ADVANCE IN ACADEMIC WRITING
INTEGRATING RESEARCH, CRITICAL THINKING, ACADEMIC READING AND WRITING

© ERPI – Advance in Academic Writing
HIGHLIGHTS

Opening Page
Each chapter opens with a quotation for reflection, an introduction of the chapter topic and theme, and a list of contents. Students engage with the chapter theme by doing an exploratory task.

Active and Critical Reading
Authentic texts on the chapter theme introduce language and text features for analysis. The texts—primarily excerpts of academic journal articles—are the starting point for the critical-thinking, vocabulary, grammar, style, and writing tasks that follow.

Critical Thinking
Critical-thinking tasks are linked to in-depth engagement with academic texts, with a focus on how to create effective arguments and how expert authors avoid logical fallacies in their writing.

Vocabulary
Students build vocabulary that is particularly useful in academic writing, such as reporting verbs and language for describing data. A short list of words and expressions from the chapter texts is selected for vocabulary development in My eLab.
Effective Writing Style

Students practise essential aspects of effective style in academic writing, including objective and subjective styles, appropriate formality, and correct in-text citations and references.

Effective Sentence Structure

Examples from the chapter texts are used to show accurate structures in context. The chapter focus is linked to a Handbook unit, which develops the topic further.

HANDBOOK: Writing Effective Sentences

Fourteen units expand on the grammar, sentence structure, and punctuation topics introduced in the chapters. Each unit is linked to additional practice in My eLab.

Write, Revise, and Edit

A final writing task gives students the opportunity to integrate their learning from the chapter. A checklist or review sheet is also provided for self- and peer reviews.

Appendices

Four appendices provide detailed explanations of linking words, cover the main aspects of APA and MLA citation styles, and highlight common mistakes to avoid in academic writing.
## SCOPE AND SEQUENCE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th>Active and Critical Reading</th>
<th>Critical Thinking</th>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>Effective Sentence Structure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Seven Stages of the Writing Process</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Journal article on multilingual students' academic writing</td>
<td>• What is critical thinking?</td>
<td>• Strategies for learning vocabulary</td>
<td>• Tense and aspect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Formality: phrasal verbs and Latinate verbs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Understanding Research</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Expository text on the research process</td>
<td>• Evaluate types of research</td>
<td>• Research-related vocabulary</td>
<td>• Articles, nouns, and noun phrases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Journal article on a historic double-blind control trial</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Passive voice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Bringing in Others' Ideas: Reading</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Reading around a text</td>
<td>• Genre and style in writing</td>
<td>• Anaphoric and cataphoric reference words</td>
<td>• Independent and dependent clauses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Skimming</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Language of attribution</td>
<td>• Simple, compound, and complex sentences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Journal and newspaper articles on self-driving cars</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Handbook Unit 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Scanning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Handbook Unit 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Annotating</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Bringing in Others' Ideas: Writing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Journal article on writing from sources</td>
<td>• Academic integrity versus plagiarism</td>
<td>• Guessing meaning from context</td>
<td>• Relative clauses (defining and non-defining)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Inferring meaning</td>
<td>• &quot;Standing on the shoulders of giants&quot;</td>
<td>• Reporting verbs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Online article on plagiarism in the music industry</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Handbook Unit 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Assessing the reliability of sources</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Presenting Coherent Arguments</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Newspaper article on prisons in Sweden</td>
<td>• Role of prisons: rehabilitate or punish?</td>
<td>• Language of opinion</td>
<td>• Punctuation: commas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Note taking</td>
<td>• Logical fallacies: cause and effect</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Handbook Unit 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Paragraphs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Selection of paragraphs on fair trade and slow food (various sources)</td>
<td>• Logical fallacies: generalization</td>
<td>• Conjunctive adverbs</td>
<td>• Participle phrases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Model paragraphs</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Punctuation: semicolons</td>
<td>• Handbook Units 5 and 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Introductions in Academic Writing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Model introduction</td>
<td>• Logical fallacies based on others' actions and ideas</td>
<td>• Linking words that perform different functions</td>
<td>• Passive voice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Handbook Unit 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Conclusions in Academic Writing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Model conclusion</td>
<td>• Logical fallacies based on weak reasoning</td>
<td>• Synonyms</td>
<td>• Punctuation: colons and apostrophes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Review of relative clauses and participle phrases</td>
<td>• Handbook Unit 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Writing Process</td>
<td>Effective Writing Style</td>
<td>Write, Revise, and Edit</td>
<td>My eLab</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Seven stages of the writing process | Using or avoiding personal language | Paragraph about personal background  
Revise verb forms in paragraph | *Grammar diagnostic  
Supplementary reading and writing activities  
Vocabulary exercises  
Exercises on tense and aspect |
| 10 stages of the research process | Writing in an objective, scientific style (passive voice) | 100-word summary of the chapter article | *Supplementary reading and writing activities  
Vocabulary exercises  
Exercises on articles, nouns, and noun phrases |
| Summary-writing process | Adapting semi-formal style for academic writing  
Paraphrasing | 200-word academic summary  
Self- and peer review (with review sheet) | *Supplementary reading and writing activities  
Vocabulary exercises  
Exercises on clauses and sentences |
| Response paper writing process | Shifting style from conversational to formal  
Writing reference list entries in APA and MLA styles | 200-word response paper  
Self- and peer review (with review sheet) | *Supplementary reading and writing activities  
Vocabulary exercises  
Exercises on relative clauses |
| Developing arguments | Review shifting style from informal to formal | Two opinion paragraphs  
Peer review (with checklist) | *Supplementary reading and writing activities  
Vocabulary exercises  
Exercises on commas |
| Writing paragraphs | Writing in-text citations in APA and MLA styles  
Shifting style, using linking words | Improve paragraphs from Chapter 5  
Peer review (with checklist) | *Supplementary reading and writing activities  
Vocabulary exercises  
Exercises on participle phrases and semicolons |
| Writing introductions | Review of avoiding personal language | Add an introduction to the paragraphs from Chapter 6  
Peer review (with checklist) | *Supplementary reading and writing activities  
Vocabulary exercises  
Exercises on the passive voice |
| Writing conclusions | Avoiding gender-exclusive language | Add a conclusion to the paragraphs from Chapter 6  
Peer review (with checklist) | *Supplementary reading and writing activities  
Vocabulary exercises  
Exercises on colons and apostrophes |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th>Active and Critical Reading</th>
<th>Critical Thinking</th>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>Effective Sentence Structure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>• Content overview: Chapters 1 to 8</td>
<td>• Consolidation tasks on logical fallacies, inferring meaning, and assessing the reliability of sources</td>
<td>• Consolidation tasks on language of attribution, reporting verbs, and reference words</td>
<td>→ Handbook Unit 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>• Encyclopedia entry on 3D printing • Online article about air pollution statistics • Tabloid article</td>
<td>• Engaging critically with statistical data and media statistics</td>
<td>• Describing data</td>
<td>• Subject-verb agreement • Review of sentence fragments and punctuation → Handbook Unit 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>• Pre-reading research skills • Locating stance, opinion, and relevance in abstracts • Abstracts from academic journal articles and an academic blog on cellphone use in class</td>
<td>• Bringing life experience into one’s writing</td>
<td>• Review of guessing meaning from context • Exemplification</td>
<td>→ Handbook Unit 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>• Academic articles and an expert blog on nuclear versus solar and wind power • Inferring meaning and identifying stance • Model comparative paragraphs</td>
<td>• What is comparative analysis?</td>
<td>• Language of comparison</td>
<td>• Parallel structure → Handbook Unit 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>• Academic journal articles and an online article on language endangerment and revitalization • Identifying problems, solutions, and background context in abstracts and articles</td>
<td>• Should special measures be taken to protect endangered languages?</td>
<td>• Describing problems, solutions, and evaluation</td>
<td>• Modal auxiliary verbs to express likelihood and obligation → Handbook Unit 13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>• Academic journal article, with diagram, on the effects of climate change on children’s health • Encyclopedia entry on El Niño</td>
<td>• Correlation versus causality</td>
<td>• Describing cause and effect</td>
<td>• Inversion for emphasis → Handbook Unit 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>• Content overview: Chapters 10 to 14</td>
<td>• Consolidation tasks on analyzing causality, engaging critically with statistical data, and doing comparative analysis</td>
<td>• Consolidation tasks on guessing meaning from context; exemplification; making comparisons; and describing statistics, problems and solutions, and cause and effect</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Writing Process</td>
<td>Effective Writing Style</td>
<td>Write, Revise, and Edit</td>
<td>My eLab</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Consolidation tasks on APA and MLA citation styles, shifting style, using or</td>
<td>• 700 to 1,000-word research essay, applying knowledge gained to this point</td>
<td>• Exercises on sentence fragments, comma splices, and run-on sentences</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>avoiding personal language, and paraphrasing</td>
<td>• Self- and peer review (with review sheet)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Expository writing</td>
<td>• Review of effective style</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Forming outlines for argumentative essays</td>
<td>• Describing the genre features of an academic blog</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Forming outlines for comparative essays</td>
<td>• Review of describing statistical data</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Writing about problems and evaluating the solutions</td>
<td>• Four-page argumentative essay</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Writing about causes and effects</td>
<td>• Comparative research essay OR</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Consolidation tasks on improving style, defining and classifying, and shifting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>style</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

## PART 1

### CHAP. 1 | SEVEN STAGES OF THE WRITING PROCESS

**THEME:** ACADEMIC WRITING

| What Our Students Tell Us: Perceptions of Three Multilingual Students on Their Academic Writing in First Year (excerpts) |
| Seven Stages of the Writing Process |

### CHAP. 2 | UNDERSTANDING RESEARCH

**THEME:** HOMEOPATHY AND CONTROL TRIALS

| What Is Research? |
| 10 Stages of the Research Process |
| Inventing the Randomized Double-Blind Trial: The Nuremberg Salt Test of 1835 (excerpts) |

### CHAP. 3 | BRINGING IN OTHERS’ IDEAS: READING

**THEME:** SELF-DRIVING CARS

| To Delegate or Not to Delegate: A Review of Control Frameworks for Autonomous Cars (excerpts) |
| Driverless Cars Work Great in Sunny California. But How About in a Blizzard? |

### CHAP. 4 | BRINGING IN OTHERS’ IDEAS: WRITING

**THEMES:** ACADEMIC INTEGRITY, PLAGIARISM IN THE MUSIC INDUSTRY

| Student Perceptions of the Value of Turnitin Text-Matching Software as a Learning Tool (excerpts) |
| Here’s What Makes a Song a Ripoff, according to the Law: How You Think about Music ≠ How the Courts Think about Music (excerpts) |

## PART 2

### CHAP. 5 | PRESENTING COHERENT ARGUMENTS

**THEME:** REHABILITATION VERSUS PUNISHMENT IN PRISONS

| ‘Prison is not for punishment in Sweden. We get people into better shape’ |
| Model argument |

### CHAP. 6 | PARAGRAPHS

**THEMES:** FAIR TRADE, SLOW FOOD

| Fairness of Fair Trade Product Markets |
| The Origin and Principles of Slow Food |
| The Meaning of Fair Trade: Introduction |
| Slow Food Revisited |
| Mind the Fair Trade Gap |
| Model paragraphs |
CHAPTER 7  INTRODUCTIONS IN ACADEMIC WRITING ........................................ 149

THEME: BUSINESS LEADERSHIP IN ASIA AND AFRICA

Recent Perspectives on Business and Leadership across Cultures:
The West, Asia, and Africa (model introduction) .............................. 150

Introduction 1: Traditional Chinese Philosophies and Contemporary Leadership 155

Introduction 2: Understanding the Varieties of Chinese Management:
The ABCD Framework ............................................................... 158

Introduction 3: Dynamics of Corporate Social Responsibility in Asia:
Knowledge and Norms ............................................................... 159

Introduction 4: On Becoming a Leader in Asia and America:
Empirical Evidence from Women Managers .................................. 160

Introduction 5: The Dynamics of Managing People in the Diverse
Cultural and Institutional Context of Africa ...................................... 161

CHAPTER 8  CONCLUSIONS IN ACADEMIC WRITING ................................. 169

THEME: BUSINESS LEADERSHIP IN ASIA AND AFRICA

Recent Perspectives on Business and Leadership across Cultures:
The West, Asia, and Africa (model conclusion) .............................. 171

Conclusion 1: Traditional Chinese Philosophies and Contemporary Leadership 173

Conclusion 2: Understanding the Varieties of Chinese Management:
The ABCD Framework ............................................................... 174

Conclusion 3: Dynamics of Corporate Social Responsibility in Asia:
Knowledge and Norms ............................................................... 175

Conclusion 4: On Becoming a Leader in Asia and America:
Empirical Evidence from Women Managers .................................. 178

CHAPTER 9  REVIEW AND CONSOLIDATION ................................................. 189

PART 3  WRITING FOR DIFFERENT ACADEMIC PURPOSES

CHAPTER 10  DESCRIBING PROCESSES AND STATISTICAL DATA ... 205

THEMES: 3D PRINTING
AIR POLLUTION

3D Printing ..................................................................................... 206
Air Pollution Statistics (excerpt) .................................................. 210
Modern Life Is KILLING Children: Gadgets, Pollution and Pesticides
Are Blamed as Cancer Rates Soar 40 per cent in Just 16 Years .......... 218

CHAPTER 11  WRITING ARGUMENTS IN ESSAYS ................................. 225

THEME: CELLPHONES IN HIGHER EDUCATION CLASSROOMS

You Can Lead a Horse to Water but You Cannot Make Him Learn:
Smartphone Use in Higher Education (abstract) ............................ 228

Mobile Phones in the Classroom: Examining the Effects of Texting,
Twitter, and Message Content on Student Learning (abstract) ........... 230

A Happy and Engaged Class without Cell Phones? It’s Easier Than You Think (abstract) ............................................................. 230

Exploring the Extent to Which ELT Students Utilise Smartphones
for Language Learning Purposes (abstract) ..................................... 231

How Concerned Should We Be about Cell Phones in Class? ............... 237
### CHAPTER 12  MAKING COMPARISONS ........................................ 245

**THEME:** NUCLEAR VERSUS SOLAR AND WIND POWER

Second Life or Half-Life? The Contested Future of Nuclear Power and Its Potential Role in a Sustainable Energy Transition (excerpt) ........................................ 246
Nuclear Energy in Focus (excerpts) ...................................................... 248
Renewable Energy versus Nuclear: Dispelling the Myths (excerpts) ........... 251
Model comparative paragraphs ............................................................ 258, 259

### CHAPTER 13  WRITING ABOUT PROBLEMS AND SOLUTIONS ............ 265

**THEME:** LANGUAGE LOSS

What Is Language Endangerment? (excerpts) ........................................ 268
Back to the Future: Recreating Natural Indigenous Language Learning Environments through Language Nest Early Childhood Immersion Programs (excerpts) ........ 271, 274, 276
Getting in Touch: Language and Digital Inclusion in Australian Indigenous Communities (abstract) ................................................................. 274
Kohanga Reo (excerpts) ........................................................................ 278

### CHAPTER 14  WRITING ABOUT CAUSES AND EFFECTS ....................... 285

**THEMES:** CLIMATE CHANGE AND CHILDREN’S HEALTH

EL NIÑO

Global Climate Change and Children’s Health (excerpt) ................................... 286
El Niño (excerpts) ................................................................................. 288

### CHAPTER 15  REVIEW AND CONSOLIDATION ...................................... 305

### HANDBOOK: WRITING EFFECTIVE SENTENCES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>UNIT</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Tense and Aspect</td>
<td>321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Articles, Nouns, and Noun Phrases</td>
<td>327</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Clauses and Sentences</td>
<td>335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Relative Clauses</td>
<td>343</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Punctuation: Commas and Semicolons</td>
<td>349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Participle Phrases</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>The Passive Voice</td>
<td>364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Punctuation: Colons and Apostrophes</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Sentence Fragments, Comma Splices, and Run-On Sentences</td>
<td>379</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Subject-Verb Agreement</td>
<td>385</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Conditional Sentences</td>
<td>391</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Parallel Structure</td>
<td>399</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Modal Auxiliary Verbs to Express Likelihood and Obligation</td>
<td>403</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Inversion for Emphasis</td>
<td>413</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### APPENDICES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>APPENDIX</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Linking Words in Academic Writing</td>
<td>423</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>APA Citation Style</td>
<td>432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>MLA Citation Style</td>
<td>440</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>35 Mistakes to Avoid in Academic Writing</td>
<td>448</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Credits ................................................................................. 459
CHAPTER 4

BRINGING IN OTHERS’ IDEAS: WRITING

To be a successful academic writer, you need to search for useful sources, select relevant and important ideas, and incorporate these ideas into your own writing. When you use the ideas of experts to make your writing more effective and convincing, you are metaphorically standing on their shoulders to improve your vision and understanding in your subject area. However, those ideas do not belong to you. The rules of academic integrity require that you acknowledge your sources.

In this chapter, you will:
- learn about plagiarism and how to avoid it
- read two articles about plagiarism
- guess meaning from context
- study inference
- practise shifting style and writing reference list entries
- study reporting verbs
- study relative clauses
- learn how to write a response paper
- write a 200-word response paper

TASK 1 EXPLORE THROUGH WRITING
What is academic integrity, and what is plagiarism?
Take five minutes to answer the questions. Try to write as many ideas as possible. After you have finished, in groups of three, read each other’s notes and discuss what you have written.

... standing on the shoulders of giants.
Sir Isaac Newton
ACADEMIC INTEGRITY

Exercising academic integrity means behaving honestly and ethically as a student, following the rules of an institution, and respecting and acknowledging the intellectual property of others in your work. Accordingly, it means avoiding cheating and plagiarizing.

Plagiarism and Intention

Plagiarism can be defined as using others’ ideas, statistics, or creative works in your writing as if they were your own, without acknowledging your source.

When a writer commits plagiarism, it is not always clear whether he or she intended to. Sometimes, plagiarism may be unintentional, for example, when a writer forgets to add an in-text citation for an idea paraphrased from someone else’s work. However, if a student pays for an essay from an Internet essay mill and passes it off as his or her own work, the intention is clear.

Remember: your instructors cannot read your intentions, only your writing. Many will assume intention.

Common Knowledge

When writing, if you use an idea or a piece of information that is considered common knowledge, it is not necessary to acknowledge your source. The following two examples illustrate what common knowledge is and is not:


This is common knowledge because it is a historical fact.

The North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), which came into effect in 1994, has mainly benefited large corporations in the United States, Canada, and Mexico.

This is not common knowledge because it is not a historical fact. It is a writer’s opinion about the results of the historical fact. If you copy this idea without acknowledging your source, you are committing plagiarism by passing off another writer’s idea as your own.

TASK 2 IDENTIFY ACTS OF PLAGIARISM

Read the following eight examples of students incorporating others’ ideas into their writing. Circle the number from 1 to 3 that fits your understanding of the situation, and then explain your answer.
1. A student included a direct quotation and did not include quotation marks and an in-text citation with a page number.

   1. plagiarism  
   2. not sure  
   3. not plagiarism

2. A student paraphrased original ideas from another source and did not include an in-text citation.

   1. plagiarism  
   2. not sure  
   3. not plagiarism

3. A student paraphrased several sentences from another source, making only a few changes to the vocabulary and grammar, and included a citation.

   1. plagiarism  
   2. not sure  
   3. not plagiarism

4. A student asked for help from a private tutor, who rewrote some sections of an essay so the student could get a better grade.

   1. plagiarism  
   2. not sure  
   3. not plagiarism

5. A student asked for help from a private tutor, who corrected only grammar and vocabulary errors so the student could get a better grade.

   1. plagiarism  
   2. not sure  
   3. not plagiarism
6. A student submitted an essay in an academic writing course that he or she had previously submitted in another course.

    1  plagiarism  2  not sure  3  not plagiarism

---

7. A student downloaded an essay from the Internet and submitted it without changing anything.

    1  plagiarism  2  not sure  3  not plagiarism

---

8. A student included in-text citations for all paraphrases and direct quotations in an essay but did not include a corresponding reference for each of them in the reference list at the end of the essay.

    1  plagiarism  2  not sure  3  not plagiarism

---

ACTIVE AND CRITICAL READING

WRITING FROM SOURCES AND PLAGIARISM

The following excerpt is from an academic journal article on the challenges students face when writing from sources.

Student Perceptions of the Value of Turnitin Text-Matching Software as a Learning Tool

by Carol Bailey and Rachel Challen

Introduction

Academic writing is a challenging venture, especially when writing from sources. It involves reading widely yet selectively, understanding and questioning what we read, and weaving together multiple authors’ voices with our own, indicating both their relationships to each other and how they have influenced our own thinking on the topic. When writing for scholarly
publication, we engage in conversation with our academic peers; thus it is of crucial importance that we correctly represent and attribute each other’s views.

Student writing follows a similar process but has a rather different purpose. When teachers set written coursework, they hope that by reading and writing students will develop not only their knowledge but also their thinking and communication skills. However, a key function of student writing is assessment of said knowledge and skills. The student writer has a limited readership . . . , and conversation is restricted to tutor feedback, often with little scope for student response. Baffled by sometimes inexplicable and apparently contradictory exhortations to read more widely yet be selective, to ‘use your own words and ideas’ yet provide a citation for every statement, novice writers may find themselves engaging in a ‘hollow simulacrum of research’ (Jamieson and Howard, 2011b:n.p.). This can include behaviours such as falsification of references, copy-pasting citations to sources the student has not read, and what Howard et al. call ‘quote-mining’ (2010:186), all in the belief that more references will placate the lecturer and lead to higher grades (Harwood and Petric, 2012; Ellery, 2008).

This article will explore student perceptions of the text-matching software Turnitin. Because Turnitin is commonly employed to detect inappropriate textual borrowing (Badge and Scott, 2009), studies on its use often commence with a discussion of plagiarism: its incidence, causes and solutions. Since we will be focussing on the use of Turnitin in developing academic writing skills, we begin by examining some of the challenges students face when writing from sources.

Although most students now arrive at university with some grounding in information technology, recent studies suggest that young Internet users, while confident with the technology, are less competent when it comes to sourcing and critically evaluating online information (Bartlett and Miller, 2011). In Higher Education, this reveals itself as a tendency to depend on sources which educators may consider insufficiently reliable or ‘academic’ . . . .

While students are likely to access increasingly authoritative sources as they progress through their studies, Judd and Kennedy found that even in their final year students were relying on Google and Wikipedia 41% of the time, and only 40% of the sources they accessed via Google were classified by the authors as highly reliable (2011:355–57). Similarly, iParadigms relate that of 112 million content matches in 28 million student papers submitted to Turnitin between July 2011 and June 2012, 43% were to ‘sites that are academically suspect, including . . . user-generated content’ (2012:3). The most popular source, representing 11% of all matched text, was Wikipedia.

A further finding of the Citation Project is that a high proportion of citations were to the first page of a source (46%) or to the first three pages (77%). . . . Most of the citations were quotations, sentence-level paraphrase or patchwriting. . . .

**tutor feedback**: comments from an instructor

**baffled**: very confused

**exhortations**: strong recommendation, urging someone to do something

**grounding**: basic understanding

**sourcing**: looking for, locating
The term ‘patchwriting’ was coined by Howard in 1992 to denote ‘copying from a source text and then deleting some words, altering grammatical structures, or plugging in one-for-one synonym-substitutes’ (Howard, 1992:233). While some assessors judge this to be a form of plagiarism, Howard argues that it should instead be considered a ‘valuable composing strategy’ enabling the novice writer’s ‘manipulation of new ideas and vocabulary’ in an unfamiliar discourse (ibid). This view of patchwriting as a learning strategy is confirmed in Pecorari’s (2003) study of postgraduate student writing. Investigating the influence of mother tongue, Keck (2006) found that L2 writers were more likely than native speakers to use ‘Near Copy’ as a textual borrowing strategy. However, she also noted that both L1 and L2 undergraduates made significant use of ‘minimal revision’ paraphrase in their writing (Keck, 2006:275–6). This may be partly due to confusion over what constitutes acceptable paraphrase (Zimitat, 2008). Yet native English writers may, like users of English as an Additional Language (EAL), lack the vocabulary, background knowledge, inferencing ability and fluency with academic discourse to construe complex texts ‘in their own words’.

Higher Education Institutions have numerous ways of helping students develop their information literacy and academic writing skills. In addition to course guidance documents and academic writing tuition . . . , many institutions have developed online tutorials on academic writing from sources, and some are commercially available.

One tool which is becoming widely adopted in teaching academic writing is the text-matching software Turnitin, which compares uploaded text with documents in its database (including webpages, academic articles and previously uploaded student papers), then generates an ‘Originality Report’ highlighting potentially copied material, linked by colour-coding to its possible source.

References


Novice writers may find themselves engaging in a 'hollow simulacrum of research'. [LINES 20–22]

What do you think it means? Novice writers may find themselves engaging in an empty and unsatisfactory imitation of research.

Which words give you clues? The next sentence begins with the defining words “This can include.” Then it refers to “falsification of references, copy-pasting citations to sources the student has not read,” and “quote-mining.”

1. Academic writing is a challenging venture. [LINE 2]

What do you think it means? __________________________________________________________

Which words give you clues? __________________________________________________________

2. It is of crucial importance that we correctly represent and attribute each other’s views. [LINES 8–9]

What do you think it means? __________________________________________________________

Which words give you clues? __________________________________________________________

3. However, a key function of student writing is assessment of said knowledge and skills. [LINES 14–15]

What do you think it means? __________________________________________________________
4. Turnitin is commonly employed to detect inappropriate textual borrowing. [LINES 28–29]

What do you think it means? ________________________________

Which words give you clues? ________________________________

5. Keck (2006) found that L2 writers were more likely than native speakers to use ‘Near Copy’ as a textual borrowing strategy. [LINES 61–63]

What do you think it means? ________________________________

Which words give you clues? ________________________________

Inference

In the margin of the Bailey and Challen article, inference is defined as “looking at evidence and reaching a conclusion when meaning is unclear.” As a reader, you need to infer meaning when a writer’s idea is not completely clear to you. You may understand the words but struggle to fully understand the writer’s broader opinion, claim, or purpose in making the statement. Consider the following example:

Baffled by sometimes inexplicable and apparently contradictory exhortations to read more widely yet be selective, to ‘use your own words and ideas’ yet provide a citation for every statement, novice writers may find themselves engaging in a ‘hollow simulacrum of research’. [LINES 17–22]

**Problem:** Even if you understand the individual words, the authors’ stance (their opinion of students who do unsatisfactory research) is not clearly stated. If the authors’ purpose had been to state their position explicitly, they could have done so as follows:

- Novice writers may **have no option but to engage** in a “hollow simulacrum of research.” (sympathetic)
- Novice writers may **try to deceive their instructors by engaging** in a “hollow simulacrum of research.” (unsympathetic)

However, because the stance is unclear, the reader has to infer it by looking at the evidence and reaching a conclusion.

**Question:** Do you think the authors are being sympathetic toward students or critical of them?

**Inference:** The authors seem sympathetic because they explain that students are baffled by being asked to do things that are inexplicable and contradictory, and that this contradiction may be the reason—at least in part—for their unsuccessful attempts at research.
TASK 4 INFER THE MEANING

Look at each of the following quotations from the article, and read the problem that requires you to infer meaning. Then answer the question that follows. Compare the inferred meanings with a partner before writing your answers.

1. While students are likely to access increasingly authoritative sources as they progress through their studies, Judd and Kennedy found that even in their final year students were relying on Google and Wikipedia 41% of the time, and only 40% of the sources they accessed via Google were classified by the authors as highly reliable. [LINES 40–44]

   Problem: The authors’ purpose in citing these statistics is not clear.

   Question: What can you infer from the statistics about the authors’ opinion of final-year students?

   Inference: ________________________________________________________________

   ________________________________________________________________

   ________________________________________________________________

2. A further finding of the Citation Project is that a high proportion of citations were to the first page of a source (46%) or to the first three pages (77%). Most of the citations were quotations, sentence-level paraphrase or patchwriting. [LINES 49–52]

   Problem: The authors’ purpose in including these findings is not clearly stated.

   Question: Do these specific findings of the Citation Project portray students in a positive or negative light? Explain your answer.

   Inference: ________________________________________________________________

   ________________________________________________________________

   ________________________________________________________________

3. While some assessors judge this to be a form of plagiarism, Howard argues that it should instead be considered a ‘valuable composing strategy’ enabling the novice writer’s ‘manipulation of new ideas and vocabulary’ in an unfamiliar discourse. [LINES 56–59]

   Problem: The authors are presenting two opposing views without explicitly stating their own stance.

   Question: Do the authors give more emphasis to one idea than to the other, thus giving a clue to their stance? Consider what you studied in Chapter 3 about emphasizing information in complex sentences.

   Inference: ________________________________________________________________

   ________________________________________________________________

   ________________________________________________________________
4. One tool which is becoming widely adopted in teaching academic writing is the text-matching software Turnitin, which compares uploaded text with documents in its database (including webpages, academic articles and previously uploaded student papers), then generates an ‘Originality Report’ highlighting potentially copied material, linked by colour-coding to its possible source. [LINES 75–80]

**Problem:** The authors do not indicate whether they support using Turnitin.

**Question:** In their description of Turnitin, do the authors give any indication whether they support or oppose its use in higher education?

**Inference:**

---

### ACTIVE AND CRITICAL READING

**PLAGIARISM IN THE MUSIC INDUSTRY**

You are going to read an online article on plagiarism in the music industry.

**TASK 5** EXPLORE THROUGH DISCUSSION

Discuss the following question in groups: Why do laws and rules about plagiarism exist?

**Online Sources**

Online, non-peer-reviewed articles are usually written in a less formal style. The style is a reflection of the genre, the aim to attract a broad audience, as well as the personal preferences of the writer. Such articles can provide useful background knowledge about a subject, especially if it is topical and no reliable peer-reviewed books or articles are available.

There are two important challenges to consider when you refer to online articles in your academic writing: reliability and style shift.

**Reliability**

If you look for sources using an Internet search engine, you will find many different types of articles:

- newspaper and magazine articles
- articles and documents from governmental and non-governmental organizations
- blogs
- peer-reviewed journal articles
You can find different information in different sources, but if you want to use information, ideas, or statistics from any of these sources, you need to be sure that what you are reading is reliable.

- **Peer-reviewed books and articles**
  For a source to be considered reliable, it should be peer-reviewed, which means it has been assessed by academic experts and editors. As the peer-review process takes time, it is not always possible to find peer-reviewed articles or books on very recent topics.

- **News media**
  Newspaper articles are reviewed by editors but rarely by academic experts. News media sources vary considerably in terms of reliability. Some serious news organizations are trustworthy and reliable because professional journalists verify their sources; other organizations—for example, many tabloid newspapers—do not hold their writers to the same standards.

- **Websites, blogs, and wikis**
  You can find useful information, especially statistics and information about policies, on the websites of governmental and non-governmental organizations. The information is not usually reviewed by peers or editors, and you will often find different views on a topic depending on the type of organization, so you need to read critically.
  Popular websites, blogs, and wikis can give you a good idea of the general debate around a topic, but they are not considered reliable due to the lack of peer review and editorial control of their content.

**Reliability Checklists**

Use the following checklists to assess the reliability of different sources.

**Academic books and articles** are the most reliable sources. Nonetheless, some are more reliable than others. Consider the following criteria when using academic books and articles:

- Does the book or article contain in-text citations and references?
- Is the publisher a recognized academic publisher?
- Has the book or article been cited by other academic publications?

And for articles only:

- Is the journal linked to recognized academic databases?
- Does the journal have an editor and an editorial board of academics?

If the answer to any of these questions is no, the book or article may be less reliable.

**News media** are useful sources for up-to-date information on a broad range of topics. There are many different news media—some reliable, and some not. Consider the following criteria when using news media:
Does the newspaper or news website seem serious?

Is the language and style formal?

Are opinions and statistics attributed to reliable sources?

Are opinions and claims balanced, and supported with evidence?

If the answer to any of these questions is no, the news source is not reliable.

Websites, blogs, and wikis can provide useful background information about a topic, but they are not always reliable. Consider the following criteria if you intend to cite such sources:

Is the source a recognized governmental or non-governmental organization?

Does the content have an author, date, in-text citations, and a reference list?

Is the style of writing formal and academic?

Is the tone serious and the site devoid of flashy colours and advertisements?

If the answer to any of these questions is no, the site is not reliable.

**TASK 6 ASSESS RELIABILITY**

Look at the article below, an online news article, and assess its reliability by answering the questions in the news media checklist. Discuss your answers in small groups.

**Style Shift**

The next article is from an online news source and is written in a style that is wholly appropriate for the genre: it does not follow the formal citation and referencing rules required for academic texts, and it is engaging, informal, and conversational. However, this style is not appropriate for academic writing.

In Effective Writing Style on pages 89 and 90, you will practise shifting from informal to formal style. Later in the chapter, you will write a 200-word response paper in which you summarize the main ideas of the article below and respond to them with your personal opinions and impressions. As you write, you will need to shift the style to formal academic English.

**TASK 7 READ AND TAKE NOTES**

Read the article below on plagiarism in the music industry. As you read, take notes on the following:

- main information and ideas
- whether you think the information and claims are reliable
- your personal response to the article (whether you agree or disagree, whether you are convinced, surprised, etc.)
- examples of informal style that you will need to shift to formal academic English

You will refer to these notes later when you write the response paper.
Here’s What Makes a Song a Ripoff, according to the Law: How You Think about Music ≠ How the Courts Think about Music

by Reggie Ugwu

Music is art, and art is for people—not lawyers. But musicians have long relied on the law to protect their creations. For nearly two centuries, courts in the United States have heard cases from songwriters seeking to defend their compositions from thieves, cheats, and liars of all stripes. It’s a tradition that continues today—with recent disputes between Tom Petty and Sam Smith (settled amicably out of court) and the Marvin Gaye family and Robin Thicke, Pharrell Williams, T.I., et al (currently at trial)—putting the modern music industry on high alert.

In those cases, and in most disputes alleging copyright infringement of a musical composition, a few perennial questions arise: When can a person be said to own something like a chord progression or melody? And in a world where everyone is inspired by someone else, where is the line between plagiarism and influence? To help us answer these questions in plain English, we spoke to Paul Fakler, a veteran copyright lawyer with a specialty in music law, of the law firm Arent Fox.

What we learned underscores the gap between how casual music fans think about music, and how it’s treated as a matter of law. . .

Music compositions, like other forms of creative expression, are protected by copyright under the law. Under the Copyright Act of 1976, which took effect in 1978, anytime a person writes or records an original piece of music, a copyright automatically exists. Registration with the U.S. Copyright Office is optional, but does come with certain benefits in the event of an infringement dispute. Copyrighted elements of a musical composition can include melody, chord progression, rhythm, and lyrics—anything that reflects a “minimal spark” of creativity and originality.

“It really doesn’t have to be a whole lot,” said Fakler. “If a single chord progression were elaborate enough and unconventional enough, it could be protected.”

One important instance where copyright doesn’t apply is public domain. If a song was published prior to 1923, it is considered to be in the public domain and is not protected. Federal law says that creative works, including music compositions, enter the public domain after the life of the creator plus 70 years. . . . Copyright is designed to prevent people from copying a creative work, or specific elements thereof, without permission.

Disputes over music copyrights are very common, but often don’t go to trial. If you’ve ever listened to a song and thought it sounded a lot like another, older song, you probably weren’t alone. It’s a truism of popular music that everyone is influenced by their predecessors (and, often, contemporaries), and perceived similarities between songs often lead to disputes.
“In songwriting, you’re always building on what came before you, and the line between influence and copying can be a murky one,” said Fakler.

As was the case with Tom Petty and Sam Smith, in which the latter’s “Stay With Me” was alleged to infringe on the former’s “I Won’t Back Down,” most disputes are settled privately out of court. Fakler says that’s because litigation is expensive, juries are unpredictable, and there are stigmas that can stick to both sides: The accused can get labeled as unoriginal or duplicitous, and the accuser can be viewed as greedy or belligerent.

In the event of a trial, the person claiming infringement (the plaintiff) has to prove two things: “access” and “substantial similarity.” Copyright infringement is what’s called a “strict liability tort,” which means the defendant doesn’t have to have intended to infringe to be found guilty. To prove guilt, the plaintiff must only demonstrate that the defendant had access to the allegedly infringed song, and that the two songs in question have substantial similarity.

Access is a question of whether the defendant ever actually heard, or could reasonably be presumed to have heard, the plaintiff’s song at some point before creating the allegedly infringing song. Though not always easy to prove, courts often consider whether a relationship existed between the two parties and how well known the plaintiff’s song is generally.

In the famous 1976 case Bright Tunes Music v. Harrisongs Music, the late Beatles member George Harrison was found to have infringed on The Chiffons’ hit “He’s So Fine” with his own solo song “My Sweet Lord” in part because The Chiffons’ song was so popular that there was little doubt whether Harrison had been exposed to it. The judge concluded that even though there was no evidence that “He’s So Fine” had been on Harrison’s radar, he had likely heard the song and internalized it “subconsciously.”

In the case of Robin Thicke and “Blurred Lines,” by contrast, there was never any question of access, since Thicke admitted on his own that his song was inspired by Marvin Gaye’s “Got to Give It Up.”

Substantial similarity is a question of whether or not the average listener can tell that one song has been copied from the other. This is the “ordinary observer test,” what Fakler calls “the hallmark of copyright infringement.” The more elements two works have in common, the more likely they are to be ruled substantially similar. Proving substantial similarity in music cases is complicated by the fact that all songs carry two kinds of copyright, for composition and sound recording, that have to be evaluated independently. . . .

Because most people can’t read music, it’s actually pretty hard for the average juror to tell whether two songs have substantial similarities or not. Given the unreliability of sound recordings and performances in cases where compositions are in dispute, musicologists are often called as expert witnesses to
walk jurors through: explain to members of the jury
cut to the chase: deal quickly with the main issue
attorneys: lawyers
incurred: suffered or experienced

85 walk jurors through sheet music. A musicologist for the plaintiff will underscore the similarities between the two songs as written, while the defendant’s musicologist will stress the differences. “With novels and movies, it’s often easier for jurors to sort of cut to the chase and tell whether the thing has been copied or not,” said Fakler. “Music cases quickly turn into a battle of the experts.” If accused of infringement, a person can use several specific defenses to try to beat the claim. . . .

Being found guilty of copyright infringement often comes with serious damages. Copyright infringement in music cases can easily cost the infringer millions of dollars in damages—plus attorneys’ fees in some instances—which can be calculated based on a variety of factors, including the degree of infringement and the financial losses incurred. The plaintiff may also seek what’s called “injunctive relief” and block the record label from further distribution and sale of the infringing song(s).

Though most people, artists included, like to think of their favorite songs as unique, copyright forces us to ask tough questions about the true nature of creativity, community, and commerce. “Nothing is completely original,” Fakler said. “We’re all standing on the shoulders of giants.”


EFFECTIVE WRITING STYLE

SHIFTING STYLE

The Ugwu article is written according to the genre features of an online persuasive text, which is targeting quite a broad readership, including non-expert readers. To make such texts accessible and engaging for as broad an audience as possible, writers often mix informal online writing styles with more formal academic styles. For example, in the text above, Ugwu uses several less formal, conversational words and phrases to catch his readers’ attention.

TASK 8 IDENTIFY INFORMAL STYLE

Scan the article above for language that you think is not appropriate style for academic writing, and which will require a shift in style when you write the response paper. Underline as many examples as you can in five minutes; then discuss your answers in pairs.

TASK 9 SHIFT FROM INFORMAL TO FORMAL STYLE

In the sentences on the next page (taken from the Ugwu article), the phrases in bold are examples of less formal style that would not normally be used in formal academic writing. Match each sentence to one or more of the following descriptions of informal style, and write the corresponding letter(s) under the sentence. Then rewrite the sentence to make it more in line with formal academic writing.
Descriptions of informal style:

a) use of short simple words (e.g., *look into* instead of *investigate*)
b) conversational language (e.g., a phrase normally used in spoken, but not written English)
c) use of simple quantifiers (e.g., *a lot of, lots of, loads of*)
d) addressing the reader as *you*
e) use of coordinators at the beginning of sentences (e.g., *and, but, so*)
f) contractions (e.g., *doesn’t, don’t* instead of *does not, do not*)

1. But musicians have long relied on the law to protect their creations.
   Letter(s): ____________________________
   ____________________________

2. It’s a tradition that continues today.
   Letter(s): ____________________________
   ____________________________

3. “It really doesn’t have to be a whole lot,” said Fakler.
   Letter(s): ____________________________
   ____________________________

4. If you’ve ever listened to a song and thought it sounded *a lot* like another, older song, *you* probably weren’t alone.
   Letter(s): ____________________________
   ____________________________

5. “In songwriting, *you’re* always building on what came before *you . . .*,” said Fakler.
   Letter(s): ____________________________
   ____________________________

6. Because most people can’t read music, *it’s actually pretty hard* for the average juror to tell whether two songs have substantial similarities or not.
   Letter(s): ____________________________
   ____________________________

7. “With novels and movies, *it’s often easier for jurors to sort of cut to the chase* and tell whether the thing has been copied or not,” said Fakler.
   Letter(s): ____________________________
   ____________________________
REPORTING VERBS

Academic writers use a range of reporting verbs when they refer to others’ ideas and arguments. Different reporting verbs have different meanings and functions, which reflect the writer’s view of the information being cited.

Reporting Different Types of Information

You can use reporting verbs in different tenses. In most cases, tenses have little effect on the meaning of reporting verbs. You can also use reporting verbs in the active or passive voice without changing the meaning.

The following are some examples taken from, or referring to, the two articles in this chapter.

Reporting Factual Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reporting Verbs</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>say</td>
<td>Ugwu (2015) says that music compositions, like other forms of creative expression, are protected by copyright under the law.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>state</td>
<td>Bailey and Challen (2015) state that higher education institutions help students develop their academic writing in many ways.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>As stated by</strong> Bailey and Challen (2015), higher education institutions help students develop their academic writing in many ways.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reporting Arguments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reporting Verbs</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>argue</td>
<td>Ugwu (2015) argues that the general public and courts do not listen to music in the same way.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>claim</td>
<td><strong>It is claimed by</strong> Ugwu (2015) that the general public and courts do not listen to music in the same way.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maintain</td>
<td>Bailey and Challen (2015) suggest that some students may be confused by what is not acceptable in paraphrasing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>support the view that</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>suggest</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imply</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reporting Opposition to Arguments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reporting Verbs</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>challenge</td>
<td>Howard (1992) challenges the view that patchwriting should be understood as intentional plagiarism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>question</td>
<td>The view that patchwriting should be understood as intentional plagiarism is questioned by Howard (1992).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>In Ugwu (2015), Fakler questions whether any musical work can be completely original.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Using Present and Past Tenses with Reporting Verbs

As a general rule of thumb, use the present tense for reporting verbs even if the article you are referring to was written in the past. If you use the past tense, sometimes the tense will affect the meaning. Specifically, if you are referring to primary research (for which data are collected and analyzed, for example, in an experiment), using a different tense can change the meaning or emphasis.

No Change in Meaning (General Ideas)

In Ugwu (2015), Fakler says that is because litigation is expensive, juries are unpredictable, and there are stigmas that can stick to both sides.

The present tense works well for an argument that still stands at the time of writing, as in the example above.

“In songwriting, you’re always building on what came before you, and the line between influence and copying can be a murky one,” said Fakler (as cited in Ugwu, 2015).

The past tense works well here because the writer is citing Fakler’s exact words and using a narrative style.

Change in Meaning (Primary Research)

If the reporting verbs (and other descriptive verbs) that refer to primary research are in the past tense, this can suggest that the findings are limited to one particular study.

Judd and Kennedy found that even in their final year students were relying on Google and Wikipedia 41% of the time, and only 40% of the sources they accessed via Google were classified by the authors as highly reliable.

On the other hand, if the reporting verbs (and other descriptive verbs) that refer to primary research are in the present tense, this can suggest that the findings are generalizable, which means they can be applied beyond the limits of the study to broader populations. Consider this example (not based on the chapter articles):

Piaget (1952) argues that children learn by “assimilating” information from the environment.

The present tense here (for the reporting verb argues and the verb learn) suggests the writer thinks Piaget’s findings are generalizable, which indeed they are: when his studies were replicated with different groups, his original findings were confirmed.

Adding Your Own Opinion with Adverbs

You can express your opinion about information you are citing by adding an adverb such as interestingly, mistakenly, wrongly, correctly, or rightly before the reporting verb.

In Ugwu (2015), Fakler interestingly questions whether any musical work can ever be completely original.

(The writer thinks Fakler’s idea is interesting.)
Howard (1992) **wrongly** challenges the view that patchwriting should be understood as intentional plagiarism.  
(The writer thinks Howard’s idea is wrong.)

Ugwu (2015) **correctly** states that copyright does not apply in the public domain.  
(The writer thinks Ugwu’s statement is correct.)

**TASK 10** PRACTISE USING REPORTING VERBS

Use reporting verbs to fill in the blanks in the following sentences about the two articles in this chapter. Use a verb that matches the meaning as closely as possible. There may be more than one correct answer.

1. Ugwu (2015) ________ that musicians rely on the law to protect their musical compositions.

2. The view that patchwriting constitutes plagiarism is ________ by Howard (1992). (Use the passive voice.)

3. In Ugwu (2015), Fakler ________ that no musical work is completely original.

4. Bailey and Challen (2015) ________ that the difference between paraphrasing and patchwriting might be confusing for some students.

5. Ugwu (2015) ________. ________ that musicians rely on the law to protect their musical compositions. (I agree with his statement.)

6. In Ugwu (2015), Fakler ________. ________ that no musical work is completely original. (I disagree with his argument.)

7. In Ugwu (2015), Fakler ________ concludes by ________ we are all standing on the shoulders of giants. (I think his idea is interesting.)

**EXTEND YOUR ACADEMIC VOCABULARY**

Extend your knowledge of key vocabulary from this chapter.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>allegedly</th>
<th>denote</th>
<th>incur</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>attribute</td>
<td>discourse</td>
<td>infringe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>critically</td>
<td>incidence</td>
<td>underscore</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Words in bold type are AWL entries.*
REFERENCE LISTS IN APA AND MLA STYLES

In Chapter 3, you were directed to Appendices 2 and 3 on APA and MLA citation styles. To write APA- or MLA-style reference list entries for the two articles in this chapter, you should use the formats below.

Scholarly Journal Article

**APA Format**
Surname, Initial. (year). Title of article. *Title of Journal, volume number*(issue number), page numbers. doi:xxxxx

**MLA Format**

A Page on a Website

**APA Format**
Surname, Initial. (year, Month day). Title of document. [Title of Site.] Retrieved from URL

**MLA Format**
Surname, Name. “Title of Document.” *Title of Site*, Sponsor or publisher, date of publication [if available], URL. Accessed date.

**TASK 11** WRITE APA AND MLA REFERENCE LIST ENTRIES

Write reference list entries for the two articles in this chapter, following either the APA or MLA format above.

1. 

2. 

Learn more about APA and MLA reference lists in Appendices 2 and 3.
STANDING ON THE SHOULDERS OF GIANTS

TASK 12 DISCUSS

1. The Ugwu article contains the phrase standing on the shoulders of giants, which was also the opening quotation in this chapter. Answer the following related questions in small groups:

   a) What do you think standing on the shoulders of giants means?
   b) Why do you think Ugwu closed the article with this quotation?
   c) Does it help you to do academic writing when you “stand on the shoulders of giants”?

2. Look back at the exploratory writing you did for Task 1: What is academic integrity, and what is plagiarism? Are there any ideas or key concepts you have learned in this chapter that have changed your initial understanding?

EFFECTIVE SENTENCE STRUCTURE

RELATIVE CLAUSES

A relative clause defines or gives extra (non-defining) information about a thing or idea in a nearby independent clause. Defining and non-defining clauses are also called restrictive and non-restrictive clauses. A relative clause can begin with any of the following common relative pronouns (the context in which they are used is in parentheses):

- which (a thing)
- that (a thing or person)
- who(m) (a person)
- whose (possessive form)
- what (the thing that)
- when (time)
- where (place)
- why (reason)

In the following examples from the Ugwu article, focus on the relative clauses in italics.

Defining Relative Clauses

Copyrighted elements of a musical composition can include melody, chord progression, rhythm, and lyrics—anything that reflects a “minimal spark” of creativity and originality.

The relative clause that reflects a “minimal spark” of creativity and originality is defining because it tells us which specific things. Without this information, the idea in the independent clause would not be complete.
Do not set off defining relative clauses with commas. Use that to define things; however, note that in British English, it is common to use which in defining relative clauses.

**Non-Defining Relative Clauses**

Under the Copyright Act of 1976, which took effect in 1978, any time a person writes or records an original piece of music, a copyright automatically exists.

The relative clause which took effect in 1978 is non-defining. It does not tell us which Copyright Act; it is giving extra, non-essential information about it. Without the non-defining relative clause, the idea in the independent clause would still be complete.

In non-defining relative clauses, use which, and set off the clause with commas. It is incorrect to use that in non-defining relative clauses.

**TASK 13 IDENTIFY RELATIVE CLAUSES**

In the following sentences from the Ugwu article, focus on the relative clauses in italics. Indicate whether they are defining or non-defining.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Defining</th>
<th>Non-Defining</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>One important instance where copyright doesn’t apply is public domain.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>As was the case with Tom Petty and Sam Smith, in which the latter’s “Stay With Me” was alleged to infringe on the former’s “I Won’t Back Down,” most disputes are settled privately out of court.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Copyright infringement is what’s called a “strict liability tort,” which means the defendant doesn’t have to have intended to infringe to be found guilty.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>This is the “ordinary observer test,” what Fakler calls “the hallmark of copyright infringement.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Given the unreliability of sound recordings and performances in cases where compositions are in dispute, musicologists are often called as expert witnesses to walk jurors through sheet music.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TASK 14 ADD RELATIVE CLAUSES**

Complete the following sentences with a defining or non-defining relative clause. Follow the prompts in parentheses. Remember to set off non-defining relative clauses with commas.

1. Plagiarism ______________________________ is sometimes unintentional. (non-defining / a thing / use refer)

2. Today, most universities provide software ______________________________. (defining / a thing / use detect)

3. He’s the person ______________________________. (defining / a person / use write)
4. She’s the person ______________________. (defining / possessive / use essay and win an award)

5. Effective paraphrasing is ______________________. (defining / the thing that / use many students and find challenging)

6. Thirty years ago ______________________ most students wrote assignments by hand. (non-defining / time / use be and no Internet)

7. I need somewhere quiet ______________________. (defining / place / use can study)

8. I was never told ______________________. (defining / reason / use get a C grade)

**EXTENDED WRITING: RESPONSE PAPERS**

**What Is a Response Paper?**

A response paper is a type of essay that requires you to respond to one or more texts. Usually, you must complete some or all of the following tasks:

- show that you have understood the text as a whole
- identify the author’s main claim(s) and the main idea(s) in the text
- show how the ideas interrelate
- assess the validity of the author’s supporting reasons, examples, and evidence
- assess the importance of the text and topic
- show how the text fits into a broader debate
- present a balanced opinion of the ideas in the text (strengths and weaknesses, whether you agree or disagree)
- consider counter-arguments to the ideas in the text
- look for what might be missing in the text

**Style in Response Papers**

Response papers involve a combination of summarizing, evaluating, and arguing. To write in an appropriate style, do the following:

- Write in formal academic language (shift style if the original text is less formal).
- Balance objective language (to highlight main ideas) and subjective language (to argue).
- Use a range of reporting verbs.
- If appropriate in your subject area, use personal language to present your opinion, e.g., I believe, in my opinion.
The Response Paper Writing Process

The following are five common stages in the process of writing a response paper. You have already completed stages 1 and 2 for the response paper you will write in Task 15.

Stage 1: Skim the Text
Read the text for gist, highlight or underline the main ideas, and write notes in the margin.

Stage 2: Read the Complete Text
Follow up the skimming with a detailed reading of the text. Add to your notes as you read if you find other important information to include in your response paper.

Stage 3: Decide on Your Structure
There are different ways to structure a response paper. You can follow the original structure of the text or use a thematic structure based on relevant topics.

Stage 4: Start Writing
Once you have gone through the three stages above, it is time to start writing.

4.1 Write the opening sentence. Include the following information in the first sentence of the response paper (if the information is available):
• the title of the article
• the author’s name
• the name and date of the publication
• the main topic

In the article “Here’s What Makes a Song a Ripoff, according to the Law,” published on BuzzFeed March 6, 2016, author Reggie Ugwu discusses plagiarism in the music industry.

4.2 Write the next sentences. State the main argument or idea of the article, and present your initial response to it. A good way to do this is to look at your notes for the first paragraph(s) of the article and paraphrase the main argument, with or without a direct quotation.

Music is art, and art is for people—not lawyers. But musicians have long relied on the law to protect their creations. For nearly two centuries, courts in the United States have heard cases from songwriters seeking to defend their compositions from thieves, cheats, and liars of all stripes. It’s a tradition that continues today—with recent disputes between Tom Petty and Sam Smith (settled amicably out of court) and the Marvin Gaye family and Robin Thicke, Pharrell Williams, T.I., et al (currently at trial)—putting the modern music industry on high alert.
Example of a paraphrase:

The author begins with a paradox, arguing that music should be for people, not lawyers, while recognizing that musicians often resort to the law to protect their work. After highlighting copyright infringement as central to plagiarism disputes in the music industry, Ugwu points to two central concepts in such disputes: contested ownership and the fine line between influence and plagiarism.

Example with a direct quotation:

The author begins with a paradox, arguing that music should be for people, not lawyers, while recognizing that musicians often resort to the law to protect their work. After highlighting copyright infringement as central to plagiarism disputes in the music industry, Ugwu asks two questions that are central to such disputes: "When can a person be said to own something like a chord progression or melody? And in a world where everyone is inspired by someone else, where is the line between plagiarism and influence?" (para. 2).

Since the response paper is focusing on a single article, and since the date and author are introduced in the opening sentence, it is not necessary to use in-text citations every time the author is mentioned, e.g., Ugwu (2015). When you quote the article directly, include an in-text citation stating the paragraph number, e.g., (para. 2). Use direct quotations sparingly, for example, for ideas that are key to the response and which you could not express as effectively in your own words.

4.3 Write the rest of the response paper. After writing the introductory sentences of the paper, write the remaining sections or paragraphs according to the structure you chose in stage 3. Your decision on the number of paragraphs to write will depend on the required length of the paper, the structure you have chosen, and the number of main themes you have identified. Make sure to finish the paper with an appropriate concluding sentence so that it does not end too abruptly.

Stage 5: Edit Your Work

After you have finished writing your first draft, edit your work for accuracy and variety of language and for accurate representation of ideas and information. After self-editing, ask a peer to review your work.
WRITE, REVISE, AND EDIT

A RESPONSE PAPER

TASK 15 WRITE A RESPONSE PAPER

Write a 200-word response paper on Reggie Ugwu’s article, “Here’s What Makes a Song a Ripoff, according to the Law.” Follow the five stages you just studied, and use your margin notes from Task 7. Remember to use appropriate reporting verbs to attribute the ideas to their sources. When paraphrasing, be sure to change the vocabulary and grammar enough to avoid patchwriting. Write the paper in a formal academic style, changing the less formal language as needed. You do not have to include citations (APA or MLA) in this task.

Peer Review

When you have finished the first draft of your paper in Task 15, use the Response Paper Review Sheet to first do a review of your own work. Then ask two peers to review your work, also using the Review Sheet. Compare your self-evaluation with the peer review and look for similarities, differences, and areas to improve. Identify useful criticism and recommendations in the reviews; revise and edit your response paper accordingly.
What Is a Relative Clause?

Relative clauses give defining or additional information about an important idea or thing in an independent clause. There are two kinds of relative clauses: defining and non-defining (also referred to as restrictive and non-restrictive clauses). Relative clauses can begin with any of the following relative pronouns (the context in which they are used is in parentheses):

- **which** (a thing)
- **that** (a thing or person)
- **who(m)** (a person)
- **whose** (possessive form)
- **what** (the thing that)
- **when** (time)
- **where** (place)
- **why** (reason)

Defining Relative Clauses

A defining relative clause defines, or identifies, an important thing or idea in an independent clause. Defining relative clauses provide information that is essential for the reader to understand the sentence.

The computer *that I bought yesterday* was really expensive.

In the example sentence, the independent clause is *The computer was really expensive*. The defining relative clause is *that I bought yesterday*.

Essential Information

The defining relative clause is essential because it identifies the specific computer that the writer is describing. Without this information, the meaning of the sentence would not be clear or complete.

**That or Which?**

In defining relative clauses that describe things, it is possible to use *that* or *which* as the relative pronoun. It is more common to use *that*, especially in North American English. *Which* is more commonly used in British English:

The computer *which I bought yesterday* was really expensive.

**Commas**

Defining relative clauses are not set off with commas.
Non-Defining Relative Clauses

A non-defining relative clause gives extra, non-essential information about an important thing or idea in an independent clause.

My new computer, which has high-resolution display, was really expensive.

In the example sentence, the independent clause is My new computer was really expensive. The non-defining relative clause is which has high-resolution display.

Non-defining relative clauses can refer to something specific in the independent clause or to the general idea, as the following examples illustrate:

My new computer, which has high-resolution display, was really expensive. (extra information about the computer—a specific thing)
I spilled coffee on my new computer, which was really careless of me. (extra information about spilling coffee on my computer—the general idea)

Essential Information

The non-defining relative clause is not essential because it gives extra, incidental information. Without the non-defining relative clause, the meaning of the sentence would still be clear and complete.

That or Which?

In non-defining relative clauses that describe things, it is not possible to use that; which is the only correct choice:

My new computer, which has high-resolution display, was really expensive.

Commas

Non-defining relative clauses must be set off with commas.

Relative Pronouns

In addition to that and which, several different relative pronouns are commonly used in defining and non-defining relative clauses:

- who(m) (a person)
  1. Subject relative clause
     ✓ She’s the teacher who/that taught me last year.
     ✗ She’s the teacher whom taught me last year.

Do not use whom, because the pronoun (referring to the teacher) is the subject of the relative clause: She taught me.
  2. Object relative clause
     She’s the teacher who/that I recommended to you.
     She’s the teacher whom I recommended to you. (more formal)

You can use whom because the pronoun (referring to the teacher) is the object of the relative clause: I recommended her to you.

You can use that for people although this usage is often considered informal and more appropriate in spoken English.

Often speakers omit the relative pronoun in sentences, e.g., She’s the teacher I recommended to you. See the section on this topic on page 346.
• whose (possessive form)
  That teacher, whose name I can’t remember, taught me last term.

  Whose is used mostly for people, as above, and animals; however, it can also be used for inanimate objects. This second use is grammatically possible but less common:

  The library, whose collection exceeds one million books, is the largest in the city.

• what (the thing that)
  I can’t decide what I should write for the assignment.

• when (time)
  The early evening is when I can study best.

• where (place)
  This is the room where we took a class last year.

• why (reason)
  The teaching assistant wouldn’t tell me why I got a B grade.

Relative Clauses Containing Prepositions

There are two ways to write relative clauses containing prepositions: with the preposition at the beginning or at the end of the relative clause.

1. Did you find the book that you were asking for?
2. Did you find the book for which you were asking? (Do not write for that.)
3. He’s the friend who I went to school with.
4. He’s the friend with whom I went to school. (Do not write with who.)

In examples 1 and 3, the sentences end with a preposition. This is informal, conversational style. In examples 2 and 4, the relative clauses begin with the prepositions for and with. This is formal style that is appropriate for academic writing. It is common practice to avoid ending sentences with prepositions in academic writing unless the alternative form seems overly formal or awkward.

**TASK 1**

Indicate whether the relative clauses (in italics) in the following sentences are defining or non-defining.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Defining</th>
<th>Non-Defining</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I got an A for the Economics class that I took last term.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Let’s meet in the computer room where we studied last time.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The Economics class, which was at the South Campus, was really difficult.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I did the project with a friend who I went to school with.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I did the project with my school friend, who was really helpful.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I did the project with my school friend, which was lots of fun.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Omitting the Relative Pronoun in Defining Relative Clauses

It is not always necessary to include the relative pronoun in a defining relative clause, depending on whether the clause is a subject or object relative clause.

Subject Relative Clause

✓ I learned a lot from the instructor who taught Economics last term.

✗ I learned a lot from the instructor taught Economics last term.

In the example above, the relative clause is who taught Economics last term. It is a defining clause because it gives essential information about the instructor, explaining which instructor and thus making the idea of the sentence complete. The relative pronoun who cannot be omitted because it is part of a subject-defining relative clause: the person being defined, the instructor, is the subject of the corresponding independent clause:

The instructor taught Economics last term.

Object Relative Clause

1. I got an A for the Economics class that I took last term.
2. I got an A for the Economics class I took last term.

In sentence 1, the relative clause is that I took last term. It is a defining clause because it gives essential information about the Economics class to make the idea of the sentence complete. In sentence 2, the relative pronoun that can be omitted because it is part of an object-defining relative clause: the thing being defined, the Economics class, is the object of the corresponding independent clause:

I took the Economics class last term.

TASK 2

In the defining relative clauses below, all of the relative pronouns are included. Underline the relative clause, and decide whether the person or thing being defined is the subject or object of the relative clause. Then state whether the relative pronoun can be omitted.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject or Object?</th>
<th>Omit Pronoun?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The class that I was trying to enrol in was full.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The course that I'm most excited about is Kinesiology.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The course that interests me most is Kinesiology.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The class that was the most difficult was Economics 101.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The class that I studied hardest for was Economics 101.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**TASK 3**

Complete the defining and non-defining relative clauses in the following sentences. If the sentence requires an object-defining relative clause, omit the relative pronoun.

1. Last week I finished my final assignment, which ____________________.
2. He’s the friend ____________________ talking about yesterday.
3. Your hard work is ____________________ admire most about you.
4. She’s the professor ____________________ the national award.
5. He’s the professor whose ____________________.
6. She’s the professor ____________________ told you about.
7. She’s the professor about ____________________.
8. Professor Lee, ____________________ class I took last year, is really helpful.
9. Professor Lee, ____________________ won the award, is really helpful.
10. I’m looking for a place ____________________ study quietly.
11. I’m looking for a room ____________________ study quietly in.

**TASK 4**

Write a paragraph of at least six sentences on the topic of “looking back.” Each sentence should relate to one of the prompts below and include a relative clause. Try to link the sentences together coherently and cohesively.

1. A thing that you will always remember
2. A thing that you still enjoy today
3. A teacher who had a major influence on you
4. A time when you were under pressure to succeed
5. A place where you felt relaxed
6. The reason why you are studying your current subject
7. A teacher whose class you took
8. A person with whom you got along well
# Relative Clauses

## Types of Relative Clause

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Defining</th>
<th>Non-defining</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Business class that I'm taking is difficult.</td>
<td>The Business class, which is really difficult, is on Tuesday afternoons. (refers to the class) I got an A in Business, which surprised me! (refers to the general idea: getting an A)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Essential information about something important in the independent clause
- No commas
- Use *that*.
- Also possible to use *which* in British English
- Non-essential information about something important in the independent clause or about the general idea of the clause
- Set off with commas
- Do not use *that*.

## Relative Pronouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>that and which</th>
<th>who and whom</th>
<th>whose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The computer that/which I bought yesterday was expensive.</td>
<td>She's the teacher who taught me last year. She's the teacher whom I recommended to you.</td>
<td>She's the teacher whose class I took last year. Possessive form: I took her class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• A thing</td>
<td>• A person</td>
<td>• Possessive form: I took her class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Also possible to use <em>that</em></td>
<td>• Also possible to use <em>that</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Use <em>whom</em> for object relative clauses:</td>
<td>• Use <em>whom</em> for object relative clauses:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I recommended her to you.</td>
<td>I recommended her to you.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Omitting the Pronoun in Defining Relative Clauses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject-defining relative clause</th>
<th>Object-defining relative clause</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I like the instructor who taught Chemistry 199 last term.</td>
<td>I got a B+ for the Chemistry class that I took last term. I got a B+ for the Chemistry class I took last term.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Pronoun defines the subject of the corresponding independent clause: The instructor taught Chemistry 199 last term.</td>
<td>• Pronoun defines the object of the corresponding independent clause: I took the Chemistry class last term.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Impossible to omit the pronoun</td>
<td>• Possible to omit the pronoun</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Relative Clauses Containing Prepositions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preposition at the end of the clause</th>
<th>Preposition at the beginning of the clause</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Did you find the book that you were asking for? He's the friend who I went to school with.</td>
<td>Did you find the book for which you were asking? He's the friend with whom I went to school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Rule: Place preposition at the end of the clause.</td>
<td>• Rule: <em>For that or with who</em> is incorrect.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Style: Informal and conversational</td>
<td>• Style: Formal, appropriate for academic writing (unless awkward)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
THREE USES OF COMMAS

Commas are mostly used in two ways: to set off non-defining information in an independent clause, and before coordinating linking words such as and, but, and so. Another, less common use is to separate two or more adjectives before a noun. These rules for using commas are not always applied consistently by writers.

Adding Extra, Non-Defining Information to an Independent Clause

Before the Independent Clause

- **Preposition phrases:**
  
  *Since the 1970s,* there has been a mandatory life sentence for murder in Canada.
  
  *After the change of law,* many judges complained about government interference.
  
  *Across the country,* the crime rate has fallen.
  
  *With the fall in crime,* many people felt safer.
  
  *In universities and colleges,* criminology students are studying why crime has fallen.

- **Conjunctive adverbs:**
  
  *However,* not all types of crime have fallen continuously. Online fraud is one example.
  
  *Moreover,* financially motivated crimes such as theft and burglary tend to rise during economic slowdowns.
  
  *Therefore,* social and economic factors should be considered when reading crime statistics.

- **Dependent clauses:**
  
  *While violent crime fell,* financially motivated crime rates fluctuated.
  
  *If unemployment rates drop,* violent crime rates also fall.
  
  *Although there is a link between crime and poverty,* other factors need to be considered.

- **Participle phrases:**
  
  *Sensing a change in public opinion,* the government unsuccessfully attempted to reinstate capital punishment in 1987.
  
  *Influenced by recent opinion polls,* the government unsuccessfully attempted to reinstate capital punishment in 1987.
Within the Independent Clause

- **Conjunctive adverbs:**
  
  Not all types of crimes, **however**, have fallen continuously.
  Social and economic factors should be considered, **therefore**, when reading crime statistics.

- **Non-defining relative clauses:**
  
  The death penalty, **which is also known as capital punishment**, was abolished in Canada in 1976.
  After 1976, convicted murderers, **who might previously have received the death penalty**, would receive mandatory life sentences instead.

- **Non-defining participle phrases:**
  
  The death penalty, **also known as capital punishment**, was abolished in Canada in 1976.
  In 1987, the government, **sensing a change in public opinion**, unsuccessfully attempted to reinstate capital punishment.

- **Non-defining noun phrases:**
  
  Youth unemployment, **a root cause of financially motivated crimes**, has gone up in the current economic slowdown.
  Rates for burglary and car theft, **two of the most common financially motivated crimes**, have increased significantly.

After the Independent Clause

- **Conjunctive adverbs:**
  
  Financially motivated crimes such as theft and burglary tend to rise during economic slowdowns, **moreover**.
  Not all types of crimes have fallen continuously, **however**.

- **Non-defining relative clauses:**
  
  Criminologists have studied the deterrent effect of the death penalty, **which is its ability to prevent other crimes**.
  After 1976, mandatory life sentences applied for all convicted murderers, **who might previously have received the death penalty**.

- **Non-defining participle phrases:**
  
  Criminologists often study the pros and cons of the death penalty, **also known as capital punishment**.
  In 1987, the government tried to change the law, **sensing a change in public opinion**.

- **Non-defining noun phrases:**
  
  The economic slowdown has led to increased youth unemployment, **a root cause of financially motivated crimes**.
  The police are targeting burglary and car theft, **two of the most common financially motivated crimes**.
Coordination

Before the “FANBOYS” Coordinators in Compound Sentences

Compound sentences are made up of two independent clauses joined by a coordinator (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so).

- **and**
  
  Violent crime rates fell, **and** society became a lot safer.

- **but**
  
  Violent crime rates fell, **but** those for online fraud rose.

- **so**
  
  Mandatory life sentencing was introduced for murder, **so** the judiciary lost some of its independence.

Between the Items in Lists of Three or More Things

Stricter environments in some UK young offender institutions have resulted in inmates’ [1] having to wear uniforms, [2] being denied reading materials, **and** [3] ending their days at 10:30 p.m.

No comma is required when only two things are joined by a coordinator:

- Stricter environments in some UK young offender institutions have resulted in inmates’ [1] having to wear uniforms **and** [2] being denied reading materials.

Separating Adjectives

Use commas to separate two or more adjectives belonging to the same category (e.g., opinion, shape, colour, material) when they come before the noun they describe:

- Prisoners are now expected to live in a **harsher, more punitive** environment.

BUT

- The local prison is a **big grey stone** building.

Variations on How to Use Commas

There are some variations on how to use commas that depend on the following factors.

British English

In British English, it is common to omit commas before coordinators such as **and**, **but**, and **so**, both in compound sentences and in lists of three or more things.

- Violent crime rates fell with the increased police presence **and** the city became considerably safer in the months that followed.

- Stricter environments in some UK young offender institutions have resulted in inmates’ **having to wear uniforms**, being denied reading materials **and** ending their days at 10:30 p.m.
Journalistic Style

In journalistic style, commas are often omitted after introductory preposition phrases.

Since the 1970s there has been a mandatory life sentence for murder in Canada.

With the fall in crime many people felt safer.

To Avoid Confusion

Writers who usually omit commas (in British English and journalism, for example) sometimes have no choice but to include them to avoid confusing their readers. Consider the following examples:

1. With the fall in crime prevention became more of a focus than punishment.
2. With the fall in crime, prevention became more of a focus than punishment.

Sentence 1 would likely confuse the reader. This is because crime prevention is a common compound noun used in the discussion of crime. Without the comma, the reader might at first understand the sentence to be about “the fall in crime prevention.” Readers often have to go back over such sentences two or three times to understand them. Sentence 2 is not confusing because there is a comma after the introductory phrase.

Sometimes writers add commas for clarity, to make it easier for the reader to process ideas or items in a list when confusion might arise. For example, although a comma is not needed before a coordinator joining two items, writers may include one to make the sentence more comprehensible.

1. Harsher environments in some prisons mean inmates receive fewer comforts that would make their stay in prison more tolerable and comfortable and stricter punishments if they break any of the rules of prison life.
2. Harsher environments in some prisons mean inmates receive fewer comforts that would make their stay in prison more tolerable and comfortable, and stricter punishments if they break any of the rules of prison life.

Sentence 1 could confuse the reader because the first item is fewer comforts that would make their stay in prison more tolerable and comfortable. Without the comma, the reader may think that the word comfortable is the beginning of the second item because it comes after the coordinator and. By placing the comma after the word comfortable in sentence 2, the writer avoids any confusion.

Personal Preference

Comma usage can also depend on the writer’s personal style preferences. Writers may prefer not to use commas in some sentences if they feel it breaks the flow of the writing.

Remember: it is important to be consistent. Avoid using commas with some non-defining phrases and clauses but not with others.
TASK 1
In the following sentences, the commas have been removed. Add commas where required. Some sentences may require more than one comma; others may require none. Then identify each comma according to its function: addition of non-defining information (ND), coordination (C), or separation of adjectives (S).

Type of Comma

1. Although there is a link between alcohol consumption and crime other factors need to be considered. _______

2. During the last 30 years there has been a steady fall in crime rates in Canada. _______

3. There has nonetheless been an increase in certain crimes most notably cybercrimes. _______

4. Mandatory sentencing for the most violent crimes which takes some power away from judges has been popular with some members of the public but many judges disapprove. _______

5. Criminals who commit serious crimes in Sweden serve their sentences in a prison system that focuses on rehabilitation. _______

6. Aristotle said that poverty is the parent of crime which suggests a clear link between socio-economic factors and crime rates. _______

7. Violent crime rates have fallen across the country yet people still feel unsafe in some areas. _______

8. Crime policies aim for a safer more productive society. _______

9. The increased police presence aims to reassure people living in poor areas of the city. _______

TASK 2
The two sentences below could confuse readers. Explain why the sentences are confusing, and add commas to make them clearer.

1. After the mayor’s promise to get tough on crime policies were implemented at the local level.

2. Due to the municipal government’s measures to improve leisure facilities for at-risk youth clubs for sport and learning were set up in three areas of the city.
**SEMICOLONS**

TWO USES OF SEMICOLONS

Semicolons are used like periods to separate two independent clauses. Periods separate sentences; semicolons separate independent clauses in a sentence. Semicolons are also used to separate items in lists.

**Separating Independent Clauses in a Sentence**

Use semicolons to separate independent clauses in a sentence when the clauses contain closely related ideas. In this way, semicolons give readers a clue that the next idea is related. In contrast, use a period to introduce a new idea in the following sentence. This difference between semicolons and periods is illustrated below:

The slow food movement supports local production and consumption; it also emphasizes ethical eating. (closely related information)

The slow food movement emerged in Italy during the 1980s. The movement was originally seen as a reaction to the spread of fast food. (new information)

**Semicolons and Conjunctive Adverbs**

You can also use semicolons in combination with conjunctive adverbs to separate closely related independent clauses:

The fair trade movement aims to improve the lives of small-scale farmers in developing countries; however, some farmers receive only minimal benefits. (closely related information)

The fair trade movement aims to improve the lives of small-scale farmers in developing countries. However, some studies have shown that most consumers are more concerned about the price of products in their local supermarkets than about farmers’ quality of life. (new information)

**Separating Items in a List**

You have studied the use of commas to separate three or more items in a list. If one or more of the items contain a comma, you must use semicolons to separate them. Compare the examples below:

The fair trade movement needs to find strategies to address expensive registration costs, excessive profits for intermediaries, and unstable product prices in world markets. (new information)

The fair trade movement needs to find strategies to address expensive registration costs, which disadvantage poor farmers; excessive profits for intermediaries; and unstable product prices in world markets, which fluctuate regularly.

**TASK 3**

The following sentences are written without semicolons. Identify any places where commas or periods should be replaced with semicolons, and rewrite these parts of the sentences.
1. The fair trade movement has commendable aims. However, it has been argued that some intermediary buyers and sellers exploit the movement solely to make money for themselves.

2. Two of the most successful fair trade products are coffee and bananas. These two alone make up a large percentage of sales in richer countries.

3. Most shoppers can find fair trade coffee, bananas, and chocolate in local stores.

4. Most shoppers can find the following fair trade products in local stores: coffee, often imported from farms in Nicaragua, Kenya, and Colombia; bananas, primarily from Caribbean islands and Central America; and chocolate, made from cacao grown in countries such as Ivory Coast and Ghana.

---

**TASK 4**

Read the paragraph below. Replace periods with semicolons when you think ideas are closely related, and replace commas in lists with semicolons as needed.

**Fair Trade**

The fair trade movement dates back to the 1980s. Since its origin, thousands of small-scale farmers in developing countries have benefited from membership in fair trade programs. Today, the fair trade movement faces a number of challenges: fluctuating prices for products like coffee and bananas, which affect farmers’ profits; mass-produced organic food, which competes in the ethical food market in developed countries; private and government intermediaries, who receive a percentage of every sale; and certification costs, which many small-scale farmers cannot afford. Certification costs should be the first problem to address. A reduction in these costs would allow more farmers to join and more profits to stay in local communities. Overall, fair trade has been a great success. However, the movement needs to become less unfair wherever possible.

---

**TASK 5**

Read the following paragraph, which is punctuated only with periods; it contains no commas or semicolons. Add commas and semicolons where necessary, and replace periods with semicolons when you think ideas are closely related.
Slow Food

The slow food movement is not just about eating slowly. It also relates to good and clean food. Agrillo Milano Roveglia and Scaffidi (2015) highlight two subjective factors in their definition of good food. The first is taste which relates to the subjective senses of the individual. The second is good knowledge of local culture environment and history of communities and their culinary practices. The role of promoting these values falls to local organizations called *convivia* established to educate people of all ages about “how food is produced and its production origins” (Page 2012 p. 3). Clearly the mission of slow food is to encourage lifestyles that promote good and clean food. However another important aspect is to eat in an ethically aware way.

Consumers have choices to make in their everyday interactions with food and the food industry. An example is the shopper who faces the decision to buy either a cheap mass-produced ready-made meal for microwaving or fresh local ingredients to cook the same meal from scratch. The slow food choice must be without doubt the latter.

**SUMMARY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>FUNCTION</strong></th>
<th><strong>POSITION</strong></th>
<th><strong>EXAMPLES</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Commas       | Before the independent clause, following: | a) Since the 1970s, there has been a mandatory life sentence for murder in Canada.  
   Across the country, the crime rate has fallen.  
   b) Moreover, financially motivated crimes such as theft and burglary tend to rise during economic slowdowns.  
   However, not all types of crimes have fallen continuously.  
   c) If unemployment rates fall, violent crime rates also fall.  
   Although there is a link between crime and poverty, other factors need to be considered.  
   d) Sensing a change in public opinion, the government attempted to reinstate capital punishment in 1987.  
   Influenced by recent opinion polls, the government attempted to reinstate capital punishment in 1987. |
|              | Within the independent clause, to set off: | a) Financially motivated crimes such as theft and burglary,  
   moreover, tend to rise during economic slowdowns.  
   Not all types of crimes, however, have fallen continuously.  
   b) The death penalty, *which is also known as capital punishment*, was abolished in Canada in 1976.  
   After 1976, convicted murderers, *who previously might have received the death penalty*, would receive mandatory life sentences instead.  
   c) In 1987, the government, *sensing a change in public opinion*, attempted to reinstate capital punishment.  
   The death penalty, *also known as capital punishment*, was abolished in Canada in 1976.  
   d) Youth unemployment, *a root cause of financially motivated crimes*, has gone up in the current economic slowdown. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| To set off extra, non-defining information  | After the independent clause, preceding:          | a) Not all types of crimes have fallen continuously, however.  
| in an independent clause                     | a) a conjunctive adverb                           | b) Criminologists have studied the deterrent effect of the death penalty, which is its ability to prevent other crimes.  
|                                              | b) a non-defining relative clause                 | c) Criminologists often study the pros and cons of the death penalty, also known as capital punishment.  
|                                              | c) a non-defining participle phrase               | d) The police are targeting burglary and car theft, two of the most common financially motivated crimes.  
|                                              | d) a non-defining noun phrase                     |                                                                                                                                 |
| Coordination                                 | Before the FANBOYS coordinators in compound sentences | Violent crime rates fell, and society became a lot safer.  
|                                              |                                                    | Violent crime rates fell, but those for online fraud rose.  
|                                              |                                                    | Mandatory life sentencing was introduced for murder, so the judiciary lost some of its independence.  
|                                              |                                                    | Between the items in lists of three or more things  
|                                              |                                                    | Stricter environments mean inmates wear uniforms, books are limited, and lights are turned off at 10:30 p.m.  
| To separate adjectives before a noun        | Between two or more adjectives of the same category | Prisoners are now expected to live in a harsher, more punitive environment.  

**Variations**

| British English (omission of commas)         | Before coordinators in compound sentences        | Violent crime rates fell with the increased police presence and the city became safer in the months that followed.  
|                                              | Before coordinators in lists of three or more things | Stricter environments mean inmates wear uniforms, books are limited and lights are turned off at 10:30 p.m.  
| Journalistic style (omission of commas)      | After introductory preposition phrases           | Since the 1970s there has been a mandatory life sentence for murder in Canada.  
|                                              |                                                    | With the fall in crime many people felt safer.  
| To avoid confusion (writers who usually omit commas) | After introductory phrases                       | With the fall in crime, prevention became more of a focus than punishment. (less confusing than “With the fall in crime prevention became . . .”)  
|                                              | Before coordinators that join two items           | Inmates receive fewer comforts to make their stay in prison more tolerable and comfortable, and stricter punishments if they break any of the rules of prison life.  
| Personal preference                          | Writers may prefer not to use commas in some sentences if they feel it breaks the flow of the writing. |                                                                                                                                 |

**Semicolons**

| To separate independent clauses containing closely related information in a sentence | Between the independent clauses | The slow food movement supports local production and consumption; it also emphasizes ethical eating.  
|                                                                                      | After the first independent clause and before a conjunctive adverb | The fair trade movement aims to improve the lives of small-scale farmers in developing countries; however, some farmers receive only minimal benefits.  
|                                                                                      | Between the items in the list | The fair trade movement needs to find strategies to address expensive registration costs, which disadvantage poor farmers; excessive profits for intermediaries; and unstable product prices in world markets, which fluctuate regularly.  

© ERPI – Advance in Academic Writing
**What Is a Participle Phrase?**

Participle phrases (often called *participle clauses*) are similar to relative clauses. Both add information (defining or non-defining) about a thing or things in a related independent clause. Participle phrases follow the same rules of punctuation as those for relative clauses: commas are used to set off non-defining phrases, but not defining ones.

Participle phrases can be understood as reduced relative clauses. They express the same ideas as relative clauses, but in fewer words. In this way, participle phrases can give a sense of economy and add variety to your sentence structure.

The following examples illustrate how the relative clause (in italics) in sentence 1 can be reduced to a participle phrase (in bold) in sentence 2:

1. Fair trade products will become fairer when commodity producers receive a higher price, *which will bring benefits to local communities*.

2. Fair trade products will become fairer when commodity producers receive a higher price, *bringing benefits to local communities*.

In sentence 2, the present participle phrase *bringing benefits to local communities* expresses the idea conveyed by the relative clause in sentence 1, *which will bring benefits to local communities*.

Sentence 2 also illustrates an important feature of participle phrases, that is, the relationship between present and past participles does not correlate with present and past time. As can be seen in sentence 2, the present participