

The structure of a paper

Academic writing

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Experimental process	Section of Paper
What did I do in a nutshell?	Abstract
What is the problem?	Introduction
How did I solve the problem?	Materials and Methods
What did I find out?	Results
What does it mean?	Discussion
Who helped me out?	Acknowledgments (optional)
Whose work did I refer to?	Literature Cited
Extra Information	Appendices (optional)

ABSTRACT

I. Function: An abstract summarizes, in one paragraph (usually), the major aspects of the entire paper in the following prescribed sequence:

- the **question(s) you investigated** (or purpose), (**from Introduction**)
 - o state the purpose very clearly in the first or second sentence.
- the **experimental design and methods** used, (**from Methods**)
 - o clearly express the basic design of the study.
 - o Name or briefly describe the basic methodology used without going into excessive detail—be sure to indicate

the key techniques used.

- the **major findings** including **key quantitative results**, or **trends (from Results)**
 - o report those results which answer the questions you were asking
 - o identify trends, relative change or differences, etc.
- a brief summary of your **interpretations** and **conclusions**. (from **Discussion**)
 - o clearly state the implications of the answers your results gave you.

How do you know when you have enough information in your Abstract?

2. **Style:** The Abstract is **ONLY** text. Use the active voice when possible, but much of it may require passive constructions. Write your Abstract using concise, but complete, sentences, and get to the point quickly. **Use past tense.**

3. **Strategy:** Although it is the first section of your paper, the Abstract, by definition, must be written last since it will summarize the paper.

INTRODUCTION

Structure: Organize the information to present the more general aspects of the topic early in the Introduction, then work toward the more specific topical information, finally arriving at your statement of purpose and rationale.

Begin your Introduction by clearly identifying the subject area of interest.

Be sure to clearly state the purpose and /or hypothesis that you investigated.

Provide a clear statement of the rationale for your approach to the problem studied.

METHODS

Function: In this section you explain *clearly* how you carried out your study in the following *general* structure and organization:

- the **subjects used** (plant, animal, human, etc.) and their pre-experiment handling and care, and when and where the study was carried out (if location and time are important factors);
- if a field study, a **description of the study site**, including the physical and biological features, and precise location;
- the **experimental OR sampling design** (i.e. how the experiment or study was structured. For example, controls, treatments, the variable(s) measured, how many samples were collected, replication, etc.);
- the **protocol for collecting data**, i.e. how the experimental

procedures were carried out, and,

- **how the data were analyzed** (statistical procedures used).

RESULTS

Function: The function of the Results section is to objectively present your key results, *without* interpretation, in an orderly and logical sequence using both illustrative materials (Tables and Figures) and text.

DISCUSSION

Function: The function of the Discussion is to interpret your results in light of what was already known about the subject of the investigation, and to explain our new understanding of the problem after taking your results into consideration.

Features of academic writing

Audience

- Remember you are writing for an educated audience; however, your readers may not share your knowledge about your particular subject.

Structure

- The basic structure of your writing should be: introduction—body—conclusion.
- Your arguments should be clear and easy to follow and they should form a logical whole.
- Essays are normally thesis-driven, i.e. they begin with a thesis statement and then try to prove it (e.g. Navigating in the archipelago is demanding).

Style

- Your writing should be explicit; do not make your reader guess at what you mean.
- Use linking devices to make your writing cohesive and easy to follow.
- Use simple and clear language but do NOT write as you would speak, i.e. spoken language should be avoided at all costs.
- Make sure your constructions are English and not Finnish!

Stance

- You should adopt an objective viewpoint; do not appeal to emotions or express excessive opinions.
- Always credit your sources.

Here are some things to keep in mind:

- Readers remember beginnings and ends, particularly ends
- This may help to explain the end-focus so typical of English informational texts
- A fundamental feature of English is the development from what the reader knows to what he doesn't know
- We can think of academic texts, therefore, as a series of answers to questions asked by another academic
- These answers should follow a logical sequence, within sentences and between sentences
- The real message tends to come at the end of the sentence
- Well-written sentences are typically shorter in English than in Finnish
- While they may vary in length and structure, they should follow a logical sequence and thus help the reader to follow the writer's thoughts
- Studies have shown that short sentences are more memorable and easier to understand than long ones; more than one thought per sentence tends to distract the reader

There are some clear cultural differences in academic rhetoric between Anglo-American and Finnish academic writing:

- Finns avoid repetition of referent whereas Anglo-American scholars prefer elegant variation
- Finns introduce key terms late, Anglo-American introduce them first
- Finns use heavy themes and light rhemes, while Anglo-Americans tend to use light themes and heavy rhemes (topic-comment)
- Finnish sentences are often rhematically connected, which is rare in Anglo-American writing
- Finnish academic writing is characterized by numerous appar-

ently unconnected themes, whereas Anglo-American writing tends to link sentences with similar themes

- There is a relative absence of metatext in Finnish writing compared to Anglo-American scientific texts
- There is a difference in the overall organization of the text: Finns tend to have a discussion leading to a conclusion; Anglo-Americans tend to have a conclusion followed by an explanation

Choice of words

- Like other languages, English has different registers for different purposes
- The English used in reporting scientific research is more formal than that of textbooks and lectures

Some advice from the British Medical Journal, 1975:2, p. 56

- Choose the correct word
- Prefer the simple, familiar word to the pompous, rare word (e.g. prefer *hands and feet, limbs* to *extremities*)
- Prefer the concrete to the abstract
- Avoid long phrases when a single word is possible (e.g. *first, firstly* rather than *in the first place*)
- Use a short word rather than a long one (e.g. *show* rather than *demonstrate*; *studied* rather than *investigated*)
- Write with nouns and verbs rather than with adjectives and adverbs
- In describing acts, use verbs of motion rather than nouns ending in *-tion, -sion*
- Use words ending in *-bility, -ality, -ficity, -tivity* and *-tion* sparingly and use the simpler adjective or verb instead

Be precise, be clear and be brief.

SOME LATIN PHRASES USED IN SCIENTIFIC TEXTS

a priori	from cause to effect; by deduction
ad hoc	for this special purpose
cf. (confer)	compare
e.g. (exempli gratia)	for example
etc. (et cetera)	and so on; and other things
et al. (et alii)	and others
i.e. (id est)	that is; that is to say
per cent (Br)/ percent (US)	for every hundred; by the hundred
per se	in itself
vice versa	conversely
viz. (vide licet)	namely; that is to say
v., vs. (versus)	against

There are a number of prefixes of Latin or Greek origin used in English. Look at the following lists of words to determine the meaning of each prefix:

1. **GK a-** Meaning: _____
aphasia, amnesia, amoral
2. **L ante-** Meaning: _____
antediluvian, anteroom, antenatal
3. **GK anti-** Meaning: _____
antidote, antisocial, antiseptic
4. **GK arch-** Meaning: _____
archbishop, archenemy, archduke
5. **L bene-** Meaning: _____
benefit, benevolent, benediction
6. **L bi-** Meaning: _____
bicycle, bilateral, bisect
7. **GK di-** Meaning: _____
diphthong, disyllabic, diurnal
8. **GK dys-** Meaning: _____
dysentery, dyspeptic, muscular dystrophy
9. **L extra-** Meaning: _____
extraordinary, extra-terrestrial, extramural
10. **GK hyper-** Meaning: _____
hyperactive, hyperbole, hypersensitive
11. **L inter-** Meaning: _____
interfere, intersperse, interrupt
12. **L intra-** Meaning: _____
intramural, intrastate, intravenous

13. **L mal-** Meaning: _____
maladjusted, malcontent, malfunction
14. **L omni-** Meaning: _____
omnipotent, omnipresent, omniscient
15. **GK par(a)-** Meaning: _____
parasite, paradigm, parody
16. **GK poly-** Meaning: _____
polygamy, polysyllabic, polytheistic
17. **GK pseudo-** Meaning: _____
pseudonym, pseudo-pregnancy, pseudo-scientific; a pseud
18. **L retro-** Meaning: _____
retroactive, retrogress, retrospective
19. **L trans-** Meaning: _____
transatlantic, transcend, transmit
20. **L uni-** Meaning: _____
uniform, unilateral, united

REFERRING TO YOUR STUDY

When talking about your study in general terms, you might use verbs such as the following:

study, examine, investigate, research, explore, describe, report, review, conduct/perform research on/into, focus on, concentrate on, discuss, deal with, address

When you are writing about previous studies on your topic, you might tend to use the following:

assume, suppose, hypothesise, put forward a hypothesis

When discussing your results, you might use the following:

indicate, show, demonstrate, find, establish, report, emphasise, stress, document, provide data/evidence, cite, mention, observe, detect, reveal, discover, note, point out, consider, conclude

In your study you might be trying to:

explain, explicate, ascertain, clarify, determine

When you compare your results with those of other researchers, you might use:

compare with, (fail to) confirm/substantiate/support, be consistent with, differ from, conflict with, contrast with, challenge

When referring to tables and figures, you might use:

Findings are *shown* in Table 1.

displayed, presented, given, provided, summarised

Table 2 *presents* the effects of education on....

displays, shows, gives, summarises

As *shown/can be seen* in Table 2..

As *Figure 2 demonstrates/indicates/shows*....

On the use of articles

This is a summary of the uses of the articles

Indefinite article: a/an

1. *a* is used before nouns beginning with a consonant: *a cheque*
an is used before nouns beginning with a vowel: *an overdraft*

exceptions:

a is used before words beginning with the sound /ju:/: *a European, a unicorn*

the same rules apply when the noun is preceded by an adjective:
a small cheque, an overdrawn account, a useful service

2. *a/an* are used:

- a) before singular countable nouns
 Have you got *a deposit account*?
- b) to refer to a generally understood occupation
 He is *a doctor*.
- c) to introduce a new subject or unidentified person
 There is *a mistake* in this letter.
A man called about the radio.
- d) to refer to an accepted shop/business etc.
 There is *a bank* just up the road.
- e) to replace 'one', unless the number is being emphasized
 I waited for over *an hour*.
 He has *only one* bank account.

3. *a/an* are **not** used before:

- a) uncountable nouns, i.e. substances, indefinite quantities

(money, gold, coffee, wood etc.). The plural *some* can be used if needed.

I have *some money* in the bank.
 There's *gold* in those hills.

b) proper names, months, days of the week; unless the name refers to someone completely unknown or to an established fact

John rang up this morning.
 I have an appointment on Friday.
A Mr Smith rang up.
 He is never at home on *a Saturday*.

Definite article: the

1. *the* is used to identify a particular object, state, group of persons or species, concept, etc.; but if these are referred to in a general sense, *the* is omitted

We can't live without money.
The money that firm makes out of advertising is incredible.

2. *the* is used before:

rivers	<i>the Ganges, the Thames</i>
seas	<i>the Atlantic, the Pacific</i>
mountain ranges	<i>the Alps, the Andes</i>
groups of islands	<i>the Channel Islands, the Åland Islands</i>
the Sun, Earth and Moon	<i>the Sun, the Moon, the Earth</i>
constellations and galaxies	<i>the Milky Way, the Great Bear</i>
points of the compass	<i>the North, the East</i>
deserts	<i>the Sahara, the Gobi Desert</i>

3. *the* is not used before:

- a) lakes Lake Michigan, Lake Huron
- parks Hyde Park, Central Park
- streets, squares, etc. Oxford Street, Trafalgar Square
- towns, cities, districts London, Oulu, Chelsea
- counties, states Oxfordshire, California
- countries Finland, Japan, Austria
- buildings and historic sites Windsor Castle, Blenheim Palace
- churches and cathedrals St. Paul's Cathedral
- names of stars and planets Mercury, Venus

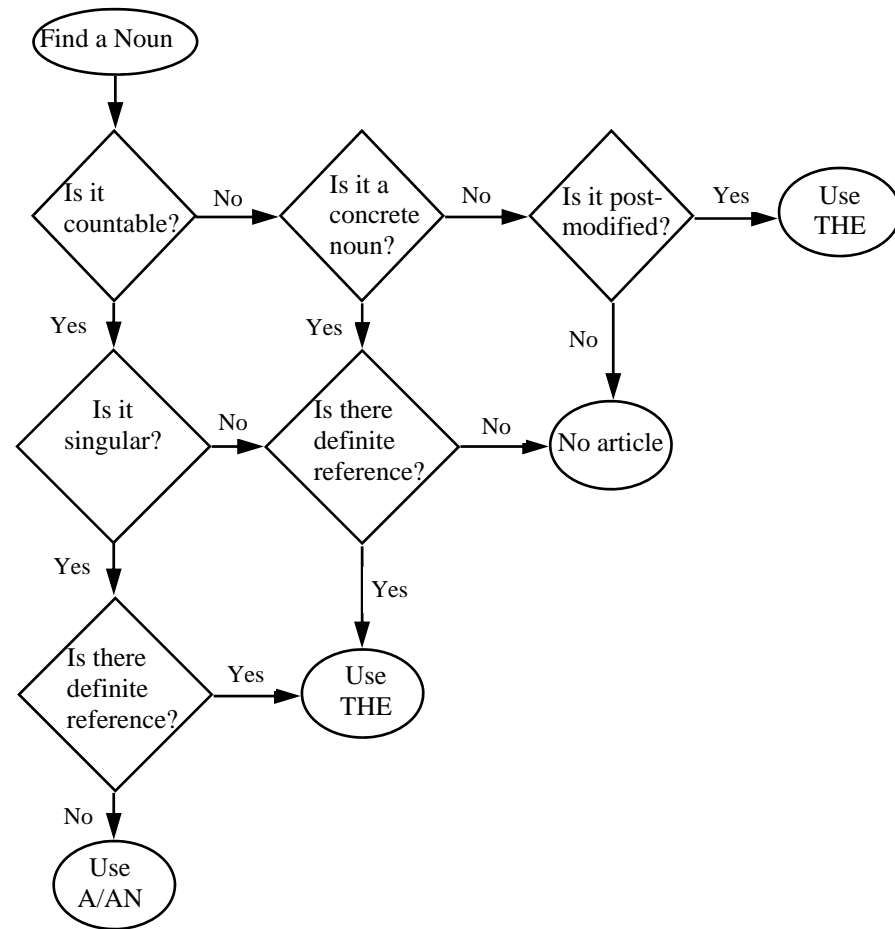
unless *the* already forms part of the name, as in
the Tower of London, *the* Hague, *the* United Kingdom,
the United States

- b) first names John, Mary
- surnames, Mr Brown, Dr Watson
- unless** the person is unknown
- or needs to be distinguished from another
- Professor Hardy is coming to London next week.
- The* Professor Hardy you were telling me about is coming to London next week.

- c) abstract conceptions, states, ideas
- Illiteracy is a major problem in many countries.
- unless** defined
- The* illiteracy of this primitive tribe is a major problem.

4. *the* is also used before the superlatives of adjectives:
 This is one of *the* most attractive advertisements I have seen.
 This is *the* largest lake in Finland.

5. *the* is not always used for the seasons when used in a general sense, but may be used when a particular season is being considered:
 In England the crocus is usually the first sign of spring.
 I am going to Norway in *the* summer. (i.e. next summer)



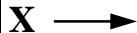



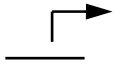



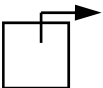



Summary of the Uses of the Comma

1. Use commas to separate items in a series.
 - (1) If all items in a series are joined by and or or (nor), do not use commas to separate them.
 - (2) Independent clauses in a series are usually separated by semicolons. Short independent clauses may be separated by commas.
2. Use commas to separate two or more adjectives preceding a noun.
3. Use commas before and, but, or, nor, for, and yet when they join independent clauses.
4. Use commas to set off nonessential clauses and nonessential phrases.
5. Use commas after certain introductory elements.
 - (1) Use a comma after such words as well, yes, no, why, etc., when they begin a sentence.
 - (2) Use a comma after an introductory participial phrase.
 - (3) Use a comma after a succession of introductory prepositional phrases.
 - (4) Use a comma after an introductory adverb clause.
6. Use commas to set off expressions that interrupt the sentence.
 - (1) Appositives and appositive phrases are usually set off by commas.
 - (2) Words used in direct address are set off by commas.
 - (3) Parenthetical expressions are set off by commas.
7. Use commas in certain conventional situations.
 - (1) Use a comma to separate items in dates and addresses.
 - (2) Use a comma after the salutation of a friendly letter and after the closing of any letter.
 - (3) Use a comma after a name followed by Jr., Sr., Ph.D., etc.
8. Do not use unnecessary commas.

Describing spatial relations

Look at the prepositions used in describing location:

destination	position	destination	position	
to 	at 	(away) from 	away from 	referring to a point
on (to) 	on 	off 	off 	referring to a line or surface
in (to) 	in 	out of 	out of 	referring to an area or volume
POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		

Other spatial prepositions include: *across, along, through*
across the river, along the road, through the trees

Fill in the appropriate preposition:

1. He studies _____ Oulu but lives _____ Kemi.
2. He threw the ball _____ me.
3. He threw the book _____ me.
4. He took the picture _____ the wall.
5. Memphis is a town _____ the Mississippi.
6. Robinson Crusoe was marooned _____ a desert island.
7. She was born _____ Cuba.
8. She was _____ the room for five minutes. When she returned she looked angry.
9. The ball rolled _____ the finish line, making the score one-all.
10. The wind blew _____ the trees.
11. They poured _____ the houses and crowded _____ the street.
12. They drove _____ the frontier into Russia.
13. They flew _____ the country last night to begin a major concert tour.
14. They took a walk _____ the moor and visited the old ruins on the other side.
15. We lay _____ the grass.
16. The plane stopped to refuel _____ Anchorage on its way to Tokyo.
17. We turned _____ the main road _____ a narrow dirt track.
18. We walked _____ the towpath.
19. We went for a walk _____ the park.
20. Zanzibar is an island _____ the coast of Africa.

RESTRICTIVE AND NON-RESTRICTIVE RELATIVE CLAUSES

The term relative clause is used for various types of subclauses which are linked to part or all of the main clause by a back-pointing element, usually a relative pronoun. The main function of a relative clause is postmodifier in a noun phrase, where the relative pronoun points back to the head of the noun phrase.

The records which he owns are mostly classical.
 The records he owns are mostly classical. (relative pronoun = zero)

a) restrictive

the boy that is playing the piano
 the boy that we admire
 There's still one thing which is not explained.
 Have you met anybody who has been to China?
 That's the house that I've bought.
 Do you know the boy that we admire?
 This is the house that we wrote to you about.

b) non-restrictive

The meaning of a non-restrictive relative clause is often very similar to that of a coordinated clause.

Then he met Mary, who invited him to a party.
 Here is John Smith, whom I met the other day.

c) sentential relative clauses

This type of relative clause points back to a sentence or a sequence of sentences; notice how these are no longer postmodifiers in a NP, they are sentence adverbials:

He admires Mrs Brown, which I find strange.
 ... which is how the kangaroo came to have a pouch.

