text you have identified as academic.

(a) CANBERRA: A party last week for a group of Liberal MPs was called off shortly after a stripper jumped out of a cake and took her clothes off.

(b) If there’s one thing better than a summer holiday in Tenerife, it’s a winter holiday there. Just a few hours after shedding warm woollies and wrenching yourself away from subzero temperatures, you step off the aircraft not only in another continent but in a different climate. It’s a place for all seasons – and all of them are warm and welcoming. The temperature in winter ‘falls’ to 18°C. Little wonder that the Canary Islands are also referred to as the Fortunate Islands.

(c) It has been suggested (Smith, 1989) that children between two and five are probably unaware of the world around them and thus unable to respond to teaching or direction. However, many studies (Bergman, 1997; Dewey, 1994; Thomson, 1990 among others) have argued that this view is not correct. In fact, these studies have provided sufficient proof that children at this age can learn many new things quickly and easily.

(d) The cuisines of Thailand, Indonesia and China, not surprisingly, are strongly interlinked, and in all these countries the combination of sweet and sour flavours is a culinary cornerstone.

(e) If your Colour TV goes up in smoke or robbers roll out your much-prized Persian carpet, you’ll feel a lot happier with replacement as new.
FEATURES OF WRITTEN ACADEMIC DISCOURSE

TASK 1
Choose a verb from the following list that reduces the informality of each sentence. You may need to add tense to the verb from the list.

assist  reduce  create  investigate  raise
establish  increase  determine  fluctuate  eliminate

1. Expert Systems can help out the user in the diagnosis of problems.

2. This programme was set out to improve access to medical care.

3. Research expenditures have gone up to nearly half a million.

4. The use of optical character readers (OCRs) should cut down the number of problems with the European mail service.

5. Researchers have found out that this drug has serious side effects.

6. Building a nuclear power plant will not get rid of the energy problem completely.

7. Researchers have been looking into this problem for 15 years now.

8. This issue was brought up during the investigation.

9. Engineers can come up with better designs using CAD.

10. The emission levels have been going up and down.

TASK 2
Circle the verb making the weaker claim.

1. The results indicate/establish that there is a link between smoking and lung cancer.

2. Table 9 suggests/shows that Venezuelan scientists may need help with writing English.

3. The latest series of experiments question/undermine much previous research.

4. The results given in figure 4 validate/support the second hypothesis.

5. The quantities displayed in the table have been assumed/shown to be about 98% accurate.

6. The test results create/suggest a basis for product modification.

7. Changes in ambient temperature may have influenced/distorted the test results.

8. In their earlier work, they failed/neglected to take ambient temperature into account.

9. As can be seen from table 3, the new tax laws have encouraged/stimulated industrial investment.

10. Figure 12 depicts/clarifies the genetic relationship.
TASK 3
Circle one of the words in italics which would be more suitable for an academic paper.

1. The government has made good/considerable progress in solving environmental problems.
2. We got/obtained encouraging results.
3. The results of a lot of/numerous different projects have been pretty good/encouraging.
4. A loss of jobs is one of the things that will happen/consequences if the process is automated.

Supply a more academic word or phrase for the one underlined in each sentence.

5. The reaction of the officials was sort of negative._________________
6. The economic outlook is mighty nice._________________
7. The future of state funding is up in the air._________________
8. Britain’s major automakers are planning to get together on the research needed for more fuel efficient cars._________________

TASK 4
Choose a word from the list to complete each sentence.

number improvement trend fall support increase
amount assurance risk drop proposals measures

1. In the United States, the levels of lead, carbon monoxide, and sulfur dioxide have fallen between 1978 and 1987. Despite this ________, the air is still contaminated by many carcinogens.
2. Ozone levels increased 5% from 1986-87, another 15% from 1987-88, and an additional 10% from 1988-90. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) officials are concerned that if this ________ continues, serious environmental damage may occur.
3. The EPA has revealed that 20 of the 320 known toxic chemicals in the air probably cause more than 2,000 cases of cancer annually. While this ________ may not seem high, it is still a cause for concern.
4. The EPA states that individuals living near chemical plants have a higher than normal chance of developing cancer. This ________ has been substantiated by numerous studies.
5. The Chemical Manufacturers Association has decided it will more strongly support the pollution control efforts of the EPA. This ________ was a major factor in the drafting of new regulations.
6. Lawmakers in southern California are proposing banning the sale of new charcoal grills, requiring sophisticated pollution control devices, and demanding that by the next century 40% of all cars and buses run on clean fuel, such as methanol. These ________ may indeed become law in the near future.

TASK 5
The following text is an extract from an academic book. Read it carefully and identify any words or phrases the author uses to present his argument with caution. There may be more than one way of expressing caution in the same phrase (for example, in the phrase printed in bold face at the beginning of the text, there are two instances of cautious language: (i) ‘can be’ instead of ‘are’ and (ii) ‘considered to be’ instead of ‘are’).
In this section some different approaches to the study of conversation are assessed. At the risk of oversimplification, there can be considered to be two major approaches to the analysis of conversation, which we shall designate discourse analysis, DA, and conversation analysis, CA, (other distinctive approaches exist, of which the most important is probably the modelling of conversation using computer programs instead of human participants). The two approaches have distinctive and largely incompatible styles of analysis, which we may characterise as follows. Discourse analysis employs both the methodology and theoretical principles typical of linguistics. The procedures employed are essentially the isolation of a set of basic categories of discourse and the formulation of a set of rules stated over those categories. There are a number of other features that tend to go with these. There is also a tendency to take a text and to attempt to give an analysis in depth of all the interesting features of this limited domain. In contrast, conversation analysis is an empirical approach which avoids premature theory construction. Which is the correct way to proceed? There may well seem to be room for some kind of synthesis between the two approaches. However, there may be some reasons to think that the DA approach as outlined is misconceived. We may start by noting that DA analysts can be divided into two basic categories, text grammarians and speech act theorists.

1. there can be (line 1) 7.
2. considered to be (line 1) 8.
3. 9.
4. 10.
5. 11.
6. 12.

**TASK 6**
The following text, which comes from an academic book, is rather exceptional in style, in that it contains some words or expressions that pertain to spoken and informal rather than written and formal texts. In the space provided below rewrite the text by using the formal equivalents of the informal words/expressions found in this text.

In Part II, I spent a lot of time talking about speech acts and about the ways they are used to express our aims and intentions: what we want to ‘do with our words’, as Austin put it. In this chapter, I want to situate those speech acts in the context (in the sense of ‘context’ I talked about a moment ago) in which most of them normally and naturally occur.

Linguistic behaviour is social behaviour. People talk because they want to socialise, in the widest possible sense of the word. This basic fact implies two other basic facts: one, that we have to look at what people really say when they are together; and two, that any understanding of what goes on between people using language is based on the correct understanding of the context in which the interaction is taking place.

Let me give an example. [example presented and discussed]

To round off this section and chapter, let’s consider the difference between a discourse-oriented approach and one that is exclusively based on the semantics of individual expressions and on the speech acts they represent.

**TASK 7**
The following is an extract from the introduction of an article by Kroll (1990). In her study she examines compositions produced in English by university students who are non-native speakers. Read it and identify as many features of academic
discourse as possible providing examples from the text for each identified feature.

Collins and Gentner (1980) make the following observation about native-speaker writing:

Much of the difficulty of writing stems from the large number of constraints that must be satisfied at the same time. In expressing an idea the writer must consider at least four structural levels: overall text structure, paragraph structure, sentence structure (syntax), and word structure… Clearly the attempt to coordinate all these requirements is a staggering job. (p. 67)

If various aspects of writing are seen as “structural levels” that must be coordinated, it is reasonable to hypothesize that success may vary from level to level. For example, one particular student might exhibit greater mastery over sentence structure while another might exhibit greater mastery over overall text structure. Further, because of the particular difficulty that ESL students may have with the code of English (as partially predicted by principles of cognitive theory; McLaughlin 1987: 133-142), extending the amount of time allotted to producing an essay might affect the level of mastery exhibited on any or all of the levels identified by Collins and Gentner (1980).

Source:

TASK 8
Read the following text carefully and

(i) identify the main features of the academic style in which it is written (illustrate with examples from the text)

(ii) make any changes (concerning vocabulary and/or syntax) that are necessary in order for the underlined parts of the text to appear in the same (academic) style.

I think it’s important to conclude this opening chapter by stressing a number of points that may have been obscured by our focus on the singular achievements of Sacks. The first is that while Sacks was an important founding figure, and was during his lifetime the intellectual core of the developing subdiscipline of Conversational Analysis (CA), by its very nature CA goes beyond the achievements and ideas of one person. To go back briefly to Goffman, his work on the interaction order is widely recognised to have been ultimately idiosyncratic, the product of his particular cast of mind. It is difficult to imagine how other researchers might carry on the work initiated by Goffman, largely because what he produced is a corpus of individually brilliant studies without developing a recognizable method or initiating a cumulative research programme. By contrast, although the inception and, to some extent, the widespread adoption of the conversation analytic perspective owed much to Sacks’ individually brilliant cast of mind, his way of working resulted in the development of a distinctive method which other people could use. Indeed our primary aim in writing this book is to introduce that method to a still wider audience. At the same time, that method allows the production of a cumulative body of findings, and therefore people can accurately describe CA as a research programme, whose aim is to describe the methodic bases of orderly communication in talk-in-interaction. The second major
point here is that, although we have outlined the different relevancies that CA has for the wider disciplines of linguistics and sociology, in fact CA is by its very nature interdisciplinary. As Schegloff (1991: 46) has remarked, “CA is at a point where linguistics and sociology meet”. From linguistics CA takes the view that language is a structured system for the production of meaning. But in line with certain subfields of linguistics such as pragmatics, CA views language primarily as a vehicle for communicative interaction. And, in line with recent developments in sociology (Cicourel, 1981; Giddens, 1984; Thompson, 1984), CA views both communication and interaction as inherently social processes, deeply involved in the production and maintenance of social institutions.

**TASK 9**

Read the following text carefully and (i) identify the main features of the academic style in which it is written (illustrate with examples from the text) & (ii) make any changes (concerning vocabulary and/or syntax) that are necessary in order for the underlined parts of the text to appear in the same (academic) style. Rewrite only the phrases you change. Make sure that they blend with the rest of the sentence / paragraph.

Drawing is one of the main activities performed in young children and involves a number of different processes. (1) *That’s why people believe drawing has to do with the study of cognitive development.* (2) Some people called Guérin, Ska, and Belleville said back in 1999 that Van Sommers (1989) is still “the only researcher to present a global cognitive model of drawing abilities” (p. 464). This model distinguishes between two hierarchical processing systems in drawing: the perception system, and the graphic production system. (3) *In the study you have in your hands, we want to do three things.* Firstly, we examine the role of these two systems in the copying of complex geometrical drawings. Secondly, we attempt to determine the contribution of the perception and graphic production components described by Van Sommers (1989) to the manifestation of a graphic rule and, thirdly, to find evidence in support of the existence of a “Centripetal Execution Principle” (CEP) which consists in drawing embedded simple geometric shapes from the periphery to the center, e.g., from the outside figure to the inside figure.

(4) *There are three things in the perception system, which correspond to the successive stages which determine the construction of the visual representation of drawings.* First of all, the 2D representation component is responsible for transforming the image into a primitive description based on changes in intensity. At this stage, there is no distinction between the picture and the background. Secondly, the 2.5D representation component ensures the encoding of the visuospatial properties of the image surface. Thirdly, the 3D representation component makes it possible to process volume. The visual representations of familiar drawings are stored in memory and are connected to the semantic and phonological systems which either inhibit or induce their automatic, implicit activation. These representations are stereotyped and canonical (Berti & Freeman, 1997; Cox, 1992; Picard & Durand, 2005). In contrast, the production of unfamiliar and/or complex drawings requires explicit processing operations which are necessary for the structuring of the representations which underpin the unified, coherent integration of visuospatial properties. Representational flexibility is then required (Karmiloff-Smith, 1990), even if “sub-routines” (Barlow, Jolley, White, & Galbraith, 2003; Karmiloff-Smith, 1999) can be used in the execution of familiar parts of the drawing. […] 

(5) *In order to make our dream come true, we asked three hundred children from public preschools and elementary schools in Lyon, France, to take part in the experiment.* They were divided into five equTaal-size ($N = 60$) age groups: 4 years ($M = 4$ years 8 months; S.D. = 5 months), 5 years ($M = 5$ years 5 months; S.D. = 4 months), 6 years ($M = 6$ years 5 months; S.D. = 4 months), 7 years ($M = 7$ years 4 months; S.D. = 3 months), and 8 years ($M = 8$ years 6 months; S.D. = 4 months). It should be noted that as we considered the order of execution of
the elementary geometrical shapes and not their graphic quality in the drawing context, we included all the children's productions in the data analysis, and we didn’t pay attention to the fact that most of the youngest children (mainly the 4-year-old children) couldn’t do diamonds, even though most of the youngest children (mainly the 4-year-old children) were not able to draw diamonds accurately. None of these children was educationally advanced or retarded or had any psychomotor deficits affecting drawing. Each age group corresponded to one school grade, with the younger children being recruited from the middle years of kindergarten grade and the older children from the third elementary grade.

[...]

(6) We tested one child at a time. They were seated at a table in a quiet room in their school. Each of them was presented with three models of the same type in a random order, and was assigned to one of the two execution contexts. In the drawing context, (7) we told the kids to copy the models onto the separate sheets of white paper as accurately as they could using the pen, while taking care not to forget anything. As our analysis concentrated on the way the execution of the drawings was organized rather than on the graphic quality of the productions, (8) we said ‘no’ to rulers or erasers. In the superimposition context, the children were told to copy the models – presented in a random order – by placing the transparencies, which were scattered on the table, inside the box one after the other. They were told that they could not remove the transparencies once placed in the box. Therefore, as in the drawing context, they could not change anything. For each completed copy of a model, the experimenter noted the order in which the simple geometrical shapes were drawn or superimposed.

[...]

(9) What we found shows that the frequency of CEP depended both on the type of model and on the drawing context in the youngest children. They suggest that the CEP is determined by the structure of the representation of the models and the planning of the execution of the drawings. The developmental differences in the effects of visual salience and execution context are discussed in the light of the development of representational flexibility and planning abilities. (10) These data, then, agree with dissociation between the visual perception and graphic production systems and account for their interaction.


**TASK 10**

The following is an assemblage of paragraphs taken from various students’ assignments. A broad spectrum of mistakes appears here, from lack of agreement between subject and verb, to errors in punctuation. Find the mistakes, specify their types, and rewrite the paragraphs correctly.

1. The following diagram presents the results of a research conducted on a group of students which shows the errors done concerning language either in home or in class. [...] The high percentages of class errors referring to Word Choice and Sentence Structure appear presumably because the condition, under a text is produced were not the ideal. [...] Vagueness is also a main characteristic of the instructions given to students in order to prepare their home assignments and this fact mystified them.

2. In retrospect, taking into consideration the findings in the graph, the estimation over whether the percentage is bigger when students write more remarkable essays being at home or vice versa, is quite a reckless action. Nevertheless, there is a small inclination to the side of the compositions created in the class under teacher’s surveillance. [...] Furthermore, for a shocking number of students exhibiting kinds of problems such as punctuation or dictation, different types of lessons need to be implemented so as those students can keep abreast with the rest.
3. In all places, text production is always in interaction with the conditions under which is produced since presence in class is followed by a feeling of pressure while presence at home provokes a feeling of hospitality much too often. All things considered, one can easily comprehend the complexity that faces anyone who makes the effort of finding possible explanations for students’ mistakes.

4. By adding the percentages of errors at home of the three last columns, it may be inferred that students produce worse essays at home. Besides that, from the figures it can be estimated that students present problems in the language areas which are about word choice, sentence structure and verbs.

5. According to the information given, the most frequently occurring errors in class as well as home compositions are word choice errors. […] On the opposite, the minority of errors concerns references. […] As it can be figured out from the graph, home compositions are more likely to present mistakes concerning word choice, articles and punctuation.

6. In this section it is estimated a small distinction between class and home errors. […] A possible explanation could be the fact that students are false because of continuous misinterpretations of language. […] This comes as a result of different problems that some language areas present and it is also revealed the need for learner’s training in writing a text.

TASK 11
Below is a popular text on the definition and purpose of an approach to analysing texts called Stylistics.

(i) Convert this text into an academic one by rewriting it in the appropriate style.

(ii) Correct the list of references provided at the end (put it in alphabetical order, sort out the order of each entry) and use it for in-text documentation in your academic text.

What is Stylistics?
Some fifteen years ago, the world-known linguist Jean-Jacques Lecercle published a short but damning critique of the aims, methods and rationale of modern stylistics. Lecercle attacked the discipline relentlessly. He said that no academic had ever known what the term ‘stylistics’ meant and, in any case, hardly anyone seemed to care. If you read Lecercle’s work, you get the impression that stylistics is on the wane and that its heyday is now nothing but a distant memory. He also found it alarming that few university students are eager to do research in stylistics. By this account, the death knell of stylistics had been sounded and it looked as though the end of the twentieth century would be accompanied by the end of this discipline. And noone would care a bit.

Modern Stylistics
As it happened, things didn’t quite turn out in the way Lecercle envisaged. As Professor Paul Simpson, a distinguished linguist, assures us, “stylistics in the early twenty-first century is very much alive and well”. Scholars teach it and research it in university departments of language, literature and linguistics the world over. Professor Simpson points out that one can see the high academic profile of stylistics mirrored in the number of its dedicated book-length publications, research journals, international
conferences and associations. Stylistics has also become a method people value very much in language teaching and in language learning. To add on to that, stylistics is often a basic part of many creative writing courses; this doesn’t come as a surprise, since, as we all know, the discipline puts a lot of weight on techniques of creativity and invention in language.

So much then for the current ‘health’ of stylistics and the high status it enjoys in modern scholarship. It is now time to say a little more about what stylistics is and what it is for. Stylistics is a method of textual interpretation in which academics assign primacy of place to language. The chief reason why language is so important to stylisticians is because the various forms, patterns and levels that make up linguistic structure tell us important things about the function of the text.

What can Stylistics tell us about language?
Despite its clear definition and object of study, Mick Short, a famous stylistician, remarks that there remain a number of myths about contemporary stylistics. He says that most of the time “confusion about stylistics results from confusion about language”. For example, many literary critics believe that a stylistician is simply a dull old grammarian who spends rather too much time on such trivial pursuits as counting the nouns and verbs in literary texts. However, Short notes, this is a totally false perception of the stylistic method and it is the perception of the people who have a limited understanding of how language analysis works. True, we should not overlook nouns and verbs, nor should we overlook ‘counting’ when it’s part of a directed and focused quantification.

Why should we do Stylistics?
Katie Wales, a stylistician from London, points out that to do stylistics is to explore language, and, more specifically, to explore creativity in language use. So doing stylistics makes our ways of thinking about language richer. Interest in language is always ingredient number one in doing stylistic analysis which is why you should never take on to do stylistics if you’re not interested in language.

One final thing: some say that a stylistic analysis seeks to be ‘replicable’. Well, Elena Semino, a tutor on a Stylistics course in North England, makes it clear that this doesn’t mean that we should all try to copy each others’ work. It simply means that the methods we use should be clear enough to allow other people to test them on the same text or to apply them beyond that text.

REFERENCES
FEATURES OF ORAL ACADEMIC DISCOURSE

TASK 12
The opening is a key point in a lecture as it is here that the lecturer often gives an overview of the lecture, saying something about structure as well as content. Lecturers may also say something about the purpose of their lectures - and possibly even talk about the conclusions they will reach.

Read the following extracts from lectures and tick what the lecturer is doing when s/he opens his/her lecture (you may need to tick more than one option for each extract)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extract</th>
<th>Overview of the lecture</th>
<th>Structure/content</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Conclusions to be reached</th>
<th>Review of last sessions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Extract 1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Extract 2</td>
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<td>Extract 3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Extract 4</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Extract 1
what we're going to do today, in today's lecture, today's lecture's divided into two main parts: the first part we'll look at some of the essential aspects of Meditation 6 and the second part er we'll examine er Descartes' notorious mind-body dualism. Okay. So it's divided into two main parts.

Extract 2
…in the last two weeks, I gave you an account of Art Histories from the 19th Century to the 20th Century really and the early 20th Century, all of which in one way or another tried to give a causal account of er why an art work looks the way it does…

Extract 3
The lecture falls into several parts. Initially John's going to in, introduce er the basic principles behind the structural actions in tension structures. I will then move on to discussing fabric membranes and then we conclude the lecture or first part of the lecture er with er pneumatic membrane structures. Er in the second part of the lecture we're going to show you a video on tension structures which will reinforce some of the concepts, ideas presented in the first part of the lecture and then finally we're going to move on to a workshop where we're going to be experimenting with er tensegrities, and what else, em elliptical frames

Extract 4
Um I've tried to organise the lecture around three broad questions which I thought er might be of interest.

The first question is: Why was the European Union created in the first place? And implicit in that question is also another question, not only 'Why was it created?', but Why has it persisted? Why has it grown? Why has it prospered, relatively speaking, in the period since its creation in 1958?

The second question I want to ask is What kind of an entity is this Union, is this European Union which exists? …..

And the third question I I want to ask which I think is probably less um less less crucial, less fundamental in some ways, but no no no nevertheless of interest to you I'm sure, is more specifically related to regarding the UK, and that is er: What is the UK's particular position vis-a-vis Europe and has that position been altered by the election of a Labour Government last year led by Tony Blair?
**TASK 13**
Read the following extracts and arrange each one into one of the three boxes provided for you. The first box is for words or phrases which the lecturer uses to attract the attention of the audience, or indicate he is starting the lecture, introducing a new topic or has finished a particular point (labelled as A). The second box is for phrases used to say what a lecturer is going to talk about (labelled as B). The third box is for phrases which indicate something about the structure of a lecture (labelled as C).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extract 1</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Extract 2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Extract 3</td>
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<td>Extract 4</td>
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<td>Extract 5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Extract 6</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Extract 1*
Er, what we're going to do today, in today's lecture...

*Extract 2*
The lecture falls into several parts...

*Extract 3*
And the third question I want to ask...

*Extract 4*
Okay; let's start.

*Extract 5*
Today's lecture is divided into two main parts....

*Extract 6*
Initially, John's going to introduce....

**TASK 14**
Read the following extract from a lecture and keep notes. The following scheme of note-taking is suggested to you. If you decide otherwise, please justify your choice.

**Section 1**
**Main point 1**
1st sub-point
2nd sub-point

**Section 2**
**Main point 2**
1st sub-point
2nd sub-point
etc.

Okay, you should erm, welcome back, Happy New Year, my name's Richard Dyer for those of you I don't know, which is most people erm and I'm teaching this course this term.

The course um is er in basically in three parts, the last part of which actually relates to the first two parts. The first two parts deal with first of all neo-realism, which is the first four weeks er and then er popular genre cinema in the middle er three weeks, although it's only two cos one of them's a reading week.

And there we're looking at a contrast of practices within Italian cinema in this period. That's to say we're looking at what is most famous in Italian cinema in the period, namely neo-realism. This is the most famous thing that anyone knows about Italian cinema, a great period of of cinema, Italian neo-realism. So we're starting with that kind of canonical moment. And
that was a moment which was particularly concerned with make, with sort of trying to capture the spirit of the Italian people, trying to show the ordinary lives of ordinary Italian people. So it was very much concerned with the idea of the popular classes, with the popular in the sense of the life of the people. However, the people actually went to see epics and comedies and melodramas er and that's what we're looking at in the second part of the course, particularly epics and comedies. We're looking at the kinds of popular cinema, the big box office hits that were, that appeared at the time. And some people have actually been struck by this contrast of a of a per, of a a kind of film-making that is in a way about the people - neo-realism, and a kind of film-making that is for the people which is actually comedy and epic and melodrama.

Now as we, as the course develops, you'll re, realise that it's, that neat distinction is not quite that simple: that a lot of neo-realist films were in fact very popular at the box office and were very melodramatic and could be comedies. And similarly of course not every epical comedy actually did very well at the box office. So the distinction becomes more complicated when you look at it. But that's the basic distinction I'm working with in the first two parts of the course. In the final part of the course we're looking at the work of Federico Fellini and what's interesting about Fellini is that on the one hand he came out of neo-realism, he was one of the scriptwriters even in Paisa, which we're seeing this afternoon, so he was very involved with neo-realism. He, but at the same time he also made extremely popular films, particularly comedies in the early part of his career, La Dolce Vita was one of the biggest box-office hits in the history of Italian cinema. Erm but his later films, and even when you look at them, the earlier films, are actually very ambiguous in what they really think about both neo-realism and popular genre cinema. So Fellini, quite apart from being a wonderful filmmaker, is particularly interesting to look at in the context of having looked at neo-realism and popular genre cinema. So that's why the three, that's the relationship between the three parts of the course, er and I'll keep signalling that as we go through the course.

Okay, well I'm going to turn from that to erm saying something a little bit more about the course outline. Erm now if you turn to the sort of fattest bit really of the course outline. Erm I just wanted to make one or two, again in a way organisational points about this. The first is to say that, about the readings, now on the one hand this is not everything there is that could be read on all these topics erm and it's not, nor is it everything I expect you to read. Basically what I've put down here in the readings are very good starting points and starting points particularly related to the work in each week, so as as we go through in each week. So you should really see these recommendations as recommended starting points rather than kind of this is the reading for this week and when you've read that you've read everything. So on the one hand I'm not saying you've got to read that one, you've actually got to de, you've actually got to glance through things and think well actually this looks like the sort of thing that really talks about it in a way that I find useful. So you've got to learn to discriminate between different texts, different accounts and so on. Part of what becoming a, you know, a good student is is knowing how to distinguish between different kinds of texts you may come across, critical texts you may come across. So I deliberately don't say Oh this is the one, I recommend this above all. So on the one hand I'm not saying you must read this, I'm saying these are good starting points for reading and I expect you to explore and obviously essays which show that people have really explored, explored the library, explored the cd-roms in the library and followed up on things they've found through that, that shows in an essay and that's obviously something for which you get, you get credit as well.

Okay, so what I've been doing so far is just organisational matters, trying to explain the structure of the course, something about er how how we work and so on. Now I want to turn from that then, to actually talking about the um er subject for er this part of the course, which is namely neo-realism.
COHESION IN ACADEMIC TEXTS

TASK 15
Academic writing adheres to certain principles of organization. Transitional words and expressions are indispensable in effective, well-organized writing, and a clear pattern of development requires that an appropriate selection of transitions be made.

Put each of the following adverbial conjunctions under the category of function you would expect it to perform.

TRANSITIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TRANSITIONS</th>
<th>FUNCTIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From/In my point of view</td>
<td>Comparison</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All in all</td>
<td>Comparison</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firstly/Secondly (and so forth)</td>
<td>Contrast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shortly thereafter</td>
<td>Cause and Effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– For instance</td>
<td>Persuasion/Taking a stance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Similarly</td>
<td>Repetition /Paraphrasing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On the whole</td>
<td>Providing examples</td>
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<tr>
<td>Another way of saying this is to</td>
<td>Summarizing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Notwithstanding</td>
<td>Order of importance/Classification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conversely</td>
<td>Time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As a result</td>
<td>Concession</td>
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<tr>
<td>In the vast majority of cases</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>First and foremost</td>
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<td>Likewise</td>
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<tr>
<td>– I am of the opinion that</td>
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<tr>
<td>On the contrary</td>
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<tr>
<td>On account of</td>
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<tr>
<td>– Meanwhile</td>
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<td>Owing to</td>
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<td>– Last but not least</td>
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<td>In the same fashion</td>
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<td>– To illustrate</td>
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<td>– Simultaneously</td>
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<tr>
<td>– I am quite convinced that</td>
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<tr>
<td>In other words</td>
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<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>– Be that as it may</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>– Consequently</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>– In brief</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>– To put it differently</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>– Hence</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>– To sum up</td>
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<tr>
<td>– Eventually</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>– Surprising/Odd though it may seem</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Subsequently</td>
<td></td>
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<td>– It is widely accepted that</td>
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<tr>
<td>– All the same</td>
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<td>– By/In contrast</td>
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<td>– From my standpoint</td>
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<td>– By and large</td>
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<td>– Granted</td>
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<td>– A case in point would be that</td>
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<td>– Afterward</td>
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<td>– Even though</td>
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<td>– On the other hand</td>
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<tr>
<td>– In summation</td>
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<td>– It is my conviction that</td>
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<tr>
<td>– Due to</td>
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<tr>
<td>– As a rule</td>
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<td>– Much like in the case of</td>
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<tr>
<td>– As opposed to</td>
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<tr>
<td>– Of almost equal significance is the fact that</td>
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</table>
Generalization

TASK 16

Read the following extract from a student’s assignment describing and evaluating the materials used in Greek Primary School for the teaching of English and note the transition of ideas. Underline the connectives used and discuss their role in the text. There is an example to help you start thinking.

1. Description and evaluation of ‘Fun Way English 3’

‘Fun Way English 3’ consists of ten units which comprise six or seven lessons each (ΥΠΕΠΘ, 1999a). To start with, the content of the student's book is clearly laid out. Additionally, each unit has a heading, which, according to Ellis & Ellis (1987:93), attracts the learners' interest and summarises what is to be expected in each unit. More importantly, colourful illustrations not only arouse interest and motivate the learners to read further but also relate to the texts they accompany. In this way, texts and pictures work together to create the story line, which plays an important part in aiding general comprehension, especially among young learners (Brewster, Ellis & Girard, 1992:160).

As to supporting materials, the coursebook is accompanied by a workbook (ΥΠΕΠΘ, 2000), and an audio cassette. The workbook provides material for practice through graded exercises and is intended for individual work focusing on writing. Finally, the cassette accompanying the coursebook includes the recordings of the picture stories and the listening exercises. Yet, there are certain supporting materials which could have been included in the series, but, which, unfortunately, are lacking. These would comprise vocabulary lists with explanations of new words, a grammar index and progress tests.

Having briefly described the materials used, let us now turn to the methodology and the language content of the materials.

1.1. Methodology and language content

The underlying methodological philosophy of the coursebook is based on the principles of the Communicative Approach, although the 'eclectic' Approach has been exploited in many cases (ΥΠΕΠΘ, 1999c). Learning is achieved through integration of skills but greater emphasis is placed on speaking.

The materials are organised around the teaching of language functions, such as expressing opinions and beliefs or giving advice and making suggestions (ΥΠΕΠΘ, 1997:4-5, see Appendix I, pages 25-26 for table of contents). The materials do not concentrate heavily on the teaching of grammatical structures. Instead, they give equal importance to vocabulary and discourse, i.e. the understanding and production of whole units of language (Cunningsworth, 1984: 17-18). The teaching of phonology is absent from the materials although there is emphasis on speaking, as it has been pointed out earlier. According to Cunningsworth’s (1984:19) distinction of style into formal, neutral and informal, the style of written and spoken English taught throughout the course is, mainly, neutral, free from formal expressions or colloquial phrases.

With regard to the selection and grading of language items, they have been selected apropos of the learners' mental development, social awareness and experience inside and outside of the school. The units revolve around topics which fall within the learners' interests and experiences and which have a cross-curricular dimension as they encourage learners to draw on their knowledge of other subjects of the school curriculum, such as Maths, Environmental Education, Geography or History.
As for the grading of the new language, grammatical items are graded from the linguistically less demanding to the linguistically more complicated. However, the amount of new vocabulary introduced in each unit is quite heavy, a fact which undoubtedly exhausts the learners' attentional resources and, consequently, exerts a negative impact on their motivation.

From the preceding discussion, it has become evident that ‘Fun Way English 3’ exhibits both positive and negative features. Therefore, it is imperative that the teachers using the series supplement it with appropriate materials, which would cater for the inadequacies detected.

Source: Nicolaki, E. (2001) *Teaching English in Greek State Primary Education: Syllabus*

**Example**

1. ‘To start with’: listing, enumeration
   (it is used for the first point the writer intends to make)

**TASK 17**

Read the following extract from a student’s assignment on using the Web in language teaching and complete the gaps with a suitable connective. Justify your answers in the space below the extract. Read the example first.

**Principles for using the Web in EFL**

Jones (1991:7) sets forth the argument that without valid methodology, technology has little purpose, and claims that we should not be tempted ‘to see motivation as a panacea to ill-defined linguistic aims’. ________ (1), the effectiveness of educational technology depends on how it is employed to meet specific pedagogical and educational goals. ________ (2) computer-based lessons can promote communicative and meaningful language learning. Williamson (2000:4) warns us against substituting the problem of poor quality teaching by poor learning experiences given by computer programs which are not backed up by theories of language learning. ________ (3), before introducing such computer-mediated lessons, we have to consider the needs, the interests and the learning styles of our learners. ________ (4), we have to decide on the role of the computer through our lesson. In primary school contexts, it is sound to use the Web as a means to supplement coursebook texts and tasks and to integrate our lessons in the existing syllabus so as to enrich it. ________ (5) is our learners’ computer skills. In case they ignore the basics, we should combine our lesson with the instruction of computer skills. ________ (6) as Williamson (2000:5) argues, frustration, instead of enjoyable learning, may be the outcome of the experience.


**Example**

1) **Reformulation.** ‘In other words’ is suitable because this sentence expresses the quotation of the previous sentence in another way.
TASK 18
The text below is a final-year engineering project report on water treatment systems for seafood restaurants. The paragraphs have been jumbled. Read them and try to put them in the right order. Put numbers in the boxes next to each paragraph to show the correct order.

Recirculation water treatment system for seafood restaurants

In Hong Kong most seafood restaurants have their own fish tanks in the restaurant, to keep the seafood alive. However, the quality of seawater in the fish tanks is frequently below standard because of two reasons. Firstly, owing to the expensive initial and maintenance costs of high-quality water treatment systems, most fish tanks in these restaurants are only treated with fundamental water treatment processes, such as particle removal by screening. Secondly, according to the Hong Kong Annual Statistics Report, the seawater in Hong Kong is polluted, but the seawater in most fish tanks is from the harbour. As a result, we need an efficient, low-cost water treatment system to keep the water quality below the tolerance limits.

Dining-out in Hong Kong is a way of life, especially for young couples who have to work to earn their living. It is estimated there are 30,000 restaurants in the territory. That means there is one restaurant for every 200 people. People can enjoy spicy Thai Food, Big Mac, or other regional or international cuisine. Some restaurants serve customers 24-hours-a-day.

We will first conduct a survey to determine the quality of seawater in fish tanks which provide a suitable living environment for the fish and fulfil the requirements of the Hong Kong Government. We need to find out how many gallons of seawater are recirculated, and how much oxygen is needed in a typical fish tank. We need to design a pumping system, filter, and other germ-killing systems to maintain the cleanliness of seawater, while taking into account the waste discharged by fish into the seawater in the tank. Finally, we have to build a prototype, test it, and assess the efficiency and cost-effectiveness of the system.

Among all the international cuisine, Cantonese is the predominant one in Hong Kong. The seafood restaurant is popular in Hong Kong, and the style of cooking emphasises freshness. In seafood restaurants people choose live seafood from tanks, and the seafood is steamed in woks to preserve its freshness. It is important to maintain clean seawater to preserve the freshness and lower the contamination of the seafood after it has been caught by fishermen.

This project aims at developing a seawater treatment system for restaurants to keep the seafood in a contamination-free environment. The system will filter and clean the water in indoor tanks for recirculation to rear fish at high densities in a controlled environment.

The tolerance limit of the water quality depends very much on the species cultivated. To provide a suitable living environment for the fish, we consider the following factors most significant in our design: temperature, dissolved oxygen, pH, carbon dioxide, ammonia, and to a lesser extent, nitrite, nitrates, hydrogen sulphide, pesticides, and turgidity. Also taken into account are the Hong Kong Government's requirements to control the bacterial level in the seawater in fish tanks.


TASK 19
Match the paragraphs with the following headings. The first one has been done for you.

**Background (I)**
- Problem (…)
- Overview of tasks (…)
- Aim (…)
- Scope (…)
- Situation (…)

**Problem**
- In Hong Kong most seafood restaurants have their own fish tanks in the restaurant, to keep the seafood alive. However, the quality of seawater in the fish tanks is frequently below standard because of two reasons. Firstly, owing to the expensive initial and maintenance costs of high-quality water treatment systems, most fish tanks in these restaurants are only treated with fundamental water treatment processes, such as particle removal by screening. Secondly, according to the Hong Kong Annual Statistics Report, the seawater in Hong Kong is polluted, but the seawater in most fish tanks is from the harbour. As a result, we need an efficient, low-cost water treatment system to keep the water quality below the tolerance limits.

**Overview of tasks**
- We will first conduct a survey to determine the quality of seawater in fish tanks which provide a suitable living environment for the fish and fulfil the requirements of the Hong Kong Government. We need to find out how many gallons of seawater are recirculated, and how much oxygen is needed in a typical fish tank. We need to design a pumping system, filter, and other germ-killing systems to maintain the cleanliness of seawater, while taking into account the waste discharged by fish into the seawater in the tank. Finally, we have to build a prototype, test it, and assess the efficiency and cost-effectiveness of the system.

**Aim**
- This project aims at developing a seawater treatment system for restaurants to keep the seafood in a contamination-free environment. The system will filter and clean the water in indoor tanks for recirculation to rear fish at high densities in a controlled environment.

**Situation**
- The tolerance limit of the water quality depends very much on the species cultivated. To provide a suitable living environment for the fish, we consider the following factors most significant in our design: temperature, dissolved oxygen, pH, carbon dioxide, ammonia, and to a lesser extent, nitrite, nitrates, hydrogen sulphide, pesticides, and turgidity. Also taken into account are the Hong Kong Government's requirements to control the bacterial level in the seawater in fish tanks.

IDENTIFYING FACTUAL INFORMATION

The text and the table that follow are based on a study by Christine Béal (1998), in which she compared the way native (Australian, in this case) and non-native speakers (French, in this case) of English make requests in order to examine the different concepts of politeness the two peoples have. The Table below contains some information on the types of softeners used by French and Australian people when making requests in English.

**TASK 20**
Read the text and the table carefully and:

a) decide which parts of the text you would need to use if you had to write a text presenting the factual information provided

b) match the results presented in the table with their possible explanations.

The starting point of this study was the fairly widespread stereotype that, when speaking English, French people often come across as blunt or arrogant. This stereotype was confirmed in a series of initial interviews with the Australian colleagues of the particular group of French people under study. On the other hand, the French speakers in question accused their Australian colleagues of ‘beating around the bush’ or even of being ‘hypocritical’ when making requests. The two series of comments did in a sense match each other and pointed towards some clashing concept of politeness. Béal began investigating the different types of politeness displayed by the French and the Australians by looking in detail at requests strategies used by both sides. In the literature of the subject, ‘request’ usually means ‘getting somebody to do something’. Because of the nature of the data (=conversations among Australian and French colleagues in an office), there were actually many requests for information, as well as for approval and permission, which needed to be investigated as well.

By their nature, requests are considered to press the addressee (=the person they are addressed to) for a response and thus to impose on her/his freedom by predetermining her/his course of action. This is why people who make requests often use various devices to soften this imposition. The devices people use to make the request sound less imposing are called **softeners**.

In her study, Béal found the following softeners:

(i) minimal (e.g. ‘so’ or addressee’s first name, as in “Sally, do you know where Linda is?”)

(ii) verbal (e.g. modal verbs such as ‘could’ or ‘would’, as in “Could you give me…”)

(iii) tags (e.g. “This is the top of the painting, isn’t it?”)

(iv) hedges (e.g. “If you sort of highlight that in some way..)

(v) justification (e.g. Can you typewrite the form, because I don’t want handwritten notes here.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Australians</th>
<th>French</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Minimal (so, first name)</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal (modal, e.g. could)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tag</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hedges</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Justification</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some possible explanations:
- French speakers find it easy to use conversational devices which consist of a single word.
- Non-native speakers, who are confused by the large number of possible ways of expressing modality in English, select one modal verb and use it systematically.
- Native speakers of English express modality not only through verbs, but also through phrases and certain expressions.
- Tags and hedges have no syntactic equivalent in French, and, therefore, do not come ‘naturally’ to French speakers.
- Where possible, Australian clerks avoid calling their colleagues by first name.
- Regardless of their nationality or native language, people who work in the same office very rarely give reasons when making a request.
- The Australians use a great number of tags in their conversations with friends and relatives.

**TASK 21**

**Below are two student answers. Read them and decide which is a weak and which is a good answer. On the space provided on the right identify the elements which qualify each answer as weak or good.**

A.

As it can be seen from the table, only a few Australian speakers tend to use minimal softeners (so, first name) when they make requests in English, in contrast with the majority of French speakers (58%). Regarding this feature, French speakers may presumably find it easy to use conversational devices which consist of a single word, whereas Australian clerks, where possible avoid calling their colleagues by first name. Moreover, concerning verbal softeners (modals), the statistical evidence proves that French are much more enthusiastic about using them than Australians. This attitude of French speakers might possibly be attributed to the fact that non-native speakers, who are confused by the large number of possible ways of expressing modality not only through verbs, but also through phrases and certain expressions. Then, Australians' utilization of tags and hedges by far outnumbered that observed by French. This may happen perhaps because tags and hedges have no syntactic equivalent in French, and, therefore, do not come 'naturally' to French speakers contrary to the Australians, who use a great number of tags in their conversations with friends and relatives. Finally, it might probably be interesting to note that exactly the same number of both Australians and French use justifications. As for this, it would seem fairly likely that regardless of their nationality or native language, people who work in the same office very rarely give reasons when making a request.

B.

Likelihood in case of Australian and French speakers, making a request towards another person, sometimes may be considered as an obligation. It is like forcing someone to do something against his/her own will. Therefore, people, use some softeners in order to make something sound less obligatory.

To begin with, some of the French speakers, use minimal softeners, for example, the use of "so" and the "first names". In this way, French find it easier to conversate with other humans by using single words. On the contrary, a minority of the Australian speakers use less minimal softeners for their conversation and thus they presumably find it difficult to conversate in this way.

In addition, several non-natives use verbal softeners, for instance, the modal verb "could" in contrast to the natives who use fewer modal verbs. Obviously the non-native speakers are rather more confused due to the fact that numerous ways of expressing modality in English are used by selecting a modal verb and use it quite often.

Moreover, the usage of tags as well as the use of hedges among the French speakers is rather little. Therefore, such usage has no syntactic equivalent for speakers language, and thus, French speakers cannot use them in a natural way. On the other hand, several of the Australians use far more question tags and hedges
while talking to friends or relatives. That means, the Australian speakers are able to find syntactic equivalents and thus they can use them naturally in their language.

Furthermore, some Australian clerks avoid calling their colleagues by their first names but there are few colleagues who do. It is regardless to say that due to their nationality or native language both Australians as well as French speakers use little justifications and that is probably because people working together at the same office rarely justify themselves while making requests.

Lastly, several French speakers express modality through a large variety of ways, for example, by using question tags, lots of phrases and specific expressions in contrast to the minority of the English speakers.

**TASK 22**

Here are some other answers to consider:

1. The following answer is quite accurate in presenting the findings and also careful and tentative enough in linking the findings with the possible explanations. Yet it is rather weak with reference to the use of markers of change (opening phrases). In addition, it does not point out marked contrasts between data (see 2nd paragraph: a minority of the French vs. only few Australians). Identify the points that need to be changed.

The above table concerning the types of softeners used by French Australian people when making requests in English, shows that minimal softeners were used by more than half of the French as opposed to less than a quarter of Australians. It is possible that French speakers find it easy to use conversational devices which consist of a single word.

Following the table, it can be seen that a minority of the French used verbal softeners while, only few Australians used these types of softeners. It appears that non-native speakers, who are confused by the large number of possible ways of expressing modality in English, select one modal verb and use it systematically.

Furthermore, we discover that while several Australians used tags, they were used by only a couple of French. It would appear that Australians use a great number of tags in their conversations with friends and relatives.

Close to the bottom of the table we find that hedges were used by a minority of Australians against only a few French. It can be assumed that tags and hedges have no syntactic equivalent in French, and, therefore, do no come naturally to French speakers.

Finally it can be seen from the table that only a few Australians and French used justification as a softener. It can be concluded that regardless of their nationality or native language, people who work in the same office very rarely give reasons when making a request.

2. The following answer is not very fluent partly because of inappropriate choice of vocabulary particularly when presenting possible explanations. Identify the vocabulary elements which need to be changed.

As the table indicates, the way in which French and Australians tend to make requests differ as far as the softeners used are concerned. First and foremost, minimal softeners are used by a number of French but only by few Australians which could well be due to the fact that, whenever it is possible, for example: Australian clerks refrain from calling their colleagues by first name.

Secondly, while a minority of the French chose verbal ways to soften their requests only a little percentage of the Australians regards the same way as preferable. The small percentages may be a consequence of the inability of the
confused non-native speakers to use every existing possible way of expressing modality.

In addition, tags tend to be a type of softener used widely by several Australians but very few French. This fact may be an account of the Australians’ manner of widely-using tags in their conversations with their family and friends.

As far as hedges are concerned, they are used by a very small number of Australians and by even fewer French, which might be a result of the lack of tags and hedges in French and the ignorance of their application.

Last but not least, justification is not considered as a satisfactory way of softening requests and is hardly ever used by an equally insignificant percentage of Australian and French people as a consequence of the fact that, regardless of nationality, speakers seldom give certain reasons to support the request made.

**TASK 23**

The following extracts from student writing present some weakness. Read them, identify the problem area (poor language, weak argumentation etc) and rewrite them in a correct way.

1. Finally if we observe the table, we will come to the conclusion that French and Australian speakers alike, use only a little few justifications when making requests.
2. Finally, both Australians and French speakers present the same range of justification.
3. Unlike Australians, who use a great number of tags in their conversations with friends and relatives, French speakers hardly use tags and hedges.
4. It can also be seen from the table, that non-native speakers, who are confused by the large number of possible ways of expressing modality in English, select one modal verb and use it systematically. On the other hand, native speakers of English express modality not only through verbs, but also through phrases and certain expressions.
5. Furthermore, it appears a number of Australians uses tags in their conversation with friends and relatives compared with little French. Obviously tags, as well as hedges, have no syntactic equivalent in French, and therefore, do not come 'naturally' to French speakers. In reference to hedges, it can be seen from the table that some Australians use it as a softener because they are native speakers of English and they express modality not only through verbs, but also through phrases and certain expressions in relation to few French who find it easy to use conversational devices which consist of a single word.
6. As the table indicates, more than half of French speakers find it easy to use conversational devices which consist of a simple word, compared with a quite small percentage of Australians who do so. Actually, Australian clerks avoid calling their colleagues by first name.
7. Rather few French use tags and hedges, regarding the Australians who use them quite often. This is due to the fact that tags and hedges have no syntactic equivalent in French, and therefore, do not come 'naturally' to French speakers. The Australians use a great number of tags in their conversations with friends and relatives.
8. According to a research, a minority of Australian use minimal, for example "so" and "first name", to make requests, in contrast more than half French use this way of expression.
9. Ending, only a few Australians and French use justification, perhaps because regardless of their nationality or native language, people who work in the same office very rarely give reasons when making requests.
10. Opposingly, native speakers of English express modality not only through verbs, but also through phrases and certain expressions since 34% and 28% of them use tags and hedges respectively. An additional reason for that is that there is likelihood that Australians use a great number of tags in their conversations with friends and relatives.
The usage of a) articles, b) determiners, and/or c) quantifiers/qualifying expressions in the following examples—all taken from students’ assignments—is problematic. Pinpoint the type of mistake(s) in each sentence, and rewrite them using a correct word/phrase for each case.

1. In Hartvigsen’s (1981) study, approximately half of the students had higher scores for their out-of-class essays, while a little of them had higher scores for in-class essays.

2. Moreover, quite several students had almost the same marks.

3. A small number of Spanish students made mistakes in the categories of word choice and word form whereas a little more than the double of them made the same errors at home.

4. The most common type of error, almost the double from the second common mistake, is the wrong word choice.

5. In Hartvigsen’s (1981) study, almost the half of students had higher scores for their out-of-class essays while from the rest of the percentage of students only few had higher scores for in-class essays and the other had the same scores.

6. Whereas few of all class errors by Spanish students were in the categories of word choice and word form, the minority of their home errors fell into this two categories.

7. In Hartvigsen’s (1981) study, approximately the half of the students had higher scores for their out-of-class essays, while a few number had higher scores for in-class essays (with the rest of his students having the similar scores).

8. By far the largest percentage of mistakes made have to do with the word choice compared with any other type of mistakes.

The following examples (again, extracted from students’ assignments) contain mistakes pertaining to a) the usage of connectives, b) sentence structure/word order, and/or c) the choice of individual words or collocations. Identify the type of mistake in each of them, and rewrite them correctly.

1. It encloses nouns, verbs, adverbs.

2. The minority of students’ mistakes both in class and at home comes about as far as their ability to make references is concerned.

3. Then, the conditions under which a text is produced may affect the text production. At last, many times is offered to students no special instruction as to how prepare their home compositions.
4. Consequently, teachers as an effective educational medium are considered to be both essential and important.

5. A possible explanation for this appears to be the need on behalf of teachers to train students in a repertoire of writing strategies and in recognizing the elements of good writing.

**TASK 26**

The following is an assemblage of paragraphs taken from various students’ assignments. A broad spectrum of mistakes appears here, from lack of agreement between subject and verb, to errors in punctuation. Find the mistakes, specify their types, and rewrite the paragraphs correctly.

1. The following diagram presents the results of a research conducted on a group of students which shows the errors done concerning language either in home or in class. […] The high percentages of class errors referring to Word Choice and Sentence Structure appear presumably because the condition, under a text is produced were not the ideal. […] Vagueness is also a main characteristic of the instructions given to students in order to prepare their home assignments and this fact mystified them.

2. In retrospect, taking into consideration the findings in the graph, the estimation over whether the percentage is bigger when students write more remarkable essays being at home or vice versa, is quite a reckless action. Nevertheless, there is a small inclination to the side of the compositions created in the class under teacher’s surveillance. […] Furthermore, for a shocking number of students exhibiting kinds of problems such as punctuation or dictation, different types of lessons need to be implemented so as those students can keep abreast with the rest.

3. According to the information given, the most frequently occurring errors in class as well as home compositions are word choice errors. […] On the opposite, the minority of errors concerns references. […] As it can be figured out from the graph, home compositions are more likely to present mistakes concerning word choice, articles and punctuation.

4. In this section it is estimated a small distinction between class and home errors. […] A possible explanation could be the fact that students are false because of continuous misinterpretations of language. […] This comes as a result of different problems that some language areas present and it is also revealed the need for learner’s training in writing a text.
Unit 4
Academic vs Popular Discourse

ACADEMIC AND POPULAR DISCOURSE

TASK 1

Texts A and B below deal with the same topic: hormone replacement therapy in association with breast cancer. One of them was published in a specialist academic journal addressing specialist doctors while the other was written for a broad audience and was published in a broadsheet newspaper. The two sources are given below. Read the two texts and match them with the sources.

Then identify differences between the two texts in terms of language and style used in each one of them. Have these differences helped you identify the source of these texts? List the characteristics that helped you differentiate between the two texts.

SOURCE 1

The Breast Journal
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November 2003
Volume 9, Issue 6
Pages 449–523

Women's Health Initiative Results: Breast Cancer Risk in Perspective (pages 449–451)
Patricia T. Kelly
Hormone replacement therapy, the once wonder treatment for older women, was yesterday banned as the medication of first choice for preventing osteoporosis, the debilitating bone condition that affects an estimated 3 million people in Britain. Safety watchdogs moved to restrict the prescription of HRT because of growing fears that it increases the risk of cancer. The ruling is likely to see a sharp reduction in its use.

The warnings represent the strongest attempt yet to wean an estimated 1.7 million British women off HRT. They were advised by the government's Medicines and Healthcare Products Regulatory Agency (MHRA) to discuss whether they should continue HRT at their next routine consultation with their doctors.

Similar advice was given in August when a study of more than 1 million women suggested women were at increased risk of contracting breast cancer within one to two years of starting HRT and that long-term use of combined oestrogen-progestogen therapies could eventually double the risk. Until recently many women have been on HRT for years after menopause, sometimes for a decade or more. Many swore it enhanced the quality of life in a way nothing else could. About 6m prescriptions a year were made in England alone, although there is anecdotal evidence the August warning led to some women stopping its use. Wyeth, one of the big HRT suppliers, says average use is two to three years.

A Europe-wide review has led to stern guidance to health professionals who prescribe HRT. The European committee for proprietary medicinal products concluded "there is a public health concern with regards to the safe and effective use of HRT". Gordon Duff, the chairman of the British committee on the safety of medicines, part of the MHRA, said his members agreed that "HRT remains an effective treatment for the short-term relief of menopausal symptoms but that it should no longer be regarded as the therapy of choice for preventing osteoporosis in women over the age of 50".
TEXT B

BIOLOGY, BIOLOGY, BIOLOGY

One group has calculated that an average of at least 8 years is needed for breast cancers to reach 1 cm, with tumors in older women having a slower growth rate than those in younger women (5). Women in the WHI study had a mean age of 63 years with 68% of Prempro users and non-users having well to moderately well differentiated tumors (6).

All women in the study were followed for 3.5 years, with a mean follow-up of 5.2 years. In both groups, about 84% of the breast cancers were found in the first 5 years of the study. This means that all or nearly all of the breast cancers reported in the study were present in an undetectable state before the study began and so cannot be ascribed to HRT use.

FASTER GROWTH OF BREAST CANCERS IN HRT USERS?

It is unlikely that existing breast cancers grew more rapidly in HRT users than in nonusers and so were found sooner. Not only were the breast cancers in Prempro users and non-users similar in grade, but they differed in size by only 2 mm (6). In more than 15 other studies the breast cancers detected in women who were using HRT were no larger or more aggressive than those found in nonusers. Instead, breast cancers found in HRT users were more likely to be diploid, estrogen-receptor (ER) positive, node negative, and of lower grade than those of nonusers (7–11). In these and other studies, HRT use has not been found to be associated with increased breast cancer growth.

To avoid bias due to earlier detection in HRT users, one study compared mammographically detected breast cancers in hormone users and nonusers who had equivalent screening, and so had an equal likelihood that their tumors would be found at similar stages (12). In this study, hormone users were more likely to have well-differentiated tumors and significantly less likely to have poorly differentiated tumors compared to non-hormone users (Table 1).

As a group, studies of women whose breast cancers were detected while they were using HRT show that HRT use at menopause does not in any measurable way contribute to growth or to aggressive features in breast cancers. Therefore the use of HRT in the WHI study is unlikely to have resulted in faster growth and so to earlier detection of breast cancers in women assigned to HRT.

