Essential Actions for Academic Writing: A Genre-Based Approach

Teacher's Guide

NIGEL A. CAPLAN AND ANN M. JOHNS

Contents ───────────────────────

Introduction

Planning Your Course

One of the most useful moves we can make when preparing a class is to ask: "What do I want my students to be able to do, to understand, and to remember from this class a year from now or even farther in the future?" We have asked this question of our own teaching and as we developed the approach and activities in this genre-based textbook, *Essential Actions for Academic Writing.* Here is the answer we came up with:

> **We want students to be "rhetorically flexible"—that is, to be able to enter a new rhetorical context and to analyze that context and the writing task with the tools necessary to notice, select, and use a variety of text components (writer role, audience, task structure, language resources, etc.), resulting in an appropriate and effective written response.**

Students who develop such rhetorical flexibility will be well positioned to transfer their skills to future novel writing tasks. As we created activities leading to rhetorical flexibility, we acknowledged that there is considerable variety among novice students and teaching situations, and thus we have designed these materials to be adapted to your students' needs and the topics, readings, or sample texts you select for your classroom.

Part I: Texts and Contexts. This first section provides an overview of the course material and the central tool for student analysis, the Rhetorical Planning Wheel (Unit 1) employed in every unit. Unit 2 introduces a genre-based approach and crucial issues of register (language use) within successful texts. We recommend teaching most, or all, of Part I as an introduction to courses using *Essential Actions.* Some teachers will want to include parts of the Online Source Use Appendix at this stage.

Part II: This part explores in depth the essential actions in writing: explain, summarize, synthesize, report and interpret (data), argue, respond, and analyze. Its units, rich with activities, can provide the core of your classroom instruction, including the writing tasks and assignments that appear within and at the end of each unit. The Online Source Use Appendix supports the units which ask students to paraphrase, summarize, synthesize, integrate, and cite sources in their writing.

Part III: This part offers complete, structured projects that draw on and integrate multiple actions from Part II. As you plan your course, you may want to begin here, considering the needs and interests of your students, selecting appropriate readings, and deciding which of the projects you want to use. A course could be designed around one or two of these projects, moving back into Part II for practice with the necessary actions. Alternatively, one or more of these projects might be chosen as the culmination of a writing course.

- ❒ **Project 1: Transforming content**. Here, a single topic, bilingualism, is the focus. Students are asked to transform content on this topic into a variety of pedagogical and everyday genres, using skills they can transfer to both their classes and their professional lives.

- ❒ **Project 2: Problem/solution inquiry**: Problem/solution structures are found in a variety of genres in many disciplines. Here, students explore a problem in their academic field or local community, examining its causes and possible solutions using interviews, the internet, and library resources. This unit would be particularly useful for enhancing transfer into writing assigned in classes in business, the sciences, information technology, or the social sciences.

- ❒ **Project 3: Research Paper**. This unit focuses on the most common type of empirical research paper (or *term paper*) in many academic disciplines: the IMRaD (Introduction, Methodology, Results, Discussion/Conclusion). Students analyze sample texts and practice writing different sections of the IMRaD, resulting in a complete research paper.

- ❒ **Project 4: The Personal Statement**. Students who have written several academic papers using print or data sources and an "objective," removed voice often find writing a personal statement for a grant, an internship, a job, or graduate school particularly difficult. This project provides genre examples for analysis and opportunities to evaluate and write texts in this genre.

Teachers and students using *Essential Actions* have access to the companion website with:

- The Online Source Use Appendix: a unit of instruction on finding, evaluating, paraphrasing, quoting, citing, and referencing online and library databases sources.
- Handouts with charts and tables that can be printed for use in class or shared online as classwork or homework.

Activities, Writing Tasks, and Genre Assignments

We firmly believe that students learn to write by analyzing written texts and then writing and revising their own pieces—rather than from reading long, difficult texts that do not offer models for their own writing. Therefore, our units consist of explanations, short models, and lots of practice. Each unit includes::

- ❒ **Models:** Example texts that illustrate the target actions and genres are drawn from accessible news and academic sources, novice student writing, published undergraduate research, and introductory-level textbooks.
- ❒ **Activities:** Short practice activities can be completed individually or in pairs or groups, including in online synchronous or asynchronous modes.
- ❒ **Writing Tasks:** Short writing assignments throughout each unit pull together strategies developed through the previous set of activities; some of these can be expanded into longer assignments if they fit your learning outcomes.
- ❒ **Genre-Based Writing Assignments***:* Each unit in Part II ends with two genre-based assignments—a **pedagogical genre** task and a **genre in action** task (see the Introduction to Part II). In addition, all the projects in Part III give students practice in writing specific genres. These assignments go far beyond treating all student papers as "essays" (although argument essays are taught in the context of Unit 7), thus preparing them to transfer their learning to the wide range of writing tasks they will face in their future academic careers. Generally, we recommend assigning either the pedagogical genre or the genre in action unless you have the time for students to explore the action through both tasks.

Language Boxes

Language Boxes appear throughout to highlight language resources (grammar, vocabulary, phrases) that are meaningful and useful for the actions, writing tasks, and projects. Many of the Language Boxes focus on text cohesion, coherence, and hedging/boosting (controlling the strength of claims). Some of the information is written specifically for English learners (ESL and multilingual students), but most will be relevant to all students since understanding and controlling language is integral to developing as a writer.

We have tried to minimize grammatical terminology (metalanguage). However, it would be impossible to avoid metalanguage altogether. Therefore, we have chosen terms that are most familiar to ESL students and teachers. All the terminology is defined in the **Grammar Glossary** at the back of the student book and explained in more detail in this teacher's manual. Cross-references are provided to two grammar books from MICHIGAN ELT, where you and your students can find more information:

- ❒ Keith Folse, *Keys to Teaching Grammar to English Language Learners: A Practical Handbook,* 2nd edition
- ❒ Nigel A. Caplan, *Grammar Choices for Graduate and Professional Writers,* 2nd edition

Each Language Box is followed by at least one Practice the Language activity, where students analyze and use the target language. The directions for writing tasks and assignments and self-review checklists (see pages 7–8) indicate where students can employ their new language skills in context.

Multi-Draft Writing Process

Much—although by no means all—student writing takes places over periods of time that allow for multiple rounds of drafting and revision with feedback from instructors, teaching assistants, peers, and/or writing centers. To that end, we have proposed several drafts for all the major assignments. We recognize there is no single writing process that all students writers do or should follow, but in general, we include the steps listed when writing a text in a new genre, which can, of course, be modified to fit your schedule, class design, and institutional requirements:

- ❒ Analyze model texts using the Rhetorical Planning Wheel as a framework to understand the conventions, expectations, and possibilities of the genre.

- ☐ Plan writing using questions, discussion, and/or graphic organizers, depending on the genre and context.
- ☐ Explore language resources that contribute to effective texts in this genre.
- ☐ Write a first draft.
- ☐ Conduct peer review.
- ☐ Revise the writing (second draft).
- ☐ Complete a self-review checklist.
- ☐ Revise and edit the writing (third draft).

In most cases, instructors do not need to read and comment on first drafts, other than to give general feedback to the class on common areas for improvement. Individual feedback on second drafts can be given formatively (rather than with an assessment or grade): in person, online, or by written or audio/video-recorded comments. Extensive feedback on final drafts is only valuable if students are asked to reflect on the feedback, revise the writing again, or compile it into a portfolio at the end of the course.

Peer Review

For most of the Writing Tasks and all the genre-based assignments in Parts II and III, we have proposed a tailored peer review activity that is specific to the genre. This involves students working in groups of two or three, reading each other's papers, and giving feedback using questions that focus on specific features of the target genre. Peer review is most effective when students are trained in how to give constructive feedback rather than "Good job!" or "No." We have also found that groups of three are sometimes better than pairs since students receive two perspectives, at least one of which is likely to be constructive. For longer papers, we recommend asking students to read and take notes for homework and then discussing the papers in class to save time.

There are many ways to conduct peer review online, too. Some learning management systems have built-in peer review functions, so you can enter or adapt our questions or add your own. An asynchronous discussion board or synchronous audio/video/text can also be used.

Self-Review

Each major assignment includes a self-review checklist, which students can use to check the content, structure, conventions, and language use of their final drafts. Self-review is a metacognitive stage in writing processes that allows students to reflect on their writing, build self-efficacy as writers, and prepare for transfer to new writing tasks. The items in each self-review checklist are specific to the task and refer to Language Boxes in each unit.

The Structure of the Teacher's Guide

For each unit of *Essential Actions,* we have provided an overview of the unit, the writing techniques it teaches, the structure of the unit, and suggestions for organizing a course, and then a guide to the tasks and activities. Answers to most activities will vary in *Essential Actions,* so we have provided suggested or possible responses that you can use to stimulate discussion and compare with students' answers rather than providing a definitive answer key. This section also includes background information, grammatical explanations, tips for online teaching, and cross-references to other units.

We hope you and your students find *Essential Actions for Academic Writing* useful, and we wish you and them success as they embark on academic writing!

Nigel A. Caplan & Ann M. Johns

UNDERSTANDING TEXTS AND CONTEXTS

Unit 1: The Rhetorical Planning Wheel

Overview

The principal goal of this unit is to introduce the Rhetorical Planning Wheel (RPW), a tool for analysis of sample texts and planning of any academic writing task. We recommend that you begin your course with this unit as every unit in *Essential Actions* refers to the RPW. The content is structured to lead students from their own prior experiences as writers in what we have called "everyday" (or non-school) writing to academic writing using two forms of writing they will encounter as students: emails to professors and short-answer text ("ID") questions.

Goals

- ❏ Understand the Rhetorical Planning Wheel's components that shape successful writing
- ❏ Analyze and write emails using the Rhetorical Planning Wheel
- ❏ Recognize the importance of context in writing
- ❏ Analyze academic writing prompts
- ❏ Respond to an "ID" question, a typical short writing task

What Is Successful Writing? (page 13)

Activity 1.1: Discussion (page 13)

This activity draws on students' prior knowledge as they consider their past writing experiences. There are no right answers to the questions posed, so brainstorming is encouraged. Students might write a list of their answers and keep them in their notes for comparison with the work they complete later in the course. This activity could also be a good ice-breaker for the start of a course either through in-class or online asynchronous discussion.

Activity 1.2: Analyzing Emails (page 14)

Using three authentic emails with the same purpose and audience (to request a delay from a professor in turning in their assigned work), students consider how an instructor ("the audience") would react to each example. This is the first of many text-noticing activities in *Essential Actions,* created because noticing is one of the most important skills in developing metacognitive awareness, which is so crucial for rhetorical flexibility and learning transfer (Ferris & Hayes, 2019).

Answers will vary; suggested responses:

1. The *purpose* of each text is the same: to request a delay in turning in an assignment from an instructor.
2. In all three cases, there is a salutation and a complimentary close.
   A. There is *language* that attempts to be polite ("is it possible..", "I regret to inform you…", "May I please…" "humbly request...").
   B. All three student writers name the assignment they are referring to.
   C. The three emails are quite short and missing some essential language— e.g., students' introductions of themselves, the class they are in, and their student ID, so that the professor knows exactly who they are.
3. One text has a better (more palatable?) explanation for the request (Email 1).

4. Although we vote for Email 1 to answer this question, none of the three is first rate! "Poor time management?" That would not be effective.

5. Criteria for emails: After discussion of the questions, students can review Table 1.1, which analyzes Email 1 and complete their own chart for Emails 2 and 3.

Criteria	*Email 2*	*Email 3*
Include an appropriate greeting and closing.	Yes – "Dr." is the appropriate title in this case	Yes – the correct title is used
Prepare the reader for the request.	Yes – the writer establishes a rapport (asking about the professor's health) and then gives a forthright reason for not completing the assignment	No preparation at all
Provide a specific request.	Yes – the writer sets a new deadline	No – how much longer does the student need?
Give appropriate reasons for the request.	Poor time management appears to be honest and something the student can improve; this is supported by the writer's willingness to accept a penalty	No – is the student blaming the assignment, the professor, other commitments, or their own planning?
Maintain a polite tone.	The tone is very polite, almost excessively (I *humbly* request)	While the writer does use words like *may, please,* and *thank you,* the brevity of the email diminishes the politeness

Using the Rhetorical Planning Wheel (page 16)

When preparing to write or analyze other students' writing, students may neglect to consider all of the features of a successful texts and what roles they play in the task the students are completing. For this reason, we have developed the Rhetorical Planning Wheel (RPW) for analyses of model texts or readings and for student planning of their own texts. Here, we present the wheel.

Table 1.2 then discusses how each of the RPW features relates to request emails.

Activity 1.3: Applying the Rhetorical Planning Wheel (page 18)

Here, the term *family resemblances,* referring to common features of texts in a genre, is introduced. The two important facts listed should be made clear and repeated to students as they work through *Essential Actions.*

We selected the Karen Muñoz email as a student example for a several reasons:

❏ This is an authentic text, written independently and not assigned by an instructor. Our students need other students' work to analyze. We also believe this is a good short example.

❏ Most of the features from the RPW appear in the questions (1-7).

❏ Here we have the opportunity to introduce an activity: charting of the text structures, either sentences or paragraphs, and their functions. Charting appears as an activity several times in *Essential Actions* and is taught in Unit 4. Model this activity for the students.

Answers will vary:

1. Her purposes include showing gratitude and asking for a job.

2. In Sentence 1, Karen positions herself as a student. In Sentence 6, she takes on the role of a potential worker or volunteer who may be of use to the candidate.

3. Karen anticipates that Ms. Cesares will not remember her since she introduces herself and the context in which they met in the first sentences. She writes politely and enthusiastically, as befits someone writing to a person who has the power to offer her a position.

4. Ms. Cesares had visited Karen's class and given a talk. Karen hopes for a reply with some sort of offer or invitation.

5. This is, in fact, the typical structure for a student request email:
   a. Introducing the student writer: Sentence 1
   b. Providing background for the request (thanking the speaker): Sentences 2-4
   c. Making a request: Sentences 5-6
   d. Justifying the request (why is it important to the writer?): Sentence 7
   e. Offering thanks and closing: Sentences 8-10

6. *I would love to … please let me know if …* She asks quite indirectly, perhaps because she is unsure whether there are opportunities to help. She uses a high degree of politeness and emphasizes her enthusiasm, which is appropriate for the context.

7. Yes, although she does not start her email with a greeting (perhaps she is unsure how to address the recipient)

8. Karen presents herself as a very engaged and enthusiastic student who has been genuinely inspired by Ms. Casares's visit. Her flattery may also have helped ensure a positive response. By writing such a clear, well structured email, Karen also demonstrates her ability as a communicator, which the reader may also have seen as an asset to her campaign.

9. It has a very similar structure to the emails in Activity 1.2, but it is longer, more detailed, and more enthusiastic. This is fitting since the request is greater and the writer is not as well known to her reader as the students are in the earlier emails.

Language Box: Language Conventions in Emails (page 20)

This Language Box explores some of the linguistic conventions of email. Students may be familiar with these from prior experience, although we have found that many students—especially international students—have not written emails to instructors and other people in positions of power and are not aware that these language choices can greatly affect the reception and success of the email. In particular, we draw attention to naming conventions, which vary widely across languages and cultures, as well as choices of formality.

WRITING TASK 1.1: Write a Request Email (page 21)

Genre-based instruction requires study and noticing of features in texts from a genre before text production. This is the case here. Students are provided with three possible request email tasks. Alternatively, you might select a request email task that is more appropriate for your students and context. So that students address all of the components of the RPW, all the questions in Part B should be answered about their chosen tasks. Answers will vary depending on the situation. See the introduction to the Teacher's Guide for tips on using peer- and self-review in the classroom.

Understanding the Importance of Context (page 22)

We have chosen to highlight context from the RPW because it is a component of genre that gives students some challenges. Context affects all aspects of the writing situation, and we want students to understand that they are never writing in a void.

If time is short, in place of Activity 1.4, you could ask these questions which focus only on context:

1. **What is the context for this text?** What this means is: What's going on that leads to the writing and emailing of this letter?

2. **What happened before it was written?** The answer here, of course, is that the student addressed had applied for admission to the university.

3. **What might happen next?** Both letters tell students what they can or should do next. Help the students find these suggestions and the language that surrounds them. You might also discuss what other language would, or would not, be appropriate in these suggestion sections.

Activity 1.4: Analyzing Context (page 23)

A handout for this activity is available on the companion website.

Answers will vary; suggested responses:

1.

Component	Description	Admissions Letter
Purpose	What are the purposes of this text?	*Inform* the reader that their application was successful. *Persuade* the reader to accept the offer.
Writer's Role	Who wrote the letter? What is their relationship to the reader?	Director of admissions, who has the power to admit or reject the student.

Component	Description	Admissions Letter
Audience(s)	Who are the audiences for this letter? What do they want to know? How might they react to this text?	The student who applied; they mostly want to the know the decision, but they may also want to know why they should attend this particular university. Family members and mentors may also be reading these letters and advising the students about their choices.
Context	What is the context for this text? What happened before it was written? What might happen next?	The student has submitted an application, possibly attended an interview; a committee has met to discuss the candidate. Next, the student might visit the campus and then accept or reject the offer.
Structure	How is the text organized? What types of information are included?	Greeting Paragraph 1: Announce the decision Paragraph 2: Promote the university Paragraph 3: Give practical information Paragraph 4: Repeat congratulations and make final appeal to accept the offer Closing
Language	What types of language are used? Does the text sound formal or informal? Why? What kind of persuasive language does the writer use? Does the writer ask questions, give commands, or make exclamations?	Somewhat formal (*on behalf of, I am pleased to, sincerely*). Persuasive language includes a lot of evaluative adjectives (*vibrant, impressive, spectacular, world-renowned, ideal*). There are no questions but some command forms and exclamations, which fits the purpose of the text.
Sources, Evidence, Data	What types of evidence does the writer give to show the quality and attractions of West Coast University?	Academics, research and extra-curricular opportunities, campus location, community
Conventions	What are the conventions of a formal letter?	Letterhead, date, greeting (with a colon), closing (sincerely), name and title

2. a. Very different purposes (request versus announcement)

    b. The request email was written from low to high status individuals; the admissions offer is written from high status to lower status individuals. If students are unfamiliar with the concept of status, you may want to introduce it now or before starting this activity.

    c. The admissions letter conveys its main purpose immediately (congratulations!), whereas Karen waited to make her request until she had established her relationship with the reader.

    d. Some overlap exists in the greetings, closings, and signatures, but they are all realized using different language. Emails have FROM, TO, and SUBJECT lines; letters have letterhead and the date. Interestingly, some emails end with the writer's position or affiliation in the signature, which is somewhat similar to the ending of a formal letter.

Activity 1.5: Variation in Context (page 25)

You could ask students to construct a simple table in their groups to compare the two letters.

Component	Similarities	Differences
Purpose(s)	Announce and explain admissions decision; persuade the student to consider the university (for admissions and transfer, respectively).	The rejection letter tries to soften the bad news, whereas the admissions letter emphasizes the student's qualities.
Context	The student has applied to the university.	After receiving the rejection letter, Ms. Robins is strongly encouraged to meet with the admissions staff and make a transfer application in the future.
Structure	Start: Greeting, announcement of the decision End: encouragement to attend/ transfer, closing	The middle of the letters is different: qualities of the university / logistical details vs. reasons for rejection / transfer options.

Component	Similarities	Differences
Supporting information	Both refer to the quality of the applicant pool and the strengths of the university.	The admissions letter provides a lot of information about the benefits of attending the university; the rejection letter has a lot of specifics about the applicant pool and admissions criteria.
Language	Similar formal but encouraging tone	The admissions letter has a lot of positive evaluative language; the rejection letter emphasizes the difficulty of the decision (*especially difficult, more competitive than ever*).
Conventions	Same conventions of a formal letter	NA

Analyzing Academic Writing Assignments (page 26)

An analysis of a writing prompt is modeled in Table 1.4, again working from the RPW, demonstrating the flexibility of this tool. Since prompt analysis is crucial to student success but may be ignored by some students, we provide here comments on the importance of prompts to both longer homework assignments (sometimes called "essays") and short answer (or ID) questions common to many tests and assessments.

Activity 1.6: Analyzing Prompts (page 28)

Some students may have examples of homework or ID prompts from their other classes to use for analysis. That's wonderful! Encourage them. However, others may not yet be enrolled or may not have examples, so we have provided prompts from different disciplines. The answers to Questions 1 and 2 will depend on the prompt selected. We have provided sample answers for Question 1 using Prompt A as an example.

1.
   a. Prompt A asks students to demonstrate their knowledge of course content. The answer should take two actions: defining the term and relating (connecting, applying) it to other studies.
   b. This sounds like a test question: presumably the class has studied procedural knowledge and either read or read about studies of amnesiac patients.

c. As a test question, there would be no need for an introduction or conclusion. We would follow the structure of the question and start with a concise definition of procedural knowledge, followed by several sentences (depending on the directions on the test) either organized by the studies (Study 1 shows …, Study 2 illustrates …) or by characteristics from the definition (the feature of X can be seen in Study 1 because …).

d. The source will likely be the textbook and other course readings, for example, research articles about amnesiac patients. Students probably do not need to conduct any additional research.

e. The terms *procedural knowledge* and *amnesiac* can and should be used in the response. It is hard to know whether the instructor expects students to memorize and reproduce the definition verbatim or paraphrase it (students should ask before studying for the test). The definition probably includes technical language that students should use when applying it to cases of amnesia.

3. We have had great success with this simple **do what/with what** chart for analyzing prompts, available on the companion website. For example:

PROMPT: Define procedural knowledge and relate this term to the studies of amnesic patients.	
DO what actions?	**WITH what information?**
DEFINE	textbook definition of procedural knowledge
APPLY	characteristics of the definition + information from studies of amnesia

Responding to Short-Answer (ID) Questions (page 29)

ID responses are a very common form of assessment in undergraduate and some graduate courses, so the section that follows is crucial to writing success for novices.

The example prompt and student response provide an opportunity for analysis. You might ask: Why is this response to the prompt successful? What does the writer do? How is this short text organized?

WRITING TASK 1.2: Answer an ID Question (page 30)

This activity provides for students an opportunity to 1) review the material in the unit, and 2) practice the two-part analysis of an ID question (**DO what action? WITH what information?**). The chart can be downloaded from the companion website. All the information students need is included in Unit 1. Peer- and self-review questions are provided as students examine each other's work.

Reflection (page 31)

We provide reflection questions at the end of the units in Parts I and III because this type of metacognitive activity has been shown to promote "dynamic transfer" of writing skills to new contexts (Ferris & Hayes, 2019). It assists students by putting them back into their own learning processes, enabling them to rethink or re-explain what they have learned—and sometimes how. This task might be assigned in class, on an online discussion board, or as a small-group discussion.

Unit 2: Everyday and Academic Genres and Their Registers

Overview

This unit introduces two concepts basic to *Essential Actions*: **genre** and **register**, expanding on the discussion of the Rhetorical Planning Wheel (RPW) in Unit 1 and using it as heuristic, or guide, for genre and register analysis.

Genre as defined here is similar to "text type"—that is, a category to which specific texts in specific situations belong. Drawing from the RPW (Unit 1), students are encouraged to reflect on everyday and pedagogical genres in which they have written. After comparing and contrasting their genre histories, students write an Academic Genre Report, a paper about their literacy histories, with three sections.

This task also provides an opportunity for you to introduce a referencing style with which students may be unfamiliar, such as the APA. The Online Source Use Appendix, which can be downloaded from the companion website, includes guidance and activities on citation and reference format and can be used at any applicable point in your course.

The unit then moves to *register*— that is, the language choices writers make within specific rhetorical situations, reflecting purpose, writer's role, audience, conventions and source use expectations. Students are asked to compare the registers in three texts from different genres and to hypothesize about the place of publication, audience, and purpose for each of the texts, based on their registers. Returning to the three texts, the remainder of the unit focuses on academic registers, and how language choices interact with the content, purpose, structure and conventions of texts from different genres. The final section of the unit is dedicated to **genre transformation**, an activity that helps raise students' genre awareness and rhetorical flexibility.

Goals

- ❒ Understand and apply the concept of genre
- ❒ Analyze everyday, professional, and academic texts from different genres
- ❒ Understand the connection between genre and register
- ❒ Write a report about your previous academic writing experiences
- ❒ Transform a text from one genre into another

What Are Genres? (page 33)

The unit opens with a brief definition and explanation of **genre**, written for your students. As we know, this is a much more complex term; however, we hope that this short explanation will suffice here.

Activity 2.1: Brainstorming Genres (page 34)

This is an open-ended activity where students can become more familiar with the broader concept of genre by applying it to an area they all know—movies, music, or literature. For example, the Internet Movie Database (www.imdb.com) lists these common movie and TV genres: comedy, sci-fi, horror, romance, action, thriller, drama, mystery, crime, animation, adventure, fantasy, comedy-romance, action-comedy, and superhero. Taking comedies as an example, common characteristics include relatable characters with exaggerated characteristics or quirks, a clearly defined hero and villain, a threat that is resolved in a humorous way, a happy ending (at least for the main characters), and an overall light-hearted tone as expressed in the title, music, costumes, and/or cinematography.

Contrasting Everyday and Academic Genres (page 34)

We have tried to avoid the unhelpful strict dichotomy between academic and non-academic writing, or formal and informal writing, and instead use the idea of a continuum. The distinction between academic and everyday genres is partly based on

context: we encounter some genres exclusively in school settings (e.g., textbooks) and others in everyday, non-school life (e.g., online ads). However, other components of the Rhetorical Planning Wheel, beyond context, have to be considered. In academic genres, the writer is usually spatially and temporally distanced from the reader, so the reader is rarely directly addressed. Therefore, impersonal language structures are preferred, and the genre is monologic (the reader does not talk back). Furthermore, since academic communication occurs between experts or in teacher-student contexts, technical vocabulary is common. Structure and conventions are also considered very important. On the other hand, everyday genres are typically interactive (the reader is directly addressed and often answers back, as in an email). Less shared knowledge is assumed, so less technical vocabulary is used, and more personal language choices are common. Texts may be more loosely organized, and conventions vary in importance. Many genres exist in the middle: a university lecture is usually academic in content and is often (but not always) largely monologic, but lecturers may also use less formal language, address students directly, and wander off topic. An email to an instructor about a research project is more academic than an email to a family member thanking them for a birthday present, but it is also less academic than a formal research proposal. The focus in the rest of the book is firmly on academic genres, although we include some more everyday genres in the **genre in action** assignments in Part II.

Activity 2.2: Everyday and Academic Genres (page 35)

Our students find this activity enjoyable and accessible. It helps students to begin to categorize genres, although, as the instructions suggest, there is a continuum among genre types. The exact position of the genres may vary, but we expect the order to be similar to this:

Most Academic

- ❏ journal article
- ❏ textbook chapter
- ❏ student research paper
- ❏ essay exam
- ❏ national newspaper article
- ❏ university lecture

❏ student newspaper
❏ university home page
❏ office hour interaction
❏ email request
❏ discussion board
❏ movie review
❏ group discussion
❏ online ad
❏ text message invitation

Most Everyday

Activity 2.3: Comparing Non-Academic Genres (page 35)

This activity is open-ended. You might encourage students to select short texts that they are familiar with because they have used them, written them, or encountered them in their communities. When Johns (1997) asked her international students to identify everyday genres, they came up with wedding invitations and obituaries. More recently, our students have selected genres as diverse as book blurbs, traffic citations, instructions for new gadgets, recipes, opinion editorials, and tweets. It's better if the texts are long enough to have a structure and employ several lines of print and if there are a number of texts within the genre available online or in the students' lives.

Under #3, students are asked to collect a second text from the same genre and to compare the two texts, an important task in developing students' "genre awareness." A text is not a genre. A genre is a category of texts, and therefore we can only understand a genre by looking at multiple examples of texts within that category.

Since students will have chosen texts from different genres, you might ask them to individually complete the RPW analysis that can be downloaded from the companion website, in preparation for their writing task.

For example, here is a sample analysis for North American wedding invitations.

1. Genre: What do people call this type of text?	Wedding invitation.
2. Writer's role: What is the writer's role and status? Might the writer have several roles in this text?	Traditionally, the parents send the invitation, and they have the role of hosts (or maybe co-hosts) of the wedding. Alternatively, the writers are the wedding couple themselves.
3. Audience: What types of people will read the text?	Friends and family of the wedding couple, or of the parents of the wedding couple.
4. Purpose: Why do people write texts in this genre? Might they have a primary purpose and some secondary ones?	The primary purpose is to invite recipients to attend the wedding, but the invitation also serves to inform readers that the couple are getting married. A secondary purpose is to establish the expected number of people who will attend. A final purpose might be a direct or implicit solicitation of gifts.
5. Context: Where can this text be found? In what situations is it written and read?	Conventionally, the invitation follows a proposal (another everyday genre!) and precedes the wedding ceremony. An additional written genre—a save-the-date card—may have been sent. A follow-up genre is the RSVP, which may be a card or email.
6. Structure: What patterns of organization do you notice in the text? Are they typical of the genre, or do you think texts vary in their structure?	Conventionally, the invitation contains the names of the hosts, the names of the guests being invited, the names of the couple, the date and place of the wedding, the dress code, information about a reception/meal/party, and a request for a reply. However, there is considerable variation as well an innovation in the genre!
7. Language: What do you notice about the language of this text? How do you think the context affects the language in the text?	The conventional phrase is *(hosts' names) request the pleasure/ honor of your presence/company at the wedding of their son/ daughter X to X, son/daughter of …* Dates are often written out in full (*Sunday, the twenty-first of August at three o'clock in the afternoon*). Formal language is often used, such as *reception* to mean dinner and party. A specialized jargon indicates the dress code (e.g., black tie, cocktail attire, etc.).
8. Conventions: What other features of the text are important? For example, are there conventions for formatting and style?	A monogram or symbol often heads the invitation; calligraphy may be used for some or all of the text, including the address on the envelope. The French acronym RSVP (*répondez, s'il vous plaît*) is understood to mean *please reply to tell the hosts whether you will attend.* The couple's names are often printed in all capital letters. Religious ceremonies may have other specific conventions.

WRITING TASK 2.1: Writing Texts in a Non-Academic Genre (page 35)

Students use the information from the RPW grid to produce their new texts. The more students can notice language and other components of genre in a text, the more genre-aware they can become. They might enjoy playing with the conventions of the genre: what does a wedding invitation look like for a same-sex couple, or for a wedding paid for by the couple not the parents, or for a destination wedding with few attendees, or for a celebrity couple, or for a couple whose parents disapprove of the match?

Academic Genres (page 36)

Now that students have become more familiar with the term *genre* and the ways texts in a genre have "family resemblances," but also may vary considerably, we turn to the focus of the rest of the volume: academic genres.

Activity 2.4: Exploring Your Academic Genre History (page 36)

This activity asks students to again explore their literacy histories but this time, they focus on the academic genres in their lives. Again, a variety of answers are possible; however, we find that the (five-paragraph) essay is often mentioned. Other common writing tasks are research papers (another notoriously vague term), short-answer questions, book reports, posters, journals, and creative writing (stories, poems, etc.). What you should be trying to get students to consider is their memories, so you might push students to think of any other types of writing they have done in school contexts beyond *essays*. In *Essential Actions*, we avoid the term "essay" wherever possible since it often causes students to default to a five-paragraph essay formula that they have previously learned, which is rarely an effective response to more sophisticated academic tasks (Caplan & Johns, 2019).

Activity 2.5: Analyzing Academic Genres (page 36)

Again, the RPW is used for genre analysis. Students may have only vague answers to the first four questions—writer/student, audience/teacher, purpose/to get a grade, five paragraphs/with predictable structures—but that is one of the goals of this textbook: to bring to the students' attention what may have been the limitations of their earlier academic writing experiences and to prepare them for a greater variety of writing tasks in the future.

Language Box: When to the Use the Pronoun *I* (page 37)

Experienced writing teachers will immediately recognize the question: *Can I use* I*?* As with all other decisions that go into a writing task, the answer depends on the genre and the components of RPW. It is important not to tell students never to use *I* in academic writing, if only because what counts as academic writing is very broad. For example, reflections (Unit 8: Respond) must be written in the first person, while *I* is rare in library research papers (e.g., Project 2) and most reports, where the findings and recommendations are more important than the identity of the writer.

WRITING TASK 2.2: Academic Genre Report (page 38)

This task gives students an opportunity to write papers with headings, though it differs from most headed papers in the social sciences, sciences, and engineering. Here, students are encouraged to use *I*, whereas in other papers with headings/sections, the writer may be more removed.

A short example report is provided, with just one paragraph under each heading. You should explain your expectations to students. For example, ask how the writer could expand the report to include discussion of a second pedagogical genre, such as translations.

The A, B, and C that follow assist students in planning their report. Encouraging other students to discuss their plans for a paper (A) is useful for writers. It assists them to consider and rethink their plans. In B, you will need to specify format and length requirements. You may want to begin introducing the style guide used by your program at this stage since it applies to more than just reference format (see the Online Source Use Appendix).

Register (page 41)

This section focuses on language use, using the concept of register, which we define as much more complex than simply formal vs. informal. Register choices, like the other components of genres, can make a considerable difference in how a text is accepted by its audience(s). Expanding students' repertoire of registers (Schleppegrell, 2004) is one of the key goals of *Essential Actions*.

Text messages are a good example of writing that has conventions which vary depending on the audience. One example is given in the student book (the reduplication of the last letter of *yesss*), but you could also ask your students when and to whom they would use emojis, sequences of emojis, end punctuation (do they use periods and question marks more in emails or text messages?), and non-conventional spelling (*gonna, wanna*).

Activity 2.6: Comparing Registers in Different Genres (page 41)

Students read three different texts and answer the questions. Depending on your students' levels and needs, you may want to do one of the following:

- ❏ Ask students to examine the questions before they read, thus guiding their reading.
- ❏ Assign students to groups, each of which is in charge of presenting one of the texts through answering the questions. In online classes, the activity could be conducted on a discussion board or in a breakout room. Alternatively, ask students to form new "home" groups with one student from each "expert" group and then discuss the questions (i.e., a jigsaw activity).

Ask the students to identify the genres and purposes first and then the language of each text that is characteristic of the genre. Some (but not all) possibilities for answers are listed. Additional discussion follows in Activity 2.7.

Text 1: Genre: Research Article

Source: This is a research article from the journal *Science Advances* (Dunster et al., 2018). The audience and writer are experts in the field, which can be seen in the use of the pronoun *we* in discussing research results, the advanced vocabulary (*circadian and homeostatic regulation*; *chronotype*), and the hedging (that is, softening the strength of) the implications of the results (*it is much harder to attribute causality*…). The purpose is to communicate research results, somewhat tentatively, and the actions include reporting and interpreting the data and making an argument for the reason behind the changes the researchers observed. The only source referred to is the data from the research itself.

Text 2: Genre: Opinion Editorial

Source: This op-ed is from the regional newspaper, *The Seattle Times*. It is unsigned, so it is the opinion of the editorial board ("Stick with later start times," 2018). The intended audience is residents of the region, who may include teachers, students, and parents, as well as policy makers.

This text reads like an informative news article until these two sentences appear, which indicate its actual purpose: *The Seattle district and others in the region are moving in the right direction. They should pay more attention to the research.* Therefore, it is clear

the writer is expressing opinions and recommendations, so this is an editorial and not a report. The actions include reporting results and arguing for changes in school policy. The article uses the research paper in Text 1 as its main source.