APPOSITIVES

Apposition is like coordination in that it links units that have grammatical affinity, but
 - the linked units must be identical in reference

A neighbour, Fred Brick, is on the telephone.

indicators of apposition

- expressions which explicitly indicate apposition:
namely, that is to say, that is, i.e., viz., in other words, or, or rather, or better, and, as follows, for example, for instance, e.g., etc.

The President of the United States, Bill Clinton in other words, is an Oxbridge man.

The children enjoyed watching the animals, particularly the monkeys.

Many professions, such as the legal profession, have established their own codes of professional conduct.

Many people, my sister included, won't forgive him for that.

Appositives may be restrictive or non-restrictive:

non-restrictive

Appositives are in different information units and the two have different information value, one of them is marked as parenthetical - more weighty punctuation.

Typically, appositives are noun phrases in non-restrictive apposition.

They show the following semantic relationships:

- equivalence
- attribution
- inclusion

equivalence:

Mr Campbell, the lawyer, was here last night.

The passenger plane of the next millennium, the super jet, will transform relations between peoples of the world.

He told them the good news, taxes are to be reduced.

Captain Morgan, that is to say the company commander, assembled his men and briefed them on the mission.

We - John and I - intend to resign.

His party controls London, Greater London that is to say.

The European Union, or EU for short, is a mass of bureaucracy.

attribution: (the appositive can be replaced by a relative clause)
Your brother, obviously an expert on English grammar, is highly praised in the book I'm reading.

The house, an imposing building, dominates the street.

Many soldiers, the cream of the battalion, died in the attack.

inclusion: (one includes the other)

Famous men (Churchill, Roosevelt, Kennedy) have visited this university.

The children liked the animals, particularly the monkeys.

more examples:

His main argument, that scientific laws have no exceptions, was considered absurd.

His last appeal, for his son to visit him, was never delivered.

She suffered from a common misfortune of women at that time: having too much time and too little money.

We'll soon have to face that annual problem - what to give Aunt Matilda for Christmas.

restrictive

The first element defines the meaning of the second:

the novel *Great Expectations*

my good friend Bob

the famous critic Paul Jones

the number three

Democratic leader Schwartz

the word 'appositive'

appositive clauses

Appositive clauses are nominal clauses which have a relation to the head similar to that between two nouns in apposition.

They can be *that* clauses or *to*-infinitive clauses:

The news *that he was resigning his job* proved to be incorrect.

(cf. *The news was that he was resigning his job*)

The police have been investigating a plot *to kidnap a prominent diplomat*.

(cf. *The plot is to kidnap a prominent diplomat.*)

These *subj + be + complement* constructions show the relation of apposition.

Notice that the *that* clause above is a nominal clause and not a relative clause:

The news *that he was resigning his job* proved to be incorrect.

PARALLELISM

One trick of good style is to use parallelism—the joining of identical grammatical constructions.

He did not feel responsible or guilt for what he did.

He did not feel responsible or guilty for what he did.

He did not feel responsibility or guilt for what he did.

1. The mental action in *Nineteen Eighty-Four* centres on Winston's search for the truth, his love for Julia, and how he hated Big Brother.
2. Edgar Linton had everything — good manners, good looks, intelligence and he was very rich.
3. Many people in today's world are trying to keep from getting fat, flabby and wrinkles.
4. The job's good points include interesting work, reasonable hours and there was the possibility of promotion.
5. The desk was covered with papers, the bed was covered with note cards and there were books all over the floor.
6. Old age seems frightening because when you grow old, your body gets weak, your teeth fall out, your hair turns grey, not to mention your memory.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

There are two forms of the subjunctive, traditionally called the *present subjunctive* and the *past subjunctive*.

The two major forms of the present subjunctive are the *mandative subjunctive* and the *formulaic subjunctive*, they are realized by the base form of the verb; therefore, except with BE, the subjunctive is distinctive only in third person singular:

I insist that we reconsider the Council's decision (indicative or subjunctive)

I insist that the Council reconsider its decision. (subjunctive)

I insist that the Council's decisions be reconsidered (subjunctive)

The past subjunctive is called the were-subjunctive; it survives as a distinguishable form only in the past tense of BE:

If I/he was leaving, you would have heard about it. (indicative)

If I/he were leaving, you would have heard about it. (subjunctive)

A subjunctive verb phrase has few syntactic variations; the passive subjunctive is possible:

I insist that the Council's decisions be reconsidered.

God be praised!

It would be odd if she were awarded the first prize.

Negation by placing not before the subjunctive form, except with BE - placed either before or after - with were must follow:

It is essential that this mission not fail.

The Senate has decreed that such students be not exempted from
college dues.
not be

If I weren't your best best friend, you would regret that remark.
were not

Uses of the subjunctive

The mandative subjunctive

occurs in subordinate that-clauses and consists of the base form of the verb only; the present and past forms are formally indistinguishable:

The committee proposes (that) Mr Day be elected.
proposed

I demand(ed) that the committee reconsider its suggestion.
His sole requirement was/is that the system work.

The mandative subjunctive can be used with any verb in a that-clause when the that-clause is introduced by an expression of demand, recommendation, proposal, resolution, intention, etc. This introducing expression can take the form of a verb, an adjective or a noun:

They recommend

It is appropriate

We were faced with the demand

that this tax be abolished.

The following expressions commonly introduce a that-clause with a mandative subjunctive:

verbs: *decide, insist, move, order, prefer, request*

adjectives: *advisable, desirable, fitting, imperative*

nouns: *decision, decree, order, requirement, resolution*

It is more characteristic of AmE than BrE; in BrE it is formal and legalistic in style; but seems to be reestablishing itself in BrE.

The formulaic subjunctive

This consists also only of the base form of the verb; it is used in certain set expressions, mainly in independent clauses:

Come what may, we will go ahead with our plan.

God save the Queen!

Suffice it to say that we won.

Heaven forbid that I should let my own children suffer.

be it noted that this offer was made in good faith.

Be that as it may, we have nothing to lose.

The subjunctive conveys here an expression of will (can also be conveyed with *let* or *may*); the formulaic subjunctive tends to be rather formal and old-fashioned in style.

Other uses of the present subjunctive

It can be used in subordinate clauses like:

1. clauses of condition and concession:

Even if that be the official view, it cannot be accepted. (formal)

2. clauses of condition or negative purpose introduced by *lest* or *for fear that*:

The President must reject this proposal, lest it cause strife and violence.
(formal) - esp in AmE

The were-subjunctive

This is hypothetical or unreal in meaning; it is used in adverbial clauses introduced by conjunctions such as *if, as if, as though, though*, and in nominal clauses after verbs like *wish* and *suppose*.

It has only one form - *were*

If I were rich, I would buy you anything you wanted.

Tim always speaks quietly on the phone, as though he were telling a secret.

I wish the journey were over.

Just suppose everyone were to give up smoking and drinking.

In all of the above, the form *was* could be used in less formal style.

TRANSITION CUES

Even more than Finnish readers, English readers expect to be guided through a passage by linking expressions which signal the logical relationships between sentences they encounter.

Expressions which mark a specific time:

then	that Tuesday	at the end of August
just then	last Friday	at 5 p.m.
at that time	next Christmas	ten years ago
in those days	in 2001	in the last century

Expressions which show a relationship between times:

Time before	until (then)	prior to
	by (then)	the previous week
	before (then)	in the days leading up to
	beforehand	up to that time
At the same time as	in the meantime	meanwhile
	at that very moment	simultaneously
	all the while	
Time after	then	next
	immediately	within minutes
	later (on)	afterwards
	subsequently	presently
	eventually	after a while
	in due course	in the long run
	the next day	the following week
	the year after	finally

COMPARISON AND CONTRAST

Comparison between sentences	Contrast between sentences
A is expensive to buy. <i>Similarly</i> , it is expensive to operate.	A is expensive to buy. <i>On the other hand</i> , it is cheap to operate.
A is expensive to buy. <i>Likewise</i> , it is expensive to operate.	A is expensive to buy. <i>In contrast</i> , it is cheap to operate.
A is expensive to buy. <i>Correspondingly</i> , it is expensive to operate.	A is expensive to buy. <i>Conversely</i> , it is cheap to operate.

Comparison within sentences		Contrast within sentences	
<i>A is like B</i>	<i>with respect to cost</i>	<i>A is unlike B</i>	<i>with respect to cost</i>
<i>A and B are similar</i>		<i>A differs from B</i>	
<i>A is similar to B</i>		<i>A and B differ</i>	
<i>A resembles B</i>		<i>A is different from B</i>	
		<i>A contrasts with B</i>	
<i>Both A and B cost £ 100.</i>		<i>A costs £ 100 whereas B costs £ 150.</i>	
<i>A is as costly as B.</i>		<i>A costs £ 100, while B costs £ 150.</i>	
<i>A is no more expensive than B.</i>		<i>A costs £ 100, but B costs £ 150.</i>	
<i>A costs the same as B.</i>		<i>B is more expensive than A.</i>	
		<i>A is not as expensive as B.</i>	

Sequencers

Beginning	Middle	End
First	Secondly	Lastly
Firstly	Thirdly, Fourthly...	Finally
To begin with	Next	
Initially	Then	
	Subsequently	
	After this	
	Before this	
	At the same time	

Sequencers tend to come at the beginning of a sentence, because their function is to advance warning to the reader that he/she needs to note relationships.

Sometimes time clauses are used as sequencers:

One event occurs before the other	Before the dough is baked, it is left to rise.
Two events occur at the same time	As the yeast eats the sugar, it makes the dough increase in size. While the dough is eating the sugar, the dough increases in size.
One event occurs after the other	After the dough has been made, it is left to rise. When the dough has risen, it is kneaded into shape.

Notice that in describing processes the most common verb forms used are the simple present and the present perfect. The verbs are also often in the passive voice. Passive allows you to omit the agent; often this is because this does not constitute important information.

Sometimes, however, you may wish to mention the agent. You may use an active verb to do so:

The United Nations General Assembly has approved a convention on the Rights of Children.

You may use a passive verb with a by+ agent construction:

Some teenagers sleep on the streets and some are abused by their parents.

The latter construction is used to emphasize the agent, since English has end focus.

Classification

There are two main ways of classifying languages: the genetic and the typological.

A typical classifying sentence:

- mentions the thing being classified
- gives the number of classes/types/categories
- uses a classification expression
- names the classes

There are	Y	types	of X	
		kinds		: A, B and C
		classes		. These are A, B and C.
The		categories		are A, B and C.
		groups		

Specialists	distinguish	Y	types	of X	
			kinds		: A, B and C.
			classes		
	recognize		categories		. These are A, B and C.
			groups		

Tree diagrams can be very useful when making classifications.

Draw a tree diagram of some phenomenon that you are familiar with and write a short classifying text on the basis of your diagram.

X	consists of		Y	into	types	. These are A, B and C.	
	is of				kinds		: A, B and C.
	can be				classes		
	is	often			categories		. These are A, B and C.
	sometimes	divided					
		grouped					
		classified					
					groups		

Examples

In oceanic climates such as the west coast of Scotland and Ireland many exotic species can be grown in the open due to the low incidence of frost. Similarly there is a native element in the British flora which is extremely oceanic and clings to the coastal fringes of the western littoral and rarely penetrates to the more frost-prone inland areas. A typical example of such a species is the wall navelwort (*Umbilicus rupestris*).

Iversen (1944) produced a number of maps which clearly show the dual relationship that exists in the distribution of some species between summer and winter warmth. Mistletoe, ivy, holly and lime are all examples of plants which have their distribution limited by both summer and winter temperatures.

The following are some common ways of introducing examples:

1. Plants which have their distribution limited by both summer and winter temperatures *include* mistletoe, ivy and holly.
2. *An example* of such a plant is mistletoe.
3. *Examples (of these) are/include* mistletoe, holly and ivy.
4. Sometime the distribution of plants is limited by both summer and winter temperatures, *as in the case of* mistletoe.
5. Mistletoe *is an example of* such a plant.
6. Mistletoe *is a case in point*.
7. Holly *is a good illustration of* this.
8. ... plants *such as* mistletoe.
9. in plants. *For example*, mistletoe.....
10. ... in plants. Mistletoe, *for instance*, ...
11. ... in *such* plants as mistletoe.

Definition

The essential parts of a definition are:

- the term which is being defined
- the class to which it belongs
- the features which distinguish it from other members of the same class

Adaptation can be defined as the possession of properties which increase the probability of survival of a genotype in a particular habitat.

Botanically the Arctic is usually considered as the area occupied by the 'tundra'. The original meaning of this word in Finnish or Lappish is 'a treeless hill' but has been absorbed via Russian to describe the dwarf shrub, herb, and moss vegetation that exist in polar regions too cold to support the growth of trees. The Arctic is also sometimes defined as the region of permafrost.

Definitions can be of different types. One type is a formal definition, which has the structure:

X is a kind/type/form of **Y** which (**distinguishing feature(s)**)

Another type is a naming definition, which has the structure:

Y which (**distinguishing feature(s)**) is known as /called **X**

Definitions can be expanded in several ways:

- by giving examples
- by giving further explanations
- by giving examples of usage
- by giving reasons

Production is a process whereby raw material is transformed by factory methods into things wanted by society. The purpose of the production process is to turn out tangible goods through guided management and by combining the proper combination of raw materials, land, labour and capital for such use. The production works when it is efficient, has high quality and results in very little waste.

The sound [f] is a voiceless, labio-dental fricative continuant, formed by placing the lower lip tightly against the upper teeth, closing the velum and forcing breath out through the spaces between the teeth or between the teeth and upper lip.

General guidelines

Your English should not be stilted or overly formal, but you should avoid contractions as well as the most obvious slang and colloquial expressions. Although it is best to think carefully each time you are tempted to write 'I', there is nothing wrong with the occasional use of the first person pronoun in your academic writing (especially the introduction and conclusion). Similarly, in line with modern trends in academic writing, it is advisable to avoid too much reliance on the extensive use of impersonal and passive constructions. Strive to put your thoughts on paper in as logical, precise, and easily understandable form as possible. Never forget that your job is to communicate, not to try and impress your reader with a forest of obscure words and contorted grammatical constructions that have to be hacked through in order to get the message you are trying to put across.

Conventions

Avoid inconsistency in spelling, hyphenation, capitalization, etc. between chapters and sections. It is also best to avoid breaking words at the ends of lines (especially with words having no suffixes, prefixes or other suitable 'cutting points'). Consult your dictionary for the appropriate British English or American English spelling conventions (and then follow one or the other).

Use minimum hyphenation. Avoid hyphens with inter-, non-, post-, pre-, sub-, etc. Capitalization should also be used sparingly. Use lower-case for cross-references to figures, maps and tables.

Abbreviations should be kept to a minimum. Omit full points after abbreviations that are contractions (e.g. Mr, Ms). Sets of initials should have no full point (e.g. OE, ME, USA). For abbreviations that are not contractions full points are used: e.g., i.e., f., ff. ('following'), etc. Please take care to insert a comma before e.g., etc. and i.e. And please remember that it is best to write 'for example' and 'for instance' out in full with the main body of your text (reserving e.g. and i.e. for use in notes and parentheses).

INFORMATION STRUCTURE

Given and new information

The information in a message can roughly be divided into given and new; given information is something which the speaker assumes the hearer knows about already and new information is what the speaker does not assume the hearer knows about already.

New information is obviously what is most important in a message and thus it receives the information focus:

He was speaking to me.
 given new

Given information may also include information which is 'given' by the extralinguistic situation.

- today, here and mine: the meaning is given by the situation
- Saturday, factory, father's are likely to be new information

What are you doing today?

What are you doing on Saturday?

I work here.

I work in a factory.

Mr Smith is a friend of mine.

Mr Smith is a friend of my father's.

In writing you cannot point to important information by using intonation, so you have to rely on ordering and subordination of clauses instead. The general rule is that the most important information is saved up to the end, so that the sentence finishes with a sort of cli-

max :

Arguments in favour of a new building plan, said the mayor, included suggestions that if a new shopping centre were not built, the city's traffic problems *would soon become unmanageable*.

Two principles to bear in mind when deciding in which order to place the ideas in a sentence:

- a) end-focus: the new or most important idea in a piece of information should be placed towards the end, where in speech the nucleus of the tone unit normally falls. A sentence is generally more effective if the main point is saved up to the end.
- b) end-weight: the more 'weighty' parts of the sentence should be placed towards the end. Otherwise the sentence may sound awkward and unbalanced. The 'weight' of an element can be defined in terms of length or in terms of grammatical complexity.

Given-new; sometimes given information is called old, shared or pre-supposed information.

Theme-rheme; theme is the name given to the initial part of any structure when it is considered from an informational point of view; it signals that the starting point of the message is established and agreed.

Topic-comment

Because of the principles of end-weight and end-focus, the final position in a sentence is in neutral circumstances the most important. The first position is also important for communication, because it is the starting point for what the speaker wants to say: it is the part of

Subject-operator inversion

- obligatory in most questions (but not of interest here)
- occurs when a negative element is fronted for emphasis:

Not a word did he say.

Under no circumstances must the door be left open.

Inversion is also obligatory when words of negative meaning are fronted, e.g. *never, hardly, scarcely, few, little, seldom, rarely*

Hardly had I left before the trouble started.

Only later did they realise what a terrible thing had happened.

Little does he know how much suffering he has caused.

In journalistic style subject-operator inversion with *be* serves the purpose of end-weight when the subject is long and complex:

Throwing the hammer here is champion William Anderson, who, when he's not winning prizes, is a hard-working shepherd in the Highlands of Scotland.

Cleft sentences

The cleft sentence construction with introductory *it* is useful for fronting an element as topic, and also for putting focus on the topic element. It does this by splitting the sentences into two halves, 'highlighting' the topic by making it the complement of *it* + *be*:

Would you like to borrow this book?

No, it's the other book that I want to read.

For centuries London had been growing as a commercial port of world importance. But it was in the north of England that industrial power brought new prosperity to the country.

The cleft sentence is particularly useful in writing, where we cannot mark contrastive emphasis by intonation.

A nominal relative clause can also be used to highlight one element for contrast. It can be either subject or complement of the verb *be*:
We need more time.

It's more time that we need

What we need is more time.

More time is what we need.

Like the *it*-cleft sentence, the *wh*-cleft sentence usually implies a contrast.

We don't need more money – what we need is more time.

The *it*- and the *wh*-cleft sentences cannot always be used in the same circumstances.

- a) the focus of the *wh*-cleft sentence normally has to be in the form of a noun phrase or a nominal clause. An adverbial clause or prepositional phrase, while it can sometimes occur with the *wh*-cleft, sounds more natural with the *it*-cleft sentence:

It was by train that we left Istanbul.

(* How we reached Istanbul was by train.)

It was in 1950 that he first achieved fame as a writer.

(better than: When he first achieved fame as a writer was in 1950.)

It was on this very spot that I first met my wife.
 (better than: Where I first met my wife was on this very spot.)
 a bit better when the wh-clause comes last:
 On this very spot is where I first met my wife.

- a) if an adverbial can be put in the form of a noun phrase, it can be the focus of a wh-cleft sentence with a final when or where clause:

It is in autumn that the countryside is most beautiful.
 Autumn is (the time) when the countryside is most beautiful.
 It was at Waterloo that Napoleon was finally defeated.
 Waterloo was (the place) where Napoleon was finally defeated.

- a) a wh-cleft sentence using the words who, whom or whose is usually awkward or impossible.

It was the ambassador who met us.
 (*Who met us was the ambassador.)

but: The person who met us was the ambassador.

- a) the wh-type can focus on the complement of a clause, whereas the it-type normally cannot.

He is a genius.
 What he is is a genius.
 (*It is a genius that he is.)

- a) the wh-type can focus on the verb, by using the substitute verb do:

He's spoilt the whole thing.
 What he's done is spoil the whole thing.
 (*It's spoil the whole that he's done.)

The complement of the wh-type sentence is a non-finite clause (spoil the whole thing). The non-finite verb may be a bare infinitive, a to-infinitive, an –ed participle or an –ing participle:

What he'll do is spoil the whole thing.
 What he's done is spoil the whole thing.
 What he's done is to spoil the whole thing.
 What he's done is spoilt the whole thing.
 What he's doing is spoiling the whole thing.

The bare infinitive is the most common; except after done where the –ed participle is just as acceptable; and after doing where the –ing participle must be used.

A common type of sentence in informal English is one in which a wh-clause is linked by the verb be to a demonstrative pronoun (this or that). These sentences are similar to wh-cleft sentences both in structure and their focusing effect.

This is where I first met my wife.
 This is how you start the engine.

I had difficulty in starting the car today. That's what always happens when I leave it out in the cold weather.

Postponement

Postponement which involves the replacement of the postponed element by a substitute form is called extraposition. It operates almost exclusively on subordinate nominal clauses; most importantly a subject realized by a finite or non-finite clause.

Introductory *it*-construction; also called anticipatory *it*

The introductory *it*-construction is a means of postponing a subject clause to a later position in the sentence, either for end-weight or for end-focus:

That income tax will be reduced is unlikely.
It is unlikely that income tax will be reduced.

It is a pleasure to help her.
It was on the news that a bomb had exploded in the centre of the city.
It doesn't matter what you do.
It surprised me to see him behaving like that.
It makes her happy to see everyone enjoying themselves.
It is said that she would have made a good lawyer.
It was considered impossible for anyone to escape.

The *it*-construction is more common than the one without postponement. If you keep the clause in front position, this is exceptional, and suggests that you want to put special contrastive emphasis on the rest of the main clause:

That income tax will be reduced is unlikely; that it will be abolished is out of the question.

In some instances, such as the passive construction, it is impossible to keep the clause in subject position:

It is said that she slipped arsenic in his tea.
(*That she slipped arsenic in his tea is said).

Occasionally introductory *it* displaces a clause in object position:

You must find it enjoyable working here.
= You must find working here enjoyable.
cf. It is enjoyable working here.

I owe it to you that the jury acquitted me.
cf. I owe my acquittal to you.

Something put it into his head that she was a spy.
cf. It came into his head that she was a spy.

This displacement must occur when the object clause is a *that* clause or an infinitive clause:
I'll leave it to you to lock the door.
(*I'll leave to lock the door to you.)

postponing parts of sentence elements

the *it*-construction postpones a whole sentence element, a subject or object

you may want to postpone a part of a sentence element, e.g. by splitting an adjective from its postmodifiers

How ready are they to make peace with their enemies?

This can avoid the awkwardness of a long or emphatic element coming in non-final position:

How ready to make peace with their enemies are they?

a) postponing the postmodification of a noun phrase

The time had come to decorate the house for Christmas.
cf. The time to decorate the house for Christmas had come.

The problem arose of what to do with the money.
cf. The problem of what to do with the money arose.

What business is it of yours? (idiomatic)
cf. What business of yours is it?

We heard the story from his own lips of how he was stranded for days without food.

This avoids awkwardness particularly when the rest of the sentence is short in comparison with the subject.

a) postponing the emphatic reflexive pronoun

When the reflexive pronouns *myself*, *himself*, *themselves*, etc are used for emphasis, they normally have nuclear stress. If such a pronoun is in apposition as part of the subject, it is common to postpone it for end-focus:

John himself told me.
John told me himself.
(=It was John, and no one else, who told me.)

a) postponing comparative clauses

A comparative clause or phrase is often separated from the word it postmodifies through postponement. In some cases it would be awkward if it were not postponed:

More people own houses these days than used to years ago.
(* More people than used to years ago own houses these days.)

He showed less pity to his victims than any other tyrant in history.
(*He showed less pity than any other tyrant in history to his victims.)

Other clauses which, like comparative clauses, are often postponed are postmodifying phrases of exception and clauses of amount or degree following *too*, *enough* and *so*:

All of them were captured except the leader of the gang.
Too many people were there for the thief to escape unseen.
I was so excited by the present that I forgot to thank you.

Other choices of position

the passive

Another grammatical process which changes the positions of the elements in a sentence is the passive construction:

Who makes these chairs? They're made by Ercol.

The President was mistrusted by most of the radical and left-wing politicians in the country.

In the first one the passive gives the sentence end-focus, where the active (Ercol makes them) would not.

In the second one the passive gives end-weight where the active sentence would be awkward

The passive is often used for end-weight where the subject of the sentence is a clause:

I was astounded that he was prepared to give me a job.

better than: That he was prepared to give me a job astounded me.

Position of direct object

Normally a direct object precedes and object complement or a final-position adverbial. But if the object is long, it can be postponed to the end for end-weight:

He has proved them wrong.

He has proved wrong the forecasts made by the Ministry of Agriculture on the effects of climate change on crops.

He condemned them to death.

He condemned to death most of the peasants who had taken part in the rebellion.

The same choice can be made when the noun phrase object comes before a particle (eg the second part of a phrasal verb such as make

up, give away)

He gave all his books away.

He gave away all his books.

She made the story up.

She made up the story.

The choice can be made for end-weight or, as in these examples, for end-focus.

Position of indirect object

in a similar way an indirect object can in effect be postponed by converting it into a prepositional phrase:

The twins told their mother all their secrets.

The twins told all their secrets to their mother.

This change, like all the others can be used for a different end-focus the first answers the question what did the twins tell their mother? and the second answers the question who did they tell their secrets to?

Avoiding intransitive verbs

Connected with the principle of end-weight is the feeling that the predicate should be longer or grammatically more complex than the subject. This helps to explain why we tend to avoid predicates consisting of only a single intransitive verb:

Mary sang.
Mary sang a song.

Here the object position is filled with a noun phrase which adds little information but helps to give more weight to the predicate.

For this purpose we often use a general verb followed by an abstract noun phrase:

He's having a swim.
He's swimming.

He's taking a bath.

He took a rest.
He rested.

The man gave a shout.
The man shouted.

He does little work.
He works little.

In a similar way a transitive verb can be replaced by an indirect object construction with the verb *give*, etc.:

I gave the door a kick.
I kicked the door.

I paid her a visit.
I visited her.

The following tend to cause problems for many Finns:

- Since vs because
- As well as
- Also
- Already

Since/because

These seem to be problematic, perhaps because Finnish uses *koska* where English uses either *since* or *because*

Since tends to introduce background information and therefore has a tendency to introduce a clause at the beginning of a sentence:

Since pouring chemical A into chemical B causes an explosion, it is advisable not to do so.

This assumes that the reader knows that the combination of A and B causes an explosion, or that even if he doesn't know it, it isn't surprising.

Because, on the other hand, focuses on the reason why something occurs or why one should or shouldn't do something, etc. and therefore tends to introduce a clause at the end of the sentence, in a focussed position:

You shouldn't pour chemical A into chemical B, because it will cause an explosion.

Here it is assumed that the reader doesn't know that the combination of these two chemicals causes an explosion; it is new information.

As well as

Many of you think this is a synonym of *and*, but it isn't. *As well as* can be used in two cases:

1. It is used at the end of a list when the item that follows it has either been discussed earlier or it is a well-known fact:
An open school is characterized by open minds as well as open doors.
Secondly, anti-abortionism is the view of the great majority of the population in both parts of Ireland, as well as the various churches.
2. It can also be used when what follows it is somehow less important than the rest or simply obvious:
Power stations, oil refineries, dairy farms, newspapers, hospitals simply have to go on at the weekend, and often through nights, as well as days.
Remember you can show signs of judgement with your body language, as well as with what you say.
The homeless often face income maintenance problems as well as housing problems.

So **DO NOT** use it as an alternative for *and*.

Also

Also is a nice little word that is very mobile in the sentence. However, there is one place that it doesn't sit well in and that is the beginning of the sentence. Finnish writers seem to like putting it precisely in this position, perhaps because *lisäksi* is often found there. Remember that *also* always focuses the word that follows it—this will help you to place it correctly:

Users must also be encouraged to recognise the difference between a reception problem and a computer problem.

Already

You have a tendency to use this as if it were the equivalent of the Finnish *jo* : *Jo viime vuodesta lähtien...* NEVER use it in this way.

Already is used in conjunction with a verb:

I have already done that.

Work on the new ferry terminal has already started.

Introducing quotes

Finnish writing allows you to insert quotes in the text without much linking before or after (at least compared to English). It assumes that the reader will make the connection:

On monenlaisia tapoja tervehtiä käsillä.

.... (sitaatti tutkija x:n selostuksesta tervehtimisestä)

Joissakin maissa tervehditään poskisuukolla...

In an English text you **MUST** spell out the connections and only then can you move on to the next topic:

There are many different ways of greeting using the hands:

... in some cultures one shakes hands gripping firmly...in others....(Smith 2005)

As Smith demonstrates above, handshaking is culturally-bound.

Another culturally-bound gesture is kissing....

CONNECTIVES

and	listing	enumeration	
		addition	reinforcement equation
	transition summation apposition result inference		
or	reformulation replacement		
but	contrast concession		

AND

Listing

- Enumeration indicates a cataloguing of what is being said:
first, furthermore, finally
one, two, three
firstly, secondly, thirdly

above all

last but not least—mark the end of an ascending order

first and foremost

first and most importantly—mark the beginning of an ascending order

to begin/start with, in the second place, moreover, and to conclude next, then, afterward, lastly/finally

- Addition to what has been previously indicated:
- Reinforcement includes confirmation:
also, again, furthermore, further, moreover, then, in addition, above all, too
- Equation shows similarity with what has preceded:

equally, likewise, similarly, correspondingly, in the same way

The following are often used as the negative equivalents of *and*:

either, neither, nor; not only... but also; neither... nor
neither leaves the series open—something may be added
nor concludes the series

The truth of a previous assertion may be confirmed or contradicted by:

indeed, actually, in fact, really, in reality

Transition

This can lead to a new stage in the sequence of thought:

now, with reference/respect/regard to, regarding, let us now turn to

as for and *as to* are often used when something is discussed briefly

Summation

This indicates a generalisation or summing-up of what has preceded:

in conclusion, to conclude, to summarise, altogether, overall, then, therefore, thus

Apposition

This is used to refer back to previous sentences or to parallel or related references:

i.e., that is, in other words, or, or rather, or better, as follows, e.g., for example,, for instance, such as, including, especially, particularly, in particular, notably, chiefly, mainly

Result

This expresses the consequence or result of what was said before:

so, therefore, as a result/consequence, accordingly, consequently, then, thus, hence, for this/that reason, because of this/that

Inference

This indicates a deduction from what is implicit in the preceding sentences:

then, in other words, in that case; else, otherwise (=a negative condition); if so/not, that implies, my conclusion is

OR

Reformulation

This expresses something in another way:

better, rather, in other words, in that case, to put it simply

Replacement

This expresses an alternative to what has preceded:

alternatively, rather, better/worse still, on the other hand, the alternative is, another possibility would be

BUT

Contrast

This contrasts something with what has preceded:

instead, conversely, on the contrary, in comparison on the one hand.... on the other hand

Concession

This indicates the unexpected, surprising nature of what is being said in view of what was said before:

besides, however, nevertheless, nonetheless, notwithstanding, while, although, yet, in any case, at any rate, in spite of/despite, at the same time, on the other hand, even if/though