REFERENCES


TASK 2

Read the two texts on hormone replacement therapy again and then complete the following contextual features: Who writes what to whom and for what purpose:

**TEXT A**

PUBLISHED IN:
WHO (AUTHOR):
WHAT:
TO WHOM (AUDIENCE):
AND FOR WHAT PURPOSE:

**TEXT B**

PUBLISHED IN:
WHO (AUTHOR):
WHAT:
TO WHOM (AUDIENCE):
AND FOR WHAT PURPOSE:
**Introduction**

A critical aspect of influenza vaccine development is the demonstration that immunisation is capable of inducing a protective immune response. In individuals who have been immunologically primed by exposure to related viruses by infection or by immunisation, a single dose of 15 µg haemagglutinin (HA) per strain, is considered to give high levels of protective immunity in younger adults and to prevent severe consequences of infection in the elderly [16]. Vaccines are usually prepared from split products or from purified subunits and occasionally from whole virions, but the immune responses to immunisation in primed populations are considered equivalent for each type of vaccine. In the European Union (EU), there are regulatory criteria for satisfactory immunogenicity of influenza vaccines in annual clinical trials performed in adult and elderly populations. The criteria for adult populations, prepared by the EU Committee for Proprietary Medicinal Products (CPMP) [4] are as follows:

- Number of seroconversions or significant increase in anti-HA antibody >40%
- Mean geometric increase in antibody >2.5
- Proportion of subjects achieving a haemagglutination-inhibition (HI) titre >40 or single radial haemolysis (SRH) titre >25 mm² should be >70%.

In a pandemic situation, the immune status of the population is quite different. At the onset of the 1957 (H2N2), 1968 (H3N2) and 1977 (H1N1) pandemics, younger adults were immunologically naïve to the new strains, whereas older populations had been primed by previous infections of related strains [21]. In 1997/98 the human infections with avian H5N1 and H9N2 viruses in Hong Kong gave cause for concern because there was worldwide naivety to these influenza subtypes. We therefore need to know whether any changes to immunisation protocols are necessary to protect people in pandemic situations. In this context, much valuable information can be gleaned from earlier studies performed in 1976 and 1977 and also from more recent experience with H5N1 and H9N2 influenza.
Men's Health

HEADACHES OR MIGRAINES?

HEAD GAMES: FIGHT OFF A MIGRAINE

Your headache may be a migraine. Here's how to fight back

Edited by Liese Geising, Illustrations by Eddie Bowen, Posted Date: October 8, 2003

Don't blame your next blinding headache on stress or your kid's music. A new study by the Headache Care Center in Springfield, Missouri, found that 80 percent of people who thought they were having sinus headaches actually had migraines. "Men are less likely to go to a doctor, and if they go, they're less likely to be diagnosed," says Richard Lipton, M.D., vice chairman of neurology at the Albert Einstein college of medicine in New York City. He developed this three-question quiz to screen for migraines:

1. in the past 3 months, have headaches limited your activities?

2. Does headache pain make you sick to your stomach?

3. Does light bother you? "If you answer 'yes' to two questions, there's a 93 percent chance you are suffering from migraines," says Dr. Lipton. Many men are unaware of the availability of treatment.

**Triggers.** Common culprits are red wine, nuts, bright lights, chocolate, smoke, stress, lack of sleep, irregular exercise, climate changes, and alcohol. But almost anything can set off a migraine, says Robert Kaniecki, M.D., director of the University of Pittsburgh headache center. Your doctor can narrow it down.

**Treatment.** "Usually a patient just has to pin down the triggers and make minor lifestyle changes," says Dr. Kaniecki. Prescription medications can stop pain soon after onset.
TASK 5
Read the two texts below and identify any differences in language (vocabulary, grammatical structures, tenses, modality), style (degree of formality) and format (heading, author information, references, quotes). Use the space below the texts to write your answers.

TEXT A

An underground maze found packed with mummies was most likely an ancient multifamily cemetery, Egypt's top archaeologist said. A French team made the recent discovery of hundreds of mummies crammed into deep shafts and corridors at Saqqara, 15 miles (25 kilometers) south of Cairo. Zahi Hawass, Secretary General of Egypt's Supreme Council of Antiquities (SCA), said the burial site was used for many centuries, from the 26th dynasty (664-525 B.C.) through the end of the Ptolemaic period in 30 B.C. "Each family dug a shaft about 30 feet [9 meters deep] and buried all the members of the family there. Each shaft may represent a family of this period," he said. Some of the mummies were wrapped in linen and encased in sealed coffins and stone sarcophagi. At least one of the coffins was covered with gold, said Hawass, a National Geographic explorer-in-residence.

TEXT B

The remains of two Egyptian mummies from the New Kingdom site of Qurnah were investigated using computer tomography. Two scout views and two CT slices were studied for each specimen. General descriptions of the specimens were drawn from these images. Standard anthropometric measurements were taken from the CT scans and compared with a sample data set describing skeletal material from the same site. One specimen was found to be typical of males from this population, and the other was tentatively described as female. We conclude that minimal CT scanning may be useful for the study of mummies, and may provide craniometric data not otherwise available. Copyright © 1999 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.
### Differences between text A and text B:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Media text (A)</th>
<th>Academic text (B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) contractions (e.g. they’ll)</td>
<td>Full forms (e.g. they will)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TASK 6
Rewrite (in terms of linguistic features, structure, style and information to be excluded/included) the following newspaper article from the International Herald Tribune for the purpose of appearing in the New England Journal of Medicine (150 words). Suggest a title for your academic text.

---

**Women skipping mammograms**

*Published: WEDNESDAY, JUNE 21, 2006*  
*By Eric Nagourney*

As many as 80 percent of older women who are surveyed about mammograms tell interviewers that they have the cancer screening at least once every two years. But a new study suggests that the real numbers may be much lower. *One of the most fundamental questions regarding screening mammography in the elderly remains largely unanswered - how many elderly women are actually screened?* the authors write in the August issue of The American Journal of Preventive Medicine. To try to answer that question, the researchers, led by Dr. Christopher Kagay of Harvard, looked at Medicare data from a representative sample of more than 145,000 women age 65 and older. Based on those figures, they said, the real screening rate appears to be closer to 61 percent.
Why the difference? The study did not address that issue, but the researchers say there are several possible explanations. Given the age of the women surveyed, it could be simple forgetfulness. But there is also a well-established tendency among people being surveyed about their personal habits to give what they believe is the "right" answer.

As a practical matter, the study noted, there is no firm evidence that mammography has any value for women 69 and older. But doctors still recommend that they have the screening, unless they have an illness that is likely to shorten their life. In addition to finding that the overall rate of breast cancer screening is lower than many women claim, the study found that screening rates were even lower for black, Asian-American and Hispanic women.

**TASK 7**

The following article appeared in *The Guardian*, reporting on scientific (medical) research findings. Read it carefully and on the basis of the information offered below, reconstruct the academic journal extract and suggest a title in no more than 200 words (be brief and to-the-point). You do not have to include any references in your text. Adopt a formal academic style. Make sure you paraphrase any information borrowed from the original.

**Faulty genes combine to increase family cancer risk**  
**James Meikle, health correspondent**  
**Friday October 28, 2005**  
**The Guardian**

Scientists have found that a faulty gene can greatly increase the risk of breast and prostate cancer in families, suggesting targeted screening may be needed to pick up disease early. The gene normally polices the health of DNA as cells replicate and had previously not been thought to be an important factor in cancers, but it seems now that faulty copies working with other genes play a role in the development of some forms of the disease.

A study also shows that there is a significant increase in the risk of breast cancer in women and men when a family member had the cancer in both breasts. The finding will increase pressure for all women with a family history of breast cancer to be routinely screened annually from the age of 40. The NHS's breast screening programme starts for women at 50 and is offered every three years.

Researchers for Cancer Research UK at the London School of Tropical Medicine and the Breakthrough Breast Cancer research centre in London examined the incidence of cancers among parents, brothers, sisters and children of 469 women who had cancer in both breasts - an indication in itself of the relative's increased propensity for breast cancer - and who had been tested for the status of the CHEK2 gene. Almost one in three patients with a normal gene had a close relative with breast cancer. But six of the seven women who had a faulty gene had at least one relative with breast cancer. Two also had a relative with prostate cancer, the researchers reveal in the Lancet medical journal today.

The study's leader, Julian Peto of the London School of Tropical Medicine, said: "Relatives of women with bilateral breast cancer plus a normal CHEK2 gene have their breast cancer risk trebled. But relatives of women with bilateral breast cancer who carry the faulty version of the gene have an even higher risk. The faulty version of CHEK2 is a relatively low-risk gene, so screening the general population for this gene is not worthwhile. But our results suggest it may be useful to test women who have a close relative with bilateral breast cancer... Our study also shows for the first time that fathers and brothers of bilateral breast cancer patients have a substantially increased risk of prostate cancer. This risk also seems to be further increased in male relatives who carry the faulty CHEK2 gene." Alan Ashworth, the
director of the Breakthrough Breast Cancer centre, said: "We have shown for the first time that genes originally thought to carry a low breast cancer risk can act in combination with other low-risk genes to dramatically increase a woman's chance of developing this disease." There are about 2,000 bilateral cases among the 41,000 breast cancer patients diagnosed each year. About 2% of these are likely to have faulty CHEK2 genes.

**TASK 8**

*Read the two extracts on autism & and using the information offered write an academic journal article on the symptoms & possible causes of autism (no more than 200 words). Give a title to your article, adopt a formal academic style & make sure you paraphrase any information borrowed from the original.*

**Note:** You can include the following references in your text:

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**Extract 1**

**The Secrets of Autism**

**The number of children diagnosed with autism and Asperger’s in the U.S. is exploding. Why?**

By J. Madeleine Nash

*Adapted from Time Magazine*

*Monday, Apr. 29, 2002*

Tommy Barrett is a dreamy-eyed fifth-grader who lives with his parents, twin brothers, two cats and a turtle in San Jose, Calif., the heart of Silicon Valley. He's an honor-roll student who likes math and science and video games. He's also a world-class expert on Animorph and Transformer toys. "They're like cars and trains and animals that transform into robots or humans — I love them!" he shouts exuberantly.

And that is sometimes a problem. For a time, in fact, Tommy's fascination with his toys was so strong that when they weren't around he would pretend to be the toys, transforming from a truck into a robot or morphing into a kitten. He would do this in the mall, in the school playground and even in the classroom. His teachers found this repetitive pantomime delightful but disturbing, as did his mother Pam. By that point, there were other worrisome signs.

Pam Barrett recalls that as a 3-year-old, Tommy was a fluent, even voluble talker, yet he could not seem to grasp that conversation had reciprocal rules, and, curiously, he avoided looking into other people's eyes. And although Tommy was obviously smart — he had learned to read by the time he was 4 — he was so fidgety and unfocused that he was unable to participate in his kindergarten reading group.

Simon Baron-Cohen, Professor of Developmental Psychopathology at the University of Cambridge says that children on the autistic spectrum are "mind blind"; they appear to think that what is in their mind is identical to what is in everyone else's mind and that how they feel is how everyone else feels. The notion that other people ((parents, playmates, teachers) may take a different view of things, that they may harbor concealed motives or duplicitous thoughts, does not readily occur. "It took the longest time for Tommy to tell a lie," recalls Pam Barrett, and when he finally did, she inwardly cheered.

When Tommy turned 8, his parents finally learned what was wrong. Their bright little boy, a psychiatrist informed them, had a mild form of autism known as Asperger syndrome. Despite the fact that children with Asperger's often respond well to therapy, the Barretts, at that moment, found the news almost unbearable.

[...]

Available from [http://www.time.com/time](http://www.time.com/time)
Autism and pollution: the vital link

The number of children with autism has risen dramatically in recent years. In a new book, Richard Lathe argues that pollution and environmental causes may be to blame.

Juliet Rix

[...]

The number of people — and particularly young children — who have autistic spectrum disorders (ASD) has risen dramatically over the past two decades. ASD used to be identified in a few children in every 10,000: it now affects as much as 1 per cent of the population. Part of this rise is certainly due to a broader definition and increased diagnosis, but some experts are convinced that there has also been a real rise. Lathe is one, and he believes that this is in part due to an increase in environmental toxins — pesticides, PCBs (from plastics) and particularly heavy metals including mercury and lead (both known neurotoxins).

He is not suggesting that pollution is the sole cause of autism. It is now well established that genes play a major role in the disorder. The genetics is not, however, straightforward. No “autism” gene has been identified — nor is one expected. Autistic tendency runs in families but there are pairs of identical twins, one of whom is autistic while the other is not. Genes predispose to ASD but in most cases something more is needed to trigger the development of autism — something in the environment.

Sir Michael Rutter, Professor of Developmental Psychopathology at King’s College London, a leading authority on autism, says the days when bad parenting was blamed are long gone and that “the environmental factors are likely to be physical rather than psychological”. All sorts of things have been suggested, from infections to diet, complications of pregnancy and birth to vaccines — all of which are currently being investigated by the Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children at Bristol University. Lathe points to research showing that autism is more prevalent in cities than in rural areas to support his view that pollution may be implicated.

[...]
How to beat depression with the right diet

Tuesday, 10 November 2009

Did you ever wish that you could take a vitamin for depression? Well, for some of you it may be just that simple. There are a variety of vitamin deficiencies that can lead to depression symptoms. So, if you’re feeling blue, there’s more to picking yourself up than reaching for a bar of chocolate. Scientific studies suggest that with the right diet you can even beat depression.

It will come as no surprise to hear that what we eat can have a big impact on how we feel, mentally as well as physically. After a hectic week, with too much fast food and hastily consumed coffee, or a couple of nights on the make-mine-a-double-and-a-doner diet, we may well feel what we’ve put into our bodies punishing our mind and mood.

But there are also foods that we might not even be aware of that are having a big impact on how we feel. And this can be more serious than just getting grouchy from overdoing it – there’s a wealth of research that suggests that certain types of food actually contain essential components for good mental health, with deficiencies potentially even worsening diagnosable mental disorders such as depression.

Two recent reports have hit headlines with the claim that a Mediterranean diet could protect against depression. With significantly fewer cases of depression in Mediterranean countries, researchers now think it may be the healthy diet, rich in fresh vegetables, whole grains and olive oil, that helps maintain mental health.

Eat up your greens

Several scientific studies have shown links between low levels of B vitamins and psychiatric disorders. The B vitamin folate (better known as folic acid) is thought to be essential for preventing depression. It is also thought that low folate levels may even stop antidepressants from working. "Because folic acid is often deficient in people with depressive symptoms, getting more of this vitamin through foods may help," recommends Dr Sanchez-Villegas in an article published in Public Health Nutrition, (volume 9, issue 8A, pp1104-1109). "In my article ‘Mediterranean diet and nutrition’, I explain that the specific vitamin has the ability to reduce the high levels of homocysteine [an amino acid] associated with depression." Dr Sanchez-Villegas goes on to suggest that the top foods for upping your intake of folic acid include yeast extract, green vegetables (just lightly cooked), beans and pulses.

Experts such as Alpert J E, Mischoulon D, Nierenberg A and Fava M report in their article ‘Nutrition and depression: focus on folate’, which was published in the journal Nutrition (volume16. pp 544-546) in 2000, that the B-complex vitamins cannot be stored in our bodies, so we depend entirely on our daily diet to supply them. Furthermore, in cooperation with Rubenstein G E and Bottonari K, they verified that
vitamins are destroyed by alcohol, refined sugars, nicotine, and caffeine so it is no surprise that many people may be deficient in these and, as a result, need to take supplements as it was recommended in 2002 in their article ‘Folinic acid (Leucovorin) as an adjunctive treatment for SSRI-refractory depression’ published in the Annual Clinical Psychiatry vol.14, pp 33-38.

Boost your serotonin

Tryptophan is an essential amino acid which is converted in our bodies into serotonin, a neurotransmitter, or chemical in the brain. "Low levels of the neurotransmitter serotonin are often associated with depression," says Lucinda Bevan, a nutritional therapist for Brain Nutrition in the report on National Depression Week Conference held in London, 17-23 April 2006. Our bodies can't produce tryptophan, so we need to get it through our food. Amino acids are protein fragments, so it is protein-rich foods that can keep your serotonin levels in the happy zone. And the need for serotonin may even explain why we crave carbs – the blood-to-brain absorption of tryptophan is helped by carbohydrates, so those cravings may be our brains crying out for more serotonin.

This means protein and tryptophan-rich foods – such as chicken and turkey, tuna and salmon, beans and seeds – can be most effective when eaten alongside slow-release carbohydrates. "Good-quality protein provides the building blocks for our brain chemicals and can convert in the brain with good quality carbohydrate," says Bevan. Dr Longmore, whose book The Serotonin Secret, published in October 2008 in London by Daryl Willcox Publishing, explores this further, claims that "nine out of 10 people I treat with depression have digestive problems, so they don't produce enough serotonin". She says that improving your diet to include more tryptophan-rich foods, as well as increasing exercise, cutting out caffeine and sugar, and drinking more water, will boost serotonin production – which she claims acts in "exactly the same way as antidepressant drugs".

References


Unit 5
Paraphrasing

How to paraphrase a source

General advice

1. When reading a passage, try first to understand it as a whole, rather than pausing to write down specific ideas or phrases.

2. Be selective. Unless your assignment is to do a formal or "literal" paraphrase, you usually don't need to paraphrase an entire passage; instead, choose and summarize the material that helps you make a point in your paper.

3. Think of what "your own words" would be if you were telling someone who's unfamiliar with your subject (your mother, your brother, a friend) what the original source said.

4. Remember that you can use direct quotations of phrases from the original within your paraphrase, and that you don't need to change or put quotation marks around shared language. Quotations should not exceed 10% of your text.

Methods of Paraphrasing

A. Look away from the source; then write.

B. Take notes.

C. Test yourself

The method below is not only a way to create a paraphrase but also a way to understand a difficult text.

D. While looking at the source, first change the structure, then the words. For example, consider the following passage from Love and Toil (a book on motherhood in London from 1870 to 1918), in which the author, Ellen Ross, puts forth one of her major arguments:

“Love and Toil maintains that family survival was the mother's main charge among the large majority of London’s population who were poor or working class; the emotional and intellectual nurture of her child or children and even their actual comfort were forced into the background. To mother was to work for and organize household subsistence.” (p. 9)
**STEP 1**

**Change the structure**

Begin by starting at a different place in the passage and/or sentence(s), basing your choice on the focus of your paper. This will lead naturally to some changes in wording. Some places you might start in the passage above are "The mother's main charge," "Among the . . . poor or working class," "Working for and organizing household subsistence," or "The emotional and intellectual nurture." Or you could begin with one of the people the passage is about: "Mothers," "A mother," "Children," "A child." Focusing on specific people rather than abstractions will make your paraphrase more readable.

At this stage, you might also break up long sentences, combine short ones, expand phrases for clarity, or shorten them for conciseness, or you might do this in an additional step. In this process, you'll naturally eliminate some words and change others.

Here's one of the many ways you might get started with a paraphrase of the passage above by changing its structure. In this case, the focus of the paper is the effect of economic status on children at the turn of the century, so the writer begins with children:

“Children of the poor at the turn of the century received little if any emotional or intellectual nurturing from their mothers, whose main charge was family survival. Working for and organizing household subsistence were what defined mothering. Next to this, even the children's basic comfort was forced into the background” (Ross, 1995).

Now you've succeeded in changing the structure, but the passage still contains many direct quotations, so you need to go on to the second step.

**STEP 2**

**Change the words**

Use synonyms or a phrase that expresses the same meaning. Leave *shared language* unchanged.

It's important to start by changing the structure, not the words, but you might find that as you change the words, you see ways to change the structure further. The final paraphrase might look like this:

“According to Ross (1993), poor children at the turn of the century received little mothering in our sense of the term. Mothering was defined by economic status, and among the poor, a mother's foremost responsibility was not to stimulate her children's minds or foster their emotional growth but to provide food and shelter to meet the basic requirements for physical survival. Given the magnitude of this task, children were deprived of even the "actual comfort" (p. 9) we expect mothers to provide today.”
You may need to go through this process several times to create a satisfactory paraphrase.

http://writing.wisc.edu/Handbook/QPA_paraphrase2.html

**Remember:**
When we paraphrase we use our own words to report someone else’s writing. We paraphrase

(A) by changing vocabulary (such as nouns, verbs, special adjectives, and unusual adverbs):
   a. giving a synonym, or
   b. expressing the meaning of the original word through a different expression.

(B) by changing sentence structure (e.g. change verbs into nouns or adjectives, nouns into verbs, active clauses into passive etc)

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**Successful and unsuccessful paraphrasing**

**Example 1: word for word plagiarism**

**ORIGINAL TEXT**

Critical care nurses function in a hierarchy of roles. In this open heart surgery unit, the nurse manager hires and fires the nursing personnel. The nurse manager does not directly care for patients but follows the progress of unusual or long-term patients. On each shift a nurse assumes the role of resource nurse. This person oversees the hour-by-hour functioning of the unit as a whole, such as considering expected admissions and discharges of patients, ascertaining that beds are available for patients in the operating room, and covering sick calls. Resource nurses also take a patient assignment. They are the most experienced of all the staff nurses. The nurse clinician has a separate job description and provides for quality of care by orienting new staff, developing unit policies, and providing direct support where needed, such as assisting in emergency situations. The clinical nurse specialist in this unit is mostly involved with formal teaching in orienting new staff. The nurse manager, nurse clinician, and clinical nurse specialist are the designated experts. They do not take patient assignments. The resource nurse is seen as both a caregiver and a resource to other caregivers. . . . Staff nurses have a hierarchy of seniority. . . . Staff nurses are assigned to patients to provide all their nursing care. (Chase, 1995, p. 156)

**Reference**


**Paraphrased text?**

Critical care nurses have a hierarchy of roles. The nurse manager hires and fires nurses. S/he does not directly care for patients but does follow unusual or long-
term cases. **On each shift** a resource nurse attends to the **functioning of the unit as a whole**, such as **making sure beds are available in the operating room**, and also has a **patient assignment**. The nurse clinician **orients new staff, develops policies, and provides support where needed**. The clinical nurse specialist also **orients new staff**, mostly by **formal teaching**. The nurse manager, nurse clinician, and clinical nurse specialist, as the designated experts, do not take patient assignments. The resource nurse is not only a caregiver but a **resource to the other caregivers**. Within the staff nurses there is also a **hierarchy of seniority**. Their job is to give assigned patients **all their nursing care**.

**Word-for-Word Plagiarism**

Notice that the writer has not only “borrowed” Chase’s material (the results of her research) with no acknowledgment, but has also largely maintained the author’s method of expression and sentence structure. The phrases in red are directly copied from the source or changed only slightly in form.

Even if the student-writer had acknowledged Chase as the source of the content, the language of the passage would be considered plagiarized because no quotation marks indicate the phrases that come directly from Chase. And if quotation marks did appear around all these phrases, this paragraph would be so cluttered that it would be unreadable.

**A Patchwork Paraphrase**

Chase (1995) describes how nurses in a critical care unit **function in a hierarchy** that places **designated experts** at the top and the least senior staff nurses at the bottom. The experts — the nurse manager, nurse clinician, and clinical nurse specialist — are not involved directly in patient care. The staff nurses, in contrast, **are assigned to patients** and **provide all their nursing care**. Within the staff nurses is a **hierarchy of seniority** in which the most senior can become resource nurses: they are assigned a patient but also serve as a **resource to other caregivers**. The experts have administrative and teaching tasks such as selecting and **orienting new staff**, **developing unit policies**, and giving hands-on **support where needed**.

**The Patchwork Paraphrase**

This paraphrase is a patchwork composed of pieces in the original author’s language (in red) and pieces in the student-writer’s words, all rearranged into a new pattern, but with none of the borrowed pieces in quotation marks. Thus, even though the writer acknowledges the source of the material, the underlined phrases are falsely presented as the student’s own.

**A Legitimate Paraphrase**

In her study of the roles of nurses in a critical care unit, Chase (1995) also found a hierarchy that distinguished the roles of experts and others. Just as the educational experts described above do not directly teach students, the experts in this unit do not directly attend to patients. That is the role of the staff nurses, who, like teachers, have their own “hierarchy of seniority” (p. 156). The roles of the experts include employing unit nurses and overseeing the care of special patients (nurse manager), teaching and otherwise integrating new personnel into the unit (clinical nurse specialist and nurse clinician), and policy-making (nurse clinician). In an intermediate position in the
hierarchy is the resource nurse, a staff nurse with more experience than the others, who assumes direct care of patients as the other staff nurses do, but also takes on tasks to ensure the smooth operation of the entire facility.

A Legitimate Paraphrase
The writer has documented Chase’s material and specific language (by direct reference to the author and by quotation marks around language taken directly from the source). Notice too that the writer has modified Chase’s language and structure and has added material to fit the new context and purpose — to present the distinctive functions of experts and nonexperts in several professions.

TASK 1
Below are two extracts from academic books. Following the techniques of paraphrasing, provide a paraphrase of the extracts.

“The purpose of this study is to provide some interpretations of scientific texts in their social contexts that will help us understand how texts produce scientific knowledge and reproduce the cultural authority of that knowledge.”

Paraphrase:

“The power of the creative word to change the world is not to be underestimated”, says Merle Hodge (Hodge, 1990:202). She continues: “Fiction has immense political power. Its power can be revolutionary or, of course, the opposite: it is a prime weapon of political conservatism”.

Paraphrase:

TASK 2
Use the ‘Structure and Vocabulary Aid’ from Jordan, R.R. (1999) Academic Writing Course pp. 96-97 to paraphrase and combine two pairs, one of supporting and one of opposing views, of the quotations presented above. Try to use different techniques in your synthesis (changing the vocabulary, the verb form, the word class, etc). Write which technique(s) you have used next to the paraphrase you produce.

TASK 3
Paraphrase the academic text below making sure that cautious language is preserved, not reproduced verbatim though.
Discourse analysis employs both the methodology and theoretical principles typical of linguistics. The procedures employed are essentially the isolation of a set of basic categories of discourse and the formulation of a set of rules stated over those categories. There are a number of other features that tend to go with these. There is also a tendency to take a text and to attempt to give an analysis in depth of all the interesting features of this limited domain. In contrast, conversation analysis is an empirical approach which avoids premature theory construction. Which is the correct way to proceed? There may well seem to be room for some kind of synthesis between the two approaches. However, there may be some reasons to think that the DA approach as outlined is misconceived. We may start by noting that DA analysts can be divided into two basic categories, text grammarians and speech act theorists.

TASK 4

Paraphrase the academic text below editing the text for informal style (e.g. underlined parts need to be rephrased in formal, academic discourse).

In Part II, I spent a lot of time talking about speech acts and about the ways they are used to express our aims and intentions: what we want to ‘do with our words’, as Austin put it. In this chapter, I want to situate those speech acts in the context (in the sense of “context” I talked about a moment ago) in which most of them normally and naturally occur.

Linguistic behaviour is social behaviour. People talk because they want to socialise, in the widest possible sense of the word. This basic fact implies two other basic facts:

One, that we have to look at what people really say when they are together; and
Two, that any understanding of what goes on between people using language is based on the correct understanding of the context in which the interaction is taking place.

Let me give an example.

To round off this section and chapter, let’s consider the difference between a discourse-oriented approach and one that is exclusively based on the semantics of individual expressions and on the speech acts they represent.

TASK 5

Paraphrase the two direct quotations relating to the same topic (teaching of scientific/academic discourse).

A. “In the past, composition and argumentation played a key role in higher education, as the teaching of scientific discourse consisted largely of teaching students about how to compose ideas in writing” (Jones, 1990).

B. “The process of students moving from school to university studies is currently associated with the acquisition of an increased expertise in the discourse and culture of academia rather than an increased ability to argue in writing” (Brown & Mitchell, 1998).
TASK 6
Read the following extracts on critical thinking and critical pedagogy and paraphrase them adequately with the purpose to incorporate them in a brief report. Do not use direct quotations from the text.

Two literatures have shaped much of the writing in the educational foundations over the past two decades: Critical Thinking and Critical Pedagogy. (Giroux, 1994)

Critical thinking refers primarily to teaching students how to analyze and develop reading and writing assignments from the perspective of formal, logical patterns of consistency. Part of this is a matter of mastering certain skills of thought: learning to diagnose invalid forms of argument, knowing how to make and defend distinctions, and so on. (Berk, 2008)

The critical pedagogy is most centrally concerned with the voices of marginalized students, arguing that the dominant curricula and teaching practices of mainstream schools silence the ideas, cultures, languages, and voices of students from other backgrounds. (Pennycook, 2001)

TASK 7
Paraphrase the extract below for the purpose of incorporating the claims made in your own research essay on “Children’s early understanding of pretence”.


From around two years of age children, when engaged in joint pretending with others, show a solid understanding of pretend play actions. They are not confused about the non-literal treatment of objects in pretend, e.g. do not try to eat a ball in jointly pretending that it is an apple (Leslie 1987, 1988, 1994). They know that an object can be assigned different pretense identities in different scenarios, e.g. that the ball can now be an apple and later an orange (Harris and Kavanaugh 1993). And they can even draw systematic inferences about stipulated pretense situations and act accordingly, e.g. when a partner pretends to spill some tea on the table, they pretend to clean it up at the corresponding place (Walker-Andrews & Harris 1993; Walker-Andrews & Kahana-Kalman 1999). These findings prima facie suggest that even young children have a quite sophisticated grasp of the nature of pretense actions.
TASK 8

Paraphrase the extract below for the purpose of incorporating the claims made in your own research essay on “The Computational Theory of Mind”. Note down words or expressions which you consider part of terminology and which you can use as such in your paraphrase.

"The brain's special status comes from a special function the brain has, which makes us see, think, feel, choose, and act. That special function is information processing, or computation. Information and computation reside in patterns of data and in relations of logic that are independent of the physical medium that carries them. A message remains the same regardless of its physical form, i.e. of whether it is a telephone call that goes from your lips to your mother's ears or a program that runs on computers: in both cases it accomplishes the same goals for the same reasons. This insight, first expressed by the mathematician Alan Turing, the computer scientists Alan Newell, Herbert Simon, and Marvin Minsky, and the philosophers Hilary Putnam and Jerry Fodor, is now called the computational theory of mind, and seeks to solve one of the puzzles that make up the "mind-body problem": how to connect the ethereal world of meaning and intention with a physical matter like the brain."


TASK 9

Read the following text carefully and, by paraphrasing adequately, summarise it in two to three sentences.

The foreign languages included in the Greek curriculum include English as a compulsory language throughout basic education, and French and/or German as selected subjects in secondary education. The less widely spoken languages of Europe are either totally excluded or attributed no significance in comparison with the three dominant languages, the teaching of which aims at providing students with ‘expert’ linguistic performance that is profitable – profit understood as growth in GNP (gross national product). By learning the dominant languages, and particularly English, it is assumed that one immediately gains access to the world political power and to international wealth. Learning the non-dominant languages of Europe is considered to be extravagant, sometimes exotic even, since they have no particular monetary value in the world market. They are an ‘economic surplus’. Viewing non-dominant languages as such, however, and the decision to reject them as legitimate knowledge in the school curricula, backfires: the result is further devaluation of these languages – including the Greek language – as economic and social assets, and further disempowerment of our communities as significant cultural and political entities.

(adapted from Bessie Dendrinos’ work on Planning Foreign Language Education, which appeared in an edited book on Discourse Analysis, published in Lisbon, Portugal, in 1996)
TASK 10

The passage that follows has been taken from an academic book on the construction of identities in talk.

Read the following text carefully and, by paraphrasing adequately, summarise it in 80 words.

Of course, category usage is an endemic feature of discourse, and whereas rebellion is not always the thing at issue, there is generally something at issue. Discourse is pervasively rhetorical (Billig, 1987; Edwards and Potter, 1992), which is to say, oriented to alternative possible ways of describing things – to argument, contention, and agreement (see Heritage, 1984). So Sack’s work on social categories was part of a larger concern with the conversational business done by all words, and as such it can be contrasted with currently popular and cognitive and social psychological approaches to categorisation. For example, the cognitive psychology of categories and metaphors (Gibbs, 1994; Lakoff, 1987; Rosch, 1978) is dominated by perceptual-cognitive assumptions about the prelinguistic origins of language and mind, rather than seeking to discover the kinds of discursive actions that verbal categories may be designed and deployed for. For various discourse-based critiques and alternatives to those cognitivist assumptions, with regard to categorisation and social psychological theories of it, see Billig (1985), Condor (1988), Edwards (1991, 1997), Wetherell and Potter (1987), and Widdicombe and Woofitt (1995).
Unit 6
Notetaking, Outlining and Summarising

NOTE-TAKING
An important part of effective reading for study purposes is the ability to take concise, precise notes. Good notes are also essential when attending a lecture or a seminar.

Here are some criteria for good notes
1. They are accurate
2. They contain the essential information only: they are not too detailed nor too brief.
3. They show the overall organization of ideas clearly
4. They are concise, i.e. they use abbreviations and other techniques for shortening information whenever possible
5. They help you listen or read more successfully.
6. You can use them effectively later on, e.g. for exam revision.
7. They include follow-up points, i.e. your own comments on or reactions to ideas.

GLOBAL vs. SELECTIVE NOTE-TAKING
Global note-taking concerns the process of taking notes on a whole text by identifying its main purposes and functions. Selective note-taking, on the other hand, concerns the process of deciding on and taking notes from selected parts of a text, depending on the requirements of the task at hand. Global and selective note-taking leads to global and selective summaries respectively (see relevant sections below).

TASK 1
Below are the notes of an Environmental Science student who was asked to take notes on a whole article entitled ‘Global Warming’. Read the notes and evaluate them in terms of the above criteria for good notes.

Greenhouse effect
great threat - need solution: first causes and effects
1. CO₂ from burning forests and oil and coal, chlorofluorocarbons 23%?
2X³₁₆₁₃ tons carbon d. every year
x₂ = 1740
2°C
Temperature > 1°C
oceans > 10 cms
settle boils 30 years Present g.w. thus from 60s
2050 = +1.8 2070 = +3
effects: flooding in Egypt and on islands (my country)
6) less rain > smaller harvests (20%)
b) Britain, warmer
CO₂ in ice and sea > escape > more warming (positive feedback?)
Global Warming – The Greenhouse Effect

It is generally agreed that the greatest threat facing the world today is the warming up of the earth's atmosphere, commonly called global warming or the greenhouse effect. It is the world’s biggest problem because it is truly a worldwide problem. It involves everything in the world, from the North to the South Poles, from the bottom of the oceans to the edge of the atmosphere. We therefore obviously need to find a solution to it. But first of all, we need to be clear about what it is that causes the greenhouse effect, and what the likely future consequences of global warming will be, if it is allowed to go on happening unchecked.

This should help us to see more clearly why we need to do something about it, and what we might do.

First, then, the causes. Basically, we have been producing too many of the gases which, when they are released into the earth’s atmosphere, trap heat, and thus raise its temperature. There are several gases involved, but the main ones are carbon dioxide and chlorofluorocarbons – often called CFCs. The carbon dioxide comes from burning forests and from burning fossil fuels such as oil and coal. The CFCs are given off by refrigerators and air-conditioning systems. Carbon dioxide is to blame for 56% of the greenhouse effect, and CFCs for 25%.

We now dump 24 billion tonnes of carbon dioxide into the atmosphere every year. If this figure were to double, the average global temperature could go up between 1 to 4 degrees C. That may not sound like much, but a two degree rise would make the world hotter than it has ever been in human history. Unfortunately, to make matters worse, the warming effect may not make itself apparent until it is too late. The temperature of the world has risen by more than half a degree this century, and the oceans have risen by at least 10 cms. But just as it takes time for a kettle of water to boil, so it may have taken 30 years or so for the oceans to swell. This means that the global warming we are experiencing now is only a result of the carbon dioxide and other gases we have dumped into the atmosphere up to the 1960s. Since then, our use of fossil fuels has increased rapidly. In other words, the damage may have already been done. Temperatures are expected to increase by at least 1.3°C by 2030, and 3°C by the year 2070.

What will such rises in global temperature mean for the peoples of the world? A warmer climate will increase sea levels. In Western Europe, the Dutch and the people in some eastern parts of England will have to build more effective sea defences. But the effects will be much greater for the developing countries. Egypt will lose land in the Nile Delta, a food producing area. Millions of people could lose their homes in the Ganges Delta of India and Bangladesh. The same is likely to happen to the dwellers on the hundreds of low-lying islands in the Pacific and Indian oceans.

Another effect will be to threaten food supplies. There have been reports which show that if the world becomes warmer and drier, crop harvests in parts of Europe, North America, North Africa and the southern CIS will be cut. The famine problem in northern Africa will also worsen, since rainfall in the Sahara and beyond will fall by 20%.

But rising seas and falling harvests will only be the start. The world will not necessarily become warmer at the same rate everywhere. The tropics could still experience the same temperatures, but the poles could heat up by an extra 10 or 12 degrees. This could cause changes in the routes of the ocean currents, such as the Gulf Stream, which warms Britain.

This could have a drastic effect on the climate of the countries affected. Also, the land between the temperate zones and the North Pole area contains a lot of carbon dioxide, which, at present, cannot escape because it is frozen. If this region warms up, however, the gas will escape into the atmosphere, warming it still further. Another similar effect may take place as the seas become warmer. Cold seas dissolve carbon; warm seas release it. At present, more carbon is stored by the seas than released. But suppose warmer seas started giving off more carbon than they absorb? This is called positive feedback – each change further increases the rate of change. In other words, the greater the warming of the atmosphere, the greater the chance that other changes will occur which will also warm the atmosphere further, and so on. This is the ultimate nightmare: that the greenhouse effect may reach a critical mass, as in a nuclear chain reaction, where it is no longer possible to control.
IDENTIFYING MAIN AND SUBSIDIARY INFORMATION

When reading or listening to a piece of discourse for the purpose of taking notes on it, you have to be able to rank the information you are processing in terms of importance. In other words, in order to take good notes, you have to be able to tell the main points of a text from its secondary points. This ranking must be reflected in your notes, which will need to be presented in a linear form. Note that organising the linear presentation of the main and subsidiary information of a text may not be as straightforward as it seems, given that the majority of texts in many subjects do not have easily recognizable indicators (such as Firstly, ... Secondly, ...) in presenting their information. Ranking the points of a text in terms of importance and presenting them in a linear form leads to the construction of a formal outline (see relevant sections below).

TASK 2

Short task

Read the text below and see how it is then presented in note form. When you are taking notes, remember to use the words which carry information (mainly nouns, verbs and adjectives).

Underwater Cameras

Regular cameras obviously will not function underwater unless specially protected. Though housings are available for waterproofing 35 mm and roll-film cameras, a few special models are amphibious - they can be used above or below the water. Most of these cameras are snapshot models, but one, Nikonos, is a true 35 mm system camera. Though lenses and film must be changed on the surface, the camera will otherwise function normally at depths down to 70 m. Four lenses are available: two of these, which have focal lengths of 90 mm and 35 mm, will function in air and water; the other two, the 28 and 15 mm lenses, work only under water. Lenses are also available from other manufacturers.


A suggested answer to the short task would look like this:

Underwater Cameras

1. Regular Cameras
   special housing necessary

2. Amphibious
   (a) snapshot models
   (b) Nikonos (35 mm system camera)
      Lenses:
      (i) in air & water - 35 mm
          90 mm
      (ii) only under water - 28 mm
          15 mm
TASK 3

Read the following text on Sick Work Places and take notes on the reasons why, according to the text, some buildings lead to poorer health among the people who work in them. Outline your notes in a linear form.

Sick Work Places

It is being increasingly recognised that the way many modern buildings are constructed and maintained is leading to poorer health among the people who work in them.

The main problem is the way that air is handled. In the past, it was possible to open a window for relief from the smokes at the next desk. Nowadays, however, many buildings are sealed because air-conditioning and ventilation are supposed to eliminate problems. But, as the frequent black streaks on the ceiling near air vents show, much of the dirt in the air is merely being recirculated and therefore constantly breathed by the inhabitants of the building.

Most office blocks have air ducts and vents running right through them. These can become full of dust and pollutants such as fumes from cigarettes and photocopiers and chemicals like formaldehyde leaking from carpets or adhesives from materials used to construct the building, and so on. These substances can stay in the air for years.

Unfortunately, energy conservation can make the problem worse. Switching off air-conditioning and heating at night causes condensation. This creates the damp conditions that help bacteria and fungi to grow. When the system comes on again in the morning, they are sprayed into the building.

One third of buildings operate on perpetually recycled air.

One study has claimed that 80% of air-conditioned office blocks are ‘sick’ – in other words, staff complain of headaches, allergies, rashes, nausea and lethargy. However, other studies have shown that workers in normally ventilated offices sometimes have the same symptoms. Thus, there must be factors other than air-conditioning which are also to blame.

Some researchers feel that stress may be important in understanding the causes of sick building syndrome. For example, it may be that with the change from typewriters to word processors in many offices, workers are “chained” to their desks and driven at the speed of their machines. These working conditions cause stress, and people under stress are much more aware of physical discomfort and are much more likely to suffer from backache, eyestrain, sore throats and other symptoms of sick building syndrome.

Some scientists have found that another possible cause of the problem is sensitivity to everyday materials such as carpet fibres and furniture adhesives. An international conference on health and buildings in Stockholm last year was told that 40% of people in Sweden had some form of common allergy to such materials. When many people are put in a building full of such materials, it is therefore natural that some of them will react negatively.

Finally, another view is that the problem stems not from air-conditioning but air changing. According to this explanation, managers of buildings are so incompetent or ignorant about them that they do not ensure workers have enough clean air. Normal maintenance, such as cleaning ducts regularly, is neglected, and air is constantly recycled instead of being exchanged.
OUTLINING

An outline has two main functions: (a) it helps you organise your thoughts and lay a plan for your work before you begin writing your own paper and, (b) it helps your readers understand the basic meaning and structure of what they read. There are different types of outlines and different outline formats. For instance, the scratch outline is a set of notes that may be useful either for writing or for remembering what you have read, it helps you put together your thoughts and ideas and is generally not highly organised.

THE FORMAL OUTLINE

This is a complete outline which indicates the order of treatment of individual topics in a systematic way, by headings and subheadings. This outline is by topic, not by paragraph. One heading, for example, may correspond to only one paragraph, another heading may cover several paragraphs. This is so because this kind of outline indicates the relative importance of a topic and not the amount of space devoted to it. In this outline, it is important to keep the indentations on the left margin consistent in each class and to be sure that a class of lower importance is more indented than the class just above it (see 2 below).

OUTLINE FORM

(1) Place a title above the outline. The title is not one of the numbered topics.
(2) Use roman numerals (I, II, III) for the main topics. Subtopics are divisions of the topic above them and they are given letters and numbers as follows:
   Roman numerals (I, II, III, …)
   Capital letters (A, B, C, …)
   Arabic numerals (1, 2, 3, …)
   Small letters (a, b, c, …)
(3) Indent subtopics so that all letters or numbers of the same kind come directly under one another in a vertical line, e.g.
   I. ……………………..
      A. ……………….…..
        1. ………………..
        2. ………………..
      B. ……………………
      1. ………………….
   II. ………………………
      A. …………………
      B. ………………..
(4) Begin each topic with a capital letter. Do not capitalize other words.
(5) Do not follow topics with a period
(6) Main topics and subtopics under the same topic need to be parallel in form (e.g. if the first point is expressed in the form of a noun, the other points in the same category should be nouns, too).
(7) Do not write full sentences: avoid main verbs, use verbals (infinitives, gerunds)

TASK 4

Read the paragraph below on multiliteracies:
The Multiliteracies argument runs like this: our personal, public and working lives are changing in some dramatic ways, and these changes are transforming our cultures and the ways we communicate. This means that the way we have taught literacy, and what counts for literacy, will also have to change. The term ‘Multiliteracies’ highlights two of the most important and closely related changes. The first is the growing significance of cultural and linguistic diversity. The news on our television screens screams this message at us every day. And, in more constructive terms, we have to negotiate differences every day, in our local communities and in our increasingly globally interconnected working and community lives. As a consequence, something paradoxical is happening to English. At the same time as it is becoming a *lingua mundi*, a world language, and a *lingua franca*, a common language of global commerce, media and politics, English is also breaking into multiple and increasingly differentiated Englishes, marked by accent, national origin, subcultural style and professional or technical communities. Increasingly, the name of the game in English is crossing linguistic boundaries. Gone are the days when learning a single standard version of the language was sufficient. Migration, multiculturalism and global economic integration daily intensify this process of change. The globalisation of communications and labour markets makes language diversity an ever more critical local issue. The second major shift encompassed in the concept of Multiliteracies is the influence of new communication technologies. Meaning is made in ways that are increasingly multimodal—in which written-linguistic modes of meaning are part and parcel of visual, audio, and spatial patterns of meaning. Take for instance the multimodal ways in which meanings are made on the World Wide Web, or in video captioning, or in interactive multimedia, or in desktop publishing, or in the use of written texts in a shopping mall. To find our way around this emerging world of meaning requires a new, multimodal literacy.

(adapted from “Putting ‘Multiliteracies’ to the Test”, *Bill Cope and Mary Kalantzis*)

**Use the headings below to complete the outline which follows:**

- English
- Intensifiers of change
- Influence of new communication technologies
- Multiculturalism
- Growing significance of cultural and linguistic diversity
OUTLINE

Multiliteracies

I. The Multiliteracies argument: personal, public and working lives changing dramatically and transforming communication

II. The how and what of literacy changing

III. Multiliteracies term highlighting two relating changes

A. _____________________________________________________

1. Need to negotiate differences

2. ________________________________________________
   a. *Linguistic mundi*, a world language
   b. *Lingua franca*, a common language of global commerce, media and politics
   c. Englishes
   d. learning a standard variety not sufficient

3. _________________________________________________
   a. Migration
   b. ___________________________________________
   c. Global economic integration

B. _______________________________________________________

1. Multimodal meaning

2. Multimodal literacy

TASK 5

Read the text below carefully and complete the outline which follows.

Categorising ads

The issue of defining advertisements (‘ads’) is closely linked to that of defining categories of ad. But here again the issue is anything but simple. One might reasonably claim that the medium in which an ad appears is an important parameter of difference, and that ads in magazines are quite different from those on TV or roadside hoardings. (I use the term medium as the singular of the term (mass) media, to refer to such different means of mass communication as the printed book, TV, radio, newspapers, magazines). Many ads are affecter by, or take advantage of a particular medium. Ads on subway trains and platforms, for example, often have longer copy (i.e. text), or demand reflection, on the assumption that their receivers, in the enforced idleness of awaiting or riding on a train, are likely to scrutinize the ad more carefully. TV ads rely on music and moving pictures in ways that magazine ads cannot. Yet many campaigns cut across media by running the ‘same ad’ concurrently in many media: thought their professed intention may be to use one medium to remind addressees of a campaign in another (White 1988), keeping, let us say, some part of the words and images of a TV ad in front of people, even when they are away from home.

Another way of categorising ads is by product (or service). Luxuries like spirits, perfume and chocolate demand (and get) different techniques from household necessities like soap and eggs, and both of these categories have expensive counterparts: holidays and hi-fis (perceived as luxuries), or cars, houses and fridges (perceived as necessities). Not all ads, however, sell products or services: as well as product ads, there are also non-product ads, including, for example, those for charities and political parties.

Another possible means of categorisation is by technique. One well-worn and long-established distinction is between the hard sell and the soft sell. Hard selling makes a direct
appeal. My prototype of a hard-sell ad involves a man in a suit, standing in front of a pile of carpets, talking loudly and directly to the camera about low cost, limited availability and guaranteed reliability. Soft selling relies more on mood than on exhortation, and on the implication that life will be better with the product. The possessor reflects the possessed: this is a major unspoken promise of all soft-selling ads. A typical soft sell is a cinema ad for Bacardi rum, in which slim and athletic young men and women in swim-wear dive from a yacht into blue water and bask happily on a tropical beach.

Another classification of technique is that between reason and tickle (Bernstein 1974). Reason ads suggest motives for purchase. Fairy liquid, for example, is said to be a better buy than other washing-up liquids because it washes more dishes. Tickle ads, on the other hand, appeal to emotion, humour and mood. Cigarette ads (with the exception of those stressing a low-tar content) are of necessity ticklers. (What reasons could they give?) But the reason/tickle distinction is not just the hard/soft distinction with a new name. A soft sell often implies reasons for purchase without a direct appeal.

The techniques of slow drip and sudden burst refer not to the content of an ad, but to the frequency of its release (White 1988). Another important and self-explanatory difference is that between short copy and long copy.

Choice of technique, however, clearly relates to product, to media, and to copy length. It is easier to reason in the long copy of a magazine ad than in the twenty or thirty seconds of a TV commercial. Luxuries lend themselves to soft, tickle selling. More expensive items, whose purchase merits longer consideration, are prone to reason selling, and therefore to longer written copy. Similarly, there is an aura of respectability about slow-drip campaigns which suggest product reliability and durability, and for this reason they are commonly used both with big buys like cars and for cheaper domestic purchases like baked beans, whose markets are less susceptible to seasonal variation than, say, toys and perfumes, both of which scramble wildly for attention before Christmas and then diminish in January.

As far as advertisers themselves are concerned, the most important categorisation of ads is by consumer. The advertising industry expends enormous effort on attempts both to categorise people effectively and then to target the categories. Fashions change as fast as ads themselves and there is endless discussion about whether the best divisions are those of lifestyle, socioeconomic class, point in the life cycle, neighbourhood, personality type, or of something else altogether. Again, there is overlap with the other types of categorisation suggested above. Certain products are more likely to be bought by men than by women, by the rich, by a certain age group and so on. Tickle may work better on one group than on another.

None of these modes of categorisation allow us to separate off one kind of ad distinctly from another. The factors of medium, product, technique and copy length all interact. There is also an additional hazard. The chronic frustration of all attempts to typologise ads is the advertisers’ striving to grab attention through surprise. The fact that a particular targeted group, or a particular product, associates with a particular medium or technique is in itself often a good reason for change.

(Adapted from Guy Cook’s (1992) The Discourse of Advertising. London: Routledge, pp. 9-11.)
OUTLINE

Categorising ads

I. defining advertisements closely related to categorisation of ads
   A. __________________
   B. By product / service
      1. Product ads
      2. _______________
   C. By technique
      1. _______________
      2. Soft sell
      3. Reason
      4. _____________
   D. ___________________
      1. Slow drip
      2. _______________
   E. By copy length
      1. _______________
      2. _______________
   F. By consumer

II. Selection of technique closely linked to other categorisation factors
   A. e.g. __________, __________, and __________

III. Overlapping and interacting modes of categorising ads

IV. Failure of efforts to comprehensive categorisation of ads due to advertisers’ striving to catch audience’s attention through change and surprise

TASK 6
Below is a text on factors leading to bilingualism (= speaking two languages fluently). Read the text carefully and prepare a formal phrase outline using the format suggested above.

Becoming Bilingual

Although childhood bilingualism is a worldwide phenomenon and much of adult bilingualism results from it, few studies have examined why some children become bilingual while others remain monolingual.

Most children become bilingual in a natural way, in the sense that their parents did not actively plan their bilingualism, while other children’s bilingualism is the result of careful planning on the part of their parents.

Lewis (1972) reports that in the USSR people move from one to the other republic quite extensively, and hence interethnic marriages are common. For example, in Ashkabad, 29% of marriages between 1951 and 1965 involved men and women of different nationalities, resulting in the children acquiring two languages. This happens not only if both languages are used in the home but also if only one language – the father’s, for instance – is the family language, because family members on the mother’s side will communicate with the children in their own native language.

The proximity of other linguistic groups also leads to bilingualism in the home. For example, Mkilifi (1978) reports that ten out of the fifteen Tanzanians he studied spoke the
local language along with Swahili before going to school. They learned the local language first, but because both parents, especially the father, knew and used Swahili at home, they acquired that language as a second home language and as medium of communication in the community.

Even when the other language is not spoken in the home by the parents themselves, it nevertheless makes its way into the house and the children are exposed to it. The language may be spoken by the parents’ friends, older relatives and their friends, neighbours, caretakers, not to mention television.

One of the main factors in childhood bilingualism is of course the school. Unless the linguistic group in which the child belongs has its own schools or has public education conducted in its own language, the children’s medium of instruction will be some other language. This is the case for countless minority groups throughout the world: the Bretons in France, the Greeks in Turkey, the Kurds in Iran, and so on. And if the ethnic composition of the school is quite varied, children adopt the school language as a medium of communication among themselves.

Children may also become bilingual because there is a policy in the community or in the family to make them bilingual. At the community level, different types of bilingual education programs teach the majority language but also maintain and develop the minority language. One interesting case of community-planned bilingualism, reported by Gal (1979), occurred in Austria at the turn of the century, when where wealthy Hungarians would send their children to live in a German-speaking village for a year and would welcome in exchange a German-speaking child from that village for the same amount of time.

At the family level, parents may decide on a particular strategy to make their child bilingual. The strategies used are quite diverse (Arnberg, 1979). One of the earliest to be written about was the “one person, one language” formula, according to which each parent would use only their native language with the children. Numerous case studies of bilingual children report the use of this learning strategy, the most famous being that of Hildegard Leopold, who learned to address her father in German and her mother in English.

Another strategy adopted by parents is to use one language in the home, usually the minority language, and the other outside the home, the rule being that everyone must speak the home language at all times at home.

A third strategy consists of using one language with the child initially, and then, at a specific age (between three and five, for instance) introducing the other language. Zierer (1977) reports on a German-Peruvian child whose parents decided that the child should become bilingual by starting with German and delaying the learning of Spanish for at least two years.

A fourth strategy is to use the two language interchangeably in and out of the family, letting such factors as topic, situation, person and place dictate which language should be used.

(adapted from Francois Grosjean’s book *Life with Two Languages*, published in 1982 by Harvard University Press)
SUMMARISING

In the course of your studies, you will almost certainly need to summarise various texts. Summarising may prove to be valuable when you are assimilating information for your own further use. As already stated above, summarising will often be the next step after note-taking in integrating material from sources you have read into your own writing. It is also an excellent way of ascertaining whether you understand and can remember material you have been reading. The amount of detail you include in a summary will vary and you may need to be selective in the information you choose to summarise from your reading material.

Let us now consider the characteristics of an effective summary.

CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EFFECTIVE SUMMARY

Look at the summaries above which you considered satisfactory. Which of the following characteristics do you think they have, in order to be effective summaries?

Discuss.

(a) The same order of facts and ideas as the original
(b) Similar wording to the original with occasional phrases exactly the same
(c) Different sentence patterns from the original
(d) Additional information, which the original writer omitted but which helps an understanding of the subject
(e) A personal comment on the subject
(f) Simpler vocabulary than the original
(g) Identification of key points in the original

In what follows, some important steps in writing an effective summary are presented.
1. Quickly read through the text to gain an impression of the information, its content and its relevance to your work; underline/highlight the main points as you read.

2. Re-read the text, making a note of the main points.

3. Put away the original and rewrite your notes in your own words.

4. Begin your summary. Restate the main idea at the beginning of your summary, indicating where your information is from.

5. Mention other major points.

6. Change the order of the points if necessary to make the construction more logical.

7. Re-read the work to check that you have included all the important information clearly and expressed it as economically as possible.

In a summary you should not include your own opinions or extra information on the topic which is not in the text you have read. You are summarising only the writer's information. Also take care not to include details of secondary importance.

Summarising can help you to avoid plagiarism. *It is most important that you use your own words in presenting information (unless you are giving a direct quotation).* It is better to adopt the practice of taking notes and then writing a summary from your notes without having the original text in front of you. In the academic traditions of the English-speaking world, using another person's words and ideas, without indicating that they are not your own, where they came from and who wrote them, provokes a very negative reaction.

**Short task**

Look at the four ways in which summaries of the source have been attempted by students. Which of these are acceptable as summaries?

---

**Salaries rise in line with fees**

Students are borrowing more money to finance college education compared with 10 years ago but, when they graduate, their loan payments are taking up a smaller percentage of their salaries.

One-half of all graduates borrow some money, according to figures from the US Department of Education, up from 34 percent in 1977. The average debt for recent graduates is $4,800, up from $2,000 in 1977.

The government has been deliberately shifting the emphasis from grants to loans, and more students have been forced to take out loans because of rising fees.

"College students are borrowing more than they did 10 years ago to pay for rising college tuitions," said Acting Secretary of Education Ted Sanders. "But when you take earnings into account, debt should not be a hardship for most graduates."

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(a) Students are borrowing more money to finance college education compared with 10 years ago but, when they graduate, their loan payments are taking up a smaller percentage of their salaries.

1/2 of all graduates borrow some money, according to figures from the US Dept. of Education, up from 34% in 1977.

The government has been deliberately shifting the emphasis from grants to loans, and more students have been forced to take out loans because of rising fees.

(b) Students are borrowing more money to finance college education than 10 years ago but, after graduating, their loan repayments are taking up a smaller percentage of their salaries.

50% of all graduates borrow money, according to US Dept. of Education figures, compared with 34% in 1977.

The government has deliberately been shifting emphasis from grants to loans. More students have been forced to take out loans because of increasing fees.

(c) More money is being borrowed by students to finance college education. Half borrow some money, compared with 34% in 1977, according to US Dept. of Education figures.

The government has emphasised loans rather than grants and rising fees have forced students to take out the former. However, when earnings are taken into account, the debts should not be a hardship for the majority of graduates.

(d) More students (50%) are taking out loans to finance college education than in the past (34% in 1977) due to rising fees, the move away from grants being in line with US Government policy. However, the proportion of earnings needed to repay the money is smaller.

**ONE-SENTENCE SUMMARY**

This is the type of summary where the main gist of the text is summarised in one or two sentences. A short summary like this may be needed, for example, for the abstract of a short essay or article you have written.

**TASK 7**

Read the following text carefully and, by paraphrasing adequately, summarize it in one or two sentences.

The foreign languages included in the Greek curriculum include English as a compulsory language throughout basic education, and French and/or German as selected subjects in secondary education. The less widely spoken languages of Europe are either totally excluded or attributed no significance in comparison with the three dominant languages, the teaching of which aims at providing students with 'expert' linguistic performance that is profitable – profit understood as growth in GNP (gross national product). By learning the dominant languages, and particularly English, it is assumed that one immediately gains access to the world political power and to international wealth. Learning the non-dominant languages of Europe is considered to be extravagant, sometimes exotic even, since they have no particular monetary value in the world market. They are an 'economic surplus'. Viewing non-dominant languages as such, however, and the decision to reject them as legitimate knowledge in the school curricula, backfires: the result is further devaluation of these languages – including the Greek language – as economic and social assets, and further disempowerment of our communities as significant cultural and political entities.

(adapted from Bessie Dendrinos' work on Planning Foreign Language Education, which appeared in an edited book on Discourse Analysis, published in Lisbon, Portugal, in 1996)

**TASK 8**

Read the following text carefully and, by paraphrasing adequately, summarise it in one or two sentences.

Since the 1990s there has been a steadily growing body of research concerned with how people read functional texts, whether computer manuals or bus timetables. The
patterns emerging from this research strongly suggest that readers’ interaction with such texts is akin to a dialogue in which the reader begins by asking a question. If there is no question, perhaps because there is nothing the reader thinks s/he wants to know, then no reading takes place. Because the readers of functional texts start with a question, their initial interaction with the document is to scan through rapidly looking for somewhere that may offer an answer. They do not usually read through the information in a linear manner but jump from section to section, sampling the content as their question changes during a single reading episode – e.g. from ‘Will this help my headache?’ to ‘Can I take this as soon as I get home from the party or must I wait for the alcohol to metabolise?’ (Wright, 1988)

**GLOBAL SUMMARY**
When you need to summarise the entire content of a text you are reading, you need to perform what is called global summarising.

**TASK 9**
Look at the global summaries following the article below. Which do you think are satisfactory? Justify your answer by referring to the characteristics of effective summaries discussed above.

---

**Fire stones support catastrophe theory**

MILLIONS of small fire-blackened stones in Ireland and Scotland are giving support to the theory that northern parts of the British Isles were depopulated by a nuclear winter-style disaster almost 3,200 years ago.

Archaeologists believe the disaster was caused by a huge volcanic eruption in Iceland in 1159 BC. An examination by John Barber, of the Scottish Historic Buildings and Monuments Directorate, and other archaeologists, of these piles of burnt stones has led to the conclusion that hunting, as a major part of the prehistoric economy, declined rapidly after the mid-twelfth century BC.

The stones were used in the cooking of meat and other food. Now normally referred to as "pot-boilers", they were the main method of boiling water when metal cauldrons were rare and pottery not strong enough to withstand great heat.

Modern tests have shown that normally it would have taken around three such stones, deposited into the pit of water over a 15-minute period, to bring the water to the boil. Many stones were retrieved, reheated and reused.

However, it is the distribution and dating of these fire-blackened mounds of stones which lends support to claims that an environmental catastrophe struck upland areas of the British Isles.

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By David Keys
Archaeology Correspondent

The earliest burnt mounds date from 2,100 BC and for most of the second millennium BC can be found in permanent settlement sites and temporary hunting camp sites. But in upland areas, as from the mid-twelfth century BC, burnt mound material persists only in settlement sites.

Hunting camp sites ceased to occur and archaeologists believe this is linked to the volcanic eruption, which probably destroyed much of upland Britain and led to the demise of many game species and, consequently, to a massive move away from hunting.

Research by Dr Michael Bailey and Dr Martin Munro, of the Palaeoecology Centre at Queens University, Belfast, paved the way for the development of the catastrophic depopulation theory. They discovered, through an examination of tree-ring data, that tree growth slowed dramatically at times of major northern hemispheric volcanic eruptions – including that in Iceland.

It is thought that the eruption, which spewed at least 12 cubic km of volcanic dust into the atmosphere, and the ensuing environmental problems, reduced the population of northern Britain by as much as 90 per cent.
Summary 1

Tree-ring data research by Baillie and Munro at Queen’s University, Belfast, showing that tree growth slowed greatly at times of major northern hemisphere volcanic eruptions, gave rise to a catastrophic depopulation theory. According to this theory, northern parts of the British Isles were depopulated by one particularly large volcanic eruption in Iceland in 1159 BC (Keys, 1988). There is further support for the theory in the examination by Barber and other archaeologists of mounds of small, fire-blackened stones used extensively by hunters to boil water. Their disappearance after the mid 12th century BC from everywhere but permanent settlement sites in upland areas suggests that the volcanic eruption may have killed off many game species and led to a decline in hunting (Keys, 1988).

Summary 2

The existence of piles of burnt stones has led archaeologists such as John Barber of the Scottish Historic Buildings and Monuments Directorate to conclude that a volcanic eruption in Iceland in 1159 BC led to the decline of hunting in the northern British Isles. The stones were used to boil water for cooking. After the mid 12th century BC, they were confined to permanent settlement sites and not found in temporary hunting camp sites, suggesting that the eruption had destroyed many game species. This is further evidence for the catastrophic depopulation theory put forward after research on tree-ring data by Baillie and Munro of the Palaeoecology Centre at Queens University, Belfast. Their findings revealed that tree growth declined markedly following major volcanic eruptions in the northern hemisphere, such as the one in Iceland (Keys, 1988).

Summary 3

Archaeologists believe that a nuclear catastrophe 3,200 years ago led to the depopulation of northern parts of the British Isles. The disaster caused the blackening of millions of stones which have been found in temporary hunting campsites and permanent settlement sites. After the mid 12th century, hunting camp sites ceased to occur, suggesting huge depopulation (Keys, 1988).

Summary 4

The findings of archaeologists are lending support to the theory that depopulation occurred in the northern parts of the British Isles as a result of a serious catastrophe about 3,200 years ago. It is believed that a huge volcanic eruption in Iceland led to a rapid decline in hunting as an economic activity in prehistoric northern Britain. An examination of piles of small fire-blackened stones by John Barber of the Scottish Historic Buildings and Monuments Directorate and other archaeologists
The stones, which were the main means of boiling water and were normally used in threes, were found in permanent settlement sites and temporary hunting sites until the mid 12th century BC. From that time, they persisted only in settlement sites. Archaeologists believe that this is because volcanic eruptions led to the destruction of much of upland Britain and the demise of many game species which, in turn, caused a decline in hunting (Keys, 1988).

Summary 5

A volcanic eruption in 1159 BC in Iceland led to depopulation in northern parts of British Isles, according to the findings of scientists. Archaeologists have found that the absence of millions of small fire-blackened stones, after the middle of the 12th century BC, is evidence of a massive decline in hunting, the stones having been used to boil water by hunters in temporary camp sites (Keys, 1988).

Summary 6

The evidence of archaeologists on the distribution and dating of piles of burnt stones supports the theory that northern areas of the British Isles were depopulated by an enormous volcanic eruption almost 3,200 years ago (Keys, 1988). After the eruption, the stones, which were used to heat water for cooking food, were only found in permanent settlement sites. This suggests that hunting ceased as an activity as animals became extinct. I think this is more conclusive evidence than the previous research on tree-ring data. The research showed that tree growth slowed very markedly when there were large volcanic eruptions in the northern hemisphere. However, tree-ring research may not always be reliable.

TASK 10

The extract below on the use of Web in language teaching has been taken from a student’s assignment. Read it carefully and then complete the summary outline which follows.

There are many reasons why EFL teachers should seriously consider using the Web in their classroom practice. First of all, the fact that the bulk of information available on the Web is written in English by native speakers (Meloni 1998) makes the Web a particularly appropriate means for teaching English as a foreign language. Second, according to Eastment (2000), it is an ‘Aladdin’s cave’ of regularly updated authentic materials ranging from newspapers and magazines to radio programmes transmitted online. The use of the Web creates optimal learning conditions for the learners’ linguistic development, as it entails the processing of a wide variety of written or spoken discourse (Warschauer 1997) and increases the learners’ exposure to the target language (Vaughan 1999:5-6). This unique variety offered by a single means can help teachers increase learners’ motivation (Warschauer 1996b) and cater for their diverse needs, interests and learning styles (Oxford et al 1998).
An additional bonus of the Web is that it can serve as a springboard for more cross-curricular work, since learners will be practising the target language by exploring topics pertaining to other subjects besides English or they may be required by teachers of other subjects to gather information on various topics by processing information written in English (Windeatt et al 1999:6-7). It can also serve as a platform towards the development of learners’ autonomy. Learners can begin to manage their own learning through the different paths they can follow even if all of them start from the same web page.

All these advantages might lead us to believe that the Web is a panacea which can provide solutions to all the problems teachers have. Unfortunately, nothing could be further from the truth than this. Teachers should be aware of a number of complexities related to the use of the Web. First, technical problems such as occasional difficulty in connecting, web pages that are temporarily not available or a busy period of the day when too many users have logged on can make even the best prepared web-based lesson fall apart. Another problem lies in the vastness of the Web which makes it difficult to locate what you want without wasting valuable time and, secondly, in its content which is unmediated and not always appropriate, especially for young learners.


SUMMARY OUTLINE

I. POSITIVE ASPECTS OF USING THE WEB

A. information written in English by native speakers
B. ...........................................................................
C. wide variety of written or spoken discourse
   1. creates optimal learning conditions
   2. ...............................................................  
   3. ...............................................................  
   4. ...............................................................  
D. allows for cross-curricular work
E. encourages learners’ autonomy

II. NEGATIVE ASPECTS OF USING THE WEB

A. Technical problems
   1. .................................................
B. Vastness of the web
   1. .................................
C. ..................................................
Now paraphrase the points collected above and use them to write a summary of no more than 100 words on the positive and negative aspects of using the Web in EFL.

**TASK 11**
Read the text on *The Importance of Women in Development* and
(i) give a brief, oral summary of what you consider to be the most important information,
(ii) take notes on the text and
(iii) use them to write a summary.

**The Importance of Women in Development**

In recent years, there has been an increasing recognition of the contribution of women to economic development around the world. On the one hand, it is evident that calculations of national productivity fail to include the existing contribution of women to a country’s welfare. On the other, there is a growing awareness that improved conditions for women are fundamental to improvement in overall living standards.

The unregistered contribution to economies of work performed by women is enormous. All over the world, women may provide as many unpaid health services as the formal health sectors in their countries. In Africa, they are largely responsible for food growing (accounting for at least 70 per cent of staple food production in the Sub-Saharan part of the continent), as well as participating in other activities in the agricultural sector (such as raising livestock, marketing and food processing). As pointed out in a UN report (1985), women represent half the world’s population, work two-thirds of the world’s working hours but earn only one tenth of what men earn. Furthermore, they own as little as one hundredth of the property owned by men.

Education is the key to improving conditions for women. It leads to wider employment opportunities and better information on how to improve the welfare of families. Both developments contribute to a reduction in fertility. The cost of caring for children is inclined to rise, which tends to encourage smaller families with healthier children rather than large ones. Greater awareness of the need for family planning and for better infant nutrition also tends to reduce fertility. Statistics suggest strongly that increases in the literacy of women have led to declining fertility rates in almost every country in the world. In the period 1965–65, the only area in the world which did not witness a falling birth rate while experiencing improved literacy for its female population was Sub-Saharan Africa, where there was an increase of 1.5 per cent in the fertility rate.

Many governments have accepted the importance of investing in improved education for women in order to bring about changes in health, population growth and economic performance. However, even in those places where equal opportunity is actively pursued, there is still a lot of room for improvement. Women continue to be unpaid or underpaid for the work they do, to be constrained in the kind of work they can do and to reach lower levels of attainment educationally than men. In countries where women constitute a large part of the agricultural labour force and are involved in managing production, they may have less access to information, technology and credit than men. These problems are largely due to the persistence of traditional constraints. The result is that resources are inefficiently used, production is sub-optimal and the overall welfare of a society continues to be depressed.
The intention of this chapter is both to describe the structure of university lectures and to identify some of the more prominent features that contribute to this structure. My purpose is to propose a new schema for this generic type based on my analysis of many lectures. My research into this language variety has been motivated by my experience of teaching English as a Second Language to foreign students coming to study in Canadian universities. During the course of such teaching it became increasingly evident that these students experienced great difficulty in processing spoken academic discourse. It seemed important, therefore, to investigate the nature of this genre in terms of its form and content in order to be able to acquaint students with the spoken language of academia, especially since so much of what students are required to learn is transmitted through lectures.

I will now proceed with the description of the structure of lectures in terms of the phases that have surfaced in this and former corpora. It is worth noting that, among the strands or phases identified, some are metadiscoursal, that is strands which comment on the discourse itself. Of the metadiscoursal phases that occur in all of the corpora, the first is that of the Discourse Structuring phase in which addressors indicate the direction that they will take in the lecture. Thus we see such strands recurring with great frequency throughout the lecture as the speaker proceeds to new points. It is, as I have described elsewhere (Young 1990: 85), an announcing phase in which a lecturer indicates to listeners new directions of the lecture. When taken together, they form a distinctive pattern of codal choices. An equally important metadiscoursal phase is one labelled Conclusion, where lecturers summarise points they have made throughout the lecture. The frequency with which this and the Discourse Structuring phase occur is to a large extent determined by the number of new points made in any particular discourse. That is, if the speaker introduces only three new points in a lecture, then there will tend to be three Discourse Structuring and three Conclusion strands discontinuously occurring throughout the lecture. Another phase that serves metadiscoursal purposes is that of Evaluation, which is not always as frequent as the two former metadiscoursal phases, but is still significant. Here the lecturer reinforces each of the other strands by evaluating information which is about to be, or has already been transmitted. Lecturers do so by indicating to the audience how to weigh such information by giving their personal endorsement of disagreement with various aspects of the content, which represent a further structuring of the substance of the lecture.

These phases seem to be the direct result of the influence of the situational factor of tenor in the sense that, because of the relationship between lecturers and students, the former explicitly structure their discourse by indicating how they will proceed, following this with a summation of what has been said, and reinforcing both with an appraisal of material, to facilitate the processing of information by the students. These phases occur across disciplines and levels, indicating that the relationship between addressors and addressees in this situation fashions a particularly consistent structure.

Of the other phases that mark university lectures, the first, Interaction, indicates an important feature of this registerial variety, namely the extent to which these lecturers maintain contact with their audience in order both to reduce the distance between themselves and their listeners and to ensure that what has been taught is in fact understood. This they accomplish by entering into a dialogue with the addressees by posing and answering questions. The other phases that compose the structure of university lectures constitute the actual content of these discourses. The first may be alternatively labelled Theory or Content, to reflect the lecturer’s purpose, which is to transmit theoretical information. It is in this phase that theories, models and definitions are presented to students. This phase is interspersed with the metadiscoursal ones, and with that of Interaction, as lecturers indicate what they are about to say, summarise different elements of the content, evaluate it and then check, in the Interaction phase, to ensure that students have understood various points. The phase is further interspersed with strands of the last phase that structures lectures, that of Examples. It is in this very significant phase of all of the lectures that the speakers illustrate theoretical concepts through concrete examples familiar to students in the
It is interesting to note that in several of the lectures, strands of this phase are more numerous than the theoretical ones, suggesting how important the role of exemplification is in monologic discourse in universities.

SELECTIVE SUMMARY
In some cases, you may need to summarise only some of the information in a text. In these cases, you will have to become engaged in selective summarising by focusing on specific parts of the text in order to extract relevant information from them.

TASK 13
Read the text that follows and take notes on the reasons behind the high numbers of foreign scientists being recruited by Japanese research laboratories. Then compare your notes with the following selective summaries and, on the basis of the characteristics of effective summaries, decide which one is the most suitable.

Japan paves way for big foreign influx

By John Greenlees

Overseas student numbers in Japan have soared by 32 per cent in just one year, the ministry of education has revealed. There are now 41,000 foreign students at higher education institutions in the country.

The new figures from the ministry (Monbusho) indicate steady progress towards the government’s target of 100,000 foreign students studying in Japan by the end of the decade.

They include students undertaking specialised courses at vocational schools as well as those attending junior colleges, universities and graduate schools. The number of foreign students enrolled for university degree and postgraduate courses now stands at 16,177 and 12,383 respectively.

The University of Tokyo, the country’s highest ranked university, and Waseda University, one of the country’s top private schools, are the two most popular destinations. One thousand one hundred and sixty-one foreign students are studying at the University of Tokyo and 1,061 foreign students are studying at Waseda University.

The Monbusho’s survey shows that 91 per cent of Japan’s foreign students are from the nearby Asian countries of China, South Korea and Taiwan. The contingent of 18,063 Chinese students represents the largest national group, accounting for 44 per cent of Japan’s total intake of foreign students.

Only 1,180 of Japan’s growing number of foreign students are from the United States, a number that the Monbusho would like to see increase. It is also keen to attract more students from the United Kingdom and other European states.

Most of Japan’s foreign students are paying their own tuition fees. Only 4,961 students are receiving scholarships from the Japanese government and 1,026 students are sponsored by their own governments.

The most popular courses are related to economics, business and finance, followed by engineering and industrial design.

Record numbers of foreign scientists are also being recruited by Japanese research laboratories to compensate for the shortfall in Japanese graduates interested in taking up careers in science. The lure of higher wages and more attractive working conditions is encouraging many of Japan’s best graduates to take up posts in the business sector.

University research is proving an unpopular career option. Low wages, and poor promotion prospects, have discouraged many science graduates from considering careers in academia.

Susumu Tonegawa, one of the few Japanese scientists to be awarded a Nobel prize, has repeatedly criticised the inflexible career structures in Japanese research laboratories. In universities, he says, young scientists spend most of their time as assistant researchers running errands for their professors.

Careers in science are also associated with long hours in poor working conditions. “Science lacks appeal for Japan’s affluent, and increasingly leisure-oriented, young people,” says lecturer Noboru Oda.

In spite of efforts to popularise science in the nation’s schools, many high school graduates entering higher education are rejecting places in science faculties and opting for courses in the arts and social sciences.
Summary 1

Over 28,000 foreign students are enrolled at university and postgraduate degree courses in Japanese universities, 91 per cent of them coming from nearby Asian countries. Many of these students are studying business and economics but some are on science courses. Many foreign science graduates are being employed by Japanese research laboratories due to the lack of interest in science careers on the part of Japanese graduates. The young Japanese are more interested in high salary and leisure, neither of which are offered by a career in science research (Greenlees, 1991).

Summary 2

Japanese Nobel Prize winner Susumu Tonegawa criticised the inflexible career structures in Japanese research laboratories. Young scientists may have to do menial tasks such as running errands for their professors. Moreover, wages are low and working hours long. As a result, fewer Japanese young people are attracted to a science career (Greenlees, 1991).

Summary 3

Record numbers of foreign scientists are being recruited by Japanese research laboratories. This compensates for the shortfall in Japanese graduates interested in science careers. Higher wages and better working conditions are attracting many Japanese graduates to jobs in the business sector.

University research is an unpopular career option. There are low wages and poor promotion prospects. In addition, long hours in poor working conditions have discouraged many science graduates from considering careers in academia (Greenlees, 1991).

Summary 4

The reason why Japanese research laboratories are recruiting record numbers of foreign scientists is that science careers have become less popular for Japanese graduates. Low wages, unattractive working conditions and poor career prospects are discouraging them from entering academic research. Arts and social sciences are proving more popular options for study, and the business sector has become a more attractive career choice (Greenlees, 1991).

TASK 14

Read a short text on ‘autism’, focus on a specific aspect of the text and produce a selective summary. In particular, read the following text carefully and
(a) provide an outline on scientific research findings on autism and autistic people,
(b) write a short summary (80-100 words). Make sure you paraphrase adequately.
Autism

The image often invoked to describe autism is that of a beautiful child imprisoned in a glass shell. For decades, many parents have clung to this view, hoping that one day a means might be found to break the invisible barrier. Cures have been proclaimed, but not one of them has been backed by evidence. The shell remains intact. Perhaps the time has come for the whole image to be shattered. Then at last we might be able to catch a glimpse of what the minds of autistic individuals are truly like.

Psychological and physiological research has shown that autistic people are not living in rich inner worlds but instead are victims of a biological defect that makes their minds very different from those of normal individuals. Happily, however, autistic people are not beyond the reach of emotional contact.

Thus, we can make the world more hospitable for autistic individuals just as we can, say, for the blind. To do so, we need to understand what autism is like – a more challenging task. We can imagine being blind, but autism seems unfathomable. For centuries, we have known that blindness is often a peripheral defect at the sensory-motor level of the nervous system, but only recently has autism been appreciated as a central defect at the highest level of cognitive processing. Autism, like blindness, persists throughout life, and it responds to special efforts in compensatory education. It can give rise to triumphant feats of coping but can also lead to disastrous secondary consequences – anxiety, panic and depression. Much can be done to prevent problems. Understanding the nature of the handicap must be the first step in any such effort.

TASK 15

The following text has been adapted from Davies E.E. (1985) “Looking at style with advanced EFL learners”. ELT Journal 39(1): 13-19. Read it carefully in order to identify the two main opposite views presented in the text. Then:
(a) prepare an outline including the arguments for and against the two views, and
(b) prepare a summary of 100 words in which you summarize the two views.

In considering the choice of reading materials for advanced learners, we are faced with conflicting opinions about the usefulness of studying literary texts. On the one hand, we have Widdowson’s forceful arguments for using literature as a means of deepening students’ knowledge of the language and the way it is used (see Widdowson 1975, 1983), along with practical suggestions for how particular texts can be exploited (see, for instance Ramsaran 1983). On the other hand, we have the objections of those who feel that literature is problematic because it does not provide a good model for students to imitate. An interesting expression of this view is provided by Bernard Lott (1993) in a letter to ELT Journal in which he criticizes Ramsaran’s suggestions. He protests that Ramsaran’s examples, chosen to show how poetry can be exploited to develop students’ knowledge of English, involved ‘deviations from normal English’, whereas ‘normal English presents problems enough for learners’; and he ends with a plea for ‘more discussion on how the interest inherent in good creative writing can support the study of the normal language’ (Lott 1983:366). I do not wish at this point to debate the validity of Lott’s views about the usefulness of literature in foreign language study, but only to draw attention to the assumption underlying these remarks. They reflect what I suspect to be a quite widely-held belief – the view that there is some clear distinction between ‘normal’ and supposedly abnormal language, the latter being equated with literary texts and the
former, presumably, with what might be described as more everyday, commonplace uses of language.

Lott evidently feels confident that others will easily recognize what he means by ‘normal’ language, for he provides no clear definition of this, simply implying that it will lack ‘what is abnormal, elliptic, archaic, comically distorted’ and the ‘subtleties, special effects, playful nonsense, and so on’ (p.366) which he considers to distort Ramsaran’s poetic examples. ‘Normal’ language, presumably, is the kind of material we should present our students, the kind which is offered by what we would consider to be a ‘good’ textbook-language of the type commonly used and encountered by ‘ordinary’ people, and which our students too might expect to encounter if they were to find themselves living among native speakers. However, before we reject literary language and the features Lott associates with it as abnormal, I think we should look a little more carefully at the question of what kinds of language should be classed as normal. I would like to suggest that any such notion of ‘normal’ language is dangerous, in that it is likely to lead to a considerably over-simplified view of how language is used.

Let us pose for a moment and consider the case of students of English who are not necessarily interested in literature, but who need to be able to cope with the kinds of language situation they would perhaps find themselves in during a short visit to Britain. Yet within this everyday language we find many of the features for which Lott criticizes poetry. There are, for instance, cases of ellipsis which produce forms which our students may well have been led to consider ungrammatical. The abbreviations they encounter when trying to read supposedly informative material may make its content more impenetrable to them than that of many a literary text. They will soon discover, too, that ordinary conversation is rarely made up of an orderly sequence of complete units, such as may have been presented to them in textbook, or taped dialogues, or even in literature; instead frequent hesitations, repetitions, changes of structure in mid-phrase, and unfinished statements are the norm. They will also have to cope with the occasional contradiction, and frequent exaggerations (there was nothing on TV last night, I’m dying for a drink); while metaphor and simile, too, are phenomena they will hear all around them (it costs the earth, her face was as long as my arm). Even if our students carefully avoid literature during the whole of their stay, they may well encounter archaism or hear observations like Manners maketh man or A soft answer turneth away wrath uttered by an apparently modern member of society. Nor do they need to look to literature to find examples of deliberate ambiguity, punning, and other word play; once they become alert to the complex patterns of form and meaning so beloved of journalists and advertisers, they may enjoy spotting examples like these:

Light in your home and light on your pocket (Advertisement for light bulbs)  
Bike salesman wheel on the spokesman (Sunday Times 27/2/83)

Any observant student might notice examples similar to these in the course of a very ‘ordinary’ day in Britain; but which, if any, of them might be considered part of ‘normal’ English? The point is, of course, that the kinds of feature that Lott considers to make poetry problematic for our students are not restricted to literature. Instead of assuming a single distinction between literature, which is somehow ‘distorted’, and other, ‘normal’ uses of language, we need to recognize that even non-literary English possesses a wide range of styles, each characterized by its own particular combination of stylistic features. It makes sense to talk of normal and abnormal uses of language only in relation to a particular situation of utterance, since what is felt to be abnormal in one set of circumstances may seem perfectly normal in another.
Asking questions, and engaging in questioning sequences in talk, represent a pervasive part of academic and work life that is critical for getting information, contributing ideas, and being actively involved in the environment. An analysis of the language needs of non-native speaker students in US universities (Ferris 1998) showed that 79 per cent of students rated 'in-class questions' as the category of talk most often required in courses of study. Yet only 8 per cent of the students surveyed reported never experiencing difficulty with this aspect of talk. Thomas and Hawes (1994) note that conversational exchanges with friends and family are often concerned with maintaining social relationships, and that talk tends to be limited to quite short turns. Exchanges in academic and work situations have more emphasis on the effective exchange of information, and turns may be longer and exchanges more complex. This leads to the need for planning, organization, and the use of structuring and strategies. It is often in such situations that second language learners lack confidence and fluency.

To a large extent, communicative methodologies of recent years have focused on activities to get students to speak, rather than on providing them with the means to interact (Burns and Joyce 1997). Symptomatically, where questioning is concerned, instruction in the communicative classroom has typically entailed learners in extensive practice of question-response sequences, rather than offering them insights into how questioning is realized in interactional sequences, or making reference to the strategies that underlie questioning, so that they could become more aware of sophisticated language use.

This situation may begin to change with the emergence of new methodologies aimed at raising learners' awareness of the forms and features of spoken language at the level of text (Hughes and McCarthy 1998). Tomlinson (1998) argues that pedagogy should develop the learners' ability to investigate and make discoveries about authentic discourse. Feez (1998) and Burns and Joyce (1997) advocate text-focused instruction and syllabus objectives that focus on the development of knowledge about spoken language, while Madden and Rohleck (1997) and Riggenbach (1994) offer instructional activities based on the idea of learners observing features in spoken texts.

In many language course syllabuses, questions feature in rather a minor way—typically at lower levels, with a focus on the grammatical form, presented as question forms in various tenses. So the past simple form ‘I went’ is linked to the question form ‘Did you go?’, the passive form ‘it had been made’ is linked to the question form ‘had it been made?’, and so forth. At higher levels, the language of questions and questioning may not be focused on at all. For example, the 'language study section' in the very popular textbook Headway Advanced (Soars and Soars) does not address this aspect of talk.

Some published ELT materials are almost entirely devoted to general speaking activities and communication tasks, and scarcely incorporate any language focus. For example, the speaking syllabus in *Headway Advanced* (Soars and Soars) consists entirely of topics for discussion. By contrast, the writing syllabus comprises a number...
of specific language focused items, such as linking devices, analysing formal style, and markers of opinion. New Ways in Teaching Speaking (Bailey and Savage 1994), presents over 100 speaking tasks. Only a small minority, however, focus on features of interactive talk. Task aims in the 'interaction' section of this work typically stress practice or affect, e.g. practice interaction and verbal exchange, practice negotiating meaning, gain confidence in speaking. These are clearly worthwhile aims in themselves since learners need to develop positive attitudes, and to practise speaking. However, learning also implies progress in terms of skill development and awareness of language use. By focusing on practice alone, the learner can remain tied to a limited awareness, and a potentially fossilized repertoire of interactive strategies and language use.


(A) NOTES
I. EFL speakers’ problems concerning asking questions in academic contexts

II. how ELT materials are responsible for these problems

(B) SUMMARY

TASK 17
The following extract discusses the reasons why Singapore has not achieved a fully developed status despite its wealth. Keep notes of these reasons and summarize them in a paragraph (of about 100 words).

Singapore's Not-Quite Developed Status
From Singapore's founding as a state in 1965 through the late 1990s, the country experienced economic development unprecedented in world history. With an average GDP per capita growth rate of 7.4%, compounded annually, over a period of 30 years (Lee, 1999b), Singapore multiplied its wealth by eight-fold and went from being a relatively poor country to one of the world's wealthiest. By 1997, Singapore had passed even the US in gross national product per capita (United Nations Development Programme, 1999). Many of Singapore's other socio-economic indicators are equally impressive, including a the highest level of home ownership in the world (with more than 85% of the people living in their own homes, see Asher, 1995), a low crime rate, a well-protected environment, an outstanding public education system, and relatively little social strife among its multinational population.

Yet in spite of these impressive indicators, analysts both inside and outside Singapore are reluctant to view the country as having achieved fully developed status (see for example several articles in Low, 1999b). First, from an economic standpoint, Singapore falls behind in several important measures that are believed necessary for sustainable development. Singapore’s economic gains have been due in large measure to its success in becoming an international business hub, with the presence some 5000 transnational corporations, 2500 of which are handling regional markets (Savage, 1999). Singapore’s information technology industry, for example, consists mainly of subsidiaries of multinational corporations (Poole, 1997), with Singaporeans frequently
working under the leadership of foreign managers (based in Singapore or directing from abroad).

While Singapore has excelled in attracting multinational corporations, the country lacks a strong indigenous business class. There are relatively few Singaporean computer and Internet start-up firms, or, indeed, start-up firms of any type that are achieving international success (Lee, 1999b). Where for example is Singapore’s equivalent to Finland’s mobile phone company, Nokia, Sweden’s telecommunication company, Ericsson, or Israel’s Mirabilis firm that gave the world ICQ? Singapore also produces relatively little online content for either domestic or international use (Zook, in press). The country also lacks a real film industry, producing an average of less than 4 films per year from 1995-1999 (Ministry of Information and the Arts, 2000), compared, for example, to Hong Kong, which produced some 90 films in 1997 alone (Film Industry: Screen Blues, 1998).

The lack of indigenous business success in Singapore, as well as relatively low funding for research and development (Chieh, 1999), contributes to Singapore’s low rate of “Total Factor Productivity” (TFP, see Low, 1999a). TFP, defined as the productivity with which capital and labor are combined, measures both technical efficiency and technological progress (Pack & Page, 1992, cited in Low, 1999a). Singapore’s unusually low TFP compared to its GNP gives some economists pause about the country’s ability to sustain economic growth.

Beyond economic matters are the cultural and political dimensions that are seen to be part of development. The United Nations Development Programme (1999) ranks Singapore lower in its human development index than its economic indicators would merit. This is due in part to the lack of political freedoms in Singapore as compared to Western countries. Singaporeans lack the possibilities to form political parties, hold rallies or demonstrations, criticize public officials, or control their own media choices that people in North America or Western Europe take for granted.

Until now, many might contend that political control and economic development have gone hand-in-hand in Singapore. Few would doubt that the strong state policies promoted by Singapore’s leaders, and the discipline that they have succeeded in imposing on society, have contributed to that country’s rapid economic growth. Yet due to changing economic circumstances in Singapore and in the world, this may no longer be the case. In the new knowledge economy, the most successful regions, exemplified by California’s Silicon Valley, tend to be those that foster freewheeling, risk-taking economic activity from below. This kind of economic activity is fostered in part by free market policies—an area in which Singapore is unmatched—but also by a culture which rewards risk-taking, creative thinking, and independent initiative from below. And in these last areas, Singapore, by the admission of its own leaders, has substantial room for improvement.

Source:

(A) NOTES

(B) SUMMARY
Discourse Markers and Spoken English: Native and Learner Use in Pedagogic Settings

Discourse markers (henceforth DMs) play a fundamental role in spoken interaction (Carter and McCarthy 2006: ch. 3). Recent analyses of corpora of spoken interaction show that they are represented among the top ten word forms (Allwood 1996) and that an ‘utterance particle’ is found in continuous talk on average every 1.5 seconds (Luke 1987). There are studies of DMs which deal with individual markers in English and small sets of English DMs (Schourup 1985). Research on the study of DMs in other languages is developing (Bazzanella 1990 (Italian); Gupta 1995 (Singaporean English); Archakis 2001 (Modern Greek); Chen and He 2001 (Chinese); Montolío Durán and Unamuno 2001 (Spanish); Wouk 2001 (Indonesian)). However, relatively limited research has been undertaken on the range and variety of DMs used in spoken English by second or foreign language speakers. Comparative usage between native and non-native speakers and the pedagogical significance they have in an ESL/EFL classroom has been studied even less, although Hays (1992), Romero Trillo (1997, 2002) and Müller (2004, 2005) are notable exceptions. The research reviews definitions of core DMs, by classifying them according to a specific categorial framework and by undertaking a corpus-based analysis of use in two different pedagogic contexts in the UK and Hong Kong.

The restricted range of DMs used and the frequency of particular markers reflect the unnatural linguistic input ESL learners are exposed to and the traditional grammar-centered pedagogic focus which has been geared towards the literal or propositional (semantic) meanings of words rather than their pragmatic use in spoken language. Many locally-produced coursebooks claiming to represent the details of English usage focus primarily on prepositional content rather than on discoursal use. For example, the adverb, adjective, and noun meanings of well are frequently emphasized in an ESL classroom, whereas its pragmatic usages in spoken English to indicate one's intention to change a topic, to make a suggestion, criticism, or correction, to express doubt and uncertainty about what has been said, and to mark other emotional states such as amusement, anger, or surprise, etc. are rarely focused upon. It is likely that the low propositional meanings of DMs have devalued their pedagogic significance, and hence contributed to their low status. It is only commonly used for markers in written language such as firstly, secondly, next, however, but, despite, so, because, moreover, etc. that have been frequently attended to in the classroom. A general neglect of knowledge of DMs in the foreign language teaching curriculum seems to be a pedagogic reality (Romero Trillo 2002; Müller 2005).

Although the main function of language is conventionally seen to be communicating ideas, it is through language that interpersonal convergence (and, although more rarely, divergence) is achieved. DMs, which constitute an aspect of pragmatic competence that underlies one's ability to use language in culturally, socially, and situationally appropriate ways, are useful conversational devices, not just for maintaining discourse cohesiveness and communicative effectiveness, but also for interpersonal and cross-cultural interaction (Wierzbicka 1991).

This study suggests a need to strengthen learners’ pragmatic competence in spoken language by creating space to improve their use of DMs. Incorporation of DMs into the language curriculum is necessary to enhance fluent and naturalistic conversational skills, to help avoid misunderstanding in communication, and, essentially, to provide learners with a sense of security in L2.
DMs form a part of the basic fabric of talk in pedagogic discourse and are useful contextual coordinates for both native speakers and learners to structure and organize speech in interpersonal, referential, structural, and cognitive categories. On the interpersonal level, DMs are specifically useful to serve as solidarity building devices to facilitate and to mark shared knowledge, attitudes, and responses. Referentially, they indicate textual relationships preceding and following the DM. These textual relationships include cause, contrast, coordination, disjunction, consequence, digression, comparison, etc. Structurally, they are used to orientate and organize the discourse in progress and signal links and transitions between topics, such as marking the opening and closing of topics, indicating sequence, topic shifts and topic continuation, and summarizing opinions. Cognitively, they help in denoting the speaker's thinking processes, marking repairs such as reformulation, self-correction, elaboration, and hesitation in conversation, as well as marking speaker's assessment of the listener's knowledge of the utterances. The results accord with evidence from a growing literature in pragmatics, including cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics, that they contribute to the management and development of discourse and perform important textual and interpersonal functions.


Authors: Loretta Fung and Ronald Carter
SUMMARISING AN ACADEMIC LECTURE

For this activity you are asked to choose one of the following lectures from the digital lectures of the Self-Access Learning Centre and Materials Development:

- **Feminism in 19th Century Culture** (duration: 0:30:21)
- **Women’s Rights in a Man’s World** (duration: 0:30:40)
- **Nationalism and National Identities** (duration: 0:30:19)

Watch it carefully at least twice, and
(a) Prepare a formal outline (using phrases, not full sentences) of the lecture,
(b) Use the outline in order to prepare a summary of the lecture in your own words (200-250 words).

WHERE TO FIND THE LECTURES

- Bring a flash disk to the Self-Access Learning Centre (9th floor, opposite the Library) and copy the lectures in your disk (a computer version).
- Students who do not have a computer at home may watch the lectures at the Self-Access Learning Centre.
- The lectures are also available in an mp3 version (audio only) and in a special format for mobile phones. You may ask for them at the Centre.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE COMPLETION OF THE ACTIVITY

- Your outline should be prepared in accordance with the guidelines given in the course
- Make sure you paraphrase adequately, by changing lexis and grammar of the original text (Reader, pp. 77-78, Paraphrasing).

SELF-STUDY PREPARATION FOR THE LISTENING ACTIVITY

Before you do the listening activity, you are strongly advised to work on the activities of the first two units from *EASE (Essential Academic Skills in English) CD ROM: Listening to Lectures* at the Self-Access Learning Centre, as part of self-study work. Please note though that you must work in the Centre since you are not allowed to take the CD-ROM away. In these units, you will be involved in activities which will help you:

- identify the main parts of a lecture,
- get familiar with phrases lecturers use in order to introduce a new topic or a new part of the lecture,
- identify terminology and connective expressions (e.g. transitions, backward and forward markers, etc).
Unit 7
Quoting and referencing – Synthesizing from sources

(prerequisite chapters:
Paraphrasing
Bibliography
Summarizing)

Paraphrasing vs. Quoting

In general, use direct quotations only if you have a good reason. Most of your written work (assignment, essay, research project) should be in your own words.

In research papers, you should quote from a source

- to show that an authority supports your point
- to present a position or argument to critique or comment on
- to include especially moving or historically significant language
- to present a particularly well-stated passage whose meaning would be lost or changed if paraphrased or summarized

You should summarize or paraphrase when

- what you want from the source is the idea expressed, and not the specific language used to express it
- you can express in fewer words what the key point of a source is

Documenting your paraphrase

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paraphrase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In a paraphrase you rewrite in your own words the ideas taken from a source. Because a paraphrase involves the original statement of a borrowed idea, it is not put within quotation marks. While the ideas may be borrowed, the borrower’s writing must be entirely original; merely changing a few words or rearranging words or sentences is not paraphrasing.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In-text documentation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Paraphrases must be documented. While the words may be your own, the ideas are still borrowed, and this borrowing must be acknowledged. You should then use in-text documentation (: refer to the author of the ideas presented in your text). Here are some different ways of doing it. For instance, you may signal paraphrases through the use of:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| an introductory phrase | According to Johnson (1990), ............... |
an introductory or other clause

As Johnson (2009) suggests/argues/supports/claims, …………..

[subordinate clause including in-text documentation, main clause presentation of the idea]

Johnson (2009) argues that …………………

[main clause including in-text documentation, subordinate clause presentation of the idea]

Alternatively, the point may be made in the clause and the source may be included in brackets:
It has been argued that …………………………………………………………………………………………………………
(Johnson, 2009).

Referencing

Creating a list of all the sources that have been cited in an assignment. The list is inclusive showing books, journals, etc., listed in one list, not in separate lists according to source type.

The importance of providing references

During the course of writing an essay, report or other assignment it is usual to support arguments by referring to, or citing, information produced by other authors. This information could be presented in journal or newspaper articles, books or specific chapters of books, research dissertations or theses, material over the internet etc. When you cite someone’s work in the text of your essay (an in-text citation), you also need to create a full reference for it at the end of your work. This gives the full details for the information source so that it can be traced by anyone who reads your work.

References:

- show anyone who reads your work that you understand the topic and can demonstrate your own thoughts on this.
- demonstrate that you have read widely and deeply.
- enable the reader to locate where you obtained each quote or idea.
- by providing the original source you are acknowledging that you have read the work and recognise the original author(s) ideas.
Academic Honesty

If you understand the reasons for referencing it is evident why you should not pass off work of others as your own. Failing to reference appropriately could result in your assessors thinking you are guilty of plagiarism - the act of using somebody else’s work or ideas as your own (see UNIT on Paraphrasing)

The way to provide references

- The list should be in alphabetical order by author/editor.
- Books, paper or electronic journal articles, etc., are written in a particular format that must be followed.
- Your reference list contains all the items you have cited or directly quoted from.
- When you have used more than one piece of work by the same author, in your reference list you should list the works in date order, beginning with the most recently published work (see UNIT on Bibliography)

TASK 1
Below are various extracts (references, quotations, notes) on the topic ‘EAP and its history’. Combine and make appropriate use of the information provided. Acknowledge the use of sources (in-text documentation) and prepare a list of references correctly at the end, in a References list.

EAP and its history


By 1975, the term was in more general use. ‘English for Academic Study’: the title of a conference by the British Council on English for Science and Technology- articles on developing study skills.


Article by B. Coffey (1984) refers to EAP as having two divisions: either common core or subject specific (‘Talking for specific purposes’- pages 78-99- in Language Teaching , vol. 17, issue 1).

Common core element: usually known as ‘study skills’
Examples: listening and note-taking, finding and analyzing evidence, using a dictionary.

Subject specific: the language needed for a particular academic subject, e.g. economics, together with its disciplinary culture. (quoted in R. R. Jordan in a

In the past: authors regarded EAP + study skills synonymous
Today: main view, study skills -> a component of EAP (Jordan 1997)

**TASK 2**

Below are various extracts (references, quotations, notes) on ‘Discourse and the Construction of Identity’. Combine them into a report making appropriate use of the information provided paraphrasing adequately and quoting only at an acceptable length (which does not exceed the limit of 10% of the total number of words). Acknowledge the use of sources (in-text documentation) and prepare a list of references correctly at the end, in a References list. Notice that when we handwrite, we underline information which is put in italics when we print.

- Identity = an issue of agency + self-determination: e.g. the individual is a ‘self-interpreting’ subject (C. Taylor, 1989, in a book entitled *Sources of the self: The making of modern identity* published by Harvard University Press in Cambridge, MA)

- Chapter (pages 112-145) written by Simonds, W. 1996: Identity is also associated with concept of ‘self-help’ = consumers are invited to find true self by active reinvention. The title of the chapter is “Self-help literature and women’s identities” - in a book entitled *Constructing the self in a mediated world* – the editors are D. Grodin and T.R. Lindlof. The book was published in London by Sage.


- Many contemporary theories of identity – the same central idea: identity is an essential, cognitive, socialized or psychic phenomenon that governs human action. Based on this understanding, typical questions include: ‘what identities do people possess?’ / ‘how may these be distinguished from one another?’ (p. 3, book written by B. Benwell and E. Stokoe in 2004, title Discourse Identities, published by Edinburgh University Press in Edinburgh).

- Some theories: although people may present themselves differently in different contexts, underneath that presentation lurks a private and stable identity. Other theories: identity = a public phenomenon, a performance or construction that is interpreted by other people => identity is actively, ongoingly, dynamically constituted in discourse (article title: “Identity and interaction: A sociolinguistic cultural approach” written by Stokoe, E. in 2006, appeared in the first volume of a journal called *Discourse Studies*, pages 38-55)

• Positioning and identities in narrative – problem: no agreed method for analysing narrative data. Narrative analysts ask questions: ‘why was narrative developed that way?’ / ‘in what kind of stories does narrator place him/herself?’ / ‘what other identities are being performed?’ / what was audience’s response?’ (Riessman, J., in a book entitled Narrative Inquiry, published in 2003 by Blackwell in Oxford).


TASK 3

Below are various quotes on the topic ‘Poetry and Criticism’. Combine them into a report making appropriate use of the information provided paraphrasing adequately and quoting only at an acceptable length (which does not exceed the limit of 10% of the total number of words). Acknowledge the use of sources (in-text documentation) and prepare a list of references correctly at the end, in a References list. Notice that when we handwrite, we underline information which is put in italics when we print.

Poetry and Criticism

“The most basic and enduring definition of poetry is that the poem, unlike any other assembly of words, supplements the use of grammar and syntax with other system of organization, the poetic line…The poetic line draws upon the same linguistic raw material as the sentence but deploys and uses this in a different way.” (from Unit 1, pp 3-23, entitled Studying poetry written by John Peck and published in 1996 by Prentice Hall in London. This unit appears in the book entitled Literary studies which is edited by Richard Bradford and the specific extract is from page 6)

“Poetry criticism is as old as poetry. Aristotle and Plato considered the value and function of poetry. They differed on this; Plato seeing it as a dangerous perversion of the correct relation between language and reality, Aristotle regarding its inventive, figurative character as a healthy contribution to the discipline of argument and debate.” (page 39 from the book A linguistic history of English Poetry published by Routledge and written by Jonathan Culler. The book was published in London in 1993)

“Criticism of English poetry began effectively in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries... Most pre-twentieth-century poetry criticism is involved with the activity of writing poetry and with the relation between poetry and its political, social and intellectual conditions. These concerns were maintained in the twentieth century but they have been supplemented by the emergence of poetry criticism as an academic discipline.” (p 52)

“The new, educationally affiliated critics involved themselves in the activities of dissecting and reassembling existing poems; naming and analyzing their stylistic properties not for the purpose of writing verse but rather with the objective of showing how it works and contemplating its unique and perverse production of meaning.”(p. 149)
Influential groups of academics

- New Critics and Formalists: “poetry by definition creates effects and levels of meaning that non-poetic discourse will deliberately avoid.”
- Psychoanalytic critics: “poetry is variously subversive and symptomatic of the arbitrary relation between language and the unconscious”
- Deconstruction: “our perceptions of reality are sustained by our ability to postulate them in language. Poetry deliberately and constantly unsettles the accepted relations between language and reality.”


**TASK 4**

Read the following pairs of quotations and decide whether they are expressing a) supporting views or b) opposing views. Write S for supporting and O for opposing in the spaces provided.

1. ________

A. ‘The extent to which a teacher is physically present is not a good standard by which to judge the extent to which learning is self-directed, it is principally the role of the learner which is the determining factor’ (Sheerin, 1991:144)

B. ‘Perhaps the most widespread misconception is that autonomy is synonymous with self-instruction’ (Little, 1991:25)

2. ________

A. ‘[…]successful language learning depends on the teacher’s effective use of each aid, which is why the teacher remains the fundamental classroom aid to language learning’ (Tomalin, 1986:11).

B. ‘[…] the key to successful use of technology in language teaching lies not in hardware or software but in “humanware”; our capacity as teachers to plan, design, and implement effective educational activity’ (Warschauer and Meskill, 2000: 14).

3. ________

A. ‘[…] non-native speakers […] who are still in the process of gaining control over a new language, have a problem using English words that native speakers do not share’ (Spack 1984:663).

B. ‘[EFL] students writers have all the worries of the native speaker and many more besides’ (Raimes, 1983:259).

4. ________
A. ‘Authentic materials are the means by which the learner can bridge the gap between classroom knowledge and an effective capacity to participate in real language events’ (Wilkins, 1976:79).

B. ‘At lower levels, the use of authentic texts can lead learners to feel frustrated, confused, and, more importantly, demotivated. And this would seem to undermine one of the main reasons for using authentic materials in the first place’ (Guarento and Morley, 2001:348).

5. _______

A. ‘Teachers who can see computers as a pedagogical innovation, not primarily as a technological one, can use a computer lab creatively without having to be computer experts’ (Davidson & Tomic, 1994: 205).

B. ‘[…] the teacher’s knowledge of the computer is critical to student improvement’ (Bernhardt et al, 1989:15).

6. _______

A. ‘Most educators would probably agree that the mechanics of writing are less important than the message to be communicated’ (MacArthur, 1999:170).

B. ‘The mechanics of writing are important both in their own right and because of their impact on the overall writing process’ (ibid).

7. _______

A. ‘A recent meta-analysis by Bangert-Drowns (1993) found that the use of word processing in writing instruction programs produced a positive impact on students’ writing’ (MacArthur, 1999: 172)

B. ‘Unless students have developed sufficient fluency in typing, word processing may place additional burdens on working memory’ (ibid: 173).

**TASK 5**

Below are two extracts relating to the same topic (views on colonialism). Are the views developed in the extracts complementary or contrasting? Paraphrase and combine them in a brief report. Do not quote directly from the extracts below.

“Colonialism should be understood as the conquest and direct control of other people’s land” (Chrisman & Williams, 1994).
“It is becoming increasingly obvious that colonialism – as we have come to know it during the last two hundred years – cannot be identified with only economic gain and political power. Colonialism is crucially a state of mind in the colonizers and the colonized” (Nandy, 1983).

**TASK 6**

Below are two direct quotations relating to the same topic (teaching of scientific/academic discourse). Paraphrase and combine them in a brief report. Do not use direct quotations.

“In the past, composition and argumentation played a key role in higher education, as the teaching of scientific discourse consisted largely of teaching students about how to compose ideas in writing” (Jones, 1990).

“The process of students moving from school to university studies is currently associated with the acquisition of an increased expertise in the discourse and culture of academia rather than an increased ability to argue in writing” (Brown and Mitchell, 1998).

**TASK 7**

Below are two academic extracts relating to the same topic (acquisition of modal terms). Read them and

(a) decide whether the views developed in the extracts are complementary or in contrast

(b) paraphrase and combine them in a brief report. Do not quote directly from the extracts below. (150 words)

**EXTRACT A**

Headlines should be as short as possible. Newspaper headlines are, quite obviously, very short clauses. Senior editors shorten the headlines to a considerable extent – leaving out whole chunks of information. However, the decision to shorten the headline is not without its price: we have lost a piece of information, which means we have lost some contextual effects. We have, however, gained in reading effort. The shorter headline is simply easier to read. Consider example (1) *Dying of laughter*, which is short and elliptical, allowing ‘shortcuts’, such as a missing subject in the sentence.

**EXTRACT B**

Consider the following example:

(2) *The Prime Minister’s office has formed a plan of privatization of 13 government companies this year.* This headline conveys a lot of information in one sentence. It is well
constructed for the reader who flutters over the morning newspaper on her way to work. Such headlines serve as an informative summary of the reportage, sparing the rushing reader the reading of superfluous details. Note the linguistically very informative referring expression in subject position which picks a specific individual entity quite explicitly, and thereby contributes to the clarity of the headline.

**TASK 8**

Below are two extracts relating to the same topic (views on colonialism). Read them and
(a) decide whether the views developed in the extracts are complementary or in contrast
(b) paraphrase and combine them in a brief report. Do not quote directly from the extracts below.

“Colonialism should be understood as the conquest and direct control of other people’s land, a particular phase in the history of imperialism, which is now best understood as the globalisation of the capitalist mode of production, its penetration of previously non-capitalist regions of the world, and destruction of pre- or non-capitalist forms of social organisation” (Chrisman & Williams 1994).

“It is becoming increasingly obvious that colonialism – as we have come to know it during the last two hundred years – cannot be identified with only economic gain and political power. Colonialism is crucially a state of mind in the colonizers and the colonized, a colonial consciousness which includes the sometimes unrealizable wish to make economic and political profits from the colonies, but other elements too” (Nandy 1983).

**TASK 9**

Below are five extracts in random order from Kimberly Anne Brooks-Lewis (2009) ‘Adult Learners’ Perceptions of the Incorporation of their L1 in Foreign Language Teaching and Learning’, in *Applied Linguistics* 2009 30(2): 216-235. Combine them into an academic report making appropriate use of the information provided paraphrasing adequately. Acknowledge the use of sources (in-text documentation) and create a correct list of references at the end in terms of bibliography-documentation stylesheet by re-writing them on your answer sheet. Notice that when handwriting, we underline information which appears in italics when in print.

Traditionally, teaching foreign languages in the ‘western’ sphere was based on the understanding that ‘the way into the new language was always through the student’s own first language’ (G. Cook 2003: 32). This can be seen in the ‘double-translation’ method introduced in 1570 which ‘intended to make the learner equally conscious of the structure and resources of his own language as of the language being studied’ (Howatt 2004: 39).

At the end of the nineteenth century, opposition to L1 use in the classroom was voiced by the ‘Reform Movement’ and the Direct Method, both advocating a focus on spoken language, and characterized by (a) a growing distrust in the notion that words in
different languages could be equivalent in meaning, b) dissatisfaction with translation-based teaching strategies ... and c) the influence of contemporary theories of psychology which stressed the importance of direct associations between words in the new language and their referents. (Howatt 2004: 313)

By the end of the 1960s error analysis had become important in SLA theory, and the view of the L1 began to change from its being an ‘interference’ to its causing specific, universal errors of omission, overgeneralization, and transfer (Ellis 1997: 19).

With the Communicative Approach, which became in the 1980s, and is considered to have been a ‘revolution’ in foreign language teaching, concentration on the spoken language and the exclusion of the L1 were still maintained, the ‘revolutionary’ aspect being a shift of focus over methods of teaching and towards a new emphasis on arranging the appropriate conditions for learning’ (Howatt 2004: 326). The key to arranging these conditions is a concentration on ‘exposure’ to the foreign language, and the L1 is extraneous at best in such an arrangement.

On the other hand, the practice of monolingualism in foreign language teaching has not been universal, even for EFL teaching, and it has been accepted that ‘in some cases, the learner's L1 can facilitate L2 acquisition’ (Ellis 1997: 51). As early as 1945 Charles Fries proposed that: ‘Only with sound materials based upon an adequate descriptive analysis of both the language to be studied and the native language of the student ... can an adult make the maximum progress toward the satisfactory mastery of a foreign language.’ (Fries 1945: 5).

References

TASK 10

Below are various extracts in random order on Differences in Learning and Study Strategies between High and Low Achieving University Students. Combine six of them into an academic report making appropriate use of the information provided paraphrasing adequately. Acknowledge the use of sources (in-text documentation) and correct the list of references at the end in terms of bibliography documentation stylesheet by re-writing them on your answer sheet. Notice that when handwriting, we underline information which appears in italics when in print.

Differences in Learning and Study Strategies between High and Low Achieving University Students

1. Many research findings suggest that the best predictor of academic performance is study strategy (Allen, Lerner, & Hinrichsen, 1972; Caballos & Esteban, 1988;
Most previous research studies have taken the following directions: investigations into the differences between students getting high grades and students getting low grades in terms of studying and learning behaviours; investigations into the differences in the study strategies of high-performing students in different academic subjects (Biggs, 1976; Goldman & Warren, 1973); and investigations into individual differences, with reference to the particular way that students study (Allen et al., 1972; Caballos & Esteban, 1988; Gadzella & Williamson, 1984).

2. Differences in study strategies were related to differentiation in students’ academic performance. These studies generally assumed that students getting higher grades would study and learn in a way that was quite different to that of students getting lower grades.

3. Educational researchers in general agree that the concept of "study strategy(ies)" should include a variety of behaviours and activities, such as note-taking, organizing information, scheduling, concentrating, being personally motivated, having ways of mentally storing information, and so on (Gadzella & Williamson, 1984; Minnaert & Janssen, 1992; Weinstein, 1988; Weinstein & Mayer, 1986).

4. Many researchers concur that a successful study strategy should take into account the following four factors: the nature of the tasks; the nature of the materials; the cognitive and affective characteristics of the student undertaking the tasks; and levels of motivation (Albaili, 1997; Armbruster & Anderson, 1981; Entwistle & Waterston, 1988).

5. It seems that the application and combination of study strategies is the key to performing well at school.

6. Research has suggested that several specific learning and study strategies correlate highly with levels of academic achievement (McKeachie, Pintrich, & Lin, 1985). For example, a study conducted by Haynes, Comer, Hamilton-Lee, Boger, and Joyner (1987) found that high and low academically achieving students differed significantly in both cognitive style and motivation.

7. Discriminant analysis showed that motivation was the most important factor in differentiating the academic achievement of students. These findings were confirmed in a follow-up study by Haynes, Comer, and Hamilton-Lee (1988).

8. In a recent study Salili, Chiu, and Lai (2001) demonstrated important differences in motivation and performance between Hong Kong Chinese and Canadian Chinese students, and between Chinese students and European Canadian students. These important differences were attributed to the influence of different cultural backgrounds and different social contexts. Salili, Chiu, and Lai observed that the Hong Kong Chinese students and Canadian Chinese students usually worked harder than the European Canadian students, and hence generally performed better academically, because they shared the belief that their parents and families eagerly wished them to excel academically.

References

Study skills and problem-solving strategies in Spanish students.


**Author:** Michael C. W. Yip  
**Published in:** *Educational Psychology*, Volume 27, Issue 5 October 2007, pages 1 - 10
Unit 8
Bibliography

Compiling your bibliography

When compiling a bibliography, you may need to refer to the following:

BOOKS

1. A BOOK BY A SINGLE AUTHOR

   Entries should give the author(s)’ initials and all words in the title (except articles and
   prepositions) should be capitalized. Notice also that the book title is printed in italics.

2. TWO OR MORE BOOKS BY THE SAME AUTHOR
   Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
   New York: Morrow.

   Two (or more) works by the same author are ordered by date of publication. If two works
   show the same author(s) and date, follow the alphabetical order of the titles and add
   lowercase letters (a, b, c etc.) to the dates:

   University Press.

3. A BOOK BY TWO OR MORE AUTHORS
   University Press.

   In the case of joint authorship, all authors should be included, regardless of the number.


   References of joint authorship should be listed after references to single authorship if both
   single-authored and joint-authored works of the same author are cited in the bibliography.


4. A BOOK BY A CORPORATE AUTHOR
   UNESCO (1953) *The Use of Vernacular Languages in Education*. Monographs on
   Fundamental Education.

5. AN ANONYMOUS (NO-AUTHOR) BOOK
6. A FOREIGN (NON-ENGLISH) BOOK

7. AN EDITED BOOK OR ANTHOLOGY

The abbreviation ‘ed.’ following the name means ‘editor’.

8. A CHAPTER IN AN EDITED BOOK OR ANTHOLOGY

Notice that the title of an individual work/chapter appearing in an edited book is placed between quotation marks, with only the first word capitalized.

9. A FOREIGN (NON-ENGLISH) WORK IN AN EDITED BOOK OR ANTHOLOGY
   Inoue, T. (1984) “Masukomi to zyosei no gendai [Today’s women and mass media]”.

10. A BOOK EDITED BY TWO OR MORE PEOPLE

The abbreviation ‘eds’ following the names means ‘editors’.

11. A TRANSLATION OF A FOREIGN (NON-ENGLISH) BOOK

The abbreviation ‘trans.’ in brackets means ‘translator’.

12. A REPUBLISHED BOOK

ARTICLES

13. AN ARTICLE IN A JOURNAL PAGINATED BY VOLUME

Notice that the title of the article is placed between quotation marks and that only the first word of the title is capitalized. What is printed in italics in this case is the name of the journal.

14. AN ARTICLE IN A JOURNAL PAGINATED BY ISSUE

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1 All numbers found at the end of references refer to page numbers.
15. A FOREIGN (NON-ENGLISH) ARTICLE IN A JOURNAL

16. AN ARTICLE IN A MONTHLY OR WEEKLY MAGAZINE

17. AN ARTICLE IN A NEWSPAPER

The abbreviation ‘sec.’ means ‘section’.

18. A REVIEW IN AN EDITED BOOK

19. A REVIEW IN A NEWSPAPER

20. AN UNSIGNED ARTICLE IN A NEWSPAPER

OTHER WRITTEN WORKS

21. A PAMPHLET OR MANUAL

Notice that, although the title is printed in italics (similarly to book titles), only the first word is capitalized.

22. A LECTURE HANDOUT

Notice that the heading of the handout (the ‘title’), whose words are all capitalized, is neither printed in italics nor placed in quotation marks.

23. A CONFERENCE PAPER

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2 The date of a work appearing in a newspaper or magazine, or being broadcast on television or radio appears in the format of ‘year, month date’.
24. A WORKING PAPER

25. AN UNPUBLISHED MANUSCRIPT

26. A DISSERTATION

Notice that, although all words of the title are capitalized (similarly to book titles), the title is placed between quotation marks.

27. A PUBLISHED LETTER

28. AN UNPUBLISHED LETTER

Notice that Graff, G. is the author of the unpublished letter, whereas the author mentioned in the square brackets refers to the author of the work that makes reference to Graff’s unpublished letter.

NONWRITTEN WORKS

29. A FILM

30. A RADIO OR TELEVISION PROGRAM

In this reference, ‘PBS’ refers to the television channel on which the program “Knocking on Armageddon’s Door” was presented. In case of a reference to a radio program, the name of the channel would be replaced by the name of the radio station which broadcast the cited program.

31. COMPUTER SOFTWARE

32. ELECTRONIC SOURCES

NOTE

Bibliographies can be written in different formats, depending on the discipline (Biology, Linguistics, Literature, Medicine etc.) with which they are associated. Each format follows specific conventions and it is the consistent use of these conventions that is the key to presenting a bibliography in an accurate and appropriate way.
APA format (Linguistics)

Below are standard formats and examples for basic bibliographic information recommended by the American Psychological Association (APA). For more information on the APA format, see http://www.apa.org.

Basics

Your list of works cited should begin at the end of the paper on a new page with the centered title, References. Alphabetize the entries in your list by the author's last name, using the letter-by-letter system (ignore spaces and other punctuation.) Only the initials of the first and middle names are given. If the author's name is unknown, alphabetize by the title, ignoring any A, An, or The.

For dates, spell out the names of months in the text of your paper, but abbreviate them in the list of works cited, except for May, June, and July. Use either the day-month-year style (22 July 1999) or the month-day-year style (July 22, 1999) and be consistent. With the month-day-year style, be sure to add a comma after the year unless another punctuation mark goes there.

Underlining or Italics?

When reports were written on typewriters, the names of publications were underlined because most typewriters had no way to print italics. If you write a bibliography by hand, you should still underline the names of publications. But, if you use a computer, then publication names should be in italics as they are below. Always check with your instructor regarding their preference of using italics or underlining. Our examples use italics.

Hanging Indentation

All APA citations should use hanging indents, that is, the first line of an entry should be flush left, and the second and subsequent lines should be indented 1/2".

Capitalization, Abbreviation, and Punctuation

The APA guidelines specify using sentence-style capitalization for the titles of books or articles, so you should capitalize only the first word of a title and subtitle. The exceptions to this rule would be periodical titles and proper names in a title which should still be capitalized. The periodical title is run in title case, and is followed by the volume number which, with the title, is also italicized.

If there is more than one author, use an ampersand (&) before the name of the last author. If there are more than six authors, list only the first one and use et al. for the rest.

Place the date of publication in parentheses immediately after the name of the author. Place a period after the closing parenthesis. Do not italicize, underline, or put quotes around the titles of shorter works within longer works.

Format Examples

Books

Format:
Author's last name, first initial. (Publication date). Book title. Additional information. City of publication: Publishing company.
Examples:


**Encyclopedia & Dictionary**

**Format:**
Author's last name, first initial. (Date). Title of Article. *Title of Encyclopedia* (Volume, pages). City of publication: Publishing company.

**Examples:**


**Academic Journal, Magazine & Newspaper Articles**

**Format:**
Author's last name, first initial. (Publication date). Article title. *Periodical title*, volume number(issue number if available), inclusive pages.

Note: Do not enclose the title in quotation marks. Put a period after the title. If a periodical includes a volume number, italicize it and then give the page range (in regular type) without "pp." If the periodical does not use volume numbers, as in newspapers, use *p.* or *pp.* for page numbers.

Note: Unlike other periodicals, *p.* or *pp.* precedes page numbers for a newspaper reference in APA style.

**Examples:**


Website or Webpage

Format:

Online periodical:
Author's name. (Date of publication). Title of article. Title of Periodical, volume number, Retrieved month day, year, from full URL

Online document:
Author's name. (Date of publication). Title of work. Retrieved month day, year, from full URL

Note: When citing Internet sources, refer to the specific website document. If a document is undated, use "n.d." (for no date) immediately after the document title. Break a lengthy URL that goes to another line after a slash or before a period. Continually check your references to online documents. There is no period following a URL.

Note: If you cannot find some of this information, cite what is available.

Examples:


Note: If a document is contained within a large and complex website (such as that for a university or a government agency), identify the host organization and the relevant program or department before giving the URL for the document itself. Precede the URL with a colon.


MLA format (Literature)

Below are standard formats and examples for basic bibliographic information recommended by the Modern Language Association (MLA). For more information on the MLA format, see http://www.mla.org/style_faq.

Basics

Your list of works cited should begin at the end of the paper on a new page with the centered title, Work Cited. Alphabetize the entries in your list by the author's last name, using the letter-by-letter system (ignore spaces and other punctuation.) If the author's name is unknown, alphabetize by the title, ignoring any A, An, or The.

For dates, spell out the names of months in the text of your paper, but abbreviate them in the list of works cited, except for May, June, and July. Use either the day-month-year style (22 July 1999) or the month-day-year style (July 22, 1999) and be consistent. With the month-day-year style, be sure to add a comma after the year unless another punctuation mark goes there.

Underlining or Italics?

When reports were written on typewriters, the names of publications were underlined because most typewriters had no way to print italics. If you write a bibliography by hand, you should still underline the names of publications. But, if you use a computer, then publication names should be in italics as they are below. Always check with your instructor regarding their preference of using italics or underlining. Our examples use italics.

Hanging Indentation

All MLA citations should use hanging indents, that is, the first line of an entry should be flush left, and the second and subsequent lines should be indented 1/2".

Capitalization, Abbreviation, and Punctuation

The MLA guidelines specify using title case capitalization - capitalize the first words, the last words, and all principal words, including those that follow hyphens in compound terms. Use lowercase abbreviations to identify the parts of a work (e.g., vol. for volume, ed. for editor) except when these designations follow a period. Whenever possible, use the appropriate abbreviated forms for the publisher's name (Random instead of Random House).

Separate author, title, and publication information with a period followed by one space. Use a colon and a space to separate a title from a subtitle. Include other kinds of punctuation only if it is part of the title. Use quotation marks to indicate the titles of short works appearing within larger works (e.g., "Memories of Childhood." American Short Stories). Also use quotation marks for titles of unpublished works and songs.

Format Examples

Books

Format: Author's last name, first name. Book title. Additional information. City of publication: Publishing company, publication date.
Examples:


**Encyclopedia & Dictionary**

**Format:**

Author's last name, first name. "Title of Article." *Title of Encyclopedia*. Date.

Note: If the dictionary or encyclopedia arranges articles alphabetically, you may omit volume and page numbers.

Examples:


**Academic Journal, Magazine & Newspaper Articles**

**Format:**

Author's last name, first name. "Article title." *Periodical title* Volume # Date: inclusive pages.

Examples:


**Website or Webpage**

**Format:**

Author's last name, first name (if available). "Title of work within a project or database." *Title of site, project, or database*. Editor (if available). Electronic publication information (Date of publication or of the latest update, and name of any sponsoring institution or organization). Date of access and <full URL>.

Note: If you cannot find some of this information, cite what is available.
Examples:


TASKS ON BIBLIOGRAPHY

TASK 1
Look at the bibliographical entries below and do the tasks that follow.

Reference List


Task 1a. State whether each one is an entry for a book, article in a journal etc.

1. __________________ 2. __________________ 3. __________________ 4. __________________
Task 1b. Specify what the numbers in brackets refer to (e.g. date of publication, title etc.)

1. _________________________  2.____________________________
3.__________________________ 4.____________________________
5.__________________________ 6.____________________________
7. _________________________  8. ____________________________

TASK 2
Rewrite the following entries as they would appear in a reference list by:
(a) correcting the mistakes in each one of them, and
(b) putting them in correct alphabetical order.
Remember that when we handwrite we underline what we put in italics in print.

Reference List

TASK 3: Compiling a reference list
For each of the following items write a reference entry using the appropriate\(^3\) style.
Look at the example first.

e.g.
L2 writing in the post-process era: Introduction, an article by Dwight Atkinson, which appears on pages 3 through 15 of the first 2003 issue of Journal of Second Language Writing. The issue is also labeled Volume 12, Issue1. The journal is paginated by issue.

\(^3\) Please note: When we handwrite bibliographical entries, we underline what is printed in italics.
Answer: This is an article in a journal which is paginated by issue, so we will refer to case 14, p. 61 of the reader.


4. "Anthony Powell, Nicolas Poussin, and the Structure of Time", an article by Henry R. Harrington, which appears on pages 431 through 448 of the Winter 1983 issue of *Contemporary Literature*. The issue is also labeled Volume 24, Number 3. The journal uses continuous pagination through each year's volume.

5. "Boxing's Allure", an article by Tom Callahan, which appears on pages 66 through 71 of the June 27, 1988, issue of *Time* magazine. The issue is also labeled Volume 131, Number 26. Each issue of *Time* has separate pagination.


**TASK 4**

Compile a reference list of the entries above in alphabetical order.
Unit 9
Interpretation of Data

GUIDELINES FOR THE COMPLETION OF INTERPRETATION OF DATA TASK

Your response to the task on interpretation of data should be in the form of a well-structured essay which consists of an introduction, main body paragraphs and a conclusion.

Introductory paragraph
a) Introduce the general topic of the study and refer to the kind of information reported in the graph/table; refer to the source (in-text documentation) appropriately, e.g. In a study conducted by Hall (1998)...
b) Describe the graph/table, e.g. the horizontal axis presents..., the vertical axis....(Jordan, unit 11)

Main body paragraphs
a) Plan carefully the information you will put in each main body paragraph (see example on p. 2 of this document)
b) Present the main significant findings of the graph/table. Do not attempt a linear presentation of the graph/table. Remember that you do not need to describe all information on the graph/table.
c) Change numbers and percentages to generalizations and qualification (Jordan, unit 10, pp. 68-69). However, do not use cautious language when you report research findings since they present factual information.
d) Explain the findings presented in the graph/table using some of the possible explanations given to you (do not add your own explanations). Link the following explanations to the findings by using cautious language (Jordan, unit 10, p. 69).
e) Throughout your main body paragraphs use linking words to indicate the sequence of significant findings (e.g. first, second, moreover, furthermore, on the contrary) and their findings (e.g. interestingly, surprisingly, as expected, it is worth mentioning)
f) Use comparative forms (see Jordan, unit 8, pp. 56-57) in order to compare (present similarities) and contrast (present differences) information from the graph/table.
g) Use exemplification expressions (Jordan, unit 6) when you refer to specific examples.
h) Use vocabulary which refers to the table/graph, describes change/trend and the information in the table/graph (Jordan, unit 11, pages 74-75 & Reader 73-75).
i) Link facts observed in the table/graph/pie/chart with possible explanations. Interpretation of data is describing + explaining the findings.
Conclusion
In this paragraph briefly refer to the main findings that may be drawn from the table/graph and sum up discussion. Use appropriate vocabulary (Jordan, unit 13, pp. 86-87).

SAMPLE TASK
This task is based on Machiko Tomiyama (2009) Age and Proficiency in L2 Attrition: Data from Two Siblings. *Applied Linguistics* 30(2): 253-275. The paper investigated whether any difference exists in the degree of second language attrition (=language loss/regression) between two siblings in terms of grammatical complexity, grammatical accuracy, lexical complexity, and lexical productivity based on their storytelling data collected over the period of 31 months. The older (male) sibling, Eugene, was 5;8 and the younger (female) sibling, Lily, 2;8. The subjects’ L1 and L2 are Japanese and English, respectively. Compare the performance of the children in terms of degree of attrition (fluctuation, improvement) on the basis of the results reported in figures 1 and 2 taking into consideration the list of possible explanations below. (200 words)

Possible explanations
- For those who attained high proficiency, grammatical skill is less prone to attrition than lexical skill Tomiyama (1999, 2000b), and Moorcroft and Gardner (1987).
- Repeating the storytelling task seven times based on the same pictures over the course of 31 months, subjects may have gotten more familiar with the storyline, characters, and props, which resulted in more stable or even at times improved performance in lexical production (rehearsal effect).
The performance of L2 learners in terms of their fluency, accuracy and complexity is sensitive to the cognitive demands of tasks (e.g. demanding narrative tasks require attention to both grammatical accuracy and complexity simultaneously) (Skehan and Foster 2001). (109 words)

**STUDENT ANSWERS**

A. The figures show the differences observed in second language attrition between two siblings in terms of grammatical and lexical complexity. Both siblings seem to exhibit a slight fluctuation concerning grammatical complexity, probably due to the fact that grammatical skill is less likely to regress than lexical skill for those attaining high proficiency (Moorcroft and Gardner (1987; Tomiyama 2009, 2000b). In addition, a greater degree of fluctuation is observed in lexical complexity and moderate improvement, possibly because the siblings had gotten more familiar with the storyline after having repeated it seven times resulting in a more stable performance in lexical production. (105 words) (adapted from Dimitra Andrikou/mock exam)

B. The figures present the findings of an experiment conducted by Tomiyama (2009) concerning the levels of regression of a second language between two siblings, Eugene (5;8) and Lily (2;8). As can be seen from the two figures, both subjects exhibited a far more elevated level of regression as far as lexical capacity is concerned. This could possibly be attributed to the suggestions of Tomiyama (1999, 2000b), that proficiency level students are less likely to make grammatical mistakes than to forget vocabulary. Another striking finding in the two figures is that as the sessions progressed, the degree of regression in lexical capacity seem to moderate and both subjects seemed to improve their vocabulary. The above could probably be explained by the fact that repetition of the story telling task based on the same pictures may have contributed to a more stable and improved vocabulary as the two subjects got familiar with the storyline and the characters. (155 words) (adapted from Andriotou Vicky /mock exam/homework)
**TASK 1**

The following tasks are all based on Kroll’s (1990) study which examines compositions produced in English by university students who are non-native speakers of the English language. The purpose of Kroll’s study is to investigate to what extent the amount of time allowed for the preparation of an essay affects its success. The study analyses a body of compositions divided into two major groups: those produced in class and under pressure of time, and those produced at home with 10-14 days of preparation time.

The following sentences are all taken from Kroll’s article. Rewrite them by generalizing on the information given in numbers.

1. Whereas 11.2% of all class errors by Spanish students were in the categories of word choice and word form, 23.8% of their home errors fell into these two categories.

2. On an individual basis, 72% of the students averaged higher scores for their two home essays over their two class essays, while only 28% of the students averaged lower scores.

3. In Hartvigsen’s (1981) study, approximately 50% of the students had higher scores for their out-of-class essays, while only 14% had higher scores for in-class essays (with 36% of his students having the similar scores).

4. In fact, 64% of the students averaged higher syntactic accuracy ratios when writing at home, and 5% of the students averaged higher holistic scores for their home compositions.

**TASK 2**

The following Table provides specific information on three main categories of errors. Write three short paragraphs to describe the information in the Table below. Remember to refer to most important information only.

*Table: Error categories and percentages*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of errors</th>
<th>Percentage error in the corpus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sentence structure errors</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause structure</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject missing</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb missing</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infinitive mixup</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misplaced modifier</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TASK 3

Below is a chart presenting information on how often men and women apologise to strangers, friends and intimates (=very close friends, partners, family members). Study the chart carefully and

(i) present the findings of the figure in a coherent academic text (150-180 words)

(ii) fill in the missing gender (men or women), so that the utterances below are reasonable conclusions following from the information presented in the chart

- ________ seem to regard apologies to friends and partners as less crucial than those to strangers.
- ________ appear to rate strangers and acquaintances as requiring almost the same amount of attention.
**TASK 4**

The Table below contains some information on the types of softeners used by French and Australian people when making requests in English. Write a short text (approximately 200 words) describing the findings presented in the Table and explaining them by taking into account the possible explanations offered below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Australians %</th>
<th>French %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Minimal (so, first name)</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal (modal, e.g. could)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tag</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hedges</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Justification</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some possible explanations:
- French speakers find it easy to use conversational devices which consist of a single word.
- Non-native speakers, who are confused by the large number of possible ways of expressing modality in English, select one modal verb and use it systematically.
- Native speakers of English express modality not only through verbs, but also through phrases and certain expressions.
- Tags and hedges have no syntactic equivalent in French, and, therefore, do not come ‘naturally’ to French speakers.
- Where possible, Australian clerks avoid calling their colleagues by first name.
- Regardless of their nationality or native language, people who work in the same office very rarely give reasons when making a request.
- The Australians use a great number of tags in their conversations with friends and relatives.

**TASK 5**

The graph below contains some information on the types of errors students make in their class and home compositions. Study the graph and write a text of approximately 250 words describing the findings presented in the
graph and explaining them by taking into account the possible explanations offered below.

In your text, you may consider the following questions:

- What generalizations and conclusions can we draw from the following table?
- Which are the most frequently occurring errors?
- Overall, do students produce better essays when they write at home?
- Which language areas do they mostly have problems with?

![Graph showing error distribution between class and home compositions.](image)

Possible explanations
- mistakes are often the result of consistent misinterpretations of language on the part of the student
- some language areas present more problems for language learners than others
- different types of lessons are required for students who exhibit different types of problems in writing
- writing a text requires the application of different skills students should be trained at
- conditions under which a text is produced may affect text production
- teachers need to train students in a repertoire of writing strategies and in recognizing the elements of good writing
- no special instruction was offered to students as to how to prepare their home compositions.

Source:
TASK 6

The bar chart that follows is from a book on University Language by Douglas Biber (2006, Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company). Study it carefully and write a text of about 200-250 words describing the findings presented in the chart and explaining them by taking into account the possible explanations offered below.

Context
The particular study by Biber (2006) is a corpus-based study of the types of spoken and written language used in various university disciplines. It appears that across academic disciplines (e.g. social sciences, humanities, natural sciences, business, education) there are marked differences in the use of specialized vocabulary between classroom teaching and textbooks. In order to discuss the bar chart below, you should take into consideration that classroom teaching and textbooks pertain to spoken (informal) and written (formal) discourse respectively.

Possible explanations

- Textbook authors have extensive time for writing, revising and editing their work.
- Classroom talking is produced in an informal context.
- The main concern of classroom instructors is to express themselves with simplicity and clarity.
- Colloquial words are considered to be inappropriate in formal discourse.
- Textbook authors write their books with the help of corpora of specialized vocabulary.
- Spoken academic discourse retains some degree of specialization and formality.
- Textbook authors are motivated by a stylistic preference for elevated vocabulary.
TASK 7

The Table below contains some information on the types of compliment responses and responders’ gender in New Zealand. Write a short text (approximately 250 words) describing the findings presented in the Table and explaining them by taking into account the possible explanations offered below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Accept</th>
<th>Reject</th>
<th>Ignore</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>Women</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some possible explanations:

- There is strong pressure on women towards being modest.
- Men are much less worried about maintaining good relations with others than women.
- Ignoring a compliment threatens the relation between the person who pays it and the one who receives it.
- Men consider compliments to be embarrassing and threatening.
- Both men and women have a tendency to avoid self-praise.
- Women perceive compliments as signals for friendship and solidarity.
- Men are anxious to avoid recognizing and responding to a compliment.

Source:

TASK 8

Below is a chart presenting information on the amount of stories told at American and Israeli dinner-tables. Study the chart carefully and discuss the distribution of story-telling among family members by linking the findings of the study to the possible explanations that follow (approximately 200 words).
- children are encouraged to participate actively in family dinners
- responsibility for the food is left to the mother
- Israelis enjoy telling stories at dinner-table
- most Israeli stories are told in collaboration
- fathers view stories as a means of maintaining a position of authority
- American mothers often nominate their husband or children as story-tellers

**TASK 9**

The tables below are taken from a study by Alan Hirvela (2001) which examines the possibility of incorporating reading material into academic writing courses. The 38 non-native advanced learners of English who took part in this study ranked a variety of English texts in terms of how difficult or enjoyable to read they were. Table 1 provides information on ranking texts in terms of difficulty and Table 2 information on ranking the same texts in terms of enjoyment. The numbers shown in each column represent the number of learners who selected the ranking presented in the particular column.

Study the tables carefully and write a text
(i) describing some of the findings they present and
(ii) explaining the findings you have selected to describe by taking into account (some of) the possible explanations offered below (word limit: 200 words).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Literary text</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspaper article</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic article</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(1 = most difficult, 2 = moderately difficult, 3 = least difficult)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Literary text</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspaper article</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic article</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(1 = most enjoyable, 2 = moderately enjoyable, 3 = least enjoyable)
Possible explanations

- non-native learners of English are exposed to literary texts from the early stages of learning
- the vocabulary of newspaper articles is considered to be demanding for most learners of English
- learners usually enjoy reading texts which they find easy to understand
- advanced learners of English are to a great extent familiar with the formal language of academic articles
- academic texts often bore students who do not happen to be interested in the topic discussed
- many advanced learners of English are unfamiliar with the language of English newspapers
- comprehension difficulties almost always affect the degree to which learners enjoy reading a text

**TASK 10**

The two figures that follow come from a paper by Lindsay Burnip (2006) which reports on a survey of teachers’ access to ICT infrastructure (: computers and the Internet) and offers some insights into the nature and adequacy of that access. A sample of 203 trained teachers was surveyed regarding their access to hardware, software, and the Internet both at work and outside work. Figure 1 compares access at home and at work while Figure 2 shows the levels of access to computers at school across the various age groups and the use of computers in teaching. Study them carefully and write a text of about 200-250 words describing the findings presented in the chart and explaining them by taking into account the possible explanations offered below.

![Figure 1: Comparison of access: Home and work](image)

*Figure 1: Comparison of access: Home and work (computers, other ICT, software, internet, technical support)*
Possible explanations

- Other studies have also found low rates of ICT use in teaching in the younger age group.
- There is pressure on teachers and school systems to adopt ICT into their core activities.
- The availability of technical support is an important aspect of ICT infrastructure.
- Older teachers do not feel comfortable with the use of ICT.
- For a significant number of teachers access limitations would constitute a serious impediment to the use of ICT in continuing study and, one might assume, in their teaching and administration also.
Unit 10
Academic text types

TASK 1
Another part of adopting an active approach to dealing with extended English is to look for the way ideas are connected together. Study information is always organised into some kind of pattern or framework. Actively looking for this pattern helps you to understand the information better, because you can see how the parts fit together.

Match the following types of information with the ways you would expect them to be organised. More than one type of organisation may be used with the same information.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INFORMATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. how a general election takes place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. studying in the UK vs. US</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. experiment with different materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. how AIDS is spread</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. reasons for developing a town centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. evaluation of alternative methods of transport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. description of an aspect of language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. survey of opinion about the United nations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. discussion of different concepts of history</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. causes of global warming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. explanation of a computer programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. ideas for overcoming inflation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. study of the influence of a novelist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. how the USA is governed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. wildlife in a nature reserve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. study of child development</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ORGANISATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) comparison</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) cause-effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) list of points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) series of steps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) points for and against</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) less to more important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g) general to particular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h) hypothesis-procedure-result-conclusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i) chronological order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j) set of examples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k) categories</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l) hierarchy</td>
</tr>
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TASK 2
Read the following extracts and identify the kind of organization they follow. Note that more than one type of organization can apply to each extract.

Extract 1
My main worry is that this coursebook tries to offer too much. It is densely-packed and might even be regarded as unwieldy, particularly by those studying on shorter courses. Certainly some teachers and students would feel more comfortable using a coursebook that was less wide-ranging and more selective. As a result of the book's concern for clarity and thoroughness the approach can sometimes become rather too deliberate and plodding for students at advanced level. Yet, if exam preparation can often become a strait-jacket, then there is less danger of that happening with the Cambridge CAE Course, which is wider-ranging and more stimulating than the average examination coursebook.

Michael Halliday was born in Leeds, England, in 1925. He took his BA at London University in Chinese language and literature, then studied linguistics as a graduate student, first in China (Peking University and Lingnan University, Canton) and then at Cambridge, where he received his PhD in 1955. After holding appointments at Cambridge and Edinburgh he went to University College London in 1963, as Director of the Communication research centre. There he directed two research projects, one in the Linguistic Properties of Scientific English and the other in Linguistics and English Teaching.


Although Translation Studies covers such a wide field, it can be roughly divided into four general areas of interest, each with a degree of overlap. Two are product-oriented, in that the emphasis is on the functional aspects of the TL text in relation to the SL text, and two of them are process-oriented, in that the emphasis is on analysing what actually takes place during translation.


The order of presentation is ascending. That is to say that we first present grammatical information at the word level, classified according to the traditional part of speech with which we expect most users to be familiar. Information is provided concerning the forms of words. Sub-classes are established in terms of the types and functions of words in the major classes set up. Phrases and clauses are then classified according to their formal structure and functions. At all points cross-reference is made to the relevant sections of chapters 3, 4 and 5.


The K.P.G. (The State Certificate of Language Proficiency) resembles other state language certification systems which aim at measuring, on equal terms, through well-tried, standardized procedures, the language competence of its citizens, in various languages - big or small. It is a local exam system assessing language use, which has face validity in the Greek and the European social context. In this sense, it does not resemble large-scale international examination systems for one language, often developed in a country where that language has an official status and its international application may result in symbolic and material gain.

Extract 6
A number of personality characteristics have been proposed as likely to affect second language learning, but it has not been easy to demonstrate their effects in empirical studies. For example, it is often argued that an extroverted person is well-suited to language learning. However, research does not always support this conclusion. Although some studies have found that success in language learning is highly related to learners’ scores on some characteristics often associated with extroversion such as assertiveness and adventurousness, others have found that successful language learners do not get high scores on measures of extroversion. Despite the inconclusive results and the problems involved in carrying out research in the area of personality characteristics, many researchers believe that personality will be shown to have an important influence on success in language learning.

Lightbown, P. M. & Spada, N. (1993), How Languages are Learned, Oxford; OUP

Extract 7
But there is also a receptive aspect to the architect’s knowledge. He must know how to interpret and appreciate the buildings of other architects. They give messages to him and these can affect in a number of ways how he will perform the next time round. Creativity is a two-way process. The architect must know how to analyse as well as to build. Finally, he must know how to plan, to see the finished product in his mind’s eye, and have a knowledge of things which can make for balance and cohesion.

Garvie, E. (1990) Story as Vehicle: Teaching English to Young Children, Clevedon-Philadelphia; Multilingual Matters LTD

Extract 8
The spread of English as a world language has been accompanied by ever-growing numbers of people studying at university level through the medium of English as a second language, whether in their own country or in English-speaking countries as overseas students. A major part of university study remains the lecture (e.g., Johns 1981; Richards 1983; Benson 1989). Academic listening skills are thus an essential component of communicative competence in a university set. And yet, although, as Richards (1983) has pointed out, ‘academic listening’ (in contrast to ‘conversational listening’) has its own distinctive features, there has been relatively little research in this specific area.

Unit 11
Exam Time

Exam questions from Linguistics and Literature

LITERATURE

1- Loneliness is a recurrent theme in American drama. Choose at least three of the plays you have studied in this course and discuss comparatively how the issue of loneliness is treated by the playwrights as a means to exercise social critique.

2- Define the term “stream of consciousness” and explain why Katherine Anne Porter’s “The Jilting of Granny Weatherall” is a stream of consciousness story.

3- Discuss social and intellectual themes that are shared by 2 poets. // Discuss differing views of nature held by either 2 or 3 Romantic poets.

4- Critics have noted a lack of definition among the women characters in Hemingway’s and Fitzgerald’s works. They see them as creatures blurred by the pointless round of parties and vacuous relationships, as parasites on the dreams of men. Oppose or agree with this critical view.

5- It has been remarked that the work of Emily Dickinson runs counter to the basic optimism of her time. Take her work and show how or to what extent she might be called “pessimistic” and compare her to the “optimistic” writers of her time.

LINGUISTICS

1- It is possible to tell from the way people talk to what types of social networks they belong. Once you define the term social network, argue in favour of this point. In doing so, discuss whether people belong to one or more than one network and alter their speech forms accordingly.

2- Though it is not always easy to distinguish between language and dialect, the terms indicate that there is a distinct difference between the two. Discuss this point as well as the difference between social and regional dialect and explain why alternatively we can talk about social and regional language varieties rather than dialects.

3- Using examples of your own illustrate whether overt cohesive markers alone are adequate for the production of coherent texts. Then discuss what other features contribute to text coherence.

4- The traditional dichotomy between oral and written texts does not appear to be valid any longer. Using examples, discuss and evaluate this statement.

5- Thomas suggests that Pragmatics is “meaning in interaction”. What alternative ways can you think of to characterise that field?
Sample exam questions and answers
Below are presented some exam questions given to students of the Faculty of English Studies, University of Athens, and sample answers to these questions. When assessing them, consider that good introductions are the ones that are topic-specific, brief, concise, and give the reader a mini-outline of what is to follow in the answer, whereas poor introductions are the ones which are unnecessarily long, too general and do not give the reader any clue as to what follows.

LINGUISTICS

EXAM QUESTION 1

The following extract is from Lewis Carroll’s *Alice in Wonderland* and *Through the Looking Glass*. In this extract, Humpty Dumpty comments on Alice’s age, after having been told that she is “seven years and six months old.” Using the tools of Semantics and Pragmatics, provide a short analysis of the extract concentrating on items such as *advice* and *one*.

L1 “Seven years and six months! Humpty Dumpty repeated thoughtfully. “An
L2 uncomfortable sort of age. Now if you’d asked my advice, I’d have said
L3 ‘Leave off at seven’ – but it’s too late now.”
L4 “I never ask advice about growing,” Alice said indignantly,
L5 “Too proud?” the other enquired.
L6 Alice felt even more indignant at his suggestion. “I mean,” she said,
L7 “that one can’t help growing older.”
L8 “*One* can’t, perhaps,” said Humpty Dumpty; “but *two* can. With
L9 proper assistance you might have left off at seven”

Introductions

1- In the dialogue between Alice and Humpty Dumpty we can observe that there is a certain misunderstanding and a lot of misinterpretations. There are some reasons that explain this kind of miscommunication between them.

2- It is commonly accepted that Pragmatics deals with meaning in interaction and is concerned with felicity conditions which are the conditions that must be fulfilled in the situation in which a speaker performs an act if this act is said to be felicitous, appropriate and successful. On the contrary, Semantics is the study of meaning in language and is primarily concerned with sentence meaning. More specifically, it examines the word meaning in terms of its contribution to sentence meaning. In this specific extract, are attention is concentrated on the felicity conditions of the act of advising as well as the different senses of the word “one”.

3- In order to analyse the extract, we must concentrate on *advice* and *one*. Before doing so, we must state two terms, felicity conditions and polysemy, which will be helpful in our analysis.
   (a) Felicity conditions are the conditions that must be fulfilled for a speech act to be carried out successfully. These will help us in the case of *advice*. (b) Polysemy is when a word has correlated meanings, and it will be useful in the case of *one*.

Sample answers

A. Both *Alice in Wonderland* and *Through the Looking Glass* include many items funny, strange in a way, or items which in normal cases would have been interpreted in a different way.
Starting with the word “one”, which is first used by Alice in line 7, it is obvious that when she says “one can’t help growing older” she means that someone can’t help growing older. Humpty Dumpty misinterpreted the word and took it in consideration as a countable. This is why he answered “One can’t, perhaps, but two can”. It is clear that Humpty Dumpty interpreted Alice’s “one” as if she meant that one alone can’t help growing and that he or she needed help from someone else.

Moving forwards to the item “advice”, we understand that such a word is useless in these circumstances, since noone can ask for advice in the issue of growing up. Of course Humpty Dumpty seems to use this word in the place of the word opinion, which is likely that it would be more appropriate in this case.

B. One of the felicity conditions required for the act of giving advice to be felicitous, is that the issue discussed between the speaker and the hearer must be one that an advice can be given upon it. In other words, one can advise a person about an economic problem he/she may have, but one cannot advise someone else about not growing old, as Humpty Dumpty does. His advice cannot bring about any change, because naturally, a person grows older every day.

Furthermore, another felicity condition which is being violated is the condition that in order for a person to give advice, the hearer must ask for it, or at least must appear as if he/she is need of it. In the case of Humpty Dumpty and Alice there is not evidence that Alice feels in need of an advice upon the matter of her age and as a result, she rejects it. The rejection is connected with her belief that no advice can be given upon the subject.

On the other hand, “one” is a polysemous word which has two closely related senses. One of the senses is that of “one” as a number and the other as an entity, meaning a person. Alice is clearly using it in the second sense, but Humpty Dumpty fails to grasp the illocution of her utterance and he responds as if Alice is using it in its first sense. Humpty Dumpty gives a pedantic response to Alice which is unhelpful, and, as a result, there is a problem in their communication.

EXAM QUESTION 2

The traditional dichotomy between oral and written texts does not appear to be valid any longer. Using examples, discuss and evaluate this statement.

Introductions

1- It is true that the borderline between oral and written language seems to have collapsed and the reasons can be traced back to an analogous collapse of the line between the distinctive criteria between them.

2- It has been established a dichotomy between oral and written modes of discourse by traditional linguists. However, this assumption has proved to be inaccurate, as modern researchers have come to the point that neither spoken nor written channel is superior to the other.

3- If we have a look at the various kinds of discourse surrounding us, we will immediately realise that the boundaries between speech and writing are not watertight anymore. Consideration of different kinds of discourse shows that there is a continuum along which various forms of spoken and written texts are placed.

Sample answers

A. Speech and writing are two different kinds of discourse and there was a controversy over their primacy. The traditional view gave emphasis to writing and saw it as more important for societies and individuals, while Bloomfield emphasised the importance of speech. Therefore, there was a dichotomy between oral and written forms.
It is true that there are a number of differences between oral and written texts concerning their manner of production, their representation, their form, their structure and the selection of lexical items, modifiers, as well as their functions, but all these apply to extreme cases. Nowadays, the traditional dichotomy does not appear to be valid. We can see speech and writing as the two ends of a continuum, where in-between fall a number of cases. An informal chat between two friends is an extreme case of speech and has nothing to do with writing. Even persons who have no knowledge of writing can get involved in a chat. At the other end of the continuum we may have a scientific text as an extreme case of writing. In such a text highly technical language is used and usually it is a text addressed only to educated people. However, the distinction between speech and writing is not clear-cut, mainly for two reasons: the technological advancement of nowadays and the use of language.

One example is news broadcasting on television, where the presenter uses both speech and writing (he reads aloud what has already been prepared and written). Another example is that of a lecture. The lecturer speaks to his audience and expresses himself openly, but most of the times lectures have been prepared in written form before. A lecture is an example of speech, but it is heavily connected to writing too.

Finally, an example of an in-between case is that of e-mail, which has come into our lives recently. E-mail is a case of writing, but technological advancement gives us the opportunity to get an immediate answer, as if we had our interlocutor in front of us at that moment (a feature of speech is the simultaneous participation of two or more people). Recapitulating, the technological advancement and the use of language nowadays make the traditional dichotomy appear no more valid. We may have a few extreme cases of speech or writing, but the majority of them seem to fall in-between the continuum.

B. Speech and writing are both very important for humans. Some years ago, people used to give more importance in writing rather than in speech. They believed that writing is important, it comes first and speech comes second. Later on, people realised that speech is also very important in language. So, speech and writing nowadays come together, they are both very important. The first thing that a person does when he comes into life is to start learning how to talk, and later on he learns how to write. Countries without writing systems cannot have progress.

We can no longer say that writing is more important than speech or vice versa. Both of them are equal, oral and written texts are primary and important. For example, in order to have a written text, we need first to know how to speak. In order to write that text we need to know some writing strategies and rules. So, both speech and writing are important for a text. An oral text is permanent, while a written text remains, we cannot lose it or forget it.

In other words, the traditional view used to say that written texts are more important than oral texts. Some years later, people used to say the opposite. Nowadays, we come to give the same importance both to written and oral texts. The main differences between speech and writing are evident in terms of their form, function and manner of production. However, these differences do not mean that a dichotomy between them exists. We can no longer draw a clear-cut distinction between them. An example of all these can be found in the radio, where someone may want to present a formal text which first he must have written it. But the only way to present it is through speech. So, both speech and writing are important. Another example is a literary text, where someone wants to present it in an audience in a formal speech. In that case, he uses both speech and writing, both of them are equal. If he doesn’t know how to write or how to speak, then he won’t be able to present his work. A last example is the use of the e-mail.

**LITERATURE**

**EXAM QUESTION 1**

What are the main characteristics of American poetry in the Modernist movement (1914-1945)? Discuss these characteristics and illustrate them with references to specific poems by three American modernist poets (choose, for example, from such poets as Eliot, Frost, Williams, Pound or Stevens).
Introductions
1- Modernism is a very important movement and there are many great poets who share the ideas of innovation, arbitrariness, imagism, the relation between nature and art or life, the usage of metaphors. The poets of the modernist period usually write long poems in free verse.
2- The basic characteristics of modernistic period is the renovation, the subversion of traditional forms and furthermore the emphasis that was based on generalisations and abstractions. The poets of this period found the sources of their poems in history, religion and philosophy.

Sample answers
A. The Modernist movement is characterised fundamentally by its internationality. It certainly constitutes an “umbrella” term that may include in its essence several other movements, such as avant-garde, imagism, cubism, realism, symbolism or futurism. Nevertheless, it is opposed to romanticism. Moreover, it should also be mentioned that it is compound of several discontinuities, controversies and paradoxes, it is the only art that responds to our chaos. A deconstruction takes place, so that a re-construction is available, thus a sense of flux exists. It is considered to be a highly aesthetic awareness that includes in its essence a philosophical aspect.

As it was mentioned above, this notion of Modernism contains that of Imagism, hence the two movements share qualities in common such as (a) direct treatment of the subject either subjectively or objectively, (b) to use absolutely no word that does not correspond to the immediate presentation of the subject, (c) as far as rhythm is concerned, the need to compose in terms of a musical phrase. This is why the result constitutes a free verse product that relies upon the musicality of phrase.

W. C. Williams, an excellent illustration of modernist poet, supported that good poetry is not related to theory or ideas, but it correlates to things, so, he suggests that we should find the best words to describe our emotions.

“The Red Wheelbarrow” refers to a wheelbarrow that belonged to a dying little girl, one of the patients of W. C. Williams. The poet manifests in four declarative sentences a profound, philosophical meaning. He deals with trivial things, such as chicken and rain to suggest fertility, life, nature. The red symbolises fire, passion and it contrasts to white. Williams talks about a farmer and his relation to nature. [...] The wheelbarrow mirrors life. Nonetheless, artificial objects last forever, while we, people, do not. Art mirrors life: a major truth of the poem.

To continue with R. Frost’s “After Apple-Picking”, we realise again that the poet manipulates a certain imagery to convey a philosophical meaning. The author mentions apples to insinuate that he is no longer young and that he feels tired. The ideas of fatigue and retreat appear. [...] Fertility

Finally, Ezra Pound’s “The Virginal” provides a magnificent example of imagism. The virginal itself is a musical instrument that provides the correlative of the poet’s perception. Yet, the poet plays with words and talks about virginisation. [...] However, the poem is dubious. Why? The ideal beauty is there, but it could not be fulfilled, thus it is better to remain in the mind only. He longs for the contact with ideal beauty that may be inspiration and poetry and opposes to vulgarity and ephemerality.

B. American poets in the Modernist movement receive everything as a unity and try to give the best analysis of it. They are engaged with themes such as death and life, heaven and earth, advancing and retreating. The language is simple, addressing not to intellectuals but to the audience. There is an effort to compare and contrast contradictory things giving the best alternative. In Robert Frost’s poem, for instance, “Home Burial”, we see the practicality of the male’s mind versus the woman’s sensitivity. The prosaic man versus the romantic woman.

Social matters are widely stressed, for example, Carl Sandburg’s poem “Chicago” which is a real nationalistic poem, where the author praises the city of Chicago which considered to be a province, a marginal city with corrupted values and no culture. Apart from that, we have to stress out the effort of the genuine modernist American poet to participate in the whole cultural process being and acting as a real individualist. Furthermore, we have the tendency to see
“ideas in things”. W. C. Williams’ poem “The Young Housewife”, for instance, is a striking example of the above characteristic. He is the first who talked about real ideas and real meaning in things and his poetry influenced many more.

**EXAM QUESTION 2**

Discuss some of the ways in which Poe’s “Tell-Tale Heart” gains its effects.

**Introductions**

1. Edgar Allan Poe’s “Tell-Tale Heart” is a short story which gains its effects and the approval of its readers through many ways; through the plot, its point of view, its theme, its tone and style and other devices.
2. Poe’s “Tell-Tale Heart” is a very beautiful short story. With his gift of writing Poe makes the story seem true.

**Sample answers**

**A.** Even though Poe’s “Tell-Tale Heart” makes use of a simple language, it is a very interesting horror story which has a strong effect upon the readers. That can be easily made clear if we bear in mind all the elements which are being used in the story.

First of all, a first person narrator as the protagonist of the story is a very good choice on the part of the author. The unreliable deranged narrator creates a horrifying effect. It is obvious that if we had an omniscient narrator, the effect would not be the same. Under these circumstances, the reader, almost petrified, follows the madman’s preparations for the crime. No matter how hard the man tries to prove that he is not mad, but a nervous man with sharpened senses, the reader feels absolutely horrified at the absurdity of the man’s mind.

Furthermore, the tone of the story with the unexpected resolution contributes to the creation of horror and agony. Not only does the reader feel horror at the absurdity of the madman’s mind, but he keeps a distance from the laughter of the madman. Equally significantly, the story is filled with irony. The attempt of the madman to convince the readers for his ingenuity is said to be ironic: for instance, the fact that he was staying still for an hour for fear he might wake up the old man illustrates the ironic aspect of the story and has an impact on the readers.

What seems to be one of the most catalytic factors in the creation of a shocking effect is the role of symbols. The madman attributes the murder to the Evil Eye. The absurdity of the madman’s sick mind is evident from the fact that he considers the old man’s eye responsible for his violent action.

Finally, the ticking of the beetles, which are believed to foreshadow death, contribute to the creation of horror, which is reinforced by the style of the story, another way to gain effect.

To sum up, all the combining elements of the point of view, tone, irony, symbols and style have a shocking effect and shed light on the psychology of an abnormal personality. It would be an omission not to mention the clever, but unexpected ending, with the madman confessing his crime.

**B.** Poe’s “Tell-Tale Heart” gains its effects by:

(i) The narrator is the murderer. If the narrator was not the murderer himself, the irrationality of the murder would not be so obvious.

(ii) Then, in the story, we see that the mad, insane person is suspicious that he is mad but tries to convince the readers that he is not. His over-acuteness of his senses that makes us suspicious towards him. Then in the third paragraph we have complete dashes. A conscious person would not use such a language. In the second paragraph we have the word “haunted” which shows that the man was obsessed with the murder of the old man. And he praises himself and he is proud of the skill to pretend. He considered killing just a job. We see the murderer who loves his victim but hates the eye. This shows the emotional detachment that the murderer has towards his victim. He is trying to gain the trust of the old man in order to kill him later. The sound of the heart beat is compared to the sound that a watch makes and is very intense through the whole story. As time passes, the less time is left for the old man to live and more furious and afraid the murderer becomes. At the end he does something stupid and betrays himself.
ACADEMIC DISCOURSE

EXAM QUESTIONS AND FORMAT

INSTRUCTIONS

Complete all three tasks.

Please write your name, ID number and your instructor’s name on the first page of your answer sheet. Also indicate whether you submitted an assignment during Fall 2011-12.

Instructor’s name: Α-Καπ: Τζάννε, Καρ-Ν: Υφαντίδου, Ξ-Ω: Μητσικοπούλου

TASK 1 (30 points)  (suggested time: 40 minutes)

The following text has been adapted from a chapter of an edited book published in 2002. The authors of this chapter are Willie van Peer and Eva Graf, while the editors of the book are Elena Semino and Jonathan Culpeper. The title of the chapter is “Spatial language and its developmental representation in Stephen King’s IT”. The edited book, entitled Cognitive Stylistics, was published by John Benjamins Publishing Company in New York. The relevant pages of the chapter in question are 123-152.

Read the text carefully and, by PARAPHRASING adequately,
(i) produce a formal outline concerning spatial notions in language,
(ii) on the basis of your outline, write a summary of about 80 words
(iii) write a full reference for the chapter mentioned above.

Note that you cannot paraphrase the terms ‘space’, ‘spatial’, ‘deixis’, ‘deictic’ or other terms between single quotes.

TASK 2 (30 points)  (suggested time: 40 minutes)

The following newspaper article appeared in The Guardian (2nd June 2010) reporting on scientific research findings. Read it carefully and on the basis of the information offered below, write an academic journal extract and (suggest) a title: SELECT the strictly scientific information. Make sure you PARAPHRASE any information borrowed from the original. (word limit: 200 words)

TASK 3 (30 points)  (suggested time: 40 minutes)

Vernacular language (or variety) is the informal, casual language people use in their everyday encounters. Some stable vernacular forms of the English are the use of /in/ instead of the standard /in/ in walking or multiple negation (I didn’t see nobody) instead of the standard ‘I didn’t see anybody’. The vernacular variety is used in contrast to the standard variety of a language and is considered to be less prestigious than the standard. The bar chart that follows is adapted from Holmes’ (2001) Introduction to Sociolinguistics and presents the frequency with which the vernacular variety is used across various age groups. Study the chart carefully and write a text describing the findings it presents and explaining them by taking into account (some of) the possible explanations offered below (word limit: 200 words).