Text 3: Genre: Public Health/Advice Website

This is in fact advice from the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). The first part of the text is primarily informational and cites authoritative recommendations (the American Academic of Pediatrics). There is no softening of the results of research, which lends credence to the advice which follows in the second part of the webpage ("Everyone can play a role"). Here, the purpose of the text becomes clear: the advice is stated as directives using the imperative mood (*model, educate, learn*). Some of the different audiences for this text are explicitly stated: parents, and school officials (policy makers).

The similarities and differences in register include vocabulary, sentence structure and length, the use of quotation, and the degree of confidence the writer shows in the results. These are discussed in more detail in the guide to Activity 2.7. Text 1 is written in the most academic register, Text 2 in the most everyday register of the three, with Text 3 somewhere in between.

Academic Registers: Language in Academic Genres (page 43)

We now turn exclusively to considering register in academic genres, making the important point that there are a range of registers in academic texts. Compare, for example, an undergraduate textbook to a doctoral dissertation, a TED talk, a journal article, or a case study. The questions in Figure 2.2 are designed to expand on the language component of the Rhetorical Planning Wheel. By giving students specific questions to ask, we give them tools to define register more precisely than "high" or "low" and help them see how language works in their target genre. Technically, the questions are organized according to Halliday's (1993) *metafunctions*, the ideational (language for writing about information and the relationships between ideas), the interpersonal (language for taking a stance), and the textual (language for organizing texts). For more on this approach, see *Grammar Choices for Graduate and Professional Writers* (Units 1, 6, and 8) or Caplan (2019a).

Activity 2.7: Analyzing Register (page 44)

The genre names for the texts are provided for you and the students, and more extensive work on Text 1 is modeled. You might divide students into two groups and ask them to dig deeper into Texts 2 and 3. You should review the language and grammatical terms referenced and determine which ones to explain to students before they do the task. A glossary of grammatical terms is provided at the back of the student book.

Answers will vary; suggested responses:

	Text 2	*Text 3*
Language for writing about information (content)	Everyday, not technical, language choices (e.g., *are moving in the right direction; They should pay more attention*) Sentence length: No difficult sentences, some quite short when author wants to make a point: *And the later start times should continue.* Verb tenses: The simple past is used to report the results of the study. Otherwise, present progressive and simple present are employed, emphasizing the urgency of the action that the editorial writer wants to see taken.	Some technical language (*puberty, biological rhythms, adolescents*) but familiar to a wider range of readers than Text 1. Fewer informal features (e.g. contractions, short sentences) than Text 2, but sentences are not very long or grammatically complex. In the recommendation sections, imperative (command) verbs and short sentences reinforce the strength of the advice. Verb tenses: Present simple predominates because the writers summarize the research as largely indisputable facts.
Language for taking a stance (purpose)	The writer takes a position, supporting the research reported, particularly as it relates to the school district. The repeated use of the modal *should* indicates the writer's stance. Since the writer does not use the first person, this editorial must be from the news source itself, representing the opinion of the editorial board.	The lack of hedging devices makes this text very authoritative, taking a stance on the issue that closes down the space for disagreement. The writers give no sign of their identity, but the imperatives are a form of interactive writing, telling the reader clearly what they are expected to do.

Language for organizing (structure and conventions)	The structure of the text underlies its coherence, beginning with the report on the research; discussing what the Seattle district is doing and mentioning (then refuting) the opposition. Use of *others* also tells the reader what direction the writer is taking. Paragraphs are short, as is common in newspaper writing, often a single sentence. Cohesion is mostly created through definite reference (*the results, the district*), rather than conjunctions. However, the use of *and* at the start of the last sentence is unusual and striking, emphasizing the key recommendation.	This text essentially has a problem-solution structure: the writers state the problem in the first sentence, explain the reasons behind it (school start times, and late bedtimes), and then present three solutions for three different audiences. The subheadings guide each reader to information directed at them. Cohesion is achieved through repetition (*adolescents, sleep, start times*). The last sentence of the second paragraph is an effective summary, with the two reasons for lack of sleep combined in one long noun phrase.

After the students have completed their more thorough study of register, a discussion of what they noticed is always in order because students need to begin noticing what is in the texts so that they can both read and write more critically and effectively. For example, they might note that the language choices are influenced by the context (where the text is published), the audience (the reader's level of familiarity with the topic), conventions of the genre (e.g., the use of direct speech), and the purpose of the texts (hedging in research reports but boosting in the advice page and op-ed).

WRITING TASK 2.3: Genre Transformation (page 45)

Academic and professional writers often have to take a text from one genre and transform its content into a text from a new genre. For example, when writing a literature review, they will need to select what is appropriate from a source and repurpose it to fit into their review (Unit 5: Synthesize; Project 3). When writing a summary, they often need to restructure the information from the original text as they paraphrase to create a summary that fits their needs or the writing task to which they are responding (see also Unit 4: Summary and the Online Source Use Appendix).

This exercise in transformation is interesting because it involves updating one of the most important speeches made in the United States into a kind of online outline. Students may want to read the original Gettysburg Address online for Part A. The inspiration for this activity and the reference to Norvig are from Tardy (2016, p. 152) in the context of a compelling chapter on the value of "genre play" in academic writing.

In Part B, students choose a new genre in which to present the information from the Seattle sleep study readings (Activity 2.6). First, they consider the components of the RPW. As they do, encourage them to think about how these components vary from the genres they have studied. For example, if they transform the sleep study research into a TED talk, they would probably want to start with a compelling anecdote; they would need to follow the time limits, and they would adopt a somewhat colloquial register but refer informally to published research.

Reflection (page 46)

This reflection activity returns to one of the central points in this unit: the difference between academic and everyday genres. This might be conducted as a think-ink-pair-share activity (students think and take notes, pair up with a partner for discussion, and then share their insights with the class), an online discussion board, or a short in-class writing task.

PART II:
EXPLORING ESSENTIAL ACTIONS

Each unit in Part II teaches students how to use a common **action** in academic writing. Actions aren't genres or texts: they are the rhetorical activities writers engage in to produce effective texts in their target genres. Although we describe the actions separately, they are often combined, as demonstrated in the projects in Part III.

The unit titles are written as verbs to emphasize the **actions** of writing and to imply that there is no single type of summary, explanation, response, argument, or synthesis in academic writing. Instead, there are situations in which students have to summarize, explain, respond, argue, or synthesize, guided as always by the task at hand and all the components of the Rhetorical Planning Wheel (see Unit 1).

Each unit in Part II has the same structure:

- ❏ **Goals,** or student learning outcomes
- ❏ **What is the action?** An introduction to the action and where it may be found in academic writing.
- ❏ **What do you know?** An activity designed to activate students' prior knowledge of the action.
- ❏ A sequence of **activities** that practice different ways of using the action in academic writing.
- ❏ One or two **writing tasks,** which could be the basis for longer, multi-draft assignments that explore the actions in more detail.
- ❏ **Language Boxes** that highlight relevant vocabulary, grammar, and metadiscoursive features of cohesion and coherence. Each Language Box is followed by an activity to practice the language.
- ❏ A **pedagogical genre task,** a multi-draft classroom activity with models and explanations that requires students to engage in the action.
- ❏ A **genre in action task**, a writing activity intended for a public or professional audience that requires students to engage in the action.

In most contexts, it is not practical to teach every part of a unit. Instead, we recommend choosing between the pedagogical genre and genre in action and then selecting activities that build toward the major assignment. Language Boxes are especially valuable for English learners and multilingual students, but they may be of value to other students, too. In online classes or courses with limited contact hours, the Language Boxes and practice activities might be assigned for self-study or groupwork.

Since most academic writing draws on sources, you may want to (re-)visit parts of the Online Source Use Appendix as you teach the actions in Part II.

Unit 3: Explain

Commentary

A great deal of student writing involves explaining ideas. Explanations may be tasks in themselves, such as many short-answer (ID, or test) questions, the most common type of undergraduate writing (Melzer, 2014), or they may be the foundation of longer texts, including research papers and proposals. A Methods section, after all, is the explanation of an experiment. Explanations include definitions, which explain the meaning or range of meanings of terms and might be central to a test question or the starting point for other actions.

The topics covered in this chapter are:

- ❐ One-sentence definitions
- ❐ Glosses
- ❐ Definitions with categories
- ❐ Contested definitions, in which sources disagree over the definition of a term
- ❐ Process explanations
- ❐ Cause/effect explanations

The assignments at the end of the chapter are:

- ❐ An extended definition, which may use any or all of the different types of explanation
- ❐ A blog post explaining the meaning of a new or emerging word

Goals

- ❐ Write one-sentence definitions and glosses to explain terms
- ❐ Use sources to write comparative and contested definitions that explain technical concepts

    ❒ Explain processes, causes, and effects
    ❒ Pedagogical Genre: Write an extended definition
    ❒ Genre in Action: Write a blog post

Activity 3.1: What Do You Know? (page 52)

These explanations are extended definitions found in three undergraduate textbooks. The answers to this activity may vary slightly, but remind students that all the extracts begin with one-sentence definitions and that each explanation may include several different types of information.

1. [DEFINITION: What a buyer pays for a unit of the specific good or service is called price. The total number of units that consumers would purchase at that price is called the quantity demanded.] [EFFECTS: A rise in price of a good or service almost always decreases the quantity demanded of that good or service. Conversely, a fall in price will increase the quantity demanded.] [EXAMPLE: When the price of a gallon of gasoline increases, for example, people look for ways to reduce their consumption by combining several errands, commuting by carpool or mass transit, or taking weekend or vacation trips closer to home.] [DEFINITION: Economists call this inverse relationship between price and quantity demanded the law of demand.] (Greenlaw & Shapiro, 2017)

2. [DEFINITION: Primary sources are original documents we study and from which we collect information]; [EXAMPLES: primary sources include letters, first editions of books, legal documents, and a variety of other texts.] [CAUSES: Primary sources may contain dated material that we now know is inaccurate. It may also contain personal beliefs and biases that the original writer didn't intend to publish.] [APPLICATION: Readers can still gain great insight from primary sources if they understand the context from which the writer of the primary source wrote the text.] (Baldwin, 2020)

3. [DEFINITION: When an individual thinks about how he or she thinks, this practice is called *metacognition*.] [PROCESS: Developmental psychiatrist John Flavell coined the term metacognition and divided the theory into three processes of planning, tracking, and assessing your own understanding.] [EXAMPLE: For example, you may be reading a difficult passage in a textbook on chemistry and recognize that you are not fully understanding the meaning of the section you just read or its connection to the rest of the chapter.] [APPLICATION: Students use metacognition when they practice self-awareness and self-assessment. You are the best judge of how well you know a topic or a skill. In college especially, thinking about your thinking is crucial so you know what you don't know and how to fix this problem, i.e., what you need to study, how you need to organize your calendar, and so on.] (Baldwin, 2020)

Sentence Definitions (page 53)

You could ask students to look for examples of sentences that follow the pattern (term / category / defining characteristics) in Activity 3.1 or other texts they are reading.

Activity 3.2: Identifying Definitions (page 54)

You may want to ask students to construct a table like the one below with one row for each term to identify the category, defining characteristics, and defining language.

Term	Category	Defining Characteristics	Defining Language
1. trend	connections	cultural, political, and economic / between people around the world	which is
2. exports	good and services	produced domestically and sold abroad	are … that are
imports	good and services	produced abroad and then sold domestically	are … that are
GDP	size	total production in an economy	measures

Term	Category	Defining Characteristics	Defining Language
3. demand	amount of some good or service	consumers are willing and able to purchase at each price	use the term … to refer to ...
4. law of demand		inverse relationship between price and quantity demanded	call
5. equilibrium price	price	plans of consumers and plans of producers agree	is … means
6. barriers to entry	legal, technological, or market forces	discourage or prevent potential competitors from entering a market	are … that
7. predatory pricing	method for creating a barrier to entry	a firm uses the threat of sharp price cuts to discourage competition.	is known as … in which

Language Box: Relative Clauses (page 55)

English learners have probably learned about relative clauses in ESL classes. Monolingual English speakers probably do not know the terminology but will certainly recognize the form. All writers should be aware of the difference between **restrictive relative clauses** (those without commas) and **non-restrictive relative clauses** (those with commas).

A full relative clause is a finite clause because it has a subject and a verb with which it agrees. A **reduced** relative clause is non-finite because the subject (the relative pronoun) is omitted and the verb is changed from its finite form. Non-finite clauses are very common in academic writing because they "pack" information more densely by removing small function words.

For more on relative clauses, please see *Keys to Teaching Grammar to English Language Learners, Second Edition* (p. 229–242, where they are called **adjective clauses**) or *Grammar Choices for Graduate and Professional Writers*, *2nd Edition* (pp. 36–39 and 55–62).

Activity 3.3 : Practice the Language (page 56)

Students should write definitions based on the topic they have been studying in this or another class. They may not be able to use all of these sentence structures. Examples are provided in the student book.

Glosses (page 57)

While glosses are a form of definition that students will often read, they may also want to gloss terms in their own writing.

Activity 3.4: Writing Glosses (page 57)

Answers may vary. Suggested solution:

> *Social media* (interactive websites for creating and sharing information) have had enormous influence on almost every aspect of society. Social media include *online journals* (or, blogs), *vlogs* (video blogs), and *social networks* (sites where members share personal information, photos, and links). Users create a *profile* (autobiographical information) with which they can share ideas, personal messages, and other content, and some sites encourage users to post with an *avatar* (a graphical representation). A key feature of social media is that *some content is shared quickly across vast networks* (it is said to go "viral").

WRITING TASK 3.1: Write a Paragraph with Glosses (page 58)

Although there is no peer review built into this task, students could be asked to share their drafts with a partner, who should play the role of a technological newcomer and ask for clarifications (e.g., What do you mean by *liking* a post? What is a *hashtag*? How can you prevent people from sending you offensive images?). This will push writers to explain, define, and gloss their terms. This is also a reminder to be aware of the background knowledge of their reader, a key component of the Rhetorical Planning Wheel. The writing task would be effective as a discussion board post in an online course; peers can be asked to reply to the definitions with request for clarifications.

Categories in Definitions (page 58)

This is the first type of extended definition in the chapter. A common form of extended definition involves a taxonomy or list of categories or components. The first sentence functions like a topic (or "framing") sentence with an enumerative (catch-all) noun such as *types, levels, parts,* or *categories*. Taxonomies are sometimes the basis for analytical frameworks, a more sophisticated form of writing introduced in Unit 9 (Analyze).

WRITING TASK 3.2: Write a Definition with Categories (page 59)

Students may be able to find additional examples of definitions with categories by looking through their textbooks. They should then choose a term to define based on their interests or the current theme of this or another class. Before writing, students should share with you or each other the term and the parts or categories, as shown in the examples in the book. This task would also be effective as a discussion board in an online course.

Using Sources in Definitions (page 59)

You may want to review with students the section on paraphrasing in the Online Source Use Appendix before teaching this section. After reading the overview, students could look for examples of citations in definitions in their textbooks journal articles or other course readings. Which of the reasons in the student book seem to explain the writer's choice to cite the definition? Do writers prefer to quote or paraphrase? The answers will often depend on the audience (students or peers) and the discipline.

Language Box: Defining Verbs

Before students write any more definitions, we turn to the grammar of verbs such as *define*. Here is an example of a context where the passive voice is common and useful in academic writing since the agents of these verbs are often the people who make the definition. Naming the agent is often redundant (e.g., "Linguists define a morpheme as the smallest unit of meaning." Clearly this is a definition that only linguists would write!).

Activity 3.5: Practice the Language (page 62)

Answers will vary. Sample responses:

1. Demography refers to the study of population.
2. Development that occurs without damaging the natural environment is called sustainable development.
3. E-waste means old devices and machines that are thrown away.
4. A person who has been forced to leave their home country due to disaster or conflict is known as a refugee.
5. The level of an organization immediately below the senior executives is referred to as middle management.
6. A small business can be defined as an independent business with fewer than 500 employees.

Contested Definitions (page 62)

This section is somewhat more advanced and may not be necessary for all classes. However, it is useful in at least two ways: (1) it highlights a common experience students will have in their disciplines, where terms that appear transparent can in fact be highly contentious; and (2) it provides an opportunity to practice using sources in a short piece of writing. You may want to teach this alongside the relevant sections of the Online Source-Use Appendix.

Activity 3.6: Plan a Contested Definition (page 63)

This activity could also be accomplished in an online discussion group or as a jigsaw, where each group or pair analyzes one or two definitions and then shares them with classmates who read other definitions. You might also ask students to find the plagiarism policy of the college or university they are attending and include it in the list of definitions for analysis.

A secondary purpose of this activity is to explore the many facets of plagiarism, a term that may or may not be familiar to students and which is often wrongly assumed to be a stable, universal concern in academic writing. Note that Text B is written by the

company that sells the popular TurnItIn software. Answers to this part will vary. Possible observations include:

- ❏ Some definitions treat plagiarism as a crime (A, B), while others focus on poor writing practices (D, E, G).
- ❏ Some of these texts have very formal, almost legal language (e.g., "shall include but not be limited to" in Text F).
- ❏ Some texts present a more nuanced view by categorizing different types of plagiarism, especially Howard's (1995) attempt to distinguish cheating from non-attribution and patchwriting (G). On the other hand, Text C defines all plagiarism as deliberate.
- ❏ Some of the definitions are much broader than others, including non-textual work such as music, photographs, and art (Text F).

Which text(s) incorporate these ideas and attitudes in their definition of plagiarism? Answers may vary; suggested responses:

a. A, B
b. D, F, G
c. A, B, C, D, E, F
d. G
e. C, D, E, F
f. C, D
g. A, B, C (and possibly D because of *certifies the originality*)
h. F (*otherwise obtained*) and G (patchwriting)
i. D
j. D, F
k. A, C, E

Activity 3.7: Complete a Model Contested Definition (page 66)

Answers will vary. Suggested response:

Although plagiarism is widely accepted as a serious issue for students in U.S. higher education, the term is not consistently defined. Definitions vary from highly legal to more educational. On one extreme, plagiarism is presented as criminal activity: theft (Merriam-Webster's dictionary) or even "fraud" ($_1$according to plagiarism.org). From this perspective, the plagiarist is culpable of "stealing someone else's work and lying about it afterward" (plagiarism.org). These definitions leave no doubt that plagiarism is always an intentional form of cheating. Some university policies support this view. For example, at Kent State University, plagiarism occurs when a student "deliberately" misuses source material.

However, at other universities, the plagiarism policy focuses more on the mechanics of source use, emphasizing the importance of citation, quotation, and even footnotes (University of Delaware; $_2$San Diego State University; $_3$Carnegie Mellon University). This approach aligns with Howard's (1995) explanation that there are three different forms of plagiarism: as well as deliberate cheating, plagiarism can arise from a lack of proper referencing and also "patchwriting." Patchwriting is broader than the dictionary definition of plagiarism because it refers to weak paraphrasing, or making minor changes to a source text. Patchwriting is included in some universities' plagiarism policies (e.g., $_4$San Diego State), while others are more concerned with use of exact wording or missing citations (e.g., $_5$University of Delaware). Some policies make explicit exceptions for "common knowledge" ($_6$Kent State; $_7$University of Delaware), and Carnegie Mellon University appears to suggest that a student can only be accused of plagiarism in graded assignments.

For the concluding sentences: a. Short-answer test question; b. policy proposal; c. research paper introduction

WRITING TASK 3.3: Contested Definition (page 67)

If students are concurrently enrolled in other disciplinary classes, this activity is a chance for them to investigate contested definitions in one of those fields. Their textbooks and lectures are the most likely sources. In addition, this would provide an opportunity for students to interact with their instructor to further understand the definition and why it is contested, ask for additional sources where the term is defined, and discover the instructor's preference among definitions. After they complete their writing

task, they could send an email with a copy to their instructor, thanking them for their help.

The example in Activity 3.7 is the model for this writing task. Another example is found in the textbook definition of culture (page 58–59). Students may need to conduct additional research to find competing definitions of their chosen term, or they may be familiar with the controversies from their other coursework. For topics such as "excellent teaching," a "successful student," or a "good leader," they could also survey friends, classmates, and instructors and synthesize their opinions instead of published sources.

Before writing, students analyze the task using the Rhetorical Planning Wheel because they need to think about the purpose of the definition, the audience(s), the sources and citation formats they should use, and the structure of the definition. This stage may be completed collaboratively. In fact, the entire writing task could also be written collaboratively in pairs or groups of students interested in similar topics or enrolled in the same class. In this case, other pairs/groups would provide the peer review. Remind students to draw on the Language Boxes in this chapter (relative clauses and defining verbs) as they write and revise their definitions.

Process Explanations

Activity 3.8: Analyze Process Explanations (page 69)

This activity demonstrates two contexts in which students might encounter and write process explanations: in the Methods section of a research paper and as the explanation of a concept in their disciplinary classes. In a pair or group, students might split the two texts to analyze before comparing their answers to the questions.

Answers will vary; possible responses:

1. Text A is ordered chronologically, describing the stages of the research in order. Text B also incorporates order of time in describing how blood flow changes in response to cold weather. However, it presents the different reactions as simultaneous.

2. Text A: *beginning and end; after reviewing; during; for three months; after conducting*

   Text B: *when; at the same time; so; and; which … means* (See the Language Box that follows).

3. Text A is predominantly written in the passive voice with the stages of the research as subjects (questionnaires, interviews, field notes). The researcher (the author) is used as the subject but in the third person (not "I reviewed my notes"). This is consistent with the impersonal style expected in many scientific fields. The verbs are mostly in the past tense because in the context of the research paper, this section reports what the researcher did. Text A is written in the present tense because it describes accepted medical knowledge that is not bound by time. It is written using the second-person pronoun (*your body*, etc.), which reflects the context of an online article that can directly address the reader. The subjects are relatively simple (*your blood, you, your body*), which makes the sentences easier to read because the new information about the process is in its most natural position at the ends of sentences.

Language Box: Process Connectors (page 70)

Connectors appear in several Language Boxes, with the emphasis both on choosing words and phrases that express the correct logical relationship between the ideas and accurate punctuation for standard written American English. From a grammatical perspective, the key distinction is between coordinating and subordinating conjunctions (which join multiple clauses into a single sentence) and sentence and phrase connectors (which show logical connections between separate sentences). It is also important to stress that conjunctions and connectors should be used judiciously: novice writers sometimes overuse these words where other cohesive techniques would be more effective. We also stress that connectors are not freely interchangeable, even if they are listed together! Each word and phrase has its own meaning and use, which may vary by register (e.g., *however* is about ten times more common in academic writing than spoken English; *due to* is infrequent in speech but about as frequent in academic writing as in blog posts, according to the Corpus on Contemporary American English, https://www.english-corpora.org/coca/).

Activity 3.9: Practice the Language (page 72)

Answers may vary; suggested responses (note that compound sentences are less frequent in academic writing than other types of connectors that express the relationship between ideas more clearly):

1. When/As [subordinating conjunctions]
2. because/since/as [subordinating conjunctions]
3. until / unless [subordinating conjunctions]
4. However / On the other hand [sentence connectors]
5. After [phrase connector]
6. Eventually / Then / Finally [sentence connectors]

WRITING TASK 3.4: Explain a Process (page 72)

Two short texts are assigned here to demonstrate the important of audience in the Rhetorical Planning Wheel. Students should consider how changing the audience but keeping the same topic (the process being explained) affects all the other components of the RPW. For example, one of us (Caplan) was recently sent a family recipe for pickles, which contained the instructions "boil pan of water with handful of salt" and "add white vinegar." When he rewrote the recipe for publication in a community magazine, he had to take into account his role (a presumed expert on pickling), his audience (who expected precise quantities of ingredients and detailed instructions), structure (recipes in magazines and blogs often start with a story that describes the significance of the dish to the author), and language (in addition to the command forms—*pour, boil, add*—logical connectors were used to clarify the sequence of events in the process and articles were reinstated).

This task should not require much additional research, if any. It is a good opportunity for students to write about a process they are proficient in while addressing different audiences. It would work well as an online discussion board, where peers can comment and ask for clarification since the goal of explanations is to describe the process in a way that someone unfamiliar with it can easily understand. You may need to teach ways of asking precise clarification questions for this to work (e.g., "What do you mean by *sauté*?" rather than "I don't understand"). Remind students to use connectors from the Language Box to indicate the organization of stages in their process.

Cause-and-Effect Explanations (page 74)

This section should really be called *cause and/or effect* since some explanations are causal, others are consequential, and others look at both causes and effects.

Language Box: Cause-and-Effect Language (page 74)

This Language Box uses the same grammatical categories of conjunctions and connectors as the Language Box on process connectors (pages 70–71) but adds verbs and nouns that indicate causation or consequence.

Activity 3.10: Analyze Cause and Effect Explanations (page 74)

These explanations come from three textbooks: sociology, biology, and student success.

1.

A. Acculturation refers to the cultural transmission and socialization process that <u>stems from</u> cultural exchange. The <u>effects</u> of this blending of cultures appear in both the native (original) culture and the host (adopted) culture. Historically, acculturation has often been <u>the result of</u> military or political conquest. Today, it also <u>comes about through</u> economic development and the worldwide reach of the media. (Byars & Stanberry, 2018)

B. Genetic diversity in a population <u>comes from</u> two main mechanisms: mutation and sexual reproduction. Mutation, a change in DNA, is the ultimate <u>source</u> of new alleles, or new genetic variation in any population. The genetic changes that mutation <u>causes</u> can have one of three <u>outcomes</u> on the phenotype. A mutation <u>affects</u> the organism's phenotype in a way that <u>gives</u> it reduced fitness—lower likelihood of survival or fewer offspring. A mutation may <u>produce</u> a phenotype with a beneficial <u>effect</u> on fitness. Many mutations will also have <u>no effect on</u> the phenotype's fitness. We call these neutral mutations. (Clark et al., 2018)

    C. If someone tries to tell you that test anxiety is *all in your head*, they're sort of right. Our thinking is a key element of anxiety of any sort. On the other hand, test anxiety can <u>manifest </u>itself in other parts of our bodies as well. You may feel queasy or light-headed <u>if</u> you are experiencing test anxiety. At its worst, test anxiety can <u>cause </u>its sufferers to experience several unpleasant conditions including nausea and shortness of breath. Some people may feel as though they may throw up, faint, or have a heart attack, none of which would <u>make </u>going into a testing situation a pleasant idea. (Baldwin et al., 2020)

2. Text A: cultural exchange, military or political conquest, economic development or the media

   Text B: mutation and sexual reproduction

3. Text B: reduced fitness, improved fitness, no effect on fitness

   Text C: queasiness, light-headedness, nausea, shortness of breath, panic attack

Activity 3.11: Write a Cause and Effect Explanation (page 75)

In this activity, students are given all the information they need to write a cause/effect explanation about the decline of traditional retail shopping. First, they decide whether each statement is a cause or effect of this decline (some debate may ensue); then they reorganize the sentences and add connecting language to write a paragraph. Paraphrasing is not required. C=Cause/E=Effect.

1. C
2. C
3. C/E (*the cause is that department stores were too big; the consequence is unprofitability*)
4. E
5. E
6. E
7. E

Sample response to the paragraph construction activity:

> Brick-and-mortar, or physical, stores are in decline in the United States and other countries. Perhaps the biggest reason is the dramatic growth of online shopping. However, another important cause is that many department stores were already too big and paying high rent, which made them unprofitable. Because so many stores have closed, food deserts have appeared in some inner-city areas. The second social impact is on jobs since employment opportunities have shifted from well-paying retail jobs to lower-paying warehouse jobs. Companies have responded in two ways that actually may increase the number of physical stores. For example, some retailers have developed websites that support their stores. Meanwhile, certain e-commerce sites have even opened brick-and-mortar stores to take advantage of the benefits of traditional retail.

WRITING TASK 3.3: Answering Test Questions (pages 76)

Many test questions (also called "ID" questions; see Unit 1) require explanations of the content of course materials. This task introduces a set of rhetorical moves for answering an ID test question: definition → example → significance. These short answers may therefore draw on several types of explanation, depending on the question: definition, contested definition, process, or cause/effect.

A. [DEFINITION: The Sapir-Whorf hypothesis is a theory of language and culture which claims that the language a person speaks determines the way they think about the world. According to Whorf, because languages have different features and words, the speakers of those languages see the world differently.] [EXAMPLE: For example, some languages use direction words (north, south, east, west) instead of prepositions like *in front of* or *behind*. As a result, people who speak those languages have an excellent sense of direction.] [SIGNIFICANCE: Today, many linguists criticize the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis because it does not explain linguistic variation and can lead to harmful stereotypes about cultures.]

You might also draw students' attention to the cause/effect language in all three parts of this answer.

B. The examples here are drawn from different academic disciplines and might be found in introductory courses. Many textbooks have short-answer questions at the start or end of each chapter, so students may be able to practice using material from another course they are taking. Since short-answer questions are usually written on tests, the writing process here calls for a single draft, albeit with stages of planning and editing. Because these are usually written under timed conditions, you might time the students as they write.

Pedagogical Genre: Extended Definition (page 77)

An extended definition is a common and useful pedagogical genre that generally requires some background research (see the Online Source Use Appendix for a process for finding and using sources in student writing). You should consider the parameters for your assignment before starting: What topics should students choose from? How much do you want them to write? How many and what type of sources should students use? Will students use this as a feeder assignment for a larger project (e.g., an argument essay, a problem-solution paper, or a research paper)? We recommend using relatively few sources (three or four) for this task, unless the students are defining a topic as part of a research project.

A. [One-sentence definition: A supercomputer is a type of very high-performance computer that is immensely quick in calculating and processing large amounts of data.] [Contrast: Unlike desktop or laptop computers, supercomputers can have hundreds of thousands of processors and are more powerful than an ordinary user would ever need.] [Example: The Blue Waters supercomputer at the University of Illinois can perform the same number of calculations in a second that would take a human millions or even billions of years (NCSA, 2020).] [History: The first supercomputers were created in the 1960s by governments for military purposes and were much more powerful than the early computers available for commercial use (Graham et al., 2005).] [Physical characteristics: Today's supercomputers can be massive and much more powerful. For example, one machine in a physics laboratory in Tennessee covers the area of two tennis courts and is believed to be the fastest supercomputer in the

world (Bryner, 2018).] [Applications: Supercomputers are mostly used by researchers in fields such as cyber-security, astronomy, meteorology, biology, and physics. Blue Waters, for instance, is simulating black holes, studying the COVID-19 virus, and developing "smart farms" that will produce fewer greenhouse gasses (Wurth, 2020).] [Disadvantages Supercomputers are very expensive to design, build, and maintain: the supercomputer in Tennessee cost over $200 million (Bryner, 2018). In addition, access to supercomputers may be limited to governments and senior researchers.] [Prediction: However, thanks to new artificial intelligence programs, supercomputers promise to make enormous contributions to science and the quality of human life.]

B. The example follows the typical pattern of general (definition, example of processing power, history) to specific applications and disadvantages of supercomputers.

C. As students work on their own definitions, stress that they will not need every possible category of information: they should plan their paper based on the topic and their research. For example, if they are writing an extended definition of culture shock, they might choose to include a one-sentence definition, components (in this case, the typical stages of culture shock), its effects, the related concept of reverse culture shock, and an example from a memoirs, online article, or the writer's personal experience.

D. Remind students to use the defining and connecting language highlighted in the Language Boxes in this unit.

Genre in Action: Language Blog (page 81)

This assignment is an opportunity to practice writing an explanation for a public audience, in this case a language or dictionary blog. Examples of these sites include:

- ❑ https://www.dictionary.com/e/all-the-words/
- ❑ https://www.merriam-webster.com/word-of-the-day
- ❑ https://dictionaryblog.cambridge.org/
- ❑ https://www.dictionary.com/e/

A model blog post is included in this section, but students can also be encouraged to explore these blogs to find examples they are interested in. An alternative is to look for "word of the year" articles and blog posts. Many dictionaries write these, and they are an interesting reflection of social concerns as reflected in trends of language use. Multilingual students might even choose an interesting or changing word in another language and explain it, using examples from both English and the other language.

Unit 4: Summarize

Commentary

This unit teaches a fundamental academic writing action: summary. It proceeds through an increasingly complex sequence of summary tasks:

1. A **functional** summary, which is essentially a description of the source article (e.g., the author introduces … then the author explains …). Although this is not necessarily a good summary in itself, we find this to be a useful step to more sophisticated summary techniques because it requires students to "chart" the source text and think carefully about what the text **does** and **says** in each section.

2. Two types of **informational** summary, which take the functional summary and present the key information from the source text rather than describing it. Both of these often require converting the information in the original text into a structure that more successfully identifies the main ideas.
   a. a **problem-solution** summary, which shows students how to analyze and summarize this common type of writing
   b. an **argument** summary, in which students have to identify and summarize the main argument and key supporting points from a source text

Since it is impossible to teach summary without summarizing actual texts, this unit includes several short sources on the topic of technology use and addiction. However, you may want to supplement or replace our examples with texts that better fit the topic of your course or your students' academic interests.

The unit ends with a choice of a pedagogical summary of an academic article or public genre that requires summary, a press release. For instruction and practice in citation, paraphrasing, and referencing, please see the online Source Use Appendix.

Unit 4 can also be integrated with other units and projects in *Essential Actions*:

❏ The activities on problem-solution summaries introduce the problem-solution texts in Project 2.

❏ You could refer to the activities on summarizing an argument when teaching argument genres (Unit 7).

❏ Academic assignments often ask for a summary and response; response is taught in Unit 8 using the same text as Activity 4.4 in this unit.

❏ When teaching Project 1, you might introduce or refer back to the activities on functional or informational summaries in this unit as well as responses in Unit 8.

Goals

❏ Write academic summaries of various lengths and types: informational, problem/solution, and argument, responding to classroom tasks

❏ Chart texts for purpose, main ideas, and language use

❏ Understand the relationships between a source text and a summary

❏ Effectively use category nouns

❏ Pedagogical Genre: Write a summary of an academic article

❏ Genre in Action: Write a press release

Activity 4.1: What Do You Know? (page 87)

This activity makes a good in-class or online discussion as there may be disagreement over the answers. Answers will vary, but in general, we would suggest:

1. Always

2. Always

3. Always (with the emphasis on *mostly*, since some use of key words is inevitable)

4. Sometimes. There are good reasons to follow the order of information in the source article, but depending on the context and the text, it may be more effective to reorganize and categorize the information

5. Sometimes. This will depend on the task and to some extent the individual instructor, but short quotations may be appropriate in some summaries

Charting (page 88)

We strongly recommend starting the chapter with this section since it teaches a key reading/writing strategy for working with sources. By charting, we mean dividing a source text into meaningful sub-sections in order to identify the function of each section (what it *does*) and its important content (what it *says*). By looking at the entire chart, students can then deduce the purpose, overall structure, and key content of the entire text. This is more effective than asking students to find the "main ideas," a term which often confuses novice academic readers and writers. The table of function verbs on page 89 is not comprehensive, but it is useful because it shows how the essential actions of Part II may be found in the texts students are reading and writing about.

Activity 4.2: Charting Practice (page 89)

The first two sentences of this article were charted and explained in the section before this activity. To familiarize students with the process of charting, we have divided the article into sections and provided the function verbs. Students now read the rest of this short article, selecting the function ("do") words from the list provided and paraphrasing the content from the text ("say").

 You may want to download the chart itself from the companion website for students to complete.

Section	What Does It Do?	What Does It Say?	Key Words
1	*Challenges* the idea of technology addiction	Although a small number of people use technology too much, it is probably not correct to call them "addicted."	*small percentage, but, less clear*
2	*Contrasts* technology use with addiction	The main biological processes of addiction do not apply to technology.	*processes, no clear parallels, tried to find ways, don't seem to work well*
3	*Explains* pleasure centers in the brain	All fun activities activate the pleasure centers in the brain, including technology use, but this is not evidence of addiction.	*misunderstanding, however, anything fun, hardly surprising*
4	*Contrasts* the effects of technology and drugs	Drugs are dangerous because they activate the pleasure centers much more than daily activities.	*however, a much greater degree*
5-6	*Supports* claims with authorities' and *reports* evidence	According to researchers and professional groups, technology use is not an addiction, although it may be a symptom of another problem. In fact young people who use technology are mostly healthy.	*groups such as, current evidence suggests, nor is there evidence that, finally, evidence is clear, no evidence has emerged*
7-8	*Offers* an alternative explanation	Technology use is not an addiction but an example of "moral panic theory," which means adults overestimate the danger of a new trend in young people.	*this is something we understand as, better understood as … rather than …*

After the students have charted this article, you might have them repeat the process on another short article they have read for your class or for another class they are taking. This activity can be completed individually or in groups. In online classes, students could be assigned different sections to chart in a shared document or discussion board.

Planning a Summary (page 91)

The point emphasized here is that a summary is written in response to a different rhetorical situation than the source text, which requires different choices of organization, language, conventions, and content. This should help students understand that it is not sufficient to copy or imitate sentences from the original text to write an effective summary.

Activity 4.3: Rhetorical Planning (page 92)

Answers will vary. Sample responses:

1 & 2. These two parts could be answered in a chart.

Rhetorical Planning Wheel Component	Original Source	Your Summary
Context	Written at the request of *CQ Researcher* for a report on internet privacy	Class assignment
Writer's role	Professor of psychology; subject-matter expert	You, the student
Audience	Students and the general public	Instructor
Purpose	Argue that internet use is not an addiction	Demonstrate comprehension of Ferguson's argument
Sources/Evidence	Refers to *some scholars* (he disagrees with) and professional associations Vague references to *current evidence* without citation	No need to cite the underlying sources but indicate that there is disagreement
Language	Some technical language with glosses (e.g., nicotine, tolerance, withdrawal), but mostly everyday language use Mostly impersonal (third-person) style, but uses we to include the reader Strong arguments (*is not clear, are better understood*)	Use some academic and technical language Write only in third person using Ferguson or the author to show his claims (not yours) Avoid contractions and write in a clear, simple style
Conventions	Paragraphs are fairly short Only informal citations First and last sentence make the central claim	One paragraph Use a citation to introduce the source Start with the main claim or idea of the article

3. Since the students' purpose is to show comprehension rather than make an argument, they need to choose language that shows Ferguson's opinion without presenting it as factual (as Ferguson tends to). The students do not need to gloss all the technical terms as long as they are used correctly. Since Ferguson doesn't provide citations, the students can just indicate that they disagree with some scholars and organizations. The summary needs to be short, usually a single paragraph, and should start by introducing Ferguson's article. Students need to remember that they are writing to their instructor in the context of a class and not to the general public in the context of an online resource.

4. Suggested sentence transformations:
    a. Using technology is different from using alcohol or nicotine.
    b. These parts of the brain are activated much less by illegal drugs than everyday technology use.
    c. Ferguson argues that there is no widespread technology addiction among young people.

5. The term *technology addiction* can be retained, but the student should probably write it in quotation marks at least the first time it is used in the summary. Words like *addiction* and *addictive* do not need to be in quotation marks. Technical words that are glossed in the original can be safely used, such as *withdrawal.* When talking about the brain it is common to use *centers* and *activate*, so they can be taken directly from the original. The phrase *moral panic* appears to be Ferguson's own words and so could be quoted directly.

The concept of shared knowledge and the decision whether to quote or paraphrase are discussed further in the Online Source Use Appendix.

Functional Summary (page 93)

A functional summary is a useful pedagogical genre on the way to a more sophisticated summary although, as seen in Activity 4.4, it can also be the start of a longer summary/response (see Unit 8). A functional summary is largely a description of the source text.

Activity 4.4: Analyze a Model (page 93)

The text in this activity is the introduction to a response essay in an undergraduate student journal, *Young Scholars in Writing* (https://youngscholarsinwriting.org). The author (Cooper) is responding to an article in an earlier volume of the same journal by another undergraduate student (Cullington), who had conducted research into the effect of texting on high-school students' academic writing. The response section of Cooper's essay is analyzed in Unit 8.

1. For this activity, refer students back to Table 4.1. Note that here students are recreating a chart that Cooper might have made from Cullington's source article.

Sentence	What Did the Source Text Do?	Key Words
1	Asked a research question	*explores / possible effect*
2	Listed three hypotheses	*lists / three different / those who ...*
3-5	Analyzed three theories	*analysis / theory / explores / second take / retrieves support*
6	Conducted research	*performs her own research / gathering results / analysis of students' work*
7	Reported results	*results show*
8	Acknowledged a counter-argument	*although / recognizes*

2. Although this is a published article, we feel that the repetition of the author's name is somewhat tedious. The writer could replace *Cullington* by *her* or *the author* or use the passive voice (e.g., *three hypotheses are then analyzed …*).

WRITING TASK 4.1: Functional Summary (page 94)

Answers will vary. If you want students to paraphrase, this would be a good time to teach or review the section on paraphrasing in the Online Source Use Appendix.

Sample summary:

> Ferguson (2008) challenges the idea that people who use technology a great deal are addicted. He contrasts "technology addiction" with other types of addiction, such as addiction to drugs and alcohol, and argues that technology does not affect the body in the same way as addictive substances. Ferguson explains that all fun activities, including using technology, activate the pleasure centers in the brain, but he clarifies that addiction causes a much higher level of activation that daily activities such as technology use cause. The author supports his argument with evidence from other research which shows that technology addiction is not a condition but a "symptom" of other problems and that young people are mostly healthy. Finally, Ferguson asks whether the idea of classifying technology use as an addiction is actually an example of "moral panic," which means adults overestimate the danger of a new trend in young people.

Informational Summaries (page 94)

This section bridges the gap between functional summaries and more sophisticated summaries of problem/solution and argument texts. We have chosen these two patterns for more sophisticated summaries since they are very common in students' academic reading.

Language Box: Category Nouns (page 95)

To write an effective informational summary, students need to recognize the structure of the information in the source text and present it in a way that clearly shows their understanding. A good way to demonstrate this level of comprehension is by using **category nouns** (also called enumerative, or catch-all, nouns) to indicate the structure of the text and of the summary based on it. As noted in the Language Box, these categories are sometimes implicit. A companion Language Box in Unit 5 discusses how to transition between items in the list (e.g., f*rom one approach to the next, or one challenge to the next*).

At the end of the box, there is mention of **non-count nouns**. These are nouns such as *evidence, research, information,* and *support,* which have no common plural form. Indefinite articles (*a/an*) also cannot be used with non-count nouns. This is usually

intuitive to proficient users of English, but English learners should learn to consult a dictionary to check whether a noun is count or non-count. See also *Keys to Teaching Grammar to English Language Learners, ,Second Edition* (pp. 177–188) and *Grammar Choices for Graduate and Professional Writers, 2ⁿᵈ Edition* (pp. 108–112).

Activity 4.5: Practice the Language (page 96)

Answers may vary. Suggested responses:

1. adaptations / changes / effects / impacts
2. insights / results / questions
3. criticisms / disadvantages / risks / dangers

Activity 4.6: Paraphrase Practice (page 97)

Summary requires paraphrasing because students are expected to write the summary mostly in their own words, so they will have to paraphrase key sentences and ideas. This activity uses the method for paraphrasing taught in the Online Source Use Appendix.

The first extract is paraphrased as an example. The topic of this text continues the discussion of technology addiction from earlier in this chapter. Answers will vary. Suggested responses:

2. Some addiction specialists say the obsessive use of technology, including virtual reality headsets, can affect the brain in the same way an overdependence on alcohol or drugs does.

Key words:	*addiction, technology, virtual reality, brain, overdependence, alcohol*
Synonyms and alternate word forms:	*specialists* = researchers, experts, doctors; *obsessive use* = overuse, constant use, using too much; *affect* = impact, alter, have an effect on; *alcohol or drugs* = addictive substances
Logical relations:	*in the same way* = similar to; similarly; like; as …. as
Paraphrase:	According to researchers, overuse of technology (e.g., virtual reality devices) has as much impact on the brain as addictive substances like alcohol.

3. Eighth-graders who use social media heavily increase their risk of depression by 27 percent.

Key words:	social media, depression
Synonyms and alternate word forms:	eighth-graders → 14 year olds, teenagers, middle schoolers (*note that international students may need help with the US school system*); use social media → participate in, engage with; risk → danger; threat; 27 percent → more than one quarter; a lot; much
Logical relations:	cause/effect (increase → greater than; cause; lead to)
Paraphrase:	The danger of depression is much greater for teenagers when they engage with social media.

Language Box: Introducing Sources (page 98)

This box presents several reliable ways to introduce the source at the start of a summary or in other parts of a text. Reporting verbs are further discussed in the Online Source Use Appendix. Activity 10 helps students identify reporting verbs which can and cannot be followed by *that* clauses (noun clauses). It might be incorporated at this point in classes of English learners. The Appendix also defines the terms *integral* and *non-integral* citation: In an integral citation, the author is part of the sentence (*Bristol argues that* …), whereas non-integral citations are written in parentheses or footnotes, depending on the reference style. English learners sometimes try to use *according to* with a reporting verb, producing awkward sentences, as noted.

Activity 4.7: Practice the Language (page 99)

This activity teaches students an important semantic property of reporting verbs, drawing on Martin and White's (2005) theory of Engagement. Some verbs simply attribute the citation to a source, whereas others seek to align the reader with the citation (e.g., *prove*) or distance the reader from the ideas cited (e.g., *claim*). In other frameworks, the choice of reporting verb is considered an aspect of hedging or stance. See also *Grammar Choices for Graduate and Professional Writers, 2nd Edition* (pp. 153–156). Beyond discussing the answers, you might ask students to create sentences referring to sources and using these verbs.

Answers may vary; suggested solution:

Distancing	Neutral	Aligning
assume claim suggest contend argue	discuss report propose review consider hypothesize	prove

Note that adverbs can be added to these reporting verbs to align or distance the reader, eg., *convincingly argue, tentatively suggest, strongly suggest*.

Problem/Solution Summaries (page 99)

This section introduces the typical moves in a problem/solution text, which forms a largely predictable and easily applied structure for a summary: situation / problem(s) / solution(s) / evaluation(s). There are different ways to organize the solutions and evaluations, which are explored further in Project 3 where students research and write up a problem-solution inquiry paper.

WRITING TASK 4.2: Problem-Solution Summary (page 100)

This article, "What Advice Articles Miss About 'Summer Loss'" is on a somewhat related theme to the previous readings: the slide in school children's skills and knowledge during the long summer vacation and whether technology is a possible solution. The text follows a classic problem/solution organization. We have removed the citations, but they were provided as hyperlinks in the original, which can be found at www.the conversation.com.

B. As students complete this task, highlight the language that indicates the transition between the stages of the text (key words). Students could complete this activity in a chart.

Section	What It Says	Key Words
Para 1-3 (Situation)	Parents are under pressure to pay for activities to prevent "summer loss."	*advise, recommendations, appealing, who doesn't..?*
Para 4 (Problem)	Summer loss is the equivalent to several months of leaning at school, and it's worse for some at-risk groups.	*anxiety, lose, gaps, worrisome*
Para 5 (Solution + Evaluation 1)	Most solutions to summer loss are not available to many families because of cost, time, convenience, or level of education and training.	*however, recommendations, biases, assume, troubling, although, lack*
Para 6-7 (Solution 2)	Schools should take the responsibility to offer affordable, enriching summer programs.	*solutions, instead, might*
Para 8 (Evaluation 2)	Although these programs are more intensive and expensive, they are worth the investment.	*more, but, well worth it*

C. Since summary writing is challenging, we have scaffolded the task with sentence starters for each stage of the problem/solution summary (Figure 4.2). More proficient writers may be able to attempt the task without this framework. In an online class, students could complete the sentences through chat (in synchronous instruction) or a collaborative document (synchronously or asynchronously). Answers will vary; suggested response:

Chandler-Olcott (2019) discusses the problem of expecting parents help their children combat "summer slide." "Summer slide" occurs because children forget what they have learned during the long summer vacation. This is important because it affects low-income families and older students in particular. Some of the solutions to the problem of summer slide include online programs and activities that parents can do with their children. However, these do not work for every family because of cost, time, convenience, or lack of education and training. Therefore, the author recommends that schools provide affordable summer camps such as the "writing institute" that Chandler-Olcott has directed. According to the author, this solution is effective because it invests in students' education and teachers' professional development.

Argument Summary (page 103)

In addition to explanations (Unit 3) and problem-solution texts, students will read a lot of texts that advance an argument, position, opinion, or theory. This last section of the unit teaches students how to summarize argumentative texts; they will learn how to argue in their own writing in Unit 7, which also discusses disciplinary differences in argument structure.

Activity 4.8: Analyze a Model (page 103)

This summary refers back to the Ferguson (2008) article about technology addiction in Activity 4.2, for which students wrote a functional summary in Writing Task 4.1. If you did not assign Writing Task 4.1, a model response was provided on p. 59 of this teacher's manual that students can compare with the argument summary on pp. 103–104 of the textbook.

Answers will vary; sample responses:

1. This summary is organized very differently from the functional summary. It begins with a restatement of Ferguson's major claim (thesis), drawn mostly from the end of the source text. This summary also arranges Fergusons' article into the three reasons, a structure which is not explicitly stated in the source text. Unlike the functional summary, this summary only uses the author's name twice, once at the start and once at the end of the paragraph. Overall, this summary focuses more on the claims and ideas, while the functional summary reads like a description of the source text.

2. The reporting phrase in the last sentence (Ferguson concludes…) is a reminder to the reader that they are reading Ferguson's claims and not the student writer's.

3. Sentence 1 tells the reader the source (author and date), the author's credibility (professor of psychology), the purpose of the source text (argument), and the author's major claim (thesis).

4. This sentence contains an example of a category noun, *reasons* (see Language Box above), which organizes the summary. Ferguson does not directly state that he has three reasons.

5. The last sentence brings together ideas from different parts of the text (mostly paragraphs 2 and 6) and summarizes Ferguson's opinion about technology addiction. The last part of the sentence is a paraphrase of paragraph 9 ("rather than a legitimate concern supported by data").

6. This phrase is quoted in the source text and does not appear to be common knowledge, so the writer is correct to quote it in the summary. There is no good way to paraphrase "moral panic."

7. This chart can be downloaded from the companion website for students to complete.

Original	*Paraphrase / Summary*	*Strategies*
However, illicit substances such as methamphetamine activate these centers to a much greater degree than do normal activities such as technology or exercise. That is what makes these substances dangerous.	It is only very high levels of activation associated, for example, with illegal drugs, that are considered dangerous.	Change the verb *activate* to *activation;* use the synonym *illegal drugs* for *illicit substances* and drop the example; combine the sentences by using *are considered.*
This is because current evidence suggests these are not unique disorders but rather arise as symptoms of underlying mental health problems, such as depression or attention problems.	The second reason is that overuse of technology may be the result of another psychological problem like depression rather than a separate condition	The paraphrase changes the order of information in the original; *unique disorder* is paraphrased as *a separate condition*; *arise* is changed to the phrase *may be the result of* (a verb to a noun phrase), and the academic synonym *psychological* is used for *mental health*.
No evidence has emerged to suggest an epidemic of tech-addicted youths.	The research does not support widespread addiction to technology.	The transitive verb (*support*) creates a different sentence structure from the original, which uses an intransitive verb (*emerge*); *epidemic* is explained as *widespread*; the adjective *tech-addicted* is paraphrased as the noun phrase *addiction to technology*; *research* is used as a synonym for *evidence*.

Pedagogical Genre: Summary of a Source (page 106)

Summarizing a class reading is a very common academic writing task, and one we have often used in writing courses. It can also be found on syllabi in many other disciplines. A summary can stand alone, perhaps in a class test, or it can be a preparatory assignment for a longer project or research paper. For this task, you may want to choose or help students select an appropriate text to summarize, depending on the goals of your course. In some classes, it is important to learn how to summarize peer-reviewed journal articles, but with novice writers, we have found it useful to start by summarizing substantive magazine or news articles or writing from professional ("trade") journals. The Online Source Use Appendix offers a process for finding and evaluating the reliability of a source. Some sources that we have found useful for novice writers to practice summary include:

- ❐ www.psychologytoday.com
- ❐ www.theconversation.com
- ❐ www.medium.com
- ❐ *Harvard Business Review* (www.hbr.org)
- ❐ Feature articles and blogs in the *New York Times*, the *Washington Post*, the *Guardian*, the *Atlantic*, and other major news sources
- ❐ *The Chronicle of Higher Education*
- ❐ www.insidehighered.com
- ❐ www.procon.org
- ❐ *CQ Researcher* (available through many libraries)
- ❐ *Opposing Viewpoints in Context* (available through many libraries)

The process in this assignment is based on activities completed earlier in the unit: charting the text, using category nouns to plan and organize the summary, choosing appropriate reporting verbs, and paraphrasing.

Before starting the assignment, decide on the parameters for students' writing. What type of source should they summarize? How long should their summary be (one or more paragraphs)? Should they include the title of the article in their summary? Do they need a citation and reference?

We have found that a summary of about 1 1/2 to 2 pages from a substantial article from a publication aimed at an educated but not specialist audience works well. Some of the top science journals (e.g., *Science, Nature)* also carry news sections, essays, and editorials that are within reach of novice writers.

One way to make a large class more manageable is to let students choose groups based on areas of interest. Each group chooses an article to summarize, reads and discusses the article, and plans the summary collaboratively (all this can also easily be moved into a synchronous or asynchronous online discussion). Students then write their summaries individually. It can be beneficial to conduct peer review with a student who has read a different article as they will be able to give feedback as the intended reader, someone who has not read the source text.

Genre in Action: Press Release (page 107)

Writing a press release is an engaging example of a genre transformation (see Unit 2) because it requires writers to take an article written for a specialist audience and turn it into a press release for a broader readership. Press releases have a purpose beyond summarizing the content of the article: they also show off the work of the researcher, university, or organization that produced it. This leads to some interesting discussions around the Rhetorical Planning Wheel. The website www.futurity.org is an excellent source for press releases from a wide range of universities, but students may want to explore their own institution's press department or communications office as well.

A.
Paragraph 1: Attract reader with new solution
Paragraph 2: Summarize key result of research
Paragraph 3: Support main result by telling why it is important.
Paragraph 4: Quote one of the researchers
Paragraph 5: Describe the details of the research.

C.
Paragraph 1: Headline
Paragraph 2: Main idea
Paragraph 3: What and why
Paragraph 4: Quotation
Paragraph 5: More details

Note that the text printed here is incomplete, so some of the later stages are missing. Students can look up the complete original press release and find that it follows the inverted pyramid very closely (https://www.futurity.org/graphene-printing-electronic-circuits-1662932/).

D. The scientific article uses very long sentences with elaborate noun phrases, including many noun modifiers (*solution-phase printing, inkjet-printed graphene*) and prepositional phrases. The resulting text is dense with a lot of content words per sentence. The verbs are relatively simple. Some vocabulary is highly technical (*hydrophobicity*) or low frequency (*herein*). In contrast, the language of the press release is much more accessible because the non-specialist reader should understand the research and be impressed by it. The writer uses familiar words and more verbs and clauses, resulting in a less dense style. Some of the nouns in the source text have been paraphrased as adjectives (*low-cost, flexible, highly conductive,* and *water repellent*) or clauses (*tuning it with a laser*). This tells us that the press release is written for a general readership rather than the specialist audience of the scientific article. It also shows that the purpose of the press release is to explain the research to readers who are not familiar with it, while the purpose of the scientific article is to share new findings with experts who use this type of language in their own research.

E. Components of the Rhetorical Planning Wheel for a press release:

1. Audience: Interested, non-specialist readers, plus newspapers, TV, radio, and websites that might want to report on the research
2. Writer's Role: Public relations or communication department, responsible for promoting the reputation of the institution or organization
3. Purpose: Share exciting new research and attract attention to the institution
4. Context: The press release is usually written immediately after the research has been published in a peer-reviewed journal; it ends with contact information so that media organizations can follow up and report on the research
5. Structure: Inverted pyramid, as shown in the textbook
6. Sources, data: Some data from the original article may be included, but instead of quoting the article, the writer usually interviews and quotes at least one member of the research team

7. Language: Non-technical, accessible language, including elements of spoken language such as contractions in quotations

8. Conventions: Headline; author should include the institutional affiliation; short paragraphs, especially at the start of the press release; quotations may be entire paragraphs; end with a link to the original research and sometimes a short description of the university and contact details for the public relations department

Language Box: Using Direct Quotation (page 110)

We briefly introduced quotation in the context of source use in Unit 3, but this Language Box concerns the punctuation of direct quotation of speech, which is unusual in most academic writing and so might be unfamiliar to some students.

Unit 5: Synthesize

Commentary

Synthesis is the logical continuation of summary (Unit 4): once students can summarize one text, they can begin to synthesize ideas from two or more sources into their writing. Marshalling multiple sources in order to produce a coherent, effective text in the target genre is one of the hallmarks of academic writing. This chapter presents two different types of synthesis; depending on your course and objectives, you might choose to teach one or both types:

- ❏ in a comparative/contrastive synthesis, writers look for similarities and differences among sources
- ❏ in an informational synthesis, writers draw upon information from multiple sources to develop ideas.

Throughout the unit, we emphasize that a synthesis is more than a list of summaries; the use of sources must be integrated and purposeful. This can be very challenging for novice writers, so multiple opportunities to analyze models and write short texts from a manageable number of sources will be invaluable. The chapter ends with two longer assignments, one or both of which might be assigned. The pedagogical genre is an assignment designed for a writing class in which students connect a movie or book to a theoretical framework. The genre in action is a literature review, a form of writing that students may use in a project from Part III or throughout their academic careers and beyond.

   Since students need actual texts on which to perform the action of synthesis, we have provided short sources and models on the theme of attention and concentration among university students, especially the impact of laptops and other devices on note-taking and learning in college classes.

Goals

❒ Understand how and why to synthesize source texts

❒ Write a comparative/contrastive and an informational synthesis

❒ Use categorizing language to organize a synthesis

❒ Synthesize information using general-to-specific and specific-to-general organization

❒ Pedagogical Genre: Write an integrative synthesis of an academic reading and a book or movie

❒ Genre in Action: Write a literature review

Activity 5.1: What Do You Know? (page 113)

Answers may vary; suggested responses:

1. Sometimes: if the two citations have no clear connection, it is not a synthesis.

2. Sometimes: but writers also look for sources that support each other and other sources that provide additional information and do not necessarily indicate agreement or disagreement.

3. Sometimes: you can also remain neutral (see Unit 5).

4. Almost never: most paragraphs should cite at least two sources; otherwise the text becomes a list of summaries not a synthesis.

5. Always: it is a strength to show multiple sources that support an idea.

6. Sometimes: it's typical for writers to be selective in the information they cite from each source.

Comparative-Contrastive Syntheses (page 113)

Comparative-contrastive syntheses are an accessible introduction to synthesizing because students can usually see the implications of writing about sources that disagree with each other (pro/con). It is somewhat more difficult to write about sources without repetition when they agree.

Activity 5.2: Analyze a Model (page 114)

As is suggested throughout this volume, it is wise to begin these analyses with the questions which follow the model text. In the questions here, the focus is upon differences among sources.

1. Biological Perspective: Durston, Totterham, & Thomas (2003); Faraone et al. (2005); Hawai et al. (2002); Sprich et al. (2000)

    Family Systems Perspective: Bernier & Siegel (1994); Hansell & Damour (2005)

2. Language indicating similarities: *also, moreover, furthermore*
    Language indicating differences: *while, however*

3. The last sentence suggests the writer is skeptical about the family systems perspective (*however ... but instead*).

Preparing to Synthesize (page 115)

This section emphasizes the importance of note-taking. Although this is a reading skill, it is an essential planning step in writing a synthesis where the writer needs to show the relationships among ideas from different sources. The format suggested here will give the student all the information they need to write their synthesis: the author, author's credentials, the important ideas from each source, and the connections between the sources.

Activity 5.3: Note-taking practice (page 115)

You may need to help students find articles relevant to the theme of your course—in particular, articles that lend themselves to a comparative-contrastive synthesis. Some suggestions, depending on your access to the internet and library databases:

❒ Editorials from different perspectives on the same topic and/or subsequent letters to the editor. Local news sources often print these.

❒ *USA Today* publishes "opposing view" editorials alongside some "our view" editorials (https://www.usatoday.com/opinion/todaysdebate/).

❒ the *New York Times* used to run a section called Room for Debate (https://www.nytimes.com/roomfordebate).

❐ Your library may provide access to Opposing Viewpoints in Context, which collects essays and articles from various sources that express strong opinions on a wide range of topics.

❐ the website www.procon.org is an excellent source for materials on different sides of controversial issues.

Language Box: Comparing and Contrasting Connectors (page 116)

The four grammatical categories of connectors were also introduced in Unit 3 (see p. 44 of this Teacher's Manual for an explanation). One additional note about punctuation is added here. A comma is typically used before subordinating conjunctions that express contrast (*while, although, even though*).

English learners may be unfamiliar with some of these connectors, especially phrase connectors, which are very useful. They may also tend to overuse sentence connectors in their writing where other forms of cohesion would be more appropriate, such as category noun and nominalization.

The last column in the table on p. 117 may require additional explanation. Concession is a way for writers to acknowledge one side or argument while aligning the reader with a different idea, the one in the main clause. Students might examine previous course readings for examples of these connectors in context. Concession is discussed further in Unit 8 (Respond).

Activity 5.4: Practice the Language (page 118)

The two articles cited in this exercise are readily available online so were not included in the textbook in the interest of space.

Answers will vary; suggested responses:

1. Dynarsi argues that students are easily distracted from lectures if they use laptops. However, Numer points out that laptops can actually encourage engagement in classes, especially during uncomfortable discussions.

2. Unlike Dynarski, Numer suggests that laptops and other devices are beneficial to teaching and learning.

3. Whereas Numer encourages his students to use laptops in class, Dynarski bans most students from using electronic devices.

4. Although laptops can be used to take notes and participate in "active learning" (Numer, 2017), handwritten notes force students to think more carefully about the material (Dynarski, 2017).

Possible additional sentences:

5. While some research shows that students who use electronic devices in class earn lower grades (Dynarski, 2017), Numer (2017) found that students improved their "critical-thinking skills" when he integrated an app in his class.

6. Students can be easily distracted by their devices (Dynarski, 2017). On the other hand, college students are adults, who can choose whether or not to pay attention (Numer, 2017).

7. Like Numer (2017), Dynarski (2017) observes that students can take notes on computers in class. However, unlike Numer, she argues that these notes are lower quality than handwritten notes.

8. Numer (2017) allows all his students to use electronic devices in class. In contrast, Dynarski (2017) only allows students with learning disabilities to use computers.

WRITING TASK 5.1: Contrastive Synthesis (page 119)

Students should be able to complete the task using the chart in Activity 5.4. However, the two articles are readily available online:

❒ https://www.nytimes.com/2017/11/22/business/laptops-not-during-lecture-or-meeting.html

❒ https://www.chronicle.com/article/dont-insult-your-class-by-banning-laptops/

Answers will vary; suggested responses:

A.

1. **Writer's Role:** Student
2. **Audience:** Instructor
3. **Purpose:** Contrast two experts' opinions on the use of laptops in class
4. **Context:** After reading the two articles for a class
5. **Structure:** (1) potential for distraction; (2) impact on learning
6. **Language:** Comparison and contrast language; mostly paraphrasing the sources; some limited quotation

B. If students need help selecting information, we have provided some suggestions and prompts. For students who are having trouble structuring their paragraphs, you might provide them with a framing sentence to begin their paragraph:

1. Why does Dynarski believe laptops are a distraction? Why does Numer argue that they can actually improve concentration? What is "visual pollution"? Whose responsibility is it to engage students, according to Numer?

   Sample framing sentences: Dynarski and Numer disagree about whether laptops are a distraction in the classroom. Whereas Dynaski claims laptops are too distracting for classroom use, Numer points out that if used correctly, devices can contribute to "active learning."

2. What does Dynarski's research show about notetaking? How does it relate to learning? How does Numer's research disagree with these findings? Apart from notetaking, how else can laptops aid students' learning?

   Sample framing sentence: While studies discussed by Dynaski suggest that computer use in the classroom negatively impacts students in a number of ways, Numer claims that his own research on using an app in the classroom shows that computer use can lead to active learning and improved "critical-thinking skills."

Informational Syntheses (page 120)

Much undergraduate writing is informational in purpose, synthesizing and distilling readings, lectures, and eventually research. Here we highlight two key considerations for informational synthesis writing—integrating multiple sources (rather than just dropping names) and organizing paragraphs in two common structures, general to specific and specific to general (Swales & Feak, 2012). A literature review can be seen as an extended informational synthesis (see also Projects 2 and 3).

Activity 5.5: Analyze a Model (page 121)

It may help to explain the context for these paragraphs. The writer has just discussed faculty's attitudes toward devices in the classroom and here moves onto students' attitudes, an area that has received less research interest.

These nine questions are very important in understanding how paragraphs of this type are organized and what contributes to their coherence or "flow." You might pause and discuss Questions 2 and 3, in particular.

Answers will vary; suggested responses:

1. The first sentence indicates that the paragraph will focus on students' attitudes, which are generally opposed to restrictions on ICT.

2. General to specific. The paragraph starts with a summary of the findings and then cites examples of specific research.

3. Sentence 1: *however*. Sentence 2: *Students* (cohesion by repetition). Sentence 3: *They … also*. Sentence 4: *This* …. Sentence 5: *taking away the ICTs* (summarizes previous sentence). Sentence 6: *However*. Sentence 7: *For example*.

4. Five

5. (a) Jackson, Santos et al., Tinder & Bohlander (c) Mc Coy, Santos et al., Baker et al.

6. The last sentence: *the main idea is that banning ICTs would be counterproductive for learning*.

7. Specific to general. The paragraph starts with examples of research into actual laptop bans and ends with the conclusion that all these studies draw.

8. Two

9. (c) Elliott-Dorans, Hutcheon et al.

Activity 5.6: Integral and Non-integral Citations (page 124)

Integral and non-integral citations are introduced in the Online Source Use Appendix but are best practiced in context.

Answers in the source text (students may reasonably disagree with the author's choices!):

1a, 2b, 3b, 4a, 5a

One reason for the choices may be that the writer wants to highlight either the researchers (integral) or the topic being discussed (non-integral).

Language Box: Framing Sentences (page 125)

This Language Box is a companion to the Language Box on category words in Unit 4. We have generally avoided the term *topic sentence* in *Essential Actions* because we find it more useful to teach paragraph structure—like all aspects of writing—in particular rhetorical contexts rather than "in general" (Wardle, 2019). In a synthesis, framing sentences help writers create coherence in their paper by showing how each paragraph is related to the focus of the entire synthesis. Category words enable students to maintain cohesion between paragraphs.

English learners may need to pay attention to the articles in the chart as they do carry more meaning than usual in this context (e.g. *a different study* is quite different from *the different study*).

Activity 5.7: Practice the Language (page 126)

Answers may vary; suggested responses:

2. A further improvement …
3. One major reason …
4. An additional concern ...
5. The final benefit …

WRITING TASK 5.2: Informational Synthesis (page 127)

The source texts in this task are quite challenging—a scientific report and an extract from a textbook in a subject that may be unfamiliar to students. It helps to remind students that the purpose of their reading is to find challenges to reducing the use of fossil fuels. You may want to ask students to predict the challenges before reading the articles to activate background knowledge. Some vocabulary may need to be pre-taught: *decarbonization* (reducing reliance on fossil fuels), *emit, intermittent, power plant, deployment, stakeholder, hydroelectric*).

A. You could ask students to list the main ideas in a chart.

NRC, 2015	*Theis & Tomkin, 2015*
Fossil fuels are not only used to generate electricity, but in transportation, heating/cooling, and industry, all of which would need to be changed.	Cost: renewable energy has become cheaper but is still more expensive than fossil fuels
Wind and solar are not reliable enough to replace fossil fuels.	Public opinion: can affect the policy makers who actually choose the sources of fuel
Economic challenge: Cost	Gap between cost and public opinion: the most expensive sources (e.g., solar) are the most popular
Technological challenge: How will the technology evolve?	Geography: renewable sources are unevenly distributed (solar in deserts, wind offshore, and hydroelectric in mountains)
Social challenges: Public policies are unpredictable; other obstacles to introducing new fuel sources	
The fossil fuel-based power plants that already exist will emit a large amount of CO_2 before they are replaced.	

B. You could ask students to draw arrows connecting ideas in their chart, or list the connections, which include:
- Cost
- Geographic distribution and reliability of natural resources
- Public policy

C. Answers will vary. One way to categorize the information is by the types of challenges: economic (cost), social (public opinion, public policy, public acceptance), and logistical (technology, distributions, reliability). Some information might not be included (e.g. the point about existing fossil-fuel plants in the first article).

D. For example, "Decarbonizing the world's electricity supply will be difficult for logistical, economic, and social reasons." Students could select one of the sentences listed as the framing sentence.

E. As students write, encourage them to think about general-to-specific or specific-to-general organizing patterns and to use framing sentences at the start of each paragraph. Depending on the students' confidence level, you might choose to write this text collaboratively or assign students to write with a partner or small group.

Pedagogical Genre: Integrative Synthesis (page 129)

This is an assignment that we have used successfully with novice writers. For international students, it has the additional benefit of introducing concepts, films, and literature that are widely known in North America. The goal is to start with a theoretical framework and then apply it to film, movie, poem, or artwork, showing how the theory is represented or changed through art.

Here are some suggestions for cultural texts that could be used in this assignment:

1. Research the "five stages of grief," a widely used theory that explains how many people react after the death of a loved one (Kübler-Ross and Kessler, 2005). Then explain whether characters in a book or movie follow those stages, making specific reference to both the theory and the book or movie. Suggested books or movies include *The Outsiders* (S.E. Hinton, also a 1983 movie), *Beloved* (Toni Morrison, also a 1998 movie), *Beetlejuice* (1988 movie), *Goodbye Days* (Jeff Zentner), *The Fault in Our Stars* (John Green, also a 2014 movie), and *Bridge to Terabithia* (Katherine Patterson, also a 2007 movie). The examples in the textbook refer to *The Outsiders* and contain spoilers, so you may want to assign the novel before this chapter!

2. Research a historical period or event and read a book or poem or watch a movie about it. Is the historical period or event accurately represented in the book or movie? Suggested topics include the U.S. Civil War (*Cold Mountain, Gods and Generals, Lincoln, Gettysburg*); World War I (*All Quiet on the Western Front, Regeneration, 1917, Warhorse*); the Civil Rights Movement (*BlackkKlansman, Selma, The Butler, Mississippi Burning, Malcolm X, Fences, The Help, The Green Book, One Night in Miami)*; the 2008 financial crisis (*The Big Short, The Hangover, Up in the Air)*, September 11 (*Come from Away, Extremely Loud and Incredibly Close*).

3. Watch a movie or read a book that deals with a physical or mental illness, disability, or difference. Research the condition and discuss the extent to which it is accurately represented, both medically and socially. Suggested topics include AIDS (*Philadelphia, Bohemian Rhapsody, Dallas Buyers' Club)*; mental illness (*Girl Interrupted, One Flew Over the Cuckoo's Nest, Silver Linings Playbook)*; physical deformity (*Wonder, The Elephant Man)*; cancer (*The Fault in Our Stars*); Alzheimer's (*Away from Her, Still Alice)*; learning disability, autism, and neurodivergence (*Forrest Gump, A Beautiful Mind, Rain Man, I Am Sam, Temple Grandin*); blindness (*Scent of a Woman, Ray)*; speech pathology (*The King's Speech*); deafness and hearing loss (*Hush, Sound of Metal*).

Be sure to set the parameters for the assignment in advance. How many sources (one source for the theory plus the movie or book is usually sufficient)? How long should the paper be (about 3 to 4 pages is usually sufficient)? Do students need to cite the sources formally (this may be more trouble than it is worth)? Should students use quotations from the movie or book (generally, yes: see the Online Source Use Appendix and Unit 4 for advice on using and punctuating quotations).

Genre in Action: Literature Review (page 132)

A literature review may be a stand-alone assignment, as presented here, or part of a research proposal, empirical research article, or library research paper. Various types of literature review are included in the projects in Part III, and this section of Unit 5 may be used as a process to guide students through those parts of the projects.

Several ideas for assignments are given in this unit, including some extensions to the previous discussions of laptop bans. Another option that we have used is to take a synthesis of two articles (such as Writing Tasks 5.1 or 5.2) and expand it into a deeper synthesis of multiple articles, requiring some library and/or online research. See the Online Source Use Appendix for a guide to library and online research and a technique for evaluating sources.

A. Students should not decide on an organizational strategy before conducting their research, but it helps to think about the possibilities in advance so that students are open-minded as they read.

1. Two major theories (autonomous and interdependent)

2. This might be seen as a process account (origins, development, prevention, and implications of plague); however, it is also chronological: history, present situation, future threats.

3. Thematic: four challenges

4. Process of feedback and response to feedback

B. Answers will vary depending on the exact task assigned or chosen. Encourage students to leave the "structure" sector of the RPW blank for now if they are not sure what the literature will say about their topic. At this point, you can help students by providing, or helping them investigate, the parameters and conventions of their assignment—e.g., page length, number of sources required, permissible sources, reference format, use of headings, etc. We generally encourage students to use fewer sources in greater depth.

C. The Online Source Use Appendix includes a process for finding and evaluating both library and internet sources. At this stage, students should review their notes and determine the best structure for their paper (see Step A) and choose appropriate connecting and framing language (see Language Boxes in Units 4 and 5).

Unit 6: Report and Interpret Data

Commentary

Reporting and interpreting data in a data commentary or as part of a longer assignment are critical actions for student writers. Although writing courses are often taught in humanities contexts, students in almost every discipline in the natural, health, and social sciences as well as applied disciplines, such as business, will need to write about quantitative data at some point in their academic and professional careers.

This is the only unit in Part II that includes two actions because we want to clearly differentiate **reporting** from **interpreting** data. They have different purposes, draw on different linguistic resources, and generally appear in different sections of a written text. For example, in a traditional empirical research paper, writers report the data in the Results section and interpret their findings in the Discussion section (see also Project 2).
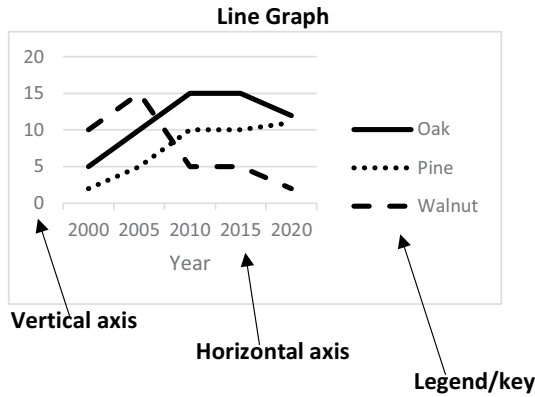
Goals

- ❐ Describe the data in a table, graph, or chart
- ❐ Interpret the data in a table, graph, or chart
- ❐ Hedge and boost claims about data
- ❐ Write effectively about numbers
- ❐ Choose appropriate verb tenses to write about trends
- ❐ Pedagogical Genre: Write a data commentary
- ❐ Genre in Action: Write a policy brief
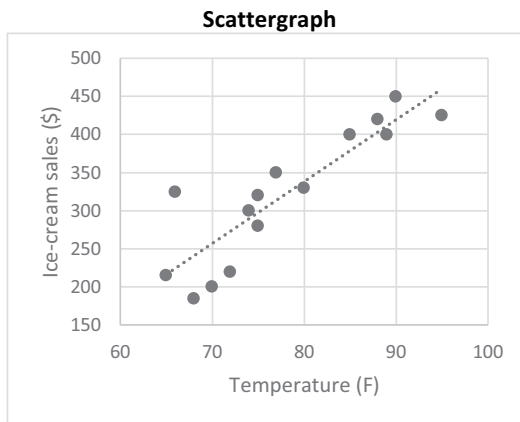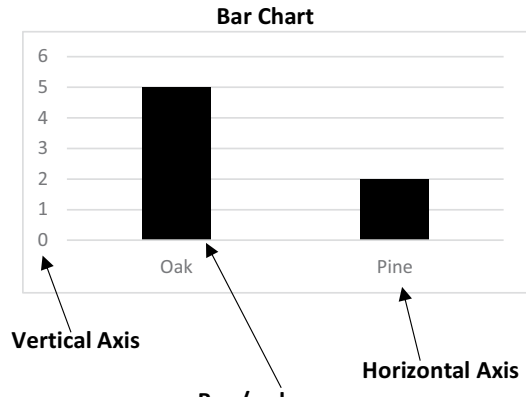
Activity 6.1: What Do You Know? (page 139)

You can download the graphics as a handout from the companion website for students to complete.

Figure TM6.1: Common Types of Graphs (Answers)

Line Graph

Oak = solid line; Pine = dotted line; Walnut = dashed line

Bar Chart

Scattergraph

Vertical axis (ice-cream sales); **Horizontal axis** (temperature); **Line of best fit** (dotted line)

Table

	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3
Age	18.7	20.1	19.3
GPA	3.53	3.02	2.98
Status	Full time	Part time	Online
Math	134.5	145.5	147.2
Retention	87%	67%	76%

Row (Age, GPA, Status, etc.)
Columns (Group 1, Group 2, Group 3)

Pie Chart

Sales

■ 1st Qtr ■ 2nd Qtr ■ 3rd Qtr ■ 4th Qtr
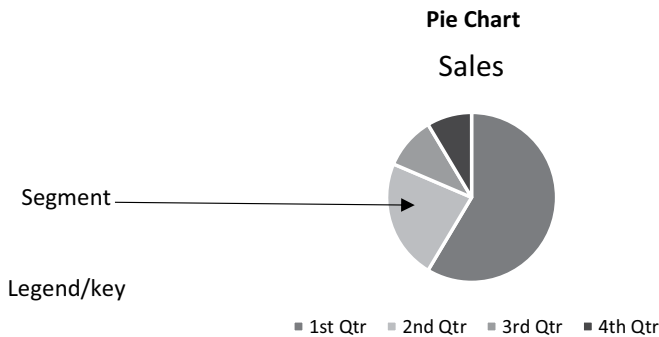
Describing Data (page 140)

We highlight in this section of the textbook the reality that no discussion of data is truly neutral since, like all narratives, it involves selection and ordering of information. Therefore, the actions of describing and interpreting are not completely distinct. Students can see examples of this in action by looking at any news article, social media post, or webpage that cites data and asking what numbers were included and excluded, highlighted or hidden. However, there are still differences between selecting and describing the results (discussed in this section) and interpreting them to draw often hedged conclusions (which follows later in the unit).

Language Box: Writing about Numbers (page 140)

While English learners in particular may need focused instruction on the language of writing about numbers, all students will benefit from learning the conventions of their discipline. This description follows the 7th edition of the *American Psychological Association Publication Manual*. Information about other systems is available in the relevant style guides and online.

Activity 6.2: Practice the Language (page 141)

Answers may vary; sample responses:

2. The Sydney games cost $2.7 billion (90%) more than they budgeted.
3. The budget for the Athens games was about two thirds of the actual final cost.
4. Seven of the summer games between 1992 and 2020 cost at least a billion dollars more than expected.
5. The 2016 Rio games overran the budget by $5 billion. // The 2016 Rio games overran the budget by 50%.
6. The lowest percentage of overrun was achieved by Beijing in 2008.
7. The cost of the London games was (more than/about) three times as much as the Sydney games.
8. The budget for the Rio games was more than five times that of the Atlanta games.
9. The cost of the Tokyo Olympics was more than double the original budget.
10. On average, the Olympic Games cost about 80% (four-fifths / over three-quarters) more than the host country budgets.

Activity 6.3: Analyze the Model (page 142)

The definition of the generations is taken from the same Pew Research report as the data. Answers will vary; sample responses:

1. They selected the data that most clearly supports the trends they had identified. For example, the distinction between early and late boomers in Figure 6.2 is not meaningful, so the groups are discussed together. The writers also do not include the data for men's educational attainment since it shows a less striking change, whereas the increase for women fits other social patterns over the same period.
2. Both paragraphs follow a general-to-specific organization (see Unit 5), with the trend in the first (topic) sentence followed by increasingly detailed data.
3. Students should notice some variety in the way numbers are discussed, both to make the text less repetitive and also to make the numbers more meaningful to a general audience (e.g. *roughly a quarter*).
4. *Only* emphasizes that the proportion is low. A and C would suggest the number is higher than expected. B would make it sound even lower. D is the most neutral expression here.
5. Most verbs are in the present simple tense (*shows, are, have*, etc.), which is the tense used to express factual, unchanging information. Even though the graphs refer to educations that took place in the past, the facts about the percentages remain true in the present. There are some present perfect verbs (*has climbed, have been*), which are used to describe a trend over time. One past simple verb (*were*) and one past perfect (*had obtained*) are needed because the data show levels of education by a particular age in the past. For more explanation about verb tenses and naming conventions, see the Language Box and the Grammar Glossary.

Language Box: Verb Tense Use in Writing about Data (page 145)

In this book, we follow Caplan (2019b) in describing verb tenses using the convention **time** (past or present) plus **aspect** (simple, perfect, progressive, or perfect progressive). For more details on the names, forms, and meanings of the verb tenses in English, see *Keys to Teaching Grammar to English Language Learners, Second Edition* (pp. 186–204) and *Grammar Choices for Graduate and Professional Writers, 2nd Edition* (Unit 4). Future

forms (linguists disagree over the term *future tense*) are more relevant to the discussion of hedging, where *will* indicates strong certainty (see Unit 8).

1. The present simple is the base form of the verb (with *-s* in the third-person singular). It is the most common verb tense in academic writing and is chosen unless there is a reason not to use it. In data commentaries, present simple tense indicates timeless factual information, or at least data that the writer does not expect to change.

2. The past simple (the *-ed* form of regular verbs such as *changed* or *increased*, or an irregular form such as *fell* or *rose*) indicates the information or action was true or completed in the past. Draw English learners' attention to the information about time markers, which is a helpful shortcut to choosing the most appropriate tense.

3. The present perfect (*has/have* plus the past participle, such as *has increased, has fallen* or the passive form *has been reached*) is not very frequent but is especially useful here because it describes trends, developments, and changes over time.

4. The present progressive (*is/are* + the *-ing* form of the verb) is rare in academic writing but could be used in a data commentary to describe the situation *right now*.

Other tenses are possible but occur highly infrequently and are thus best highlighted in context when they are encountered.

Activity 6.4: Practice the Language (page 146)

As noted in the directions, we assume that 2018 indicates the present state as it is the most recent data available.

1. a. own (verbs of possession and state are rarely used in the progressive aspect)
2. b. remained (note that the time markers indicate the period is complete)
3. d. are rising (right now)
4. b. owned
5. c. has more than doubled (since-ongoing)
6. a. is (fact)

WRITING TASK 6.1: Report Data from a Table (page 148)

We will assume that sugar intake in 2016 is roughly similar to today. However, if students explicitly write "in 2016," they will need to choose the past simple tense. This is a good activity to complete collaboratively as a class, in small groups, or as an online synchronous or asynchronous writing task. You may want to give students the first "framing" sentence. If students need more support, you could provide the sample paragraph with some words and phrases omitted (a cloze text) and ask them to complete the blanks.

Answers will vary; sample response:

Overall, Americans are consuming less added sugar. The average daily intake fell by 4.8g (23%) from 2004 to 2016. Although all age groups saw declines, the largest percentage drops were among children aged 2 to 5. The amount of sugar consumed by the youngest children in the survey fell by almost one third. As children grow older, their intake of added sugar increases, reaching a peak of 18.3g per day in the 12-19 age range. Young adults consume less sugar than teenagers (16.2g per day). However, that value has decreased by only one-fifth since 2004, a slower decline than any other age group.

From Description to Interpretation (page 149)

The actions of describing and interpreting data are rhetorically and linguistically distinct, and it is important for students to correctly identify which action a writing task or assignment is calling for. However, students often struggle to understand how to respond to directions that appear transparent to disciplinary experts (interpret! analyze!). Therefore, we have broken down the action by showing what writers actually **do** when they interpret data. We start with an activity that helps students differentiate between description and interpretation so they can think about what it means to interpret data.

Activity 6.5: Reporting or Interpretation? (page 149)

1. Results (*as Table 2 demonstrates, used, compared*)
2. Results (*at a higher frequency*)
3. Results (past tenses, exact numbers; although the use of *only* adds an editorial comment)
4. Results (*were more likely*)

5. Discussion (*may, why*)

6. Discussion (*may, because*)

7. Discussion (there are no explicit linguistic cues, but this is an interpretation not a report of data)

8. Discussion (*my study, how, despite*)

Activity 6.6: Writing Interpretations (page 150)

This is a good activity for an online discussion board because each student could write an interpretation of one statement and comment on their peers' posts with alternative interpretations. In the classroom, it would be a good discussion task since students benefit from hearing alternative interpretations, reminding them that data can often be read in different ways.

Answers will vary; sample responses:

1. *Alternative interpretation*: Innocent people may be less likely to admit guilt in a real situation than a laboratory setting.

2. When people feel sick over the weekend, they might wait until Monday to go to the hospital, which would inflate the number of illnesses reported on Mondays. *Alternative:* Perhaps the start of the work week is the most stressful day of the week.

3. Beef appears to be highly resource intensive and thus damaging to the environment. *Alternative*: In order to move to a more sustainable food supply, we will need to eat more vegetarian meals and less meat.

4. Online reviews seem to be highly influential to potential consumers. *Alternative*: People are more likely to remember reviews that influenced them, so perhaps they also read many reviews that did not influence their decisions and which they promptly forgot.

Data Commentary (page 151)

The explanation of data commentaries in this section draws on Swales and Feak (2012) with adaptations and models suitable for novice and undergraduate writers. A data commentary may be a text by itself, but it's usually part of a longer assignment, and we have found it to be valuable practice in reporting and interpreting data as a pedagogical genre.

Activity 6.7: Analyze Models (page 151)

As you can see from the six questions that follow this text, students are doing a "noticing" exercise. After they distinguish between those sentences that report data and interpret it, they are asked to notice the structure of the text, the function of a sentence (what it DOES), and the verb tenses employed.

Answers will vary; suggested responses:

1. While it's true that the reader could just look at the tables and figures (which is how some expert readers in the sciences approach research papers), a data commentary highlights data, patterns, and trends that the writer feels are most important or noteworthy. Data commentaries usually include interpretation moves, which allow the writer to comment on, explain, and even challenge the data.

Text 1 (from a U.S. Department of Agriculture publication)

[REPORT:] Between 2009 and 2014, the number of grocery stores in the United States grew from 63,619 to 65,975, an increase of 4 percent. The number of convenience stores grew by 4 percent as well, but their numbers rose from 120,581 to 124,879. The greatest percentage jump in the types of stores available to consumers was for supercenters and warehouse club stores. These stores saw an 18-percent increase in their numbers between 2009 and 2014 but still totaled only 5,307 stores in 2014. Specialized food stores saw a 6-percent decline in store numbers over this period. [INTERPRETATION:] Preference for one-stop shopping by some consumers may be playing a role in the increase in supercenters and warehouse club stores and the decline in specialized food stores.

Text 2 (from an undergraduate economics paper, MICUSP)

[REPORT:] Figure 1 shows the changes in the distribution of family size over time. This graph shows a relatively normal distribution of children born across all years, although this distribution is slightly skewed to the left. Furthermore, this graph shows a clear decline in the the number of children born to women in Costa Rica over the three years surveyed. In 1973, approximately 44 percent of women in Costa Rica had at most five births over their lifetime; by 2000 this percentage increased to nearly 78 percent, with 40 percent of those women having only two or three births. [INTERPRETATION:] This shows quite clearly the women's changing preferences of childbearing over time.

3. The writer of Text 1 is not very confident. They use *may be playing* (a modal verb plus the present progressive tense), which suggests hesitancy and the chance that this preference is new or temporary (*be playing*). The writer of Text 2 is confident, although it's hard to know how to interpret *quite*—is it boosting or hedging *clearly*?

4. Both texts report the data before interpreting it, which is logical because the reader needs to understand the data before they are ready to read the interpretations. Within the reporting section, the information is presented in a general-to-specific pattern.

5. This is called a **location** sentence: it tells the reader where to look for the data. This could also be written in this way: "Changes in the distribution of family size over time are shown in Figure 1" (if the idea of changing family size has already been introduced in a previous paragraph); or, "Figure 1 shows that family sizes have decreased over time" (giving not only the content but the main result of the graph).

6. See the Language Box (p. 141) or Grammar Glossary for descriptions of the tenses. Text 1 is written mostly in the past simple tense because it is describing historical trends. The interpretation sentence uses a modal verb, which is not tensed, but *be playing* is a progressive infinitive, which suggests that this sentence has present time, typical of data analysis. Text 2 is mostly written in the present simple tense because it describes facts from the graph, which is in the present for the reader and writer. Past simple is used for specific references to points on the graph. The present simple is again used for the interpretation.

Language Box: Referring to Tables and Figures (page 153)

We encourage students to write a location statement near the start of their data commentary. These internal references are also useful in other texts (e.g., the Results section of a research paper, see Project). You may want to point out to students that the choice between active and passive voices changes the order of information in the sentence. For example, if students have written a sentence of background information about the topic, then a passive verb may make sense because it will move the topic into the initial posi-

tion in the sentence, which is typically "old" information (see also *Grammar Choices for Graduate and Professional Writers*, *2ⁿᵈ Edition* Unit 8). For example:

> Public health experts have raised concerns about the increase in consumption of sugar. Sugar intake in 2004 and 2016 is shown in Figure 1.

English learners in particular should pay attention to the verbs in the table marked with an asterisk, which cannot be followed by a *that* noun clause (see also the Online Source Use Appendix).

The *as seen in* structure is hard to explain grammatically, although it appears to be a form of reduced passive clause (Swales & Feak, 2012). It is very useful and can simply be memorized.

Activity 6.8: Practice the Language (page 154)

Answers may vary; sample responses:

1. shown
2. illustrates
3. seen
4. demonstrates
5. seen
6. see

Organizing a Data Commentary (page 154)

The moves in the data commentary are adapted from Swales & Feak (2012), with an added **context** move that we have found useful for novice student writing. We have also found that students write better when they state a clear focus for their data commentary, which helps them organize the rest of the text. The texts in Activity 6.7 (page 151) contain most but not all of these moves, as shown on the next page.

Text 1

[HIGHLIGHTS:] Between 2009 and 2014, the number of grocery stores in the United States grew from 63,619 to 65,975, an increase of 4 percent. The number of convenience stores grew by 4 percent as well, but their numbers rose from 120,581 to 124,879. The greatest percentage jump in the types of stores available to consumers was for supercenters and warehouse club stores. These stores saw an 18-percent increase in their numbers between 2009 and 2014 but still totaled only 5,307 stores in 2014. Specialized food stores saw a 6-percent decline in store numbers over this period. [INTERPRETATIONS:] Preference for one-stop shopping by some consumers may be playing a role in the increase in supercenters and warehouse club stores and the decline in specialized food stores.

Text 2

[SOURCE:] Figure 1 shows the changes in the distribution of family size over time. [FOCUS:] This graph shows a relatively normal distribution of children born across all years, although this distribution is slightly skewed to the left. Furthermore, this graph shows a clear decline in the number of children born to women in Costa Rica over the three years surveyed. [HIGHLIGHTS:] In 1973, approximately 44 percent of women in Costa Rica had at most five births over their lifetime; by 2000 this percentage increased to nearly 78 percent, with 40 percent of those women having only two or three births. [INTERPRETATION:] This shows quite clearly the women's changing preferences of childbearing over time.

WRITING TASK 6.2: Scrambled Text (page 155)

Responses may vary, but this is the order of sentences in the original article: a, c, f, d, b, g, h, e

1. Context (a), Source (c), Focus (f), Highlights (d, b), Interpretations (g, h, e)

2. This is organized categorically: first Germany as an example of a developed country and then Mexico as an example of a developing country. Each country's development is discussed chronologically.

3. The last sentence shows a positive orientation towards cell phones by presenting phones as having "advantages" and the deficit for social groups with "lack" them.

Language Box: Hedging Interpretations (page 156)

This box presents several ways of hedging interpretations, and since students will likely be drawing tentative conclusions from data, it is important to practice and use these linguistic choices.

English learners in particular should be aware that **modal verbs** (e.g., *may, might, can, could*) are always followed by the base form, or **bare infinitive** (i.e., *this may affect* not *this may affects*).

Boosting is briefly mentioned in terms of adverbs and is explored in more depth in Unit 7. For more information see *Grammar Choices for Graduate and Professional Writers, 2nd Edition* (Unit 6).

Activity 6.10: Practice the Language (page 158)

This activity works well in an online environment where students have access to dictionaries. Answers may vary since the differences between some of the words is minimal or highly nuanced; suggested responses:

1. steadily, quickly, rapidly, dramatically, drastically
2. slowly, slightly, somewhat, gradually, substantially, sharply
3. few, some, many, a lot, most, almost all, all
4. hint, tend, suggest, show, indicate, mean, prove
5. might, may, could, can, will, must

Activity 6.11: Hedging Claims (page 158)

This activity lends itself to collaborative writing in person or online. Answers will vary; suggested responses:

1. Many people consume too much sugar.
2. Too much fast food can cause some diseases.
3. Generally, children tend to be more active than the average adult.
4. Some restaurants may not offer enough appealing vegetarian options.
5. Healthy food is somewhat more expensive than most unhealthy food.

Pedagogical Genre: Data Commentary (page 150)

In this task, students choose a graph, table, or other data representation and write a commentary involving reporting and interpreting. Suggestions for good sources of graphs are in the textbook. Alternatively, you might assign a particular graph or chart that is related to the topic of the course. Since data commentaries are often fairly short, self-contained texts, this task can also be assigned in timed, test conditions in courses where this type of writing is required.

In addition to the models presented earlier in the unit, we have included one more here (without the original graph). This example shows how a data commentary can be extended into a multi-paragraph paper.

1. The moves are marked in square brackets.

₁[CONTEXT:] While the internet is very widely used among Americans, the Pew Research Center found that 10% of US adults are still not online. [SOURCE:] Figure 1 shows the demographic profile of US adults who do not use the internet. [FOCUS:] As can be seen from the chart, age, education, and socio-economic status are major factors in internet access. [HIGHLIGHTS:] Adults aged 18 to 29 are all internet users, according to Pew's survey, whereas more than a quarter of adults over 65 live without the internet. Education is another notable point. Almost one in three Americans without a high-school education do not use the internet at all. [INTERPRETATIONS:] This may be explained by other demographic categories: the proportion of non-internet users is also higher in rural areas (15%) and low-income communities (18%), where educational attainment tends to be lower. In summary, offline Americans are not distributed equally across the society.

₂[INTERPRETATIONS, *continued*:]Social factors may contribute to the difference between generations in their use of the internet. Millennials probably feel very strong peer pressure to go online. If the survey is representative and 100% of young people use the internet, it may be very isolating to remain offline. However, since almost 30% of Baby Boomers are not online, the internet is clearly less important for making social connections among this older generation. They are probably also less concerned than younger users with the number of reactions they receive to social media posts, which is likely to be another factor that makes the internet almost universal among Americans under the age of 30.

2. The pattern is categorical: age, education, and socio-economic status.

3. Hedging: *may, probably, if, likely, almost*

   Boosting: *very, clearly.*

4. Answers may vary, although (c) is clearly irrelevant.

Genre in Action: Policy Brief (page 161)

The introduction to the assignment summarizes several disciplinary and professional contexts where a policy brief might be required. Typically, policy briefs involve reporting and interpreting data with a particular goal in mind. As always, the Rhetorical Planning Wheel will help students explore the context for their policy brief.

A.

    1a. This is the motivation for the policy brief. It explains the gap in existing policy and introduces the area of research summarized in this document.

    b. Summarizes the research and identifies areas for further research.

    c. Recommendations for parents, teacher trainers, and schools

    d. Recommendation for policy makers: national government, curriculum designers, and groups with an interest in advising or regulating educational technology.

    2. The data provide a compelling case for the urgency of the brief. Children are playing video games, which parents believe are useful, but the research base and policy guidance are lacking.

    3. The brief is much easier to read without all the citations, which can be distracting. Readers interested in tracing the sources of the data can refer to the organization's website. The writers assume that their readers are more interested in knowing the "headline" results than where and how they were produced.

    4. Past simple to report previous research results; present simple to show what is and not known today; and present perfect to show that research has been conducted over a period of time.

5. *Parents / Under-resourced schools / training for teachers; federal agencies / research-based guidance / some US states / 22 states / research …*
    In most sentences, the group implicated in the policy is directly named as the subject, making it clear who the implications are aimed at, that is, the audience.

6. There are a lot of modal verbs, but they indicate necessity rather than uncertainty: *should, could*. Other verbs continue this theme of urgency, especially *need*.

7. Students can search online for "policy brief" plus a topic they are interested in or explore other briefs on the SRCD website. Variations will be found, but this structure appears to be quite stable. Some websites are listed here.

    ▪ https://www.srcd.org/research/journals/social-policy-report/social-policy-report-briefs
    ▪ https://nepc.colorado.edu/publications/policy-briefs
    ▪ https://www.iwra.org/policybriefs/
    ▪ https://www.healthaffairs.org/briefs

8. You can download a handout for students to complete the RPW chart from the companion website. Answers will vary depending on the topic of the brief. Students should think carefully about their role as a writer (are they playing the role of experts? researchers? students?) and their intended audience (which policy makers might read the brief?).

Unit 7: Argue

Commentary

Argument is often presented in textbooks as the central, or even the only, action in academic writing. In fact, as seen throughout the previous units, there are many other equally important rhetorical actions. However, students do need to learn how to argue, which we define here not as expressing a personal opinion but as **making a claim** and **supporting it with appropriate evidence**. This unit also emphasizes a key aspect of argumentation in academia: that it varies among disciplines. In other words, an effective argument in history is not the same as an effective argument in biology. Therefore, we do not pretend that there is a universal form of argumentation, and we encourage students to investigate their future, intended, or potential majors to better understand the ways in which they will be expected to argue.

The structure of this unit is as follows:

- ❏ disciplinary variation in argumentation
- ❏ making, hedging, and boosting claims
- ❏ supporting claims with
    - ▪ examples
    - ▪ hypothetical examples
    - ▪ counterarguments and discussion of contradictory findings

The unit ends with two assignments—a pedagogical "argument essay" (a thesis-driven essay task) and an opinion-editorial (op-ed) news column as the genre in action.

Goals

- ❏ Write arguments appropriate to different academic disciplines with claims and support
- ❏ Write claims with different degrees of confidence and authority
- ❏ Choose effective and appropriate supporting evidence, including citations, examples, and counter arguments
- ❏ Pedagogical Genre: Write an argument essay
- ❏ Genre in Action: Write an opinion editorial (op-ed)

Activity 7.1: What Do You Know? (page 169)

Answers may vary; sample responses:

1. We disagree. This is a myth perpetuated by the five-paragraph essay (Caplan & Johns, 2019). Arguments can have as many supporting points as they need.

2. We agree that sometimes this is the case, but it depends on how the components of the Rhetorical Planning Wheel are realized. For example, what is the writer's role, authority, and experience? What does the reader (e.g., the instructor) require or expect? What are the conventions of the genre and the discipline?

3. We disagree, although it often does in pedagogical tasks written for a class assignment. In professional and journalistic writing, the thesis may be delayed or used as the conclusion of an argument.

4. We agree. In general, recognizing and discussing counterarguments, limitations, and contradictory information opens up the argumentative space, anticipates readers' potential objections, and leads to a stronger and more balanced argument.

5. We disagree. This would probably be a discussion. In arguments, the writer needs to take a position, although that may be a nuanced position rather than an absolute *yes* or *no.*

Argument in Academic Writing (page 170)

Students unfamiliar with academia may benefit from a brief discussion of academic disciplines and where their intended major or field of study fits. We have provided examples from biology and history because these fields clearly demonstrate how writers from different disciplines make arguments that vary in a number of ways, such as what is acceptable as evidence or how reasoning is developed in a text. If your students are concurrently enrolled in disciplinary courses in their major, they might interview their instructors and ask them the questions at the end of this overview. Undergraduate students who are enrolled in a wide range of "general education" courses across the curriculum may find they need to argue in different ways in their various classes.

Activity 7.2: Analyze Models (page 171)

These texts are especially useful because they discuss related topics in discipline-specific ways. Both texts have claims and support, the framework we are using as the minimal definition of an argument, but the writers support their claims using argumentation techniques that reflect disciplinary values.

1. In Text 1, the writer argues that how much people sleep affects their health. The claim in Text 2 is not really that sleep deprivation affects performance, but that governments used psychostimulant drugs to keep soldiers active and ready to fight.

2. In Text 1, the claim is at the beginning of the paragraph. In Text 2, the claim is at the end. Note that we stated in the textbook that the thesis or major claim is often stated at the start of a paper in the humanities but at the end of a paper in the sciences, although there is variation between sub-fields, too. This is not the same as paragraph organization: as will be seen throughout this unit, writers sometimes start a paragraph with the claim (topic sentence) and sometimes end with it. The choice depends on the structure of the argument in the paragraph.

3. Claim: *Both sleep quality and duration have been shown to have a direct impact on health.*
   Evidence: The next 3 sentences (*Many studies …. has been linked … a study ….)*

4. Scientific reasoning: *These food cravings were explained through ….*

   Sourcing: *According to Derickson* indicates the source of the supporting information.

   Contextualization: the Italian campaign in World War II

   Corroboration: Footnote 4 corroborates Derickson's information with additional sources.

   Close reading: The writer combines historical information about American soldiers with the biological effects of sleep deprivation to support the claim that governments used drugs in response as a solution for fatigue.

5. In the biology text, all the citations are non-integral: that is, the authors' names are not mentioned in the sentence. In the history text, there are both integral and non-integral citations. "According to Dickinson" is an

integral citation, and the footnote at the end of the paragraph is a non-integral citation. The footnote itself is a convention of writing in history and includes additional sources listed as extra reading, which is not conventional in biology. In general, we can say that both texts use sources as support for their claims, but the biology text foregrounds the results of the studies, while the authors of the sources are more prominent in the history text. See the Online Source Use Appendix for more discussion of integral and non-integral citations.

Claims and Evidence (page 173)

We feel it is safe to say that all argumentation requires claims and evidence, although the nature of those claims and the types of evidence will depend on the discipline and context. This section also introduces the **thesis,** the major claim of an argument in some disciplines. Thesis statements are introduced here since they are most relevant in the context of writing that argues, particularly in the humanities. However, students need to understand that argumentative writing goes far beyond a "thesis statement." What really matters are the ways claims are made and how they are supported.

We have tried to avoid the term "main idea" as far as possible in this unit since it can be vague and confusing to novice writers. Instead, we propose that arguments have a major claim (sometimes called a thesis) and then subsequent paragraphs make smaller sub-claims, each of which is supported by various types of evidence, depending on the discipline and context. Together, the sub-claims build the case for the thesis.

Activity 7.3: Analyze Models (page 173)

Both essays in this activity were produced for a first-year writing class and then selected for publication in a university anthology of undergraduate student writing. The first example is the introduction of a conventional "argument essay," the pedagogical genre assigned at the end of this unit.

1. The thesis is the last sentence: *Society's obsession with newer, faster, and better devices is creating an ecological nightmare overseas that can only be mitigated by a massive change in cultural mindset.*

2. There is a lot of evaluative language here: *horribly wrong, tragically, sharp rise* as well as poetic language choices, some of which may need explaining

to English learners: *ripped from, smolder, spew, nightmare*. The causes are stated without hedging, which makes the text argumentative since readers may not yet be inclined to agree: *are the result of, is attributable to, promotes, is creating.* Readers may find the argument stated too strongly, which may be an indication of a writer who is still learning how to argue effectively in academic settings.

3. This is the conventional "hook": an anecdote designed to attract the reader's attention. It is effective here because of the rich contrast between the modern electronics store and the misery of the Chinese village.

The second paragraph is taken from the middle of an argument essay written by a different student:

4. The claim is at the end of the paragraph: *It does not make sense for strong polymerizing chemicals historically used in dentistry to be used in nail products.*

5. The argumentative language comes near the end: the contrast between *self-pampering and relaxation* and between *mutilation or painful allergic reactions.* The claim is also stated without hedging: *it does not make sense.*

6. The evidence mostly comes from citations to research studies. One appears to be a case study, and the other has more general information about these chemicals. The writer supplements these sources with their own observations about nail salons.

Language Box: Controlling the Strength of Claims (page 175)

This is one of several Language Boxes that deal with **hedging** and **boosting** (see also Unit 6). It presents grammatical options for supporting claims with greater or lesser degrees of certainty without stating *I believe* or *in my opinion*. That is, these techniques produce texts where the author is not explicitly present but is still clearly trying to align or distance themselves and the reader from particular claims and evidence. We include attribution (*according to …*) as a form of hedging since it pushes responsibility for the claim onto the source and away from the writer.

English learners' attention should be drawn in particular to the impersonal constructions *it is important to …* and *it appears that …*, where an "empty" subject (*it*) holds the place for the actual topic of the sentence (e.g., *it is important <u>to regulate the nail industry</u>*). The grammar of modal verbs is discussed in Unit 6.

Activity 7.4: Practice the Language (page 176)

1. b / a/ c (*according to, fundamentally, it seems that, changed, had an effect on*)
2. b / c / a (*is, can, may;* the citation also strengthens the claim in the last sentence)
3. a / b / c (*should, some … have suggested, one possible solution would be*)

Activity 7.5: Text Revision (page 177)

Answers will vary; suggested responses:

1. According to some critics, the system of recycling in California is broken and in need of reform.
2. It seems that the state government may be more concerned about raising money from taxes than reducing pollution and boosting sustainability.
3. Economics may contribute to one of the important aspects of environmental harm.
4. One possible solution that would create more demand for recycled plastic might be to subsidize the private sale of recycled plastic and other materials to American industrial companies.
5. It is probably not a good idea to extend this subsidy to any foreign organizations as this might subsidize some foreign industries.
6. According to the author, this solution could ensure that material is actually recycled.
7. It may be important to recycle.
8. There may something that could be done to improve the current situation.

Supporting Claims (page 178)

Although arguments must always take into account their specific rhetorical context, there are generalizable strategies writers may choose from, some of which have been discussed in other units. This is because arguments draw on other actions as support, especially certain types of explanation:

1. Examples (this unit)
2. Hypothetical examples (this unit)

3. Citation (see the Online Source Use Appendix)
4. Counter arguments (this unit)
5. Cause and effect (Unit 3)
6. Statistics and trends (Unit 6)

WRITING TASK 7.1: Supporting a Claim (page 179)

This activity asks students to use the SIFT technique to find and evaluate online sources, as described in the Online Source Use Appendix, which should be reviewed before attempting this task. This is also a good group activity and lends itself well to online discussion boards, where students can share and discuss the evidence they find for or against the claims.

Choosing Examples (page 179)

Students might pause here and look at some of the readings for this or another course, identify the use of examples, and discuss their functions, perhaps extending the list in the book. Note that hypothetical examples are briefly introduced here, but more practice follows later in the unit.

Language Box: Introducing Examples (page 180)

This box has two purposes: (1) to remind students to indicate to the reader the transition between a claim and an example and (2) to give them choices beyond writing *for example* every time. Note that some of the options given also boost (*a prime example, the clearest example*) or hedge (*can be illustrated, claim, suggest*).

Reporting verbs (*illustrate, show, reveal*, etc.) are also discussed in the Online Source Use Appendix.

English learners often struggle with *such as*. Since it is a preposition, it cannot be used as a sentence connector.

Activity 7.7: Practice the Language (page 181)

Paragraph completion:

1. According to
2. provide
3. The best-known example
4. For instance
5. suggest
6. experts

Discussion questions:

1. The main claim is stated at the end (*biotechnology can help feed the world's growing population with fewer resources*).
2. This sentence uses a statistic as a framing sentence to address the urgency of the situation.
3. The text is mostly organized using a sequence of results or effects, with examples added to support the claim. Since the paragraph starts with statistics and works towards solutions and a broad claim about biotechnology, it could also be described as having specific-general organization.

WRITING TASK 7.2: Claims and Examples (page 182)

Before writing up their research, students should think about the structure of their paragraphs: Are they going to state the claim first and then present the supporting evidence? Or, are they going to contextualize the topic, build the support, and then state the claim? How strongly will they present the claim (see Introducing Examples Language Box, p. 180)? How will they cite the sources they provide to support their claim?

Language Box: Hypothetical Examples (page 182)

Students are sometimes unaware that they can used imagined—but not invented—examples in their writing. This Language Box is designed to prevent a rhetorical move we have seen when students may write *someone starts a successful business* if they don't have an actual example in mind, or worse, when they make up examples, a potential violation

of academic honesty (*my friend/cousin/roommate once …*). Drawing conclusions from a set of conditions is a logical form of argumentation that is valid in some fields.

Grammatically, this Language Box presents the **conditional** mood. Unlike some languages, English does not have conditional tenses. Instead, we use combinations of tenses with *if* to express conditions. A more detailed description than the chart in the textbook is provided.

Function	If (condition) clause	Main (Result) Clause	Meaning
Factual	present simple (*increases, changes, happens*)*	present simple	A factual cause/effect relationship: if A happens, B always happens.
Predictive	present simple	*will* + verb (will fail, will occur)	A strong prediction: A does not always happen, but if it does, B will certainly follow; the strength can be hedged with *may/might/could.*
Hypothetical	past simple (*stopped, decreased, went*)	*would* + verb (would succeed, would be better)	The situation is not real (it hasn't happened yet), but the writer is confident about the outcome; the strength can be hedged with *might/could.*
Counterfactual	past perfect (*had not won, had decided*)	*would have* + past participle (would have lost, would have been safer)**	The situation in the condition never happened but if it *had*, the writer believes the result *would have happened*; the strength can be hedged with *might/could*

* *When* can be used for factual conditionals.
** The result clause of a counterfactual is sometimes written as *would* + verb (*would be cleaner, would succeed*) to emphasize that the effect would be felt in the present.

The main and conditional clauses can be written in either order; if the sentence starts with a conditional clause, use a comma before the main clause.

For more information about conditionals, see *Keys to Teaching Grammar to English Language Learners, Second Edition* (pp. 307–319) and *Grammar Choices for Graduate and Professional Writers, 2ⁿᵈ Edition* (pp. 145–149).

Activity 7.8: Practice the Language (page 183)

Answers will vary; sample responses:

1. In addition, if they never left home, many students might not meet new people and challenging viewpoints.
2. If the student or a member of their family falls ill, instructors could give them some extra time.
3. If computer models replaced animals, drugs and cosmetics would be both safer and more humane.
4. If technology companies designed products to last longer, there could be less e-waste.
5. If electric vehicles had become the standard type of engine, oil supplies would not have been depleted and the air would be cleaner.

Counterarguments and Contradictory Findings (page 184)

In this section, we note that while **counterarguments** are a staple of argumentation in the humanities, where they show awareness of and the ability to refute opposing opinions, research writers in the sciences (and, indeed, social sciences) are expected to discuss limitations and contradictory findings. This last point is of greatest relevance to students with majors in these fields or when writing a research paper such as in Project 3, The Research Paper.

Activity 7.9: Analyze Models (page 184)

1. He supports university rankings.
2. The counterargument is the criticism that colleges try to spend money strategically in order improve their rankings even if it does not improve the quality of education.
3. Counterargument: *It is true, as some critics assert ...*

   Rebuttal: *That criticism, however, does not mean ... It may mean ...*
4. Near the end: presumably the writer has already made the case for rankings in general and now considers what *sometimes* happens. The recommendation at the end sounds like part of a conclusion.

5. Genova et al. found that concussed athletes score better on memory tests than those who had never experienced a concussion. Most research has found that concussions negatively affect memory and other cognitive processes.

6. Sentences 2 (single concussion) and 6 (the subject group).

7. This paragraph highlights the unique and unusual contribution of their study to the research literature.

8. Not very confident: *may have negated* is a high degree of hedging.

9. The citations are used to support the authors' alternative explanation by suggesting that the explanation has some research backing.

Language Box: Countering Language (page 186)

The language of concession and countering is quite sophisticated because it requires two opposing rhetorical moves: first conceding a point while actually distancing the reader from it (otherwise the reader might be more persuaded by the counterargument than the thesis) and then attempting to align the reader with the rebuttal. This concede-counter pattern has been found to be effective in many different types of argument, although like every technique in this unit, it should not be viewed as universal advice for every assignment that requires students to argue.

Activity 7.10 (page 187)

This activity may be replaced by working on a recent draft of a paper students are writing. It lends itself well to group work in the classroom or online. For example, students could post their argument on a discussion board; peers can propose counterarguments; then, the original writer can develop a rebuttal.

Answers will vary; possible responses:

1. *Rebuttal*: Modern computer software is able to replicate the benefits of animal testing without harming animals.

2. *Counterargument*: People with disabilities could carry their own straws to restaurants.

   Rebuttal: It is wrong for a society to add further burdens on people with disabilities.

3. *Counterargument*: Young children may be confused and end up not fully developing their strongest longest.

   Rebuttal: Worldwide, there are more multilingual than monolingual people. Therefore, it is clear that children are not confused by learning two languages.

4. *Counterargument:* Countries such as the U.S. offer visa waivers for visitors from a wide range of countries.

   Rebuttal: Those waivers are quickly dropped when a country shows signs of hostility, and visas can be used as a bargaining tool.

5. *Counterargument*: The funding for many university faculty and departments comes from research grants.

   Rebuttal: Those grants often include the requirement to offer practical experience and instruction to undergradute and graduate students.

Pedagogical Genre: Argument Essay (page 188)

The term *essay* is often applied to any student paper, but as we have shown throughout the book, it is usually more helpful for students to think about what they need to do in a given assignment. Otherwise, they may end up attempting to write argumentative essays for tasks that actually call on them to explain, synthesize, respond, and so on (Caplan & Johns, 2019). However, some assignments legitimately call for argumentative essays, which we define here using Wingate's (2012) key features: a thesis (which we also call the major claim), a connected series of sub-claims, and supporting evidence. We advocate against treating all assignments of this type as generic "five-paragraph essays." A good argumentative essay might have five, or four, or many more paragraphs. What matters is not the number of paragraphs, claims, or pieces of evidence, but rather the ways they are integrated in response to the topic and the rhetorical context of the assignment.

The example essay was written by an undergraduate student in a first-year writing class that forms part of a "pathways" program for international students in the United States. It has been edited slightly for clarity. In this class, students had discussed arguments for and against collaborative learning techniques in universities, and they were asked to take a position in an essay. Before your students read each part of the essay, you might preview the questions that follow the paragraph.

A. Answers may vary; suggested responses:

1. This is an introductory paragraph, whose purpose is to define the key term (*collaborative learning*) and set up the argument by showing that the use of collaborative learning is controversial but that the writer believes it is a valuable educational tool.

2. The last sentence of this paragraph is, predictably, the thesis.

3. The sub-claim is in the last sentence of the paragraph: *Collaborative learning therefore improves…*

4. The thesis is that collaborative learning improves "students' learning," and this paragraph shows one way in which that happens, though peer feedback.

5. In the first sentence, the criticism of group work is supported by a source which found that students complain about this problem. The Ku et al. source provides survey evidence that students like collaborative learning, and the writer chooses a strong quotation from this article (the *greater good*).

6. This is a counterargument, which the writer then rebuts.

7. The sub-claim is in the first sentence: *Collaborative learning develops teamwork.*

8. The writer supports this with a quotation from an authority, two hypothetical examples, and two additional citations, including an example from a research study.

9. The first sentence reiterates the claim from Paragraph 2 and then highlights another way in which students learn from collaborative experiences (the thesis).

10. The writer saved his strongest reason (sub-claim) for the end, perhaps in the hope that readers would be convinced by higher grades if nothing else.

11. This is a short concluding paragraph that not only briefly restates the thesis, but also goes further and makes suggestions for designing effective group work that will respond to the criticisms suggested in the essay.

12. Yes: two of the sources are taken from centers of teaching and learning at reputable US universities; most of the others are peer-reviewed journals, and the last one comes from the website of a relevant professional organization.

The rest of this assignment offers a process for developing students' own argument essays. Although the model provided does indeed have five paragraphs, we encourage students not to follow it formulaically. Sometimes, it is advisable to start with the strongest sub-claim and end with a counter argument and rebuttal. Other essays do not need a counterargument. Many arguments have more or fewer sub-claims, and each one may need more than one paragraph to be fully developed. The purpose of the task is to practice researching and supporting claims. If the reader is not persuaded by the argument, then it needs revision! We encourage teachers to consider the Genre in Action task, the op-ed, as an alternative or extension of the argument essay to give students practice in making both public and academic arguments so they continue to develop rhetorical flexibility in their writing.

Genre in Action: Opinion Editorial (Op-Ed) (page 193)

Op-ed columns are an excellent way to give students practice in making arguments clearly, succinctly, and effectively for a real audience of their peers. They are also easy to model since most campus, local, and national news sites carry op-ed columns, and students can easily find examples of topics of current interest.

A. Most college and university students will be familiar with the two most common standardized tests taken by high school leavers, the SAT and ACT tests. Many U.S. universities have begun to make these tests optional—that is, applicants can decide whether or not to submit test scores, and universities will still consider them based on the rest of their application. Since this op-ed was published online, it used hyperlinks for citations, which have been replaced by endnotes in the textbook.

The RPW Analysis handout can be downloaded from the companion website.

B. Answers may vary; suggested responses:

1. Purpose: Op-eds may attempt to change readers' minds about an issue or call them to action.
2. Writer's role: Student with a strong opinion about a recent policy decision or event

3. Audience: Mostly other students, but faculty and administrators also often read campus newspapers, and editorials may be directed at them or even at other public figures, leaders, and educational institutions.

4. Context: The context for the DU op-ed is the university's decision to make tests optional for admission; generally op-eds respond to something that the writer sees as urgent happening on the campus or in the community.

5. Structure: The headline states the argument in a single sentence. In the body of the editorial, writers give the context for the column (what is happening) and state their position; support their claims with evidence; and end with a strong argument, warning, or call to action.

6. Language: The register is appropriate for a newspaper: limited technical language but a lot of strong, colorful language. Past simple tense or present perfect tense is often used to frame the op-ed by providing context. Contractions are usually acceptable as are first-person pronouns, since op-eds are expected to represent the writer's personal opinions. Claims and arguments are boosted using adverbs, modal verbs, and other evaluative language choices to align the reader with the writer's opinion.

7. Evidence, data, sources: Op-eds often cite recent articles in the same newspaper either in parentheses or hyperlinks. Other authoritative sources may be cited as evidence. The writer may also use examples from their own life as support.

8. Conventions: Headlines need to be catchy and may use elision (e.g., dropping articles or conjunctions). The author and date (the *by-line*) are printed under the headline. Paragraphs are usually fairly short. In a campus newspaper, common abbreviations may be used, such as for the name of the university or colleges within the university.

C. 1. Yes, the DU op-ed column is well written—it makes one clear point about test-optional admission. It is concise and offers effective support and examples, including the writer's own experiences. However, it could be improved by considering counterarguments (e.g., that standardized tests level the playing field for some groups of students) and by making the call to action more specific.

Unit 8: Respond

Commentary

Responding to and reflecting on texts, artefacts, and experiences are important actions in academic writing. Responding is distinct from conventional approaches to argumentation because it involves giving personal opinions and reactions rather than making claims and supporting them with evidence. It is also important for students to differentiate response from actions such as summary and explanation, which call for a more objective approach in which the author is not directly present. However, a summary-and-response paper is a useful pedagogical genre, which shows students how to negotiate assignments that require multiple actions (the response example in this unit continues the summary in Unit 4, Activity 4.4).

Response writing is a key component of discussion board posts in online classes, where students may be asked to respond to ideas, readings, lectures, and each other. Therefore, this chapter can easily be adapted for online environments, where it will provide authentic practice in skills that are increasingly valuable.

This chapter uses a convenient framework for categorizing responses: text-to-self (how does the text relate to me and my experiences?); text-to-text (what else have I read or seen that connects to the ideas in this text?); and text-to-world (what examples from popular culture, current events, history, or other people support or challenge the ideas in the text?). The term "text" here is used broadly to include not only traditional print texts but also video, film, images, online content, and other artefacts that form a coherent whole (e.g., a TED talk, a meme on social media, an internet ad, a TV commercial, a movie, a TV show, a sculpture, a painting, a poem, etc.).

This unit presents three common types of response writing:

- ❏ summary and response
- ❏ critique and evaluation
- ❏ reflection

The pedagogical genre is an online discussion board response, and the genre in action is a letter to the editor, a distinct type of response from the op-ed column in Unit 7, and one that could also be submitted online as an email to the editor of a magazine or news source.

You might decide to teach all sections of this unit or just one or two of the response types and then skip to one of the assignments at the end of the unit. An alternative approach is to add the summary/response section, including Writing Task 8.1, to Unit 4 (Summarize), and then ask students to write a summary/response to an article they have read for your class or one they choose based on the theme of the course or an area of academic interest.

Goals

- ❏ Differentiate response from summary
- ❏ Write responses using three strategies (text-to-self, text-to-text, and text-to-world)
- ❏ Signal responses and concessions with appropriate language choices
- ❏ Write critiques, evaluations, reviews, and responses
- ❏ Use evaluative language effectively
- ❏ Write reflections on experiences and texts
- ❏ Pedagogical Genre: Discussion board post
- ❏ Genre in Action: Letter to the editor

Activity 8.1: What Do You Know? (page 199)

This is a group discussion activity, but it could also be completed synchronously or asynchronously in an online learning environment. Students might use a table to organize their notes. Answers may vary; suggested responses:

Tasks	Similarities	Differences
1. Reviewing a book / summarizing a book	Summarize the key ideas of the book; assume that your reader has not read the original book	A review might not include all the main ideas (spoilers!) and would give the writer's opinion about the book
2. Critiquing an article / criticizing an article	May summarize the article briefly; make references to specific points in the article; both may contain negative evaluations of the article	A critique may both support and criticize an article
3. Arguing for a position / Responding to someone else's position	Both actions put forward the writer's opinion and should be supported with appropriate evidence	In a response, the writer needs to engage directly with the claims and evidence in someone else's argument
4. Writing a formal response paper / responding to a classmate on a course discussion board	Discuss specific aspects of the original paper/post; show agreement and/or disagreement; support opinions with appropriate evidence	A discussion board is interactive: participants can ask and answer each other questions; a discussion board post usually only responds to one idea in each reply; a formal paper might consider many different aspects
5. Responding to a reading / reflecting on a field trip	Both may involving giving opinions on the experience of reading/going on a field trip; writers should comment on specific aspects of the reading/ trip	Depending on the assignment, these might call for different types of response (e.g., text-to-text for a reading but text-to-self for a field trip)

Summary and Response (page 199)

Activity 8.2: Analyze a Model (page 200)

The original article is available in open-access format online and comes from a section of the journal dedicated to responses to previous articles. Answers will vary; suggested responses:

1. This sentence transitions to the action of response; the use of concede-counter language (*although … recognizes*…; see Language Box in Unit Chapter 7, p. 186) suggests that the writer is now aligning the reader with a particular position, the significance of changing modes of communication.

2. Sentence 1 is a hedged agreement. Sentence 2 is a direct quotation without any comment from the writer, which indicates agreement.

3. Sentence 1 sets up the gap, but Sentences 4 and 5 show clearly that the writer feels that Cullington's position is already outdated because Cullington did not anticipate the changes in the popularity of texting or how "texting itself" has changed.

4. We expect a critical response showing that new technological developments have impacted writing in ways that Cullington could not have predicted.

5. The argument seems to be that teachers were, at one point, right to be afraid that texting would change the way students write.

6. In the last sentence, the writer acknowledges that the fear was rational, but adds her own response in the main clause: "that fear is now largely outdated."

7. Readers might want more support for claims such as *there was no judgment of spelling and grammatical errors*. It is also not clear that the *fear* of texting has entirely passed. The examples are interesting, but readers might look for more convincing support, such as citations from research, in the rest of the response.

Strategies for Response Writing (page 201)

Students can quickly practice these types of response through a class discussion or an online discussion board. For example, you could provide them a short article, radio report, or TV news clip about a current event and ask students to discuss possible text-

to-self, text-to-text, and text-to-world responses. This can even be an ongoing "critical thinking journal" assignment (thanks to Amy Thompson at West Virginia University for this suggestion).

Language Box: Signaling Responses (page 203)

In Unit 4, we noted that summaries can begin to align or distance the reader from the source text (compare *the author claims* to *the author shows*), or summaries can be largely neutral. However, in a summary/response task, students are usually advised to keep the summary objective and then signal to the reader when the text is moving into the response phase. For more information, see *Grammar Choices for Graduate and Professional Writers, 2nd Edition* (pp. 14–16, 62–65, and 153–156).

English learners in particular should note the warning at the end to avoid *as I/we/you know*.

Activity 8.3: Practice the Language (page 204)

1. Original idea: *Much of the discussion is framed around fighting "addiction" to technology.*
   Signaling language: *But to me,*

   Response: *that resembles a moral panic, giving voice to scary claims based on weak data.*

2. Original idea: *Some people have claimed that technology use activates the same pleasure centers of the brain as cocaine, heroin or methamphetamine.*

   Signaling language: *That's vaguely true, but*
   Response: *brain responses to pleasurable experiences are not reserved only for unhealthy things.*

3. Original idea: *Comparisons between technology addictions and substance abuse are also often based on brain imaging studies*
   Signaling language: *proven unreliable … claim*
   Response: *these studies do not prove the connection.*

4. Original idea: *In June 2018, the World Health Organization added "gaming disorder" to its International Compendium of Diseases.*
   Signaling language: *But … controversial*
   Response: *it's a very controversial decision.*

5. Original idea: *Screen use is linked to teen depression and suicide.*
   Signaling language: *claimed … However … revealed*
   Response: *The link is too small to be meaningful.*

Activity 8.4: Analyze the Language (page 204)

Note that the phrases indicating a "weaker" position are hedged but by no means weak responses. Students might choose stronger statements in writing where strong responses are expected, such as essays on standardized tests or letters to the editor. They could also use them in projects where they have done enough reading or original research to support their positions. Weaker responses might be more appropriate on discussion boards and in discussions with peers, whereas stronger responses might be seen as unnecessarily critical. They should definitely hedge positions when the evidence is contradictory, when writing about topics that are new to them, or after conducting only preliminary research on a position.

Answers may vary:

Stronger Position, Higher Confidence	*Weaker Position, Lower Confidence*
But to me …	*That's vaguely true, but …*
proven unreliable	*controversial*
claim	*a valid concern*
is correct to say	*… is a good example of …*
the supposed benefits of ...	*an alternative interpretation ...*
in fact ...	

Language Box: Concession (page 205)

This Language Box is a companion to the box in Unit 7 that introduced countering language. Here we focus more on the grammar of dependent clauses of concession and the preposition *despite*.

The punctuation of subordinate clauses was discussed in Language Boxes in Unit 3. However, two points are highlighted here:

- ❏ The order of the clauses matters: English sentences are usually end-weighted, so the writer's position is strongest when it is moved to the end of the sentence.
- ❏ With subordinating conjunctions of concession—unlike other subordinating conjunctions—a commas is usually inserted when the dependent clause comes after the independent clause.

Hedging techniques (modals, quantifiers, etc.) were presented in more detail in Unit 6.

Activity 8.5: Practice the Language (page 206)

Answers will vary; suggested responses:

1. Although social media spread information more quickly than mainstream media, they can also quickly distribute corrections and accurate information.
2. Even though online interaction replaces some face-to-face interactions, it can still provide the immediacy of a synchronous conversation.
3. Certain social networks are useful for job hunting, although specialized employment websites may give faster results.
4. Despite the restrictions that some companies put on the use of the internet in the workplace, employees who use social media at work are less productive,
5. While many educators warn that social media are dangerous for children, some teachers have found creative uses for them in their classes.

WRITING TASK 8.1: Writing a Response (page 206)

Ferguson's complete article can be found online (https://theconversation.com/debunking-the-6-biggest-myths-about-technology-addiction-95850). However, the main ideas are presented in Activity 8.4, and another article by Ferguson making similar arguments was reproduced in full in Unit 5. Thus, this is an assignment that can be

completed without online research so that students can focus on writing rather than finding appropriate sources.

Encourage students not to see response as a simple agree/disagree dichotomy. It is reasonable to agree with some of Ferguson's positions but disagree with others.

A. These quotations are provided to enable students to write text-to-text responses without conducting independent research.

   1. Mauthner supports Ferguson's idea that there is a "moral panic" attached to technology.

   2. Twenge's statistics could be used to challenge Ferguson's claim that the effect of technology on teenagers is small.

   3. Jiang's statistics support Ferguson's position that technology use does not make teenagers less sociable or more lonely.

   4. Digital Detox is an example of a response to the "moral panic." The word *detox* evokes the categorization of technology as an intoxicating addiction from which users have to be freed.

B. Researching online for this task is an optional step because you have enough information and sources provided.

Critique and Evaluation (page 209)

Teaching critique of expert writing to novice writers is very difficult: for the most part, they do not have the authority or background knowledge to readily critique research papers published in a field that they have recently selected for study. Instead, we offer practice in the action of critiquing by using various review genres, such as the online product review, which has the advantages of being familiar, accessible, and engaging. The principles still apply to academic critiques, which your students may then be able to attempt, depending on their familiarity with their disciplines.

Activity 8.6: Analyze Models (page 209)

These are authentic online reviews for a travel pillow, but students can easily look up products they are more interested in and analyze them in a group or online discussion. Before the students begin reading, ask them to read the first two questions that follow

Texts 1 and 2 (Question 3 is optional and can be completed later). As you can see, the Language Box that follows these questions is devoted to evaluative language.

1. Text 1: Flexibility and comfort (yes)
   Text 2: Size (yes), ease of use (yes), durability (no)

2. Text 1: *good, sense, worth every penny, in bliss, nice, really, finally, a million times better*
   Text 2: *complete, fantastic, perfect, easy, I just wish, longer than*

3. Answers will vary, but most reviews follow a similar structural pattern: establish the writer's authority, describe the product/service, evaluate it, and then make a recommendation.

Language Box: Evaluative Language (page 210)

As in the Signaling Responses Language Box (p. 203), we guide students away from writing about themselves (*I believe, I think, I feel, I love, I hate …*) toward evaluating the product itself. The categories for evaluation are based on Martin and White's (2005) Appraisal framework and a provide a useful heuristic for developing specific evaluations that go beyond *I (don't) like it*. Since they attribute qualities to the product, service, text, or idea, these types of evaluations are more adaptable to academic genres such as article critiques, literature reviews, and book reviews.

English learners may need to investigate some of the words in the table in a dictionary or online to fully understand their meaning.

Activity 8.7: Practice the Language (page 212)

Answers will vary; suggested responses:

1. valid
2. thoughtful comments about accessibility
3. contradictory because it did not take into account concerns about privacy
4. organized
5. thought-provoking

WRITING TASK 8.2: Writing a Review (page 212)

For this writing task, the students will be concentrating on evaluative language and text structure. If you prefer to select the type of review that the students write (e.g., product or book), you might want to start with Table 8.1. For a book review, you would have the students complete B and move forward. For a product review, you might want to start with Table 8.3 and then assign an analysis of Texts 1 and 2 in Activity 8.6 before the students draft their own texts.

A. (If students choose their own review genres:) Students will need at least two examples of the same type of review (e.g., restaurant review) to effectively complete this activity. They can use the two examples in Activity 8.6 or find their own online.

Answers will vary, but these are essential questions for the task since the writer's role, audience, purpose and context will largely determine the organization, language, evidence, and conventions used in the review.

B. 1. Mostly response with some brief summary

2. Text 1: quality (*exquisite, joyous, lyrical, blissful*), valuation (*buoyant*)

Text 2: valuation (*informative, rather novel*), impact (*compelling, readable*)

3. The writer of Text 1 is very confident and writes with a strong sense of authority, as shown by the use of present simple verbs (mostly *be*) and the range of vocabulary used. The writer of Text 2 is confident about their evaluation of the book as "informative, compelling, and readable" but hedges on the value of the text as *rather* novel and *little* discussed. They do however seem to be knowledgeable about the literature on gun control compared to other policy issues ("*relatively* small").

4. Both reviews have a similar structure: they introduce the book with a strong evaluation; then, they describe or summarize the book; and finally they expand on their evaluation. Readers may note that the writers choose very specific evaluative language and avoid repetition.

5. Answers will vary.

6. Generally, the description or summary section of a review avoids evaluative language, although this varies by genre.

Reflection (page 215)

We include this section because of the trend for including reflection as a metacognitive task at the end of a writing process or in response to an event or experience to promote transfer of learning. However, as noted, we have also seen assignments that are labelled reflections but which actual call for other types of response. This serves as a reminder to students to always read past the title of an assignment, investigate the actions required, and consider all other components of the Rhetorical Planning Wheel.

Activity 8.8: Understanding Reflection Assignments (page 216)

As noted, students need to look beyond an assignment title (e.g, "Reflect on…") in order to discern what the assignment requires. Like "essay" and "research paper," "reflection" may mean different things to different instructors.

1. Landscape Architecture: Visit to a botanical garden

    Business: Watching videos of alumni

    English: Re-reading and revising students' own writing

    Art History: Reading ideas and viewing art

2. Landscape Architecture: Compare the garden to other gardens, reflect on students' learning, give an opinion

    Business: Use the videos to make their own plans for their university studies

    English: Evaluate their writing and reflect on their progress as writers

    Art History: Make connections between new learning and previous experiences

3. Answers may vary, but some of these assignments call on students to write about their past experiences, while others ask about the future. Some call for students to make direct comparisons. In all cases, writers might choose to use the guiding questions to structure their reflections.

4. Landscape Architecture: Observations from the field trips, possibly references to sources (about other gardens), personal evaluations of the garden

Business: Quotations and examples from the videos; possibly references to classes and activities they might choose in the future

English: Specific references to their previous written assignments and to teachers' feedback

Art History: References to course readings; descriptions of and feeling towards specific works of art

Language Box: Verb Tenses to Describe Experiences (page 217)

Most academic writing uses a very limited range of verb tenses. However, since reflection writing can involve the past, present, and/or future, a wider range of tenses is possible. Most of these tenses have been explained elsewhere in this Teacher's Manual (see pp. 85–86). New here are:

- ❏ the past perfect (*had studied*), which refers to an action that took place and was completed before another time in the past;

- ❏ the past habitual (*used to wait*), which refers to habits or behaviors that were true in the past but not today (in some cases, *would* can be substituted for *used to*, e.g., *My family would go to museums, but I would not pay attention*);

- ❏ future forms: *will* and *be going to*; the difference between them is often minimal, but English learners benefit from having a guide to follow, so using *will* for confident predictions, logical deductions, or snap decisions and *be going to* for future plans is safe.

Although verb tenses are certainly important for multilingual writers, most novice students would benefit from practicing and using a variety of tenses.

For more information on these tenses, please see *Keys to Teaching Grammar to English Language Learners, Second Edition* (pp. 144–147 and 162–176) and *Grammar Choices for Graduate and Professional Writers, 2nd Edition* (pp. 88–92).

Activity 8.9: Practice the Language (page 218)

Often more than one verb tense is grammatical with slightly different meanings. Effective choices include:

1. participated
2. took
3. had not experienced
4. believed / used to believe (*used to* highlights the fact that the writer's beliefs have since changed)
5. was / had been (the past perfect *had been* emphasizes that this state occurred before the discussion, but the past simple *was* is also clear)
6. am beginning / have begun / begin (the present progressive *am beginning* stretches out the realization of the writer's doubts; the present perfect *have begun* puts more emphasize on the change from the past; and the present simple *begin* makes the realization of doubt very immediate)
7. interacts
8. have done / did (there is very little difference here, but *have done* perhaps stresses more the idea of repeated actions up to the present)
9. want
10. will make / am going to make (grammar textbooks say that *will* is used for snap decisions, while *be going to* is used for plans, but the difference here seems very small)

Pedagogical Genre: Discussion Board Reflection (page 219)

The assignment might also be introduced near the start of the semester of an online course. If discussion boards are part of a course, especially a graded component, then it is vital to teach novice writers to respond appropriately in this medium, which can be challenging for reasons explained in the textbook. The easiest way to assign this task is, of course, to create an actual discussion board assignment in your course's learning management system. You might choose to model an effective response and even contrast it with an ineffective response before students write their own posts.

A. For the third assignment choice, there are many interesting online personality tests, including:

- https://openpsychometrics.org/
- https://www.arealme.com/eq/en/
- http://www.ihhp.com/free-eq-quiz/
- http://you.visualdna.com/quiz/whoami#/quiz
- https://www.16personalities.com/

B. There are many questions from the RPW to consider in this writing task.

Purpose: Class discussion boards are often criticized as online busy work, so what purpose might the instructor have in mind? What can the writer learn from this task?

Context: What is the impact of the online context and the fact that peers will read and might respond to the original post?

Evidence: Can students use narratives and other personal experiences as powerful evidence?

Language: If the audience consists of both the instructor and other students, what kinds of language choices should the writer make? How formal is the register?

Conventions: Is there any expected format? Are discussion board posts written in complete sentences and paragraphs? What about the use of bold, italics, color, links, graphics, emojis, and other features of digital writing?

Genre in Action: Letter to the Editor (page 220)

A letter to the editor is an opportunity not only to develop the ability to respond in writing but also to learn about student activism. Although letters can be written in response to anything, we focus here on letters written in response to a recent article in the same publication. Students can prepare for this assignment by reading campus, local, and national news sites and identifying an issue to which they want to respond. Since most letters to the editor are sent by email or webforms, this assignment also works well in online classes.

A. These are both authentic letters to the editor of a local and campus
    newspaper, respectively. Students could make a table to compare the letters.

Move	*Letter 1 (Sharlow)*	*Letter 2 (Wang)*
Refer to a news event	Yes	Yes
Refer to a previous article in the same newspaper	Yes	Yes
Evaluate the article positively or negatively	Yes (somewhat positively with reservations)	Yes (negatively)
Make claims that support the article	Yes (Paragraphs 1 and 2)	No
Make claims that criticize the article	No	Yes
Use sources as support for claims	No	Yes
Make a recommendation or call to action	Yes (hedged: *perhaps*)	Yes (boosted: *the real solution, must also*)

B. The Online Source Use Appendix includes guidelines for conducting online
    and library research as well as evaluating sources. Students who want to
    support their letter with sources should consult this advice and practice
    using the SIFT technique, even if it has been introduced earlier in the
    course.

Unit 9: Analyze

Commentary

Analysis is perhaps the most challenging action to explain, teach, and learn. It is a notoriously slippery term, so we have followed Humphrey and Economou's (2015) definition in the context of genre-based writing instruction:

> In analysis, information is not presented as the way things are in the field, but as the way the writer chooses to represent information in the field in order to address the concerns of their text. Writing referred to as analytical here thus involves the re-organisation by the writer of information from the field, or one or more sources, in some original way for the purposes of the text. (p. 42)

That is, analysis involves reorganizing information from sources into a new framework and not simply describing or explaining ideas. These frameworks are sometimes established in the discipline and sometimes created by the instructor or even the student writer. However, in this unit, we follow Pessoa and Mitchell (2019) in using conventional disciplinary frameworks as scaffolds for novice writers to engage with analytical writing. Analysis as an action can be a separate task in a class or it can be a step towards writing an argumentative (persuasive) text. Although analysis and argument can appear together in a writing task, we have presented these two important actions separately for purposes of instruction.

This unit is somewhat different from the others in Part II since it works almost exclusively with a well-known disciplinary framework, Aristotle's rhetorical appeals. Some first-year university writing courses require students to engage with *ethos, logos, pathos,* and *kairos* as a heuristic for argumentative writing. Such programs may prefer to teach this unit before Unit 8 so that students can practice analyzing rhetoric before producing it. For others, this unit allows students to reconsider the arguments they made in their argument essays, op-ed columns, and so on, using the rhetorical framework.

The structure of this unit is a scaffolded approach through which students learn to write their own rhetorical analysis of an argument:

- ❐ introducing the rhetorical appeals as a disciplinary framework
- ❐ completing a model of a rhetorical analysis
- ❐ using the disciplinary framework to reorganize information
- ❐ analyzing a written argument (an op-ed column) using the rhetorical appeals

The pedagogical genre that follows is a visual analysis, which can be conducted using either a rhetorical or artistic disciplinary framework. The genre in action is an ad analysis, which is both a common assignment in composition courses and a professional genre in the advertising industry. A framework developed in the field of marketing is provided. Teachers in writing courses which have a heavy emphasis on rhetoric may choose to assign both genres.

Goals

- ❐ Understand disciplinary frameworks and how they are used
- ❐ Apply a disciplinary framework (rhetorical appeals) to analyze written and visual texts
- ❐ Reorganize and synthesize information in an analysis
- ❐ Use nominalization to organize an analysis
- ❐ Pedagogical Genre: Visual analysis
- ❐ Genre in Action: Ad analysis

Activity 9.1: What Do You Know? (page 227)

1. Explanation (definition and explanation of the phenomenon)
2. Analysis (categorization of the supply chain into three main "actors")
3. Argument ("is required", "should be utilized")

Disciplinary Frameworks (page 228)

You can read more about the Aristotelian appeals in many books and websites, including https://writingcommons.org/rhetorical-appeals.

Activity 9.2: Identifying the Framework (page 229)

Students can read more about the "She Can STEM" campaign (Texts 2 and 3) on the website https://shecanstem.com/.

1. You can download a handout with a chart for students to complete from the companion website.

	Text 1 (Research Paper)	Text 2 (About Page)	Text 3 (Ad)
Ethos (authority)	Citations to other research Reference to the author's own research	Reference to "studies"	Quoting a successful research scientist Referring to a well-known company
Logos (logic)	Cause / effect logic (*thus, therefore*, etc.) Conditional logic (*if …*)	Cause/effect logic (*with girls in STEM, which is why*)	Reference to solving problems The T and M are highlighted because they are more important for this scientist
Pathos (emotion)	None	Discussion of identity: "Girls can't be what they can't see" Role models are described as "dominating the world of STEM" Direct appeal to the reader ("so can you")	Image of a friendly, smiling young female scientist looking out of the frame directly engages the viewer The word *just* emphasizing that writing code is more valuable
Kairos (urgency)	Recommendations have some sense of urgency (*it is important that … instructors should …*)	Change presented as necessary for progress: "We need" … "we can keep the world moving forward"	Imperative (command) structure in the copy calls the viewer to action

2. The sentences in Text 1 are longer and grammatically more complex than those in Text 2, using more subordinate clauses, reporting verbs, and some expanded noun phrases. This indicates an academic or scientific register. In Text 2, the short sentences are typical of much online text: they allow the reader to quickly skim the page and focus on the argument the text is making.

    Text 1 uses some hedging because the writer is cautiously reporting and interpreting results from a single study, reflecting as well the writer's position as an undergraduate student (*it appears that, these observations suggest that*). Recommendations are stated with different degrees of urgency: *it is important that* is very strong but *in the observation study, the classroom observer found that* is carefully limited to the experience of a single study. Text 2 uses a lot more boosting than hedging: although one result is attributed to *studies*, all the other claims and recommendations are presented as indisputable and urgent (*we need, we can, girls can't, impacts their desire, so can you*). The second-person pronoun is used in Text 2 is part of this direct appeal to the reader, while Text 1 is written in the third person as the writer takes on a scientific register.

    Text 2 is written entirely in the present simple tense, which is consistent with its presentation of positions as factual and beyond argument. Text 1 uses a greater range of tenses: past simple for the results of the specific study; present simple for more general observations and recommendations; present progressive (*are participating*), which can be seen as a hedge since it only states that women are participating less than men now (not always).

3. You could ask students to complete a chart to identify these selected components of the RPW in the three texts.

	Text 1 (Research Paper)	Text 2 (About Page)	Text 3 (Ad)
What is the role of the writer or producers of the text?	Student researcher	Professional organization	Advertising agency
Who is the audience?	Instructor	Possibly young women, but also teachers, parents, and policy makers	Teenage girls primarily; also some teachers and parents
What is the purpose?	Report and analyze results of research	Explain the project and website	Persuade young women to pursue education and careers in STEM

Students should notice the academic text draws more heavily on appeals to logos and ethos because it is part of a research paper. The ad appeals heavily to pathos because it is trying to attract young people's attention but also ethos because the woman in the ad is a convincing role mode. The About page draws on a balance of appeals because it has multiple audiences who will be persuaded by different rhetorical strategies.

4.
   a. No, this is an explanation of the framework.
   b. This is the writer's opinion. It needs to be supported by analysis.
   c. This is a description of the text, not an analysis because the observation is not connected to the framework.
   d. This is analytical because it connects one component of the framework to specific features of the text.
   e. This is also analytical because it takes an observation from the ad and explains it using a component of the framework.
   f. The sentence refers to the framework but hasn't shown specifically how and where the text uses logic, so it is not a good example of analysis.

Rhetorical Analysis (page 232)

Activity 9.3: Analyze a Model (page 233)

This activity presents a model of a rhetorical analysis paper to discuss and complete.

1. This background paragraph is mostly descriptive because it explains the She Can STEM campaign. Although it does describe the parts of the campaign, it does not analyze them using the rhetorical framework.

2. The next two paragraphs analyze ethos, the appeal to authority. Key phrases include *invoke the authority, another form of authority, this appeal to ethos, authoritative examples*.

3. The evidence includes the photo of Ms. Gupta, quotes from the website, and copy (text) from the ad.

4. Paragraph 1 uses a range of tenses to describe the campaign (present simple, past simple, and present perfect). Paragraphs 2 and 3 are entirely written in the present simple tense, which is the tense of analysis.

Language Box: Verbs in Analytical Writing (page 235)

This Language Box addresses two issues: the tense and choice of verbs in analytical writing. As seen in Activity 9.3, the present simple is the most common tense in analysis, even when the object of analysis belongs to the past (literary criticism is written in the present tense even when referring to texts that are centuries old). For more information on the meaning of verb tenses in academic writing, see *Grammar Choices for Graduate and Professional Writers, 2nd Edition*, p. 79.

Verbs that express categories, cause, and effect are technically called linking verbs, a term that is not used in the Language Box to avoid confusing students. Verbs can be divided into categories according to their function in the sentence. The largest categories are action verbs (*build, design, conduct*), reporting verbs (*say, claim, argue*), and linking verbs. As the name suggests, linking verbs show the relationship between the subject and the rest of the sentence (the subject complement). For this reason, linking verbs are frequently used in analytical writing and may mark a shift from describing to analyzing.

Technically, *there is/are* is a different type of verb, but we include it here since it is functionally related to other linking verbs. English learners in particular should note the unusual agreement with the noun that *follows* the verb after *there is/are/were*/etc.

The verbs that express interpretation are reporting verbs, not linking verbs (also discussed in the Online Source Use Appendix). Note that some languages do not allow nonhuman subjects with reporting verbs as English does (e.g., *the paper argues, the ad suggests*). For more information, please see *Grammar Choices for Graduate and Professional Writers, 2nd Edition* (pp. 19–21).

Activity 9.4: Practice the Language (page 236)

This activity continues the rhetorical analysis paper that began in Activity 9.3. Although the focus here is on the verbs, the paragraph itself is a further example of analytical writing.

Answers may vary; suggested responses:

1. is
2. suggests
3. indicating
4. results
5. makes

Reorganizing and Synthesizing Information (page 236)

Since analyses often draw information from multiple sources, this aspect of the action is closely related to Unit 5 (Synthesis). However, the difference is that in an analysis, the information is synthesized in order to fit a framework, either a disciplinary framework or a taxonomy devised by the writer (Humphrey & Economou, 2015).

WRITING TASK 9.1: Analysis through Synthesis (page 237)

In Activities 9.3 and 9.4, students worked on the *ethos* and *pathos* components of the rhetorical analysis of the She Can STEM campaign. Now, they will write the *kairos* section by synthesizing evidence about the gender gap in STEM with details from the campaign website and ad. We provide an outline as a further scaffold, although more proficient writers may be able to dispense with this support and write multiple paragraphs about the urgency of the campaign. Students who struggle with this task can be given the sample paragraph and asked to identify the structure provided in the textbook.

Sample paragraph; answers will vary:

The "She Can STEM" campaign appeals to kairos because it has been launched at a time when there is an urgent realization of the gender gap in science and technology. The gap starts in secondary school. Although boys and girls perform equally on math and science tests, boys are much more likely to advanced high-school engineering courses, and as a result, women are underrepresented in many STEM fields at university and in the science and engineering workforce (National Girls Collaborative, 2018). This situation will result in greater disparities in the future if it is not addressed because more and more jobs will be available for STEM graduates in the coming years, according to the American Association of University Women (AAUW, n.d.). The gap is even greater for women of color (National Girls Collaborative, 2018). To address this imbalance, the AAUW recommends using "female role models in STEM" to increase girls' interest in science, math, and engineering classes in high school, as seen in the "She Can Stem" ads and website. Therefore, the campaign is timely because it addresses a serious equity issue that is part of current discussions in education.

Language Box: Nominalization (page 238)

Although it has been given a bad name by some stylists, nominalization is a frequent and useful grammatical technique for creating cohesion and coherence in academic writing. English learners may be especially interested in the different ways to form nouns as they do not apply across all languages. For more information, please see *Grammar Choices for Graduate and Professional Writers, 2ⁿᵈ Edition* (pp. 129–130).

Activity 9.5: Practice the Language (page 239)

These frameworks are taken from other disciplines: business and biology.
    Answers may vary; suggested responses:

1. Another aspect is elegance.

    Ease of use is the final characteristic of an excellent user experience.
2. Test-tube experiments are the most common type of research in biology.

    The other category of research is human-subject experimentation.
3. Competitiveness is the first step of the analysis.

    In addition to competitiveness, companies must focus on profitability.

    The final aspect to consider is sustainability.

WRITING TASK 9.2: Argument Analysis (page 239)

If you have taught Unit 8 (Argue), you could use the Denver University op-ed column on p. 193 either as a model for this task or as the column that students will analyze. Otherwise, you may need to help students by choosing one or more op-eds from student, regional, or national news sources that are related to current events or themes discussed in your course.

In Part A, students could make a simple table to help them reorganize information from the op-ed into the categories of the disciplinary framework (the rhetorical appeals). An example for the Denver op-ed in Unit 8 is provided.

Appeal	Examples
Ethos	Writer's own experience in school. More than 1,000 other schools have the same policy. Research shows little correlation between tests and first-year performance.
Logos	Cause/effect: if the policy is adopted, students will have more opportunity; the test causes some students to perform badly; some students can gain admission only because of the test. High-school grades are a better predictor of success.
Pathos	Fairness: strong students should have a chance even if they have a learning disability; weak students shouldn't be admitted just because of a good test score. Sympathy for the writer, who was refused accommodations. "a test that could determine your admission to college"—reminds the reader that this policy could have affected them.
Kairos	The policy is recent and possibly in the campus news. It will be implemented one year after the column was written, "as soon as possible" after the policy passed (suggesting urgency). April is around the time that most college admissions decisions are made, so the topic was timely when it was written.

Pedagogical Genre: Visual Analysis (page 241)

You do not need to be an artist or an art historian to assign and teach a rudimentary visual analysis. Students often enjoy a break from analyzing written texts and find it eye opening to see that a "text" can refer to other works of art. Several assignments are suggested here. Be sure to specify your parameters (length, format, etc.). This assignment can be written without any sources beyond the images, but you may want to give students directions about including the images in their writing. This activity lends itself well to online teaching, where students can learn how to integrate and cite images in ways appropriate for online formats. The hardest part of this assignment is to go beyond describing the image to **analyzing** it. This is where the frameworks—either the rhetorical or artistic frameworks—are especially useful. You can also remind students that linking verbs are often a sign that they are engaged in the action of analyzing.

For example, consider this photograph (Figure TM9.1) by the early British photographer Julia Margaret Cameron (1815-1879). The image from the Metropolitan Museum of Art is in the public domain.

FIGURE TM9.1:

"King Lear Allotting His Kingdom to His Three Daughters," photograph by Julia Margaret Cameron (1872)

Source: https://www.metmuseum.org/art/collection/search/306204

Rhetorically, we might analyze the pathos:

> The emotional impact of this photograph comes in part from the gaze of the charac-
> ters. Lear faces to the right in full profile with his eyes closed, so the viewer cannot
> easily read his expression. His expression seems pained, and by refusing to make
> eye-contact with his daughters, Lear is shown to be lonely. He appears to have turned
> his back on two of his daughters, Goneril and Reagan, increasing the feeling of isola-
> tion. While one of them—presumably the eldest, Goneril because of the crown that
> matches Lear's—touches her father's shoulder in an act of connection, she too has
> closed her eyes. Between her and her father stands Reagan, resolutely avoiding eye
> contact with anyone including the viewer as she stares off to the left. Her head is
> held high, which seems to indicate arrogance and a lack of warmth for her father.
> The youngest daughter, Cordelia is positioned in Lear's line of sight. If only he would
> open his eyes, he would see the modest Cordelia, looking sorrowfully in her father's
> direction, her eyes downcast as she avoids the focus of the viewer's gaze.

Alternatively, from a formal perspective, we might analyze the spatial composition of
the photograph:

> For Cameron, photographs were not images captured from real life, but artworks
> similar to paintings, so she often staged actors to create the desired artistic effect.
> In this photograph, she positions Lear (in reality, her husband, according to the
> museum online catalog) front and center, which fits his status as the king. However,
> he faces away from the viewer as if he is ready to exit the stage and leave behind his
> responsibilities as king. The two eldest sisters are almost pushed out of the frame to
> the left. Reagan is barely visible as Goneril tries to attract her father's attention with
> her finger prominently placed on his shoulder. Meanwhile, the two sisters on the left
> are balanced by Lear's youngest daughter on the right (played by Alice Liddel of *Alice
> in Wonderland* fame), perhaps suggesting that she is worth more than her two sisters
> together.

Genre in Action: Ad Analysis (page 244)

Advertisements are the ideal source for rhetorical analyses since they are by their nature rhetorical. Students often enjoy analyzing what makes an ad persuasive.

A. You can look up the Sweetarts ad on *Marketing Dive* or YouTube, but the analysis is quite clear without it. An embedded video is a convention of this genre, which you might point out if you are teaching this as a digital assignment in a conventional or online course.

Sentences	Purpose(s)
1-2	Introduce and describe the ad.
3-4	Analyze the logic behind the ad.
5-6	Analyze the effectiveness of the appeal; credit the creators of the ad.

B.

1. The writer is knowledgeable about marketing and the advertising industry, and they write as a member of the industry.
2. Other people who work in advertising or marketing
3. To analyze interesting ads and discuss who made them and why.
4. The primary source of evidence is the ad itself, but analyses sometimes also refer to information about the company, the industry, current events, and the creative team.
5. A video of the ad is embedded, usually in the middle. The advertising agency and key members of the creative team are always named (usually in the last paragraph). Sentences and paragraphs are short.

C. 1. Attention: Sweetarts "is trying to court younger consumers."

Message: "vague nods to political causes"; "more purposeful marketing"

Linking: Paragraph 2 focuses on "the demand for brands to better reflect the more complex identities of Gen Z."

Reputation: Sweetarts is trying to build a connection with Gen Z through political messaging without directly taking controversial positions.

2. (Answers may vary) a. Linking and/or Reputation

b. Message

c. Message

d. Attention

e. Message

PART III:
INTEGRATING ACTIONS

In this last section of the book, we offer four projects, which you might use as long-term assignments or as the culmination of a writing course. The projects are designed to integrate the actions from Part II. While the previous units identified genres that students could attempt using one focal action, much academic writing involves sequences of more than one action to accomplish the goals of the genre. This speaks to the need for student writers to develop "rhetorical flexibility" (see the Introduction).

The projects in Part III are presented in **steps** that build toward the final product. The steps are important because they enable students to build skills, develop language resources, and practice writing components that will feed into the final assignment. As always, peer- and self-review are incorporated into the writing processes. Teaching suggestions and answers to exercises that do not depend on students' individual research and writing are provided.

In the introduction, we point out that the best way to design a course may be to begin by choosing a project that is appropriate for your students and then examining the actions units to determine how you might augment or build towards the project you have selected. The steps in the projects are valuable in that they are planned to scaffold student work. However, you may not want to assign every activity within the steps. Your first decision, then, would be which project and parts of the project will be the focus. Your second might be to decide which activities to use within the steps. A third would be choosing the readings that will interest your students and provide meaningful writing practice.

A brief summary of the projects and the skills they draw on is provided to help you plan your course.

Project	Major Writing Tasks	Actions
1: Transforming Texts	Book blurb Blog post (summary and response) Magazine profile based on an interview	Explain Summarize Respond Argue
2: Problem-Solution Inquiry	Literature review Inquiry paper (library research paper) Reflective cover letter Public presentation	Explain Summarize Synthesize Respond
3: Research Paper	Annotated bibliography Abstract Original Research paper (Introduction, Methods, Results, and Discussion)	Explain Summarize Synthesize Report and Interpret Argue Analyze
4: Personal Statement	Personal statement for a job, scholarship, or university application	Explain Summarize Respond

All units end with a reflection task to encourage metacognitive transfer of genre knowledge.

Project 1: Transforming Texts

Commentary

For a number of years, there has been considerable interest in content-based instruction (CBI), particularly among teachers of multilingual students who are building their academic English proficiency, though we would contend that all novice students could benefit from these approaches. One of the major virtues of CBI is the content itself, that is, the exploration of interesting topics through which language and writing are practiced. For a more detailed explanation of CBI, see two books by Marguerite Ann Snow & Donna Brinton, *Content-Based Instruction: What Every ESL Teacher Needs to Know* (University of Michigan Press, 2019) and *The Content-Based Classroom: New Perspectives on Integrating Language and Content, 2nd Edition* (University of Michigan Press, 2017).

This CBI project enables students to investigate and write texts from different genres on the same topic, a project that we have found to be of considerable interest to multilingual as well as monolingual students interested in studying other languages. Here, students practice transforming content to serve different purposes, participating in activities that will be useful not only in their academic work but in their professional lives, as well.

We selected bilingualism as the topic for this project unit for a number of reasons: it is current and will continue to be, your students may be bilingual or interested in becoming bilingual, and it lends itself to the study and writing of a variety of genres, most of which are relatively short. We find short texts to be valuable because they enable students, their peers, and their teachers to concentrate on small pieces of writing at the discourse, sentence, and word levels. The final paper, a magazine profile of a bilingual or multilingual person, allows for an in-depth understanding and production of a text that is longer and may be more difficult to write. This could be a major research-based assignment in your course.

Goals

- ❏ Read and analyze texts about bilingualism from different genres
- ❏ Prepare a blurb for a book, based on an author's preface
- ❏ Write a summary and response to a blog entry
- ❏ Conduct an interview with a bilingual/multilingual person
- ❏ Shift perspective between direct and indirect speech
- ❏ Write a magazine profile based on your interview

Project 1 includes 11 steps (genres are noted in bold):

- ❏ Step 1: Students are introduced to a famous expert in the field through the **preface** to her volume on bilingualism. This encourages students to notice and even read other prefaces, perhaps of their textbooks, and to be able to see how authors design prefaces for their audiences and purposes.

- ❏ Step 2: Students are then exposed to the **book blurb,** a genre designed to encourage an audience to buy the volume described. The topic is again bilingualism, but the purpose for blurbs is considerably different. The questions that follow the three blurb examples require analysis of this genre, particularly the "family resemblances" among the three sample texts provided. See Unit 2 for a discussion of "family resemblances" in genres.

- ❏ Step 3: In this assignment, students have an opportunity to take the information from the expert's book preface and convert it into a **blurb** that they produce. Peer and self-review follow as they draft and revise this short text.

- ❏ Step 4: In this step, students are asked to study an **online commentary** written by another linguist, again on the topic of bilingualism.

- ❏ Step 5: Students write another short text, **a response to the commentary,** for a student audience.

- ❏ Steps 6-10: Still focusing on issues of bilingualism, students prepare to write a **magazine profile.** Through constructing interview questions and conducting interviews, as well as studying and discussing an example of a magazine profile and practicing appropriate language use, students work on creating their own text in this genre.

- ❏ Step 11: Students write a **reflection** on their experience of transforming content among genres.

Step 1: Analyze a Preface to an Academic Book (page 252)

As is the case in a number of post-reading questions in this textbook, your students would benefit from examining Questions 1-5 to give them direction as they read the Bialystok (2001) preface. Answers may vary; possible responses:

1. The author is interested in advising parents and in using her research to counteract the "folk wisdom" assumptions about exposing children to two languages. She is thus "clarifying basic controversies" about being exposed to two languages when a child.

2. The three assumptions:
   - People believe without proof that "language learning is a fragile enterprise" easily disrupted.
   - They believe that learning one language will interfere with learning another.
   - They also believe that language learning will negatively affect other functions in the brain.

3. Bilingual children.

4. Parents of potentially bilingual children are mentioned first, so they are an audience. However, it is assumed that other researchers will also be interested in this expert's findings.

5. The register sounds more like the language of magazines or some blogs than that of a researcher. Few technical terms are used, for example.

Step 2: Analyze the Book Blurb (page 254)

The first paragraph of this section includes an extended, informative definition, in this case, of blurbs (see Unit 4). The major purpose of the genre analysis that follows the three examples is to identify the "family resemblances" among texts in the book blurb genre, that is, to recognize what texts in this genre have in common. For more on genre analysis, see Units 1 and 2.

Answers will vary; suggested responses:

1. Commonalities: All the blurbs are written to sell the volumes on which they are found (purpose). Included in each text is information about the contents of the volume described and (implicitly) the audiences who might want to buy and read it.

2. Secondary purposes can include employing the appropriate tone or register for the text's audience; (*accessible, lively and entertaining, written by a specialist*).

3. 2a. Sounds more like a memoir written for an audience wanting entertainment, as the author describes his or another's life as a bilingual. 2b. Is organized and written "by specialists in the field"—that is, for researchers and academics. 2c. Is written for families and teachers, as noted in the first sentence.

4. Like most texts in a genre they have differences: different authors, different audiences, different text structures, and considerable differences in length.

5. Authors of these blurbs use present tense verbs almost exclusively, perhaps to show that these volumes will be of value over time. In 2c, in particular, *this* reminds readers of the topic being discussed: *this accessible guide*, *this book*. Note the use of prepositions in *an accessible guide to bilingualism, topics in bilingualism, the field of bilingualism,* and *an authority on bilingualism.*

Step 3: Write a Book Blurb (page 256)

This step provides the first opportunity in this chapter for students to write a short text, one for which examples have been previously provided. Though there are many possibilities for students as they complete the Rhetorical Planning Wheel table in their text planning, the following answers are implied in Bialystok's preface.

1. **Audience(s)**: Those who will be interested in the writer's dispelling the myths that parents of bilingual children may live by; researchers who plan to replicate, or in some cases, contradict, the author's findings.

2. **Purpose(s):** To sell the book, of course, but also to assist parents to understand that becoming bilingual may *not* damage children in other ways. To explain the author's findings to other researchers or teachers.

3. **Conventions:** Mention (or implication) of the audiences addressed; comments about the contents of the volume and its purposes; direct reference to the book; sometimes a reference to the full name of the book's author.

4. **Structure:** Fortunately, the author provides an indication of the structure of the text in her preface: the three assumptions she will dispel give the text its structure. Blurb writers often follow this structure.

5. **Language:** In order to appeal to parent audiences, the blurb will be in everyday language. The author's name is often used because she's famous. The audience will not be addressed directly with *you*. Positive evaluative language is common.

Step 4: Analyze an Expert Commentary (page 257)

Continuing with the bilingual theme, but focusing on a different genre, this section ends with a short response to an expert commentary (Text 3) published in *The Conversation*. See Unit 8 for techniques for response writing.

Review the discussion questions that follow Text 3, asking students to keep these in mind as they read. Here are possible answers although, particularly with Questions 2 and 5, much depends on the students' reactions to the reading:

1. Parodi argues that bilinguals:
   - can speak to people in more than one language, switching among them quickly
   - have access to more than one culture
   - are more aware of language
   - have more developed cognitive skills, including understanding other viewpoints, handling ambiguity, and distinguishing relevant information
   - can practice "code-switching"

2. The answers to this question are based on the students' reactions. However, as they answer the question, they should support their comments by referring to the text repeatedly to demonstrate what parts they agree or disagree with.

3. Answers will vary. Other advantages include increased earning potential; possible protection against Alzheimer's or dementia; ability to pursue bilingual education programs; ease of communication when traveling; opportunities to serve one's family or community as a translator. Disadvantages may include the pressure especially on children of being a linguistic or cultural translator and negative local or national attitudes towards one of the languages.

4. This article appears to have a very broad audience of non-experts in mind. There is very little technical language, and the writer uses features of conversational English such as questions to engage the reader. However, links to underlying research are provided so that the article can also serve as a springboard for further research for students or experts in the field. The links also give the writer and the ideas credibility with readers who are unlikely to actually read the linked research.

5. The answers to this question depend on the students' own life experiences.

Step 5: Write a Response to the Commentary (page 260)

As is the case with all prompts for process papers, it is useful to ask novice writers questions about the assignment. These questions are taken from Johns, 2019, p. 149.

Questions about the Context for Writing	
Audience: Who is the audience for this text? Is the audience specified in the prompt? What are the audience's concerns, values and interests that you need to address?	The audience is other readers of the commentary. There is also the immediate audience: the instructor/grader, of course.
Context: In addition to the immediate context, the classroom, are there other contexts for this writing, for example, a publication?	The principal context is Parodi's commentary.
Writer's role: What persona is the writer to take on? A student or someone else?	The writer of this response is a bilingual student, a language learner, or anyone interested in bilingualism.
Purpose: What are the student's purposes as a writer? To explain, inform, argue, respond….?	The principal purpose is to react to the commentary in a summary/response. How writers respond depends upon their reactions to this post.

Questions about the Paper Itself	
In what **genre** is the text to be written? That is, what is the text called?	It is called a response paper, a response to a commentary.
How should the paper be **structured?** Does it have headings?	There are two organizational sections: a summary of the commentary and the writer's reaction/response to the article.
Sources: What types of sources are to be used? How are they to be found?	In this case, the only required source is the commentary.
Length: How long should the paper be?	Length is not mentioned.
Referencing style: Should the writer use APA, MLA, or any other style?	Referencing is not a concern here, but the commentary can be cited as Parodi (2015). Writer's can link to other online sources but should use the SIFT technique in the Online Source Use Appendix to evaluate their research.

Step 6: Prepare to Write a Magazine Profile (page 261)

So far in this unit, students have been reading and writing short texts. This magazine profile assignment is longer and will take more time; however, our students have enjoyed preparing for this work, drafting questions (or using the questions we provide), and conducting the interviews.

Step 7: Analyze a Magazine Profile (page 262)

The two individuals, Sabrina and Leketi, who are featured in the profile and interviewed here, are real people, our colleagues and friends, and these are their real stories. Your students may not be able to discover individuals to interview who are quite as remarkable as these two; however, they probably will have little difficulty finding someone who can answer the questions we suggest. Interviewees should also be asked to tell a story

about life with two or more languages that student writers can use for the first paragraph in their profile.

After reading the text, students might divide into small groups to answer the questions. Answers may vary; suggested responses:

1. Sabrina is interesting for a number of reasons: she's trilingual, she loves languages and is motivated to speak, read, and write French and English well, but she doesn't speak, write, or read the native language of her country (Algerian Arabic) as well.

2. Her languages are French, English, and Arabic.
   - She speaks French with her family and with some colleagues, and she gives lectures in French at the university where she works.
   - She speaks English as much as she can and spoke it all the time when she was studying in the United States and translating for English speakers. She also occasionally sprinkles English into her lectures and uses it consistently with her Conversation Club.
   - But Algerian colloquial Arabic, the native language in her country, is only spoken when she goes to a store or speaks to those who are monolingual Arabic speakers.

3. The profile writer employs *I* when inserting a direct quote in which Sabrina is talking about herself. The writer does not employ *you* but uses the third person when discussing Sabrina's life and not quoting her directly.

4. Sabrina's actual words are used when the profile writer is trying to recreate the subject's personality and her attitude toward her languages.

5. The profile writer did not use all of the information from the interview. Instead, the writer decided on the headings after completing and recording the interview and then selected about the same amount of material to go under each heading. Note the headings that look like direct quotations, a common convention of the magazine profile.

6. Both paragraphs are attempts to show the complexity of Sabrina's language use as it relates to the country in which she lives and her daily life experiences.

7. The writer had no interest in judging Sabrina and her language use. Instead, the profile is an attempt to show how an individual balances three languages. Perhaps where a point of view appears is in the last section, the first paragraph, where Sabrina is quoted as saying that speaking two languages has paid off in her career but has made her a "show off" to some monolingual Algerians. Also brought up in several parts of the text is Sabrina's fascination with two of her languages, French and English, and her individual study to perfect her linguistic knowledge.

8. The "angle" is the uniqueness of each multilingual person's experiences, specifically for Sabrina, the differences between her language experiences and the official language policies and patterns in her home country.

Step 8: Conduct Your Interview and Plan Your Profile (page 266)

In this section, the steps in writing the magazine profile are laid out. You can download a handout with a chart that students can complete for Questions 5 and 6. The outline of Sabrina's profile is provided here; students plan their own profile using the third column.

Topic/Move	*Sabrina*	*My Interviewee*
Lead	Tells a brief, rather personal story about her use of three languages across a working day, based upon the entire interview.	
Unique perspective of the interview	Initial comments on the complexity of language use in different Algerian contexts.	
Introduce the interviewee	A quick introduction of Sabrina as a trilingual code-switcher. Her previous and current jobs.	
Early language experiences	A rather long discussion of her French-speaking, progressive family and her French-dominant education and reading.	
An important idea, change or development	Her exposure to English through music lyrics and her technique for learning the lyrics.	

Topic/Move	Sabrina	My Interviewee
Another important change	Her experiences with English in the United States as she worked on her proficiency among those she had difficulty understanding.	
Experiences with languages today	English, rather than French, appears to be her dominant language at this point. Her French is good, of course, but her Algerian Arabic remains limited.	
Conclude with a final thought	See the response to Question 6, above. In addition, Sabrina points out that her French/English bilingualism has assisted her to succeed in her work.	

Language Box: Shifting Perspective Between Direct and Indirect Speech (page 267)

At least two challenges face the writer of a magazine profile. The first relates to content. What content should be selected and how should it be organized? For example, Sabrina's interview was much longer than the profile indicates so the writer had to make content and organizational choices. Much more text was devoted to her childhood, for example. The material had to be cut and reorganized.

The second challenge relates to perspective shifts between the interviewee's first-person narrative and the student's third-person profile. This Language Box shows how this shift is accomplished linguistically through changes in register, sentence structure, discourse markers, pronouns, and verb tenses. You may want to draw students' attention to the phenomenon of back-shifting in verb tenses in indirect (reported) speech:

Direct Speech	Indirect Speech
I want to help other people. (present simple)	She said she wanted to help other people. (past simple)
I'm gonna go to medical school. (future form with *am going to*)	She points out that she was going to go to medical school. (future-in-the-past form with *was going to*)

However, to make the profile more vivid and emphasize what the interviewer is thinking and doing at the present time, writers will sometimes use present tense reporting verbs and not shift the tense in the reported speech. For example, *She says that she still dreams in Korean.*

English learners may need to pay attention to subject-verb agreement when they change from first to third-person pronouns because in the third-person singular verbs take an *-s* ending in the present simple (*she lives, she does not know*), present and past progressive (*she is learning, she was going*), and present perfect tenses (*she has studied).* Care must also be taken to refer to the interviewee using the correct pronouns.

Step 9: Practice the Language (page 269)

Leketi Makalela, a professor in South Africa, was also interviewed for this project. Parts of the interview, written out in complete sentences, appear in this language practice activity. The instructions are for students to select five quotes from Leketi's interview and convert them to the third person, as shown in the example.

Direct Quotation	*Paraphrase, Summary or Reported Speech*
"But the classes were very big—sometimes 100 kids—and we had maybe five books in a class. So whenever I found something in English, like parts of a newspaper or a science book, I would read it eagerly."	There were very few language books in his large classes of 100 or so students, and Leketi wanted to learn, so he would try to find anything like a newspaper or a science book in English to read.
"At home, I spoke Sepedi with my family, and I tried to teach my younger brothers and sisters English. Outside, I worked for some farmers from the time I was 10 so I could pay my school fees and buy some shoes, and I spoke Afrikaans with them. With the other workers, I spoke Tshivenda, isiXhosa, or isiZulu, depending upon their languages."	Leketi spoke his several languages with different people in various contexts. At home, he spoke Sepedi, but he also tried to teach English to his siblings. He spoke Afrikaans with the farmers for whom he worked to make enough money for school fees and shoes. However, with the other workers, he spoke their home languages (Tshivenda, isiXhosa, or isiZulu).
"In reading and writing, there is a clear answer: I use English because it dominates in academic life now in South Africa."	Leketi now uses the dominant academic language, English, as he reads and writes.

Direct Quotation	*Paraphrase, Summary or Reported Speech*
"There is no clear-cut case for use. The degree of use differs from context to context, and this means that I have to be sensitive to each situation and adjust accordingly."	As a sensitive multilingual, Leketi employs the language of the context in which he is currently interacting with others.
"The disadvantage is that the schooling system favors one language—and other language forms are not valued. This country has eleven official languages in schools, but English really dominates—and that's alienating for lots of kids."	Although eleven languages are to be taught in the South African schools, only English is respected, and many students are "alienated" by its dominant position.

Step 10: Write and Revise Your Profile (page 270)

The familiar writing process is followed here: drafting, tailored peer-review questions for this assignment, instructions to revise, and a self-checklist for the revised text. In addition, since the genre is a magazine article, we encourage students to try to publish their texts in a print or digital format if possible.

Step 11: Reflection (page 271)

Application of learning is the most important topic in this reflection since the goal is to transfer skills in reading and writing across multiple genres.

Project 2: Problem-Solution Inquiry

Commentary

This project is our take on the library research paper or term paper assignment, which we have seen in many writing courses: a source-based pedagogical genre on a topic of the student's choice. As a variation, this project invites students to explore a problem in one of their communities or courses and write about it using a problem-solution organization, a very common rhetorical pattern in academic writing (see Unit 4 for examples of problem-solution summaries). In keeping with the structure of the units in Part II, students write in two genres: a pedagogical genre (here called an "inquiry project," but it might also be called a term paper or library research paper) and a public genre of their choice such as an op-ed column, blog post, presentation, poster, or video.

The examples in this unit are from a hypothetical inquiry project into problems affecting child nutrition, especially in connection with the restaurant industry. Nutrition is a good topic for inquiry since food is a shared experience for all students.

This project can be used to structure or conclude a course that taught the following units: Unit 3 (Explain) includes activities that will help students define the problem and explain its causes. Units 4 (Summarize) and 5 (Synthesize) provide instruction in the central units for this project since it mostly involves reading and synthesizing sources. The last part of the project is to evaluate the solutions and recommend a change or policy; Unit 8 (Respond) teaches the language and strategies for evaluating ideas. The Online Source Use Appendix should be included as needed for guidance on finding, evaluating, paraphrasing, quoting, citing, and referencing sources.

Goals

- ❒ Explain a specific problem, its root causes, and possible solutions
- ❒ Evaluate and respond to solutions
- ❒ Use signaling language in problem-solution writing
- ❒ Research, plan, and outline an inquiry project
- ❒ Summarize and synthesize sources to support the project
- ❒ Write a problem-solution report with a reflective cover letter
- ❒ Present your problem in a public genre

Project 3 has 12 steps:

❑ Steps 1-3: Students choose a problem and explore what they already know and what they need to know about its context, causes, and possible solutions.

❑ Steps 4-5: Students analyze the organization and language of problem-solution writing.

❑ Steps 6-8: Students plan, research, and organize their inquiry papers.

❑ Steps 9-11: Student write and reflect on their inquiry papers, synthesizing information from their sources.

❑ Step 12: Students transform their papers into a public genre.

Step 1: Choosing a Problem (page 274)

The idea of developing the project from a problem in one of the student's communities is adapted from work on participatory action research projects with multilingual youth (Siffrinn & Harman, 2019; Siffrin & McGovern, 2019). Alternatively, students can look for a problem in the content of one of their courses, or you could choose a problem to explore together as a class. In the list of questions students use to explore the problem, we want to highlight one step that is sometimes missed: identifying the root causes of the problem, without which a solution is unlikely to succeed. Students do not need to answer all the questions now. This exercise should reveal gaps in their understanding that they will have to fill through research.

Step 2: What Do You Know? (page 275)

The K-N-L table (what do you **know**, what do you **need** to know, what have you **learned**) is a variation of the more familiar K-W-L activity, where the middle letter stands for what you **want** to know. For this level of research, students need to get used to asking what they need to know to move their projects forward. This is a brainstorming or discussion step; after they have conducted research, students can return to the table and complete the *L* column.

Step 3: Focusing the Problem (page 275)

We return here to the question of root causes to help students focus their problem, since overly broad problems tend to lead to trivial or unrealistic solutions and weak writing. Students may need to revisit this section after conducting research in a later step.

Step 4: Analyze Problem-Solution Organization (page 277)

This step could be completed at any time but is probably most effective now that students have ideas about the problems and solutions they want to write about. Problem-solution writing occurs in a range of contexts but has a mostly stable structure: Situation, Problem and Causes, Solution(s) and Evaluation(s). The rhetorical actions that underlie each section are noted in the chart.

Two example texts are provided that use the same sources to analyze and evaluate solutions to the problem of kids' meals with poor nutritional value in U.S. restaurants.

1. These are two clear organizational structures that students can use in their own writing:

Paragraph	Text A	Text B
1	Solution 1 Evaluation 1	Solution 1
2	Solution 2 Evaluation 2	Solution 2
3		Evaluation of both solutions

2. Text A: *a more promising solution*
   Text B: *an alternative to … / neither program …*
3. The descriptions are mostly neutral: *launched, turned out, were required, lists, has been/is, was imposed,* etc., with some positive evaluative language (*popular, nutritious, quickly, successfully*).
4. Neither author seems very confident. There is a lot of hedging language: *may, does not appear, may have had, it seems that.*

5. Sources are mostly synthesized. Each paragraph cites more than one source, and citations are used non-integrally to indicate the source of the programs and provide statistics on their impact. Some of the sources are news reports that are used to show what actually happened.

6. Answers will vary.

Language Box: Comparing Solutions (page 279)

Some of the language for comparing and contrasting was presented in Unit 5 (Synthesize). However, this box gives students some new choices, the grammar of which may be tricky for English learners.

1. **Comparative adjectives**. Note that most short adjectives add an *-er* ending to form the comparative (*bigger, shorter, cheaper*), but longer adjectives use *more* or *less* (with short adjectives, using an antonym is often less awkward than *less*—for example, *more expensive* rather than *less cheap*). Note that *more + -er* is not standard English (not *more cheaper*). Comparatives are followed by *than*.

2. **Equatives**. This just means that the two parts of the structure are equal— for example, *as … as* or *the same … as*. Some English learners mix the two and write *as same as*, which is not standard English.

3. *Both/neither/all* can be use as **quantifiers** (*both solutions, neither cause, all possibilities*) or **pronouns** (*both are possible; neither is ideal*, etc). *None* is a pronoun (*none is perfect*) or can be used in a noun phrase (*none of the solutions is perfect*). The subject-verb agreement with these words is tricky: *both* and *all* are always plural. *None* and *neither* are traditionally singular (*none is …, neither is …*), but the plural form is acceptable in all but the most formal registers (*none/neither of the solutions are practical*). Research has found that the verb in *either/or* and *neither/nor* structures strangely agrees with the closest noun, as explained in the textbook.

For more information about these structures, see *Keys to Teaching Grammar to English Language Learners, Second Edition* (p. 360) or *Grammar Choices for Graduate and Professional Writers, 2nd Edition* (pp. 153–157).

Step 5: Practice the Language (page 281)

1. efficient
2. the
3. less
4. are / is
5. than
6. as

Step 6: Plan Your Problem-Solution Project (page 281)

You may be able to use or adapt the prompt we have provided for this assignment, or you may prefer to write your own based on your curriculum and learning outcomes. Throughout this book, we have recommended limiting the number of required sources for novice writers so they can learn to choose sources carefully and exploit them fully in their texts. Be sure to specify the style guide students should use for citations and references. We have used APA 7th edition in this unit, but your course or program may mandate a different style (see the last part of the Online Source Use Appendix for more on reference styles).

If you assign the prompt provided, these are some of the considerations students should keep in mind when they analyze the components of the RPW:

1. Although the primary audience is the instructor, there is an implicit secondary audience in the community that the student is researching. Encourage students to identify the stakeholders who might read a report like this and ensure that the report is accessible for them.

2. The writer may have a secondary role in addition to being a student: they may be a member of the affected community or at least a committed outsider. This role should affect the way they frame the problem and respond to the solutions. They do not need to decide now whether they will support one particular solution or evaluate all solutions neutrally, but they will need to know this when they write up the project.

3. This question should help the student determine how much background information they need to provide.

4. The answer to this may well come from you, but we want students to develop the habit of asking which sources are acceptable and finding the answer in the assignment or syllabus before asking the instructor.

Step 7: Research Your Topic (page 282)

You might assign this step anywhere in the process, but we feel it is best for students to conduct research after they have thought about their project and once they understand the structure of their paper so that they are looking for specific information they will use for particular purposes, rather than saving every source that has any vague connection to their topic. This starts with the choice of the types of sources that are permissible and useful for their assignment.

The Online Source Use Appendix contains additional information and practice in finding and evaluating sources. The chart in Question 4 is especially useful. The examples here are for the sample nutrition project, but students can create similar charts for their projects. You might ask them to submit their chart as a formative assessment to ensure they have enough appropriate sources before they start writing.

Step 8: Organize Your Paper (page 284)

This step suggests a number of different ways that students can consolidate the information they have gathered and plan their papers. One size does not fit all in academic writing, and students should be encouraged to try a method they know works for them or try something new. We particularly note the last direction to add citations to any outline they students make. This helps them see sources as part of the planning and not just writing process and discourages the practice of writing the paper and then later adding citations.

See the Online Source Use Appendix for additional ideas about outlining with sources.

Language Box: Signaling Problems and Solutions (page 285)

This box presents choices for phrases that signal the different stages of a problem-solution paper. Some of these have been seen elsewhere, but students will appreciate have a phrase bank like this when they write.

Some phrases that may cause difficulty for English learners are:

- ❏ *despite* is a preposition (a phrase connector) not a conjunction (see Unit 8).
- ❏ *even* is not a conjunction (it is an adverb); students usually mean to use the subordinating conjunctions *even though* or *even if.*
- ❏ *arise* and *emerge* are intransitive verbs, which means they have no passive form (not a problem *is emerged*)

❒ *another reason why … is …* is a sentence with two noun clauses, a clause in the first part which looks like a question but uses standard subject-verb word order (another reason *why children's meals are unhealthy*) and then another after the verb *be* (*that they are made with processed foods*). The word *that* is optional in the second clause. See *Grammar Choices for Graduate Students, 2ⁿᵈ Edition* (pp. 65–67) for more examples.

Step 9: Practice the Language (page 286)

Answers may vary; suggested responses:

1. proposed two solutions (Section: Solutions)
2. Although (Section: Problem)
3. issue (Section: Problem)
4. One of the reasons is (Section: Cause)
5. In order to solve (Section: Solutions)
6. Another reason why (Section: Cause)

Step 10: Write and Revise (page 287)

By now, students should have information and a good plan from which to draft their projects.

Remind them to pay attention to their use of sources so that they are integrating and citing them effectively (see the Online Source Use Appendix).

Step 11: Reflective Cover Letter (page 287)

The reflection for this project is somewhat different, a professional genre that writers send with their manuscripts to the editor. In their cover letter, which is addressed to you as their instructor, students should discuss their writing process, the goals of their paper, and what they have learned from the project. Advice on letter writing can be found in Unit 1.

Step 12: Public Presentation (page 288)

You might choose to assign this in addition to or instead of the written paper, depending on the structure of your course. However, the benefit of assigning both the pedagogical and the public genre is that it gives students more practice in genre transformation—that is, conveying similar information to different audiences for different purposes (see Unit 2 for examples of texts with similar information written in different genres). Encourage students to use the Rhetorical Planning Wheel to analyze the components of the new genre and highlight differences from the inquiry paper they have already written. For example, if they transform their paper into an op-ed column for an online student or local news source, they will need to switch to hyperlinked references, use much shorter paragraphs, begin with a strong lead, and probably make a stronger (less hedged) evaluation, response, or policy recommendation. They will also need to make sure that their register is appropriate for the new audience (see Unit 2).

Project 3: Research Paper

Commentary

As the Project Overview indicates, the IMRaD paper (Introduction, Methodology Results, and Discussion/Conclusion) is common in the sciences, engineering, the social sciences, and sometimes in health and education studies. However, as is the case for many genres, a single paper's structure, functions, and—of course—its content, will vary, depending on a number of factors in the classroom context such as the discipline, course title, its academic level, and the purposes for the paper.

As you work throughout Project 4, you will be turning to other units for focused activities involving the actions taken as students complete the steps in this project, especially Units 3 (Explain), 5 (Synthesize), and 6 (Report and Interpret Data). Unit 7 (Argue) discusses disciplinary differences in patterns of argumentation. See the chart that follows the Project Overview in the textbook to discover where these actions predominate.

The Online Source Use Appendix includes important advice and practice on finding, evaluating, paraphrasing, citing, quoting, and referencing sources.

What we've learned from IMRaD assignments is that at the novice level, we often need to focus on a few sections of the paper or specified elements of the writing process. Students may not be able to accomplish everything in this unit in one course. For example, we have successfully assigned papers that focus almost exclusively on different types of academic introductions. In other classes, we have provided the introduction and methodology, and the students have prepared papers based on their research that add the review of the literature, the data commentary, and/or an appropriate conclusion. Since the suggested project is a survey, students could also complete some of the steps in groups (e.g., writing the introduction and methodology sections, designing and conducting the survey) and then write the discussion and interpretation of the data individually.

Since we believe that writing in a new genre must start with analysis of more than one sample text in that genre, this unit asks students to read and discuss two IMRaD research papers. The first is included. It concerns the impact of advertising e-cigarettes on middle and high school students. The second is one that students find themselves in their major or another academic field of interest. Alternatively, you might choose a bank

of articles that you believe will be interesting and accessible for students to select from. Students can work in groups on the same article as a further scaffold, since research papers are often very challenging for novice students to read.

Goals

- ❏ Understand the major sections of an IMRaD (Introduction, Methods, Results, and Discussion) research paper
- ❏ Analyze IMRaD research papers from your discipline or a class you are taking
- ❏ Compare your analysis with a research paper in the field of public health
- ❏ Collect data and write a short research paper relating to health and nutrition or on a topic selected by your instructor

Project 4 has 14 steps.

- ❏ Steps 1-6: Students analyze two professional IMRaD research papers: their structures, language, and use of citations.
- ❏ Step 7-14: Students conduct an original empirical research project and write up all, or sections of, an IMRaD research paper.

Two additional sample prompts for research projects are included on pages 174–176 of this teacher's guide.

Step 1: Identify and Discuss an IMRaD paper (page 292)

To give students some assistance in finding a peer-reviewed article, you might begin this section with reviewing the section on Finding and Evaluating sources in the Online Source Use Appendix. This is particularly valuable material because it assists students in searching library databases, sometimes challenging activities for novices (or even experts!). If students have previously selected a research paper while working through the appendix, they could use that paper from their disciplines to answer the questions in Steps 1-6. Another possibility for the second research paper that can be used for comparison is Hyland (2008).

Before tackling Step 1, note that Table P3.1 shows the overall structure of a typical IMRaD. Go over Table P3.1 with the students and point out that each of these sections' descriptions are general and may not specifically apply to all IMraD papers. As they proceed through the unit, students will be able to analyze and scrutinize each section while examining the two selected peer-reviewed research articles.

Much longer discussions of IMRaD research papers appear in Swales and Feak (2012), to which the authors of this volume are deeply indebted.

Step 2: Analyze an IMRaD Research Paper (page 293)

This lengthy step involves a full peer-reviewed paper, "Exposure to Electronic Cigarette Advertising Among Middle School and High School Students" (Singh et al., 2016). It concludes with an activity in which students chart what the sections of this research paper **do**—that is, what are its functions—and **say**, or what are the major themes or main ideas? This activity gives students practice in applying the charting technique taught in Unit 4 (Summary) to an entire academic text. Since Unit 4 may not be included in all courses, the direction in the textbook asks students to identify the purpose and main point of each section. You might ask them to set up a table like the one in Figure P2, which contains some possible answers to the **do** and **say** questions for Singh et al. (2016).

FIGURE P2:
Summary Chart of Singh et al. (2016)

IMRaD Sections	What Does the Section Do?	What Does it Say?
Introduction	▪ Defines the key term. ▪ Explains the breadth and dangers of the problem of e-cigarette use, providing statistics. ▪ Notes the use of advertising to promote a dangerous product (the e-cigarette). ▪ States the purpose of the research report that follows.	The use of e-cigarettes is escalating among youth, and focused advertising of products may be one of the causes. The paper will disclose the extent and sources of e-cigarette advertising to young people.
Methods	▪ Describes data sources and sampling procedures. ▪ Lists questions in the survey of participants. ▪ Explains the analysis of the data.	Using a tested sampling procedure, 22,007 6-12th grade participants were surveyed about the frequency of their experiences with e-cigarette advertising on TV, in films or the internet, in retail stores, and in newspapers
Results	▪ Assisted by a visual, organizes data into three groups. ▪ Lists most important findings for each group. ▪ Notes some variation in gender.	Among all students, retail stores were the major ad exposure source, but all four sources provided exposure for 68.9% of the students. Middle school students (66.4%) were exposed to ads through at least one source, with retail stores providing the most exposure. Among 70% of the high school students, retail stores also provided the most exposure, although the other sources were also mentioned by students.
Discussion (Conclusion and Comments)	▪ Repeats major findings. ▪ Compares this study to other, related studies. ▪ Discusses the research on prevention of youth tobacco use. ▪ Argues for what should be done to carry out prevention programs. ▪ Acknowledges limitations of this study and what future studies might entail. ▪ Repeats the call for interventions to prevent student e-cigarette use.	Nearly 70% of all middle and high school students are exposed through one source to e-cigarette ads, and 15% are exposed to all four sources studied. Unfortunately, many students surveyed believed that e-cigarette use was a safe alternative to tobacco use. If government agencies fully funded prohibition of e-cigarette ads as they do tobacco ads, and these measures and others were backed by parents and care-givers, reductions of e-cigarette use among youth would probably be successful. There are limitations to this study, so additional studies are called for, in addition to focused efforts outlawing e-cigarette ads and providing extensive programs to reduce all tobacco use.

2. Here, some general comments by the students might be elicited.

   An important point: Since the project now moves on to the analyses of different parts of a research paper, at this juncture, you should <u>not</u> ask students to go through the somewhat long and painstaking process of charting their selected research papers as we have done with Singh et al.

   As an alternative task, you can you could assign groups to analyze different sections of the Singh et al. paper and identify the guiding language in that section that tells the reader what the writer is doing and, in some cases, what language the writer is using to move from one action to another. Some examples from the introduction and discussion/conclusion sections of the article that students might identify are shown.

Doing Language (Introduction)	*What's the Writer Doing? What Action is the Writer Taking?*
Electronic cigarettes are….	Defining a term (see Unit 4)
Youth use of tobacco *in any* form is unsafe.	Making a strong claim
This report assesses exposure to...	Stating the purpose of the research report

Doing Language (Conclusion)	*What's the Writer Doing?*
Approximately half were...approximately one in three...	Providing approximate figures from the results rather than the exact percentages
...the magnitude of exposure was consistent across groups	Drawing general conclusions from the results
[this finding] is consistent with...	Comparing findings from this study to those in other studies
This unrestricted marketing...	Making a claim based upon the results/findings
The evidence base indicates...	Making a somewhat hedged claim about research results
...there is a need for a fully funded...	Commenting on the implications of the results; making a claim

Step 3: Analyze the Introduction (page 301)

This section begins the focused analyses of the different sections common to IMRaD papers, though, of course, there are always possibilities for variation. The analysis of the introduction is taken from what is widely known as the CARS (Create A Research Space) model of article introductions (Swales, 1990), useful for understanding the major (functional) moves. Here, students have the opportunity to notice that though the three CARS moves are almost always present, they may be realized in different ways.

1. Students are asked to reread the introduction of the Singh, et al. (2016) paper and discover what the authors do. This "doing work" is to be compared with their selected articles, their sample papers.

2. You can download handouts for this activity with tables that students can complete from the companion website. Sample answers for Singh et al. (2016) and Hyland (2008) are provided.

Moves	*Singh et al.*	*Your Sample Paper (Example from Hyland, 2008)*
1. Establish what the article is about and why this research is important, including reviewing previous studies.	Electric cigarettes are … E-cigarette use has increased…among middle school…. E-cigarette sales have increased rapidly… corresponding increases have occurred in e-cigarette advertising expenditures.	Multi-word expressions (*lexical bundles*) are an important component of fluent linguistic production…. A range of corpus studies have shown how ubiquitous these bundles are in academic genres….
2. Identify the gap in the current research or the need for additional research.	Almost all tobacco use begins before age 18… during which time there is great vulnerability to social influences such as youth-oriented advertisements.	Yet while studies point to the considerable variation of bundles in different genres, how far they differ by discipline remains uncertain.
3. Show how this paper will fill the gap.	This report assesses exposure to e-cigarette advertisements among U.S. middle school and high school students.	This is the issue I address in this paper, examining a 3.5 million – word corpus to identify the forms and functions of 4-word bundles across four contrasting disciplines.

3. In Singh, et al. (2016), the purpose of the research is stated. After pointing out the gap, Hyland states the purpose (twice).

4. a. You might again turn to the Online Source Use Appendix where integral and non-integral citations are discussed. In Singh et al., the citations are all non-integral using footnote format, which is typical of medical research. Hyland uses a mixture of integral and non-integral citations in APA format, as expected in the social sciences. Students may note Hyland's use of the first-person pronoun ("the issue I address"), which contrasts with the impersonal structures in Singh et al. This might be a feature of the context (the discipline of applied linguistics) or the writer's role (Hyland's work has been cited over 30,000 times, clearly making him an expert in his field).

   b. This is an opportunity for students to examine the author's stance vis-à-vis the work of others. Most of the citations in the introduction to Singh et al. are neutral. Readers may see some evidence of aligning because the research results are presented as uncontested facts here in the introduction, especially *tobacco product advertising is causally related to … (9)*.

   c. In Singh et al., the authors seem more interested in the need for the study than in the weaknesses in the previous research. Hyland uses *yet* and devotes considerable space to the need for his study.

   d. The present simple dominates in Singh et al, but the present perfect is also employed effectively. In Hyland, the present simple predominates.

Step 4: Analyze the Methods Section (page 302)

Methods sections are often complex and comprehensible only to the researchers in the field. Thus, rather than delve too deeply into the procedures, we provide opportunities for students to work with an overview of this section. Again, students can turn to Singh et al. and either the research article they have chosen or to Hyland's 2008 paper.

2. You can download handouts for this activity with tables that students can complete from the companion website. Sample answers for Singh et al. (2016) and Hyland (2008) are provided.

Moves	Singh et al.	Your Sample Paper (Answers for Hyland)
Overview:	Data from the 2014 .... were analyzed to assess exposure to e-cigarette advertisements from four sources (listed).	No overview.
Participants and materials:	Middle and high school students (22,007 students from 207 schools).	Data for the study consist of three electronic corpora (120 published papers).
Procedures:	Survey with four questions; participants selected from four options.	Lexical bundles were categorized both structurally and functionally, using modified earlier taxonomies.
Analyses:	Discussion of how responses were calculated and the results.	Created tables showing different aspects of the results.

3. Language features in the Methods sections:

   a. Past simple tense predominates in both articles.

   b. Personal pronouns are not used. Sentences are in the passive voice.

   c. Citations do not appear in Singh et al.; however, they appear in Hyland, particularly as they relate to methods the writer is adapting for his work.

Language Box: Active and Passive Voice (page 303)

Since it is still common among some writing and content instructors, not to mention self-proclaimed style gurus, to tell students that use of the passive is always a sign of "bad writing," it is important to help students understand what the passive is (and is not) and how it is effectively used.

Grammatically, the passive voice is formed from the verb *be* in any tense plus the past participle (the *-ed* form of a regular verb), as shown.

Tense	Active	Passive
Present simple	*We conduct surveys.*	*Surveys are conducted.*
Present progressive	*We are conducting surveys.*	*Surveys are being conducted.*
Present perfect	*We have conducted surveys.*	*Surveys have been conducted.*
Past simple	*We conducted surveys.*	*Surveys were conducted.*
Past perfect	*We had conducted surveys.*	*Surveys had been conducted.*

Other forms of the passive are also shown.

Form	Active	Passive
Infinitive	*We need to conduct surveys.*	*Surveys need to be conducted.*
Modal	*We will conduct surveys.*	*Surveys will be conducted.*
Perfect modal	*We would have conducted surveys.*	*Surveys would have been conducted.*

An important note for English learners: **intransitive verbs** (that is, verbs that have no direct object in the active voice) have no passive form (e.g., *happen, occur, exist, live, die*). Some other commons verbs are rarely used in the passive voice (e.g., *increase, decrease, change*). For more on the passive voice, see *Keys to Teaching Grammar to English Language Learners, Second Edition* (pp. 293–306) and *Grammar Choices for Graduate and Professional Writers, 2ⁿᵈ Edition* (pp. 93–97).

You might follow up on active/passive use by directing students to the Singh et al. article's Methodology section to find sentences in the passive voice. They can then convert them to the active, followed by a discussion of why the passive has been chosen, for the most part, for this section.

Step 5: Analyze the Results Section (page 304)

As students read chart in the textbook, they should think about which pattern is used in the Singh et al. article and their second research article.

1. In Singh et al., the Results section is organized by participants: all students, high school students, and middle school students. In Hyland (2008), the Results section is organized by themes from the data: bundles, collocations, communities, frequencies and structure of disciplinary bundles, patterns and variations, and functions of bundles.

2. In Singh et al., the Introduction and Methods lead clearly to the results, since the Results section reports the students' responses at different ages. In Hyland (2008), a corpus study, the results are broken down into categories, as is promised by the two first sections.

3. & 4. In Singh et al., both a bar chart and a table are presented and discussed. Data are reorganized and limited for the purposes of explanation. Tables are summaries of the data and discussed in the text. Hyland (2008), in a long Results section, includes seven tables, present in each of the sub-sections. Only the most important data are reported in the text. Tables are summaries of the data and discussed in the text. See also Unit 6 (Report and Interpret Data).

5. a. Singh et al., discussing a survey that has been completed, uses the past tenses almost exclusively. Hyland (2008), emphasizing that his findings are still relevant, uses the present simple tense to discuss his data.

    b. Singh et al. use these words to summarize the data: *overall, among middle (and high) school students* Hyland writes: *it is possible to identify general meanings and purposes of bundles, over half the items do not occur, one clear difference between, comprised a high proportion* (and other terms).

    c. In Singh et al. (2016) comparisons are made by using this language: *Similar to the middle school students, more than half [of the high school students'..., was reported more frequently among females than males.* Hyland (2008) includes many phrases that suggest difference: *many bundles used by engineers are not found in other disciplines, principal structure of bundles also differ across fields.*

Step 6: Analyze the Discussion Section (pages 305)

The Discussion or Conclusion section of a paper often has a variety of purposes, though interpretation of the most important results is usually the most important (see also Unit 6: Report and Interpret Data).

You can download handouts for this activity with tables that students can complete from the companion website. Sample answers for Singh et al. (2016) and Hyland (2008) are provided.

1. / 2. We did not find any additional moves in either paper.

Moves	*Singh et al.*	*Your Sample Paper (Example from Hyland, 2008)*
Summary of the project and/or method	...nearly seven in 10 [students] were exposed to advertisements from at least one source....	My main purpose in this study has been....
Comparison with previous research	…...reported in the NYTS study....	The findings support studies by....
Argument for the importance of the research project (and the results)	This unrestricted marketing of e-cigarettes...has the potential to compromise decades of progress....	X [See implications]
Analysis of implications for theory, research, or practice	...to implement these strategies, there is a need for fully funded and sustained ...programs to address all forms of tobacco use.	These findings have clear implications for [instructors] ...encouraging learners to notice these multi-word units [is important].
Limitations	These findings are subject to two limitations....	The results need to be treated with some caution, of course. I have not discussed....
Conclusion/summary of main findings	[A call for action]: The implementation of these programs (against tobacco use)...has the potential to reduce all forms of tobacco use among youth....	[Call for further research]: The further study of bundles can offer insights into a crucial dimension of genre analysis....

3. Singh et al. ends with a summary of the main findings and implications for public-health policy in the form of a call to action. On the other hand, Hyland ends with a call for further research. This may be explained by the context: Singh et al.'s paper was published in a weekly journal that is read by practitioners and policy makers in medicine and public health, whereas Hyland's paper is from an academic journal that is mostly read by other linguists and their students.

4. Here, you can review students' understanding of boosting and hedging as well as the passive voice. See Units 6 and 7 for Language Boxes on boosting and hedging.

Question	*Singh et al.*	*Your Paper Example from Hyland, 2008*
4a: Hedging language	▪ *although there were slight variations by sex and ethnicity…* ▪ The evidence base *indicates…* ▪ Exposure to ads *might be contributing to….* ▪ *has the potential to...*	▪ the results *need to be treated with some caution.* ▪ *I hope, however, I have done enough here to suggest…* ▪ *further studies can offer*
4b: Boosting language	▪ These programs *are critical...* ▪ Multiple approaches *are warranted...*	Not in evidence
4c: Personal pronouns? Passive voice?	No personal pronouns or passive voice in this section	▪ *My main purpose in this study has been…* ▪ *I have not discussed* ▪ *The further study of bundles, I suggest….* ▪ Note: Hyland is a famous, well-published expert in his field of applied linguistics.
4d. Citing other research	Research is cited using language that aligns the reader with the results since they agree with this research: *has been shown to* (note the present perfect tense), *according to, this is consistent with, research supports, the evidence base …. indicates*	Not as much, but again the citations support Hyland's conclusions and recommendations: *the findings support, they reinforce calls by*

Question 4d refers to **citation**. In addition to discussing their responses, students might review their selected research paper for use of citation in all of the sections. If they have chosen a paper in the sciences, for example, there may not be a separate review of the literature section. Instead, research by others is cited throughout the paper.

Question 5 provides students with an opportunity to reflect on what they have learned from analyzing IMRaD papers. This ends the analysis of the structure of IMRaD research papers.

Step 7: Draft a Research Question (page 307)

Steps 7–14 are devoted to the students' research writing processes, based on a paper relating to eating practices and nutritional awareness among college students. Sample prompts are provided on pages 174–176 of this teacher's guide. Before you begin, you will need to make some decisions about where you want your students to devote most of their time during this process. For example:

❏ Step 7: Will they be developing their own **research question** or will it be given to them? In many novice assignments, the question or problem is given. Suggestions for questions are provided in the textbook, as well. The Language Box on question forms is designed for English learners, who may have had little experience asking research questions, even at advanced levels of proficiency.

❏ Step 8: Will students be **reviewing the literature** related to the topic or will you be providing the readings and websites for them to work from? In some undergraduate classes, the sources are provided for at least two reasons: to avoid plagiarism, since the sources are familiar to and approved by the instructor, and to encourage students to devote more time to drafting and revising the required paper. If they are making their own choices, the Online Source Use Appendix contains a more detailed process for conducting and evaluation research sources. Literature Reviews are taught in Unit 5 (Synthesis). If this was not part of your course and if students have not learned to write a synthesis in a previous course, you may want to omit or provide the literature review.

❏ Step 9: Will they take an interim step in the writing process by producing an **annotated bibliography** of their sources? In some classes, this is a separate, graded paper. Two examples of annotations are provided, but you may have different requirements for this assignment.

❑ Step 10: **Write an introduction**. Will students be writing their own Introduction based on the research question and sources that they have created? In some classes, students only write the Introduction and not other sections because introductions are so valuable in framing a paper.

❑ Step 11: **Collect and report data***: This could be the section that requires the most time in this project. Unit 6 (Report and Interpret Data) will be very useful as students work up to a data commentary. Here you will need to decide whether your students will develop the survey questions or the questions will be developed for them or taken from other research. Will the data be based upon a survey or something else? Will this be the time when they learn how to produce figures and tables, a useful but potentially time-consuming skill to teach?

❑ Step 12: **Write up your research.** The drafting and revising of research papers, particularly if students have had little or no practice, takes time. Which parts of this paper will be the focus? If all students have conducted the same survey, for example, the class might write the Methods section collaboratively and then students can independently interpret the results (see Unit 6).

❑ Step 13: **Revise and edit.** This section and the rubrics will be based on your decisions about what is important to the papers your students write. This step also includes the opportunity to write an abstract, which you may or may not decide to include. If you do, encourage students to contrast the Abstract with the Introduction, since they are different. They could also think about the differences between an abstract and a summary.

❑ Step 14: **Reflection.** This question provides students with an opportunity to review their work on this project, both the genre analysis and their own research papers.

Sample Prompts for Research Projects

Prompt Example 1: A Survey (Social Sciences)

We have been studying some of the major problems that have been facing our communities and the world: hunger, homelessness, racial injustice, and unemployment. Together, we have constructed an introduction to an IMRaD paper and designed your methodology and survey questions.

Your research questions, also designed in class, are:

- ❐ Which of the problems facing our communities and the world do people think are most important? Why?
- ❐ How do young and older people differ—and on what do they agree—about the severity of these problems?
- ❐ How else do these groups differ or are they in agreement?
- ❐ What do the two groups surveyed believe are the best solutions for the most important problem currently faced?

For your paper, administer the survey using the Likert-scale questions and follow-up open questions that we have designed. Select ten people to survey, and think carefully about your selection process.

Your paper, which will include the Introduction and Methodology sections we provided, will consist of a Results section that includes tables of data and a Discussion that interprets the results and draws conclusions and recommendations.

Example 2: Observation (Exercise and Nutritional Sciences)

Your paper will have this structure and these functions:

- ❐ Introduction: You will introduce the topic, discuss its importance, and state the methodology and purpose of the study.
- ❐ Methodology: You will describe your observation using the first person (*I*).

Observe an entire soccer or baseball game at the youth, collegiate, or professional level. Take notes during your observation, keeping in mind these three primary research questions that must be answered about a sport:

1. How is it organized? Who leads? Who follows? What are the positive features of good leaders on the team or among the coaches?
2. In what ways is it competitive? That is, what do the players do to compete? Who is competing more successfully and why?
3. What types of physical strength or agility are required? Who among the players is the most agile or capable physically? Why?

❑ Results: Organize your results section around the three research questions.

❑ Conclusion: State the purpose of your study, interpret your results, and recommend how, in a school setting, the sport you studied can be most inclusive and best organized, yet remain competitive.

Project 4: Personal Statement

Commentary

The Personal Statement (PS) is required of students who are applying for scholarships, grants, graduate study—and sometimes internships or jobs. However, the PS has proven to be a difficult genre for many students, principally because it is so different from the other academic genres with which they are familiar. What are the principal differences?

- ❐ The **persona of the writer** predominates in a PS text. Instructions online tell students to show, not tell, through stories and revealing comments, disclosing the person behind the resume, behind the grades, behind the extra-curricular activities, and behind the students' academic persona (Bauld, 2012). It is hard for some students to dig into that persona, particularly in writing, because they may not have had much practice; or, in some cases, they do not find this kind of self-revelation appropriate to their home cultures.

- ❐ The student writer **must shine through the text with language use that is more informal and intimate** than the register of most academic texts. Of course, the first person *I* is employed throughout; but beyond this, the writers must display personality traits, motivations, aptitude, interests, without sounding "gooey" through the language employed.

- ❐ **Audiences for PS texts may be unfamiliar;** they can be considerably different from the instructors, advisors, or supervisors for whom students have been writing during their academic careers. PS audiences may be wealthy patrons, admissions officers corporation staff, or gatekeepers with whom the students may have had little or no contact. Frequently, our students ask: "Who are the audiences I'm writing to?" "How do I appeal to them as I write?" These are good questions but are sometimes difficult for students to answer without considerable research on their part.

❑ Although there is some agreement on the typical **moves in PS texts** (see Johns, 2019), there is also a considerable variety in the placement and presentations of these moves among successful examples (Samraj & Monk, 2008). Some of this variety stems from the PS prompts or the nature of the audiences, but the writer's own motivations and stories also can play a central role in how a PS text is structured and how coherence in the text is achieved.

If you plan to teach the Personal Statement, we make these suggestions related to the challenges of this genre:

❑ Survey your students about what they might be applying for that requires a personal statement. Ask them to collect prompts to which they will be responding, if possible.

❑ Encourage students to discover as much as possible about the values and interests of the audiences addressed. For example, if they are applying for a scholarship, what the granting agency or individual is looking for in an applicant: excellent academic achievements, volunteer work, leadership achievements, applicant ethnic diversity, or…? Successful PS writers must know the answer(s) to this question and focus their writing accordingly.

❑ Students might be applying for several different grants, scholarships, or to several universities. If so, provide for them a variety of experiences with prompt analysis, as we do in this project. They need to analyze prompts for specific PS texts very, very carefully. They must also realize that one PS will not suffice. In every case, they need to consider the prompt and the audience, in particular.

❑ Encourage students to search online for any assistance that might be offered in responding to prompts of the type selected. There are some excellent websites designed to assist students to apply for named grants and scholarships, for example. The Online Writing Lab at Purdue has good advice and examples for graduate school applicants (https://owl.purdue.edu/owl/job_search_writing/preparing_an_application/writing_the_personal_statement/examples.html). Specific universities like University of Southern California also offer advice (https://dornsife.usc.edu/grad-school-essays/). Specific advice is available for Fulbright

applicants, much of which could apply to other grants, depending, of course, upon the prompts provided (e.g., https://academics.lmu.edu/media/lmuacademics/nationalinternationalscholarshipoffice/documents/Guidelines%20for%20Writing%20Fulbright%20Personal%20Statements.pdf).

❐ Warn students that most PS writers draft their texts several times, submitting these drafts to readers who can provide encouraging, but accurate, suggestions for revision. Family members and fellow students may not be the best readers in some cases, depending, of course, upon the type of PS required and the audience that will examine it.

Goals

❐ Understand the importance of the writer's role in the personal statement

❐ Analyze the audience, purpose, and structure of different personal statements

❐ Revise an unsuccessful personal statement

❐ Plan and write an effective personal statement for a job, scholarship, or university application

Project 4 has nine steps.

❐ Steps 1 and 2 immerse students not only in prompt analysis but in **identifying the qualities of a person** who would be a good candidate to match the specifications of the prompt.

❐ Steps 3-5 analyze three sample responses to the same PS prompt for university admission.

❐ Step 6 looks at a different prompt for a scholarship application.

❐ Steps 7-8 take students through the process of planning, writing, and proofreading their own personal statements.

❐ Step 9 is a reflection.

Step 1: What Makes a Good Candidate? (page 318)

Answers will vary; suggested responses:

a. *Undergraduate application*: an individual who can discuss how previous experiences have "shaped" their future dreams and goals.

b. *Udall Scholarship:* an individual with proven leadership experience.

c. *Boren Scholarship:* an individual who can identify challenges—and overcome them.

d. *Graduate application:* an individual who can relate future education to long-term goals.

e. *Fulbright award*: an individual who can dissect an observation or experience in terms of its influence—in this case, the optimal experience would be an international one.

After reading the prompts, you might then require a quick-write, comparing and contrasting the two examples. Ask how and why the prompts are similar and different.

Step 2: Analyze the Prompt (page 319)

Students will read three sample responses to this prompt. First, though, they need to analyze it carefully. In pairs, the students should read the prompt, create the questions being asked, and then, individually, think of some of the responses they might make.

Prompt Text (What's Written in the Prompt)	The Question That Is Implied
Describe the world you come from—for example, your family, community or school	What world will you choose to draw from as you select something that "shaped" you?
and tell us how your world has shaped your dreams and aspirations.	How did this world influence, or shape, your future dreams and aspirations?

Step 3: Analyze Personal Statements for University Admission (page 319)

Keeping the prompt in mind and the importance of the individual writer and the writer's self-construction, students read Text 1.

Answers will vary; suggested responses:

1. The audience is looking specifically for how the writer has been shaped by an experience and probably how this shaping will make them a better university student. The last point is implied by the prompt.

2. Whether expectations are met depends somewhat upon what the student's major will be. If it is English, rhetoric, or another major that requires different types of writing, then the answer is yes. However, if the student plans to be an engineer or an IT specialist, perhaps the answer is no. Other types of shaping would be required in that case.

3. Answers are provided in the textbook for the first three paragraphs; we have included possible answers for Paragraphs 4, 5, and 6.

Paragraph	What Is the Writer Doing?	What Is the Writer Saying?
4	**Explaining** how that experience affected my academic writing.	I became a more mature writer as I completed work for other classes.
5	**Explaining** how that experience affected my non-academic, everyday writing.	I was able to address effectively different types of audiences outside of my class.
6	**Concluding** by giving Miss Boyd credit for my growth as a writer.	It was Miss Boyd who began it all and freed me to be the kind of writer I now am.

4. Coherence is an important aspect of all successful texts, of course, but it is often difficult for PS writers to achieve because they tend to get off track (see Text 3). Here, coherence is achieved because the writer concludes by bringing the reader back to the initial story. More importantly, there is one theme, which is the person's experience that initiated her chance-taking, successful writing.

5. A single comment by a teacher inspired this writer to be more motivated in her academic and everyday writing.

Before the students read Text 2, which is considerably different from Text 1, ask them to review the prompt and consider it as they read. The importance of providing a second successful example is to show students that texts in this genre can respond to the same prompt but be varied in several ways and still succeed.

6. In some ways, this could be considered a more successful response. Like many students, this writer needs to explain why some of his grades were low during a certain period in his life. In doing so, he tells the story of his family and, more importantly, the skills he developed while assisting his siblings in crisis. In contrast to the author of Example 1, this writer demonstrates, through citing an expert "text," that he has some of the most important attributes for success in college i*n any major.*

7. Text 2 is quite a bit different from Text 1; however, there are similarities in that both writers talk about facing failure and recovering. In Text 1, a teacher assisted the writer in not only recovering but improving and becoming increasingly motivated. In the case of Text 2, the writer himself assisted in his recovery. In both cases, they demonstrated "shaping" and personal growth as well as readiness to face the demands of their future education. Students can make a chart like the one provided to analyze the structure of this personal statement.

Paragraph	What Is the Writer Doing?	What Is the Writer Saying?
1	Citing a source and relating it to the claim that makes the text coherent	Worried about my low grades and test scores, I am glad that Shankar Vedantam says that "grit" and "soft skills" are most important for success.
2	Taking two "grit" characteristics, explains how they relate to the writer's life.	I am a problem solver and planner, as shown by my support of my family.
3	Explains how family responsibilities affected the writer's grades.	My grades fell when I was assisting my siblings to recover after my mother died.
4	Shows change: how the writer returned to studies, highly motivated.	When the family began to improve, I returned "highly motivated, and mature," to my studies.
5	Argues that the writer is a better student due to family hardships.	These family experiences and my recovery show that I'm a "bounce-back" kid.

Step 4: Review a Personal Statement (page 323)

The students have now been asked to analyze two examples of effective personal statements. Before they read a less successful text (Text 3), they are asked to develop a list of evaluative criteria. They will use this list to review Text 3 (Step 5) and then write their own personal statement.

Once the class has agreed on a list of criteria, you could ask them to construct a table to evaluate Text 3 (see Table TM P4.1). This PS was written by a multilingual student and clearly still needs some revision. While there are problems with grammar and expression, encourage students to focus first on the content and cohesion of the statement.

TABLE TM P4.1:
Sample Criteria and Evaluation of Text 3

Criterion	Very Good	Good	Needs Improvement	Comments to the Writer
Writer closely follows the prompt			X	The writer complicates the response in the first para by mixing several of the possible "shaping" elements rather than one.
Writer's persona is clear and central			X	At least initially, there is more about his mother than himself.
Writer follows moves (of some type) effectively		X		The experience that affected the writer is mentioned in the second and third paragraphs. However, not enough is about the writer himself.
Text is coherent: the text can be summarized in one sentence			X	We should be able to summarize the paper in one sentence. It can't be done because we are not sure where the author is going in his text.
Story is detailed	X			Quite a bit of detail.
Detail is interesting and relevant.		X		Interesting...but not always relevant.

Step 5: Revise a Personal Statement (page 325)

This activity assists students to be more effective peer reviewers. After they review the prompt and criteria and revise Text 3, it is useful for them to discuss what they did in revision, that is, what they changed, further developing their metacognitive awareness of Personal Statements.

This ends the section on analysis of PS responses to a university application prompt. The project now turns to a different student goal and Personal Statement directed toward the award of a scholarship.

Step 6: Analyze a Personal Statement for a Scholarship Application (page 325)

We believe that prompt analysis is key to effective planning, writing, and revision. Here are possible answers to Questions 1–3:

1. The readers of this prompt appear to be looking for an individual in a specific major who is very interested in and motivated by that major.
2. This is difficult to answer, but background in what the major requires might be one; another might be the ability to link a major with career goals.
3. Students might answer with mention of extra-curricular activities related to the students' chosen careers or certain classes students had taken that helped them decide upon a major.

After reading Text 4, students answer the questions. Suggested responses are:

4. Yes, the writer will probably meet the reader's expectations because the choice of major was carefully discussed, the connection between the major and future goals is shown, and the writer is enthusiastic about learning that relates to the major.
5. In pairs or groups, student can answer this question by completing a Doing/Saying chart. Below is the chart for this PS with possible responses included.

Paragraph	What Is the Writer Doing?	What Is the Writer Saying?
1	**Explaining** family-related reasons for his initial choices of a major. Laying the groundwork for discussing his "failure."	Though many of my family members were engineers, I was not sure about my choice or a major and had problems adjusting to studying in a new country. These factors explain my poor grades in my first year of college.
2	**Reflecting** on his "failure" and its importance to his eventual academic success.	This failure was important because it forced me to reflect upon my major, take new courses, and eventually succeed.
3	**Showing** his love of computers through discussion of various hobbies and class projects he's been involved in.	My various hobbies and class projects have developed my expertise and show my continuing "fervor" toward computer hardware and software.
4	**Explaining** long-term goals.	I want to continue to learn new (computer) languages and develop my understanding of other related subject matter with the long-term goal of graduate work and a career in computer engineering.
5	**Showing** in detail his long-term employment plans and how he will use his knowledge effectively to serve the world.	My field is very important, and I want to be a part of using it in designing large-scale projects to improve traffic or solve more global problems.

6. This PS is coherent in that it is chronological, as the student works toward the integration of his major, defining his interests and his future goals.

7. Looking to his future career and its importance in the "age of innovation," the writer discusses his efforts to find his chosen major and his interests that relate to that major and to his aspirations.

Step 7: Plan Your Own Personal Statement (page 328)

In this step, we prepare students to write a Personal Statement. Considering the difficulty our students have had writing in this genre, we recommend that you take the students through the entire process described here (Questions 1–7).

Step 8: Write and Revise Your Personal Statement (page 330)

Students are now given the opportunity to analyze the structure and evaluate their own work. This is very good practice for all of their writing, but particularly for texts in this genre, which, we have found, often need to be revised several times.

Language Box: Proofreading (page 331)

This Language Box will be quite valuable to students no matter what they are writing but especially for a high-stakes text such as a Personal Statement, which should be meticulously proofread.

Step 9: Reflection (page 333)

Throughout this textbook, we have asked students to reflect, an important skill for developing transfer of learning. Here, again, they look back on their work and consider how they might use their strengths as a person and as a writer in the future.

Online Source Use Appendix

Commentary

It is generally agreed that successful integration of sources into texts is one of the most important academic writing skills. Since source use may be taught at different times and in different ways depending on the context, we have made this appendix available online as a downloadable resource for any classes using *Essential Actions*. The appendix is organized as a process of steps that students might take when working on a writing task that requires the use of sources, whether they are chosen by the instructor or the student. However, each section can also be integrated independently into different parts of a course.

❐ **Analyzing an Assignment:** In academic classes, understanding how sources are to be used and which sources are appropriate are both crucial to student success.

❐ **Finding Useful Sources:** This section has two parts:
  ▪ **Searching the Internet** (because we know this is what students actually do)
  ▪ **Using Library Catalogues and Databases** (because this is what some of their instructors will want students to do)

❐ **Evaluating the Reliability of Sources:** This section is very important and is referred to throughout *Essential Actions*; here we present a set of strategies for evaluating the reliability of any potential source, known as SIFT (Stop, Investigate, Find trusted coverage, Trace the original context).

❐ **Planning with Sources:** In this section, students learn how to plan a writing project and use certain strategies to determine how they are going to use their sources.

❐ **Writing with Sources:** This section has three parts and concerns the mechanics of source use, including a discussion of plagiarism.

  ▪ **Paraphrasing**

  ▪ **Quotation**

  ▪ **Citation,** including the choice between **integral and non-integral citations**

  ▪ **Understanding Plagiarism**

❐ **Using a Style Guide:** We leave the actual choice of reference style (e.g., APA, MLA, etc.) up to the individual instructor or program.

Novice students' understanding of the issues related to using sources such as selection, evaluation, paraphrasing, and quoting is more important than the number of sources required in an assignment. For writing classes in the early college years as well as English learners preparing for undergraduate and graduate programs, we have found that three to five sources, well-selected and integrated, are sufficient for most assignments.

Analyzing an Assignment (page 3)

The unit begins here because most novice academic writing is assigned with a prompt, so it is important for students to analyze the assignment to guide their selection and use of sources.

Activity 1: Purposes for Using Sources (page 4)

Answers will vary since the history class prompt shown in Activity 1 is somewhat vague, which makes it representative of quite a lot of university assignments. Sample responses: 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11. Note that the prompt does not appear to be asking for an argument or an evaluation. It appears that students are expected to explain the information from their sources, identifying the authors' opinions and interpretations, and show where they are similar and different, rather than supporting a particular side or viewpoint. The mention of quotation, citation, and MLA (Modern Languages Association) style hints at the unstated purpose of avoiding plagiarism.

If your students are also enrolled in other classes that have writing projects, you may want to ask them to repeat this activity with a writing prompt from another class so that they develop the habit of doing this.

Finding Useful Sources

Searching the Internet (page 5)

Here we encourage students to be purposeful in their internet searches and not just type in a vague term and click on the first few results, which can lead to very poor choices of sources. We have deliberately included Wikipedia, even though it is discouraged or disdained by some faculty because experts in media literacy recommend its careful and strategic use as part of the research and fact-checking process.

The bulleted "efficiency and accuracy" instructions from Winebury & McGrew (2017) can save students a great deal of time and frustration. You might list these bulleted items in a checklist for students to complete as they search for sources.

Activity 2: Finding Online Sources (page 6)

This activity can either be completed as a stand-alone task, possibly in pairs or groups, to think about the use of online sources in general, or as preparation for a specific writing task, in which case students might answer the questions individually. In an online course, this activity could be completed in an online discussion board, and peers can comment with their opinions about the usefulness of the sources.

Answers will vary; sample responses:

1. To report, sell, advertise, persuade, inform, misinform, create community, offer help or advice, etc.
2. Look at the writer or sponsoring organization and infer their purpose. Look for clues that the site is selling or advertising a product. Look at the title and type of site. Look at who links to it and who is linked from the site. Search for information about this site, author, or organization on other websites, including Wikipedia.

The answers to the remaining questions will depend on students' individual searches. If this section of the Appendix is taught in parallel with another unit in *Essential Actions*, then the search should be conducted on the topic of the current or next writing task or project. If it is taught at the start of a course or in between units, suggested topics are provided under number 3 in the Appendix.

Using Library Catalogs and Databases (page 6)

Though many students find accessing the internet relatively easy, library database searches may be more challenging. However, since many faculty prefer that students consult peer-reviewed journals or other texts in databases, it is especially important that students have practice in finding what they need in the library.

Students really need to be working on a source-based assignment to benefit from this section. Ideally, this will be the same topic or assignment from Activity 2, that is, a writing task or project from elsewhere in *Essential Actions*. Alternatively, students can practice searching the databases for information on a topic of interest.

Activity 3: Searching for Library Sources (page 7)

If possible, liaise with a member of the instructional team at your college or university library because they will be able to tailor this activity to the specific resources available at your institution. Since much library research is online, this section lends itself well to asynchronous (self-paced) work in online courses. Many libraries provide instruction on using databases in the library and will come to your class to do demonstrations. Others have short videos available online.

The steps in this activity should help students find several database sources for their current writing project. You might conclude the activity with different steps:

❐ Ask students to share the resources they found in a small group and explain how they found the sources and why they are useful for their project. Although this is especially useful if group members are researching the same topic, it is still valuable to hear how other peers have used the databases, and the act of justifying a source to a group can reveal whether or not it is truly useful.

❐ Ask students to write a short reflection paper on their search methodology. A search methodology task is useful in developing students' understanding of library databases and helps them to think about the choices they make when selecting sources. Writing about the experience helps them to reflect, as well. For example, you might assign this prompt: "In a two- to three-page paper, describe how you conducted your research using the questions in this activity."

Evaluating the Reliability of Sources (page 8)

Caulfield (2017) and other experts have cautioned that some widely shared methods for checking a website's purpose and reliability are in fact unreliable: Websites ending .org are not inherently more trustworthy than those with a .com domain; any author can create a credible-seeming About page and put dates and attributions on their site; and some websites with clear advocacy or misinformation goals are very slick and even imitate reliable professional organizations.

Students have found the **SIFT strategies** discussed in this section very useful for evaluating the reliability of sources. You can read more about SIFT in Caulfield's free online course, which has examples that you may also be able to integrate into a face-to-face or online course: http://lessons.checkplease.cc/ and on his blog (Caulfield, 2019).

The SIFT strategies are: **S**top; **I**nvestigate the source; **F**ind trusted coverage; **T**race back to the original context. Ask your students to work through this activity using one of the online sources they found in Activities 2 or 3, particularly one that may be suspicious. Encourage students to see themselves as fact-checkers (Wineburg & McGrew, 2017).

Activity 4: Evaluating Information (page 10)

This is a useful group work activity, one that extends the SIFT strategies to the ways in which topics are treated differently on websites. For example, you could divide students into groups, assign them one of the five sentences, ask them to find sites that are related, and to report their research. Students could then individually write a short report evaluating the claim and explaining why the websites they chose should be considered reliable. They should also evaluate the sources they have found for their current writing project.

All five statements in this activity are problematic, as students should realize when they search for information.

1. If you search for this quote and add "fact check" or "misquote," you'll quickly learn that Einstein did not say that madness is "doing the same thing over and over again and expecting different results." The website Quote Investigator has a very thorough history on this quote, including a reference to a book on Einstein published by Princeton University Press: https://quoteinvestigator.com/2017/03/23/same/

2. One of the top search results if you just type the sentence into a search engine is a Snopes fact-check that debunks this claim (it only applies to Ontario, and it refers to using cell phones, not eating): https://www.snopes.com/fact-check/canadians-eating-while-driving/

3. The Employment Policies Institute certainly makes this claim, but it should be viewed with caution and not treated as an unbiased research result. According to Wikipedia, "The Employment Policies Institute is a fiscally conservative, non-profit American think tank that conducts and publishes research on employment issues, particularly aimed towards reducing the minimum wage."

4. Unfortunately, this overstates the medical research. WebMD, a reliable site for the general public, notes that "these plant-based forms of vitamin A lower your risk of long-term eye diseases." That's not the same as improving your eye sight! https://www.webmd.com/eye-health/ss/slideshow-eyes-sight-foods A review of the science by the University of Iowa Extension found that even those benefits are not well supported, but green vegetables are healthy in many other ways. https://www.extension.iastate.edu/news/2010/mar/120301.htm

5. This one is a bit harder to find since the top search results are often test-preparation services that have a commercial interest is emphasizing the importance of test scores. However, scrolling down a search for "do you need high test scores for university admission" reveals a *US News and World Report* article which describes this as a myth https://www.usnews.com/education/best-colleges/articles/common-college-admissions-myths and lists several top universities that are test optional. Tufts University addresses this directly and states flat-out "nope." https://admissions.tufts.edu/apply/advice/dispel-myths/

Planning with Sources (page 11)

Here, we emphasize that students should not see source use and citation as a chore or afterthought but as an integral part of the planning and writing process. One of the hardest skills to learn in academic writing, we think, is strategic and effective use of sources rather than "dumping" in quotations, statistics, and citations. Therefore, we

encourage students to think carefully about which sources to use, where to use them, and how to integrate them (quotation, paraphrase, summary, synthesis, or just a citation, the mechanics of which are discussed later in this Appendix).

Activity 5: Making a Plan for Source Use (page 12)

In this activity, we demonstrate a method for planning with sources that goes beyond the traditional advice for making structured outlines as lists of ideas. The goal is for this level of analysis and reflection to become automatic as students develop proficiency in writing with sources, but it is also a useful addition to the planning stage. A model set of notes appears before the activity. The planning and outlining step can be included in the process for any source-based writing task in the textbook.

Another version of this activity would be an annotated bibliography in which students have to explain how and why they will use each source (see Project 2).

Writing with Sources

Paraphrasing (page 13)

You might begin this important section by asking the class if they know what paraphrasing is. You may find that most have a general idea, such as "putting things in my own words." Then, you can read the bulleted list defining the term. To test them for their prior knowledge and abilities, you might give them Example 1 in Activity 6 without any of the scaffolding. After discussing some of their efforts, turn to the "good technique" bulleted points to give them some help.

Activity 6: Paraphrasing Practice (page 14)

Review the answers in the chart for Example 1. For practice, divide students into groups to construct similar charts for Examples 2 and 3 or assign them for class- or homework. Answers may vary; sample responses:

2.

Key words:	*task, procrastinate, cause, remedy, stress*
Synonyms and alternate words forms:	*task* (n) = responsibility, job, assignment *cause* (n) = reason for something happening, issues *situation* (n) =problem, event *energy* (n) = vigor, vitality, pep *remedy* (v) = help, treat, alleviate, take care of *stress* (n) = tension, anxiety, burden
Logical relations:	cause/effect: *It might be due to…;* problem/solution: *…you should definitely…*
Paraphrase:	*There may be a number of reasons why we cannot complete an assignment, but no matter what the causes are, it is important to identify and treat them. Whatever the reasons, if you lack vigor and are anxious about not fulfilling your responsibilities, you should find out what is wrong and take care of it.*

3.

Key words:	*Procrastination/procrastinating, stress, anxiety, mental energy, task, motivation, disastrous results*
Synonyms and alternate words forms:	*stress* (n) = tension, anxiety, burden, pressure *mental urgency* (noun phrase). = cognitive focus *quickly* (adv) = rapidly *boost* (n) =increase, elevation, hike *urgency* (n) = [in this case] drive, impulses *put off* (phrasal verb) =delay *surge of motivation* (noun phrase) = rush to accomplish something *college work* (noun phrase) = assignments *underestimation* (n) = minimize (v), underrate (v) *disastrous* (adj) = unfortunate, devastating
Logical relations:	contrast = *on the other hand* cause/result = *while this may have worked…when it comes to…sometimes with disastrous results.*
Paraphrase:	*Procrastination can make a person anxious. However, there are students who welcome this anxiety because they believe it will give them increased cognitive drive. Perhaps this was true before, but students often underrate the amount of time required to finish college assignments, and this can potentially lead to devastating outcomes.*

Language Box: Word Families (page 15)

One way into paraphrasing is to change the form of a key word because this will also necessitate a new sentence structure. English learners in particular may need help identifying members of word families. However, if you focus on the more academic words (*obsession, recognition*) or on the differences between *effect* and a*ffect*, all students could benefit.

Before going on to Activity 7, you might return to the examples Activity 6 and ask students to covert some of the vocabulary (e.g., *devastating, anxiety, drive*) into other parts of speech.

Activity 7: Practice the Language (page 16)

Students should be encouraged to transform the words in italics but also examine a thesaurus to find appropriate synonyms for other words in the original.

Answers will vary. Some possible responses are provided.

1. The increasing human impact in the least populated regions of the earth is caused by explorers who search for scarce natural resources.
2. Ethics are vitally important for researchers in medicine in order to ensure that patients who participate in experiments are protected.
3. Business succeed when their managers adopt a style that is a good fit for the company.
4. Dieting can be harmful in the absence of medical guidance.

Quotation (page 16)

Depending on your students, their majors, their proficiency levels, and their current writing task, you can ask them to contrast peer-reviewed articles in the humanities (where quotation is more frequent) with those in a "hard" science, such as biology and chemistry, where it is extremely rare or non-existent. While they are examining these texts, they might also count the number of sources cited, how they are cited, and where the sources appear in the paper (e,g., is there a literature review? does the discussion cite other sources?).

The example about fruit flies is important because novice writers do not always understand that quoting phrases or even a few words rather than a whole sentence often improves the flow of their writing and enables students to reduce the amount of quotation and keep their texts in their own voices.

Exercise 8: Using Quotations (page 17)

Possible answers are shown. Point out to students that when they use direct quotations from print sources, they must include the page number from the sources. Since this is an online source, there are no page numbers. Style guides may vary in their precise conventions.

1. Employers may be biased against job candidates who have had certain types of jobs such as "part-time, temporary help, or mismatched work" (de Witte, 2020).

2. Some people find it difficult to get a job if they have not already had steady full-time work. "[Managers'] evaluations are especially critical towards applicants whose employment histories differ from conventional notions of what a 'good' job is" (de Witte, 2020).

   Note: In this case, "managers" does not appear in the original but was added to provide a subject for the sentence, hence the square brackets. Also, the double quotation marks around "good" in the original text become single quotes ('good') inside the quotation.

3. Interviewers often see many candidates, so they have to make "rapid assessments" (de Witte, 2020) about the people they want to hire.

Citation (page 18)

The important issue of "common knowledge" is addressed here. We emphasize that the difference between information that needs a citation and information which is considered shared depends heavily on context. Therefore, it is impossible to give firm rules about the need for citation. If in doubt, it is always preferable to cite too much (which can be mildly irritating) than too little (which can be considered plagiarism).

Activity 9: Using Citations (page 19)

Answers may vary; suggested responses:

1. No. This is common knowledge without any exceptional phrasing.
2. Yes. Readers will want to know which experts disagree.
3. Yes. This is a direct quotation and a pithy phrase (Grosjean, 1989).

4. Yes. This is a statistic that the writer should support with evidence and not assume.

5. No. Probably not in the context of a linguistics class where this is common knowledge, but perhaps in other contexts.

6. No. This is a standard definition, so common knowledge.

7. Yes. This is a specific statistic whose source should be cited.

8. It depends: If this is purely the writer's opinion, then, no. However, if the opinion in fact belongs to a source or is supported by a source, it should be cited.

As an extension, students might look at the sources they are using for their current writing project and identify which information they will need to cite and which appears to be shared and "common" in the field, bearing in mind that their role as a writer might require them to cite information that another writer (e.g., an expert) would not. They might also consider whether there are fragments of text within the materials that require citation because they are unique to a writer or for other reasons.

Integral and Non-Integral Citations (page 20)

The difference between integral and non-integral citation is very important. The proportion of the two types of citation varies widely by field, as noted in the Appendix. You might ask students to look at the articles they downloaded in Activity 3 for their current writing project to see whether the patterns they notice match those in Hyland's (1999) research. They can also investigate the frequency of citation: in some sciences, citation is rare (the literature review is brief or absent), whereas in the humanities and social sciences, citations can be abundant. You might ask them why. The answer lies in the ways that knowledge is built in different fields: through experimentation and data in the "hard" sciences, versus through consideration, analysis, application, and sometimes disagreement with other texts, sources, and theories in the humanities and social sciences.

We note in particular the last point in this section: the use of citation to avoid vague subjects such as *someone, some people*, and *research*.

Language Box: Reporting Verbs (page 21)

Reporting verbs are verbs that express what a speaker says, writes, believes, or feels. As such they are very important for integral citations (citations where the author of the source is named in the sentence). This Language Box presents two grammatical issues with reporting verbs:

- ❏ Some reporting verbs require a preposition (e.g., agree *with*), while others do not (e.g., discuss, not discuss *about*).
- ❏ Most reporting verbs can be followed by a noun phrase (*the article shows the benefits of bilingualism*) or a noun clause (*the article shows that bilinguals have cognitive advantages*). However, a small number of reporting verbs cannot be followed by noun clauses (e.g., *the author describes the advantages of bilinguals,* but not *the author describes that bilinguals have cognitive advantages*).

A noun clause is a essentially a complete sentence that can be embedded in another sentence using a connector such as *that*. The noun clause is usually the complement (object) of the verb or preposition. Most noun clauses are very easy to form and are familiar to proficient users of English because they are very frequently used (e.g., *I know that …*). More complicated noun clauses are formed from questions (e.g., the author asks *why monolingualism is assumed to be the norm* or the article discusses *whether bilingual programs are equitable*). For more information about the formation of noun clauses, please see *Keys to Teaching Grammar to ESL/EFL Teachers, Second Edition* (p. 352) or *Grammar Choices for Graduate and Professional Writers, 2nd Edition* (p. 62–67).

Activity 10: Practice the Language (page 22)

A good English learner's dictionary will be especially helpful to multilingual students for this activity.

Verb	Noun Phrase	Prepositional Phrase	Noun Clause
show	Research shows the benefits of bilingualism.	X	Research shows that bilingualism has advantages.
describe	Bialystok describes her volume on bilingualism.	X	X
argue	X	The author argues against English-only policies.	The author argues that English-only policies harm students.
discuss	In his accessible volume, Baker discusses raising bilingual children.	X	X
state	Werner states his beliefs in the first chapter.	X	Baker states that there are a variety of ways to raise a bilingual child.
claim	X (except in rare cases such as *claim the right to* or *claim victory*)	X	Baker claims that there are no alternatives to using this term.
believe	X	The researchers believe in the importance of using this method.	The researchers believe that this method is the most important one.
suggest	Baker suggests a number of research paths.	X	Baker suggests that a number of paths could be followed.
support	Bialystok supports bilingual education.	X	X
agree	X	Baker agrees with Bialystok's views.	Researchers agree that bilingual education is preferable.
present	The study presents the results of an investigation into bilingual education.	X	X
prove	The research proves the financial benefits of bilingualism.	X	The research proves that bilinguals have been work opportunities.
illustrate	The research illustrates the benefits of bilingualism.	The results are illustrated in Figure 1.	The research illustrates that bilinguals have certain advantages.

Understanding Plagiarism (page 22)

Although this topic appears towards the end of this Appendix, we all know that in many instructors' minds, plagiarism is a major concern. When one co-author of this volume (Johns) served as her university's Director of Teaching and Learning, she could attract a large number of faculty from across the disciplines when this topic was the focus of a workshop. Thus, it certainly needs to be dealt with in writing classes; however, at the same time, students should understand that avoiding accusations of plagiarism is not the only reason to learn how to cite, paraphrase, and quote sources.

It is important to call attention to the differences between copying people's original ideas or images and merely using the common words and phrases that appear throughout academic writing and are not considered plagiarism. Hyland (2008) lists a number of these common words and phrases, which he calls "lexical bundles," that students can employ as is, because they are not original ideas or images.

❑ *the end of the, the nature of the, the beginning of the, a large number of*

❑ *the fact that the, one of the most, the extent to which*

❑ *at the end of, as a result of, on the basis of, in the context of*

❑ *on the other hand, at the same time, in the present study, with respect to the is shown in figure, is based on the, is defined as the, can be found in*

❑ *it is important to, it is possible that, it was found that, it should be noted is the same as, is a matter of, is due to the, be the result of*

❑ *as shown in figure, should be noted that, is likely to be, as well as the*

If your students have been working with an article from their disciplines, ask them to identify words and phrases in their articles that are common and, if used in their own writing, would not be considered plagiarism. This is often the language that holds a text together, building coherence. If you do not have an article to use, Hyland (2008) is itself an excellent example of how to use sources effectively.

English learners face an additional challenge with paraphrasing, namely vocabulary. Effective paraphrasing requires a broad vocabulary to find synonyms and circumlocutions, which may be beyond learners' lexical range. Consequently, their texts may appear plagiarized when they are in fact poorly paraphrased due to a lack of vocabulary knowledge. Noticing common phrasing and differentiating between keywords that should be changed and other language that needs to be paraphrased is an important starting point. Judicious use of a learner's dictionary, especially one with an integrated thesau-

rus, can be useful. Other suggestions are found in Mott-Smith, Tomaš, and Kostka, *Teaching Effective Source Use: Classroom Approaches that Work* (University of Michigan Press, 2017).

Activity 11: Identifying Plagiarism (page 23)

Students should read the extract carefully and identify any language that they consider acceptable for reuse in a paraphrase. They should also review the requirements for referencing sources (paraphrase/quotation + citation).

1. Not acceptable. This would be clear plagiarism: the language is almost identical to the original with just a few small changes, and there is no citation.

2. Not acceptable. Substituting a few words for synonyms is not paraphrasing, and the lack of citation means this is also plagiarized.

3. Not acceptable. This paraphrase is still essentially the author's ideas and uses many of their original words and phrases without a citation. Even though the writer has reorganized the information and cut some sentences, this would still be considered plagiarized.

4. Not acceptable. This is better because the quotation is supporting the writer's own idea, but the quotation must have a citation to indicate the source.

5. Not acceptable. Although the writer has acknowledged the source of the idea, it is still plagiarism to use exact words from a source without quotation marks even with a citation.

6. Acceptable. The writer has changed the structure and many of the words but retains the meaning from the original text and provides the correct citation.

Using a Style Guide (page 24)

Although it is true that some writing instructors devote a considerable amount of time to referencing practices and some content-area faculty view precise referencing as important, we believe that by examining online guides, students can learn referencing systems fairly quickly. Writing well is more important, in the long run, than use of italics and punctuation.

However, both citation and referencing are an integral part of source use, and undergraduate students in particular may encounter a number of different style guides in different classes (e.g., MLA in English, Chicago style in history, and APA in linguistics). Therefore, they can use the questions listed in the appendix to investigate a familiar or unfamiliar style guide now or in future classes.

Activity 12: What Style Guide Is Required? (page 24)

We assume you have already introduced the style guide required for your class or have discussed what students need to use for their other courses. We also assume students have a handbook or website for that style guide available to them for reference.

Answers to these activities will vary based on the style used. Samples answers are provided for APA (7th edition) and MLA (9th edition), which are probably the most commonly used style in ESL and composition classes.

Question	APA	MLA
1.	*American Psychological Association Publication Manual (7th Edition)*	*Modern Languages Association Style Manual (9th Edition)*
2.	https://apastyle.apa.org/blog https://owl.purdue.edu/owl/research_and_citation/apa_style/apa_formatting_and_style_guide/general_format.html	https://style.mla.org/ https://owl.purdue.edu/owl/research_and_citation/mla_style/mla_formatting_and_style_guide/mla_general_format.html
3.	Author's last name, year	Author page
4.	("APA Style", 2020)	("MLA Style")
5.	(Johns, 1997)	(Johns 451)
6.	(Caplan, 2019)	(Caplan 23)
7.	Use an ampersand (&) if there are two authors. Authors' first names are not used. If there are two or more authors, replace all after the first author with et al. If a date is not available, use n.d. (no date).	Use the word *and* if there are two authors. If there are two or more authors, replace all after the first author with et al. If you cite two sources by the same author, add a shortened form of the title (Caplan, *Grammar Choices* 23).

Activity 13: Writing References (page 25)

Students should use the websites they found or those suggested in Activity 12 to discover the correct format for references. The correct heading is References in APA style and Works Cited in MLA style.

References

Bauld, H. (2012). *On writing the college application essay: The key to acceptance at a college of your choice* (25th anniversary edition). Harper Collins.

Caplan, N. A. (2019a). Asking the right questions: Demystifying writing assignments across the disciplines. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *41*, 100776. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2019.100776

Caplan, N. A. (2019b). *Grammar choices for graduate and professional writers* (2nd ed.). University of Michigan Press.

Caplan, N. A., & Johns, A. M. (Eds.). (2019). *Changing practices for the L2 writing classroom: Moving beyond the five-paragraph essay*. University of Michigan Press.

Caulfield, M. (2019, June 19). *SIFT (The four moves)*. https://hapgood.us/2019/06/19/sift-the-four-moves/

Caulfield, M. (2017). *Web literacy for student fact-checkers*. https://webliteracy.pressbooks.com/

Ferris, D., & Hayes, H. (2019). Transferable principles and processes in undergraduate writing. In N. A. Caplan & A. M. Johns (Eds.), *Changing practices for the L2 writing classroom: Moving beyond the five-paragraph essay* (pp. 116–132). University of Michigan Press.

Folse, K. (2016). *Keys to teaching grammar to English language learners* (2nd ed.). University of Michigan Press.

Grosjean, F. (1989). Neurolinguists, beware! The bilingual is not two monolinguals in one person. *Brain and Language*, *36*, 3–15. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0093-934X(89)90048-5

Halliday, M. A. K. (1993). Towards a language-based theory of learning. *Linguistics and Education*, *5*, 93–116. https://doi.org/10.1016/0898-5898(93)90026-7

Humphrey, S. L., & Economou, D. (2015). Peeling the onion – A textual model of critical analysis. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *17*, 37–50. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2015.01.004

Hyland, K. (2008). As can be seen: Lexical bundles and disciplinary variation. *English for Specific Purposes*, *27*, 4–21. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2007.06.001

Johns, A. M. (2019). Writing in the interstices: Assisting novice undergraduates in analyzing authentic writing tasks. In N. A. Caplan & A. M. Johns (Eds.), *Changing practices for the L2 writing classroom: Moving beyond the five-paragraph essay* (pp. 133–149). University of Michigan Press.

Johns, A. M. (1997). *Text, role and context: Developing academic literacies*. Cambridge University Press.

Martin, J., & White, P. (2005). *The language of evaluation: Appraisal in English*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Melzer, D. (2014). *Assignments across the curriculum: A national study of college writing*. Utah State University Press.

Pessoa, S., & Mitchell, T. D. (2019). Preparing students to write in the disciplines. In N. A. Caplan & A. M. Johns (Eds.), *Changing practices for the L2 writing classroom: Moving beyond the five-paragraph essay* (pp. 150–177). University of Michigan Press.

Samraj, B., & Monk, L. (2008). The statement of purpose in graduate program applications: Genre structure and disciplinary variation. *English for Specific Purposes*, *27*, 193–211. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2007.07.001

Schleppegrell, M. J. (2004). *The language of schooling: A functional linguistics perspective*. Lawrence Erlbaum.

Siffrinn, N.E., & McGovern, K. R. (2019). Expanding youth participatory action research: a Foucauldian take on youth identities. *International Multilingual Research Journal*, *13*, 168–180. https://doi-org.udel.idm.oclc.org/10.1080/19313152.2019.1623636

Siffrinn, N.E., & Harman, R. (2019). Toward an embodied Systemic Functional Linguistics pedagogy. *TESOL Quarterly*, *53*, 1162–1173. https://doi-org.udel.idm.oclc.org/10.1002/tesq.516

Swales, J. M., & Feak, C. B. (2012). *Academic writing for graduate students: Essential tasks and skills* (3rd ed.). University of Michigan Press.

Tardy, C. M. (2016). *Beyond convention: Genre innovation in academic writing*. University of Michigan Press.

Wardle, E. (2017). You can learn to write in general. In C. E. Ball & D. M. Loewe (Eds.), *Bad ideas about writing* (pp. 30–33). West Virginia University Libraries. http://textbooks.lib.wvu.edu

Wineberg, S., & McGrew, S. (2017). *Lateral reading: Reading less and learning more when evaluating digital information* (Stanford History Education Group Working Paper No. 2017-A1). https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=3048994

Wingate, U. (2012). 'Argument!' helping students understand what essay writing is about. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *11*(2), 145–154. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2011.11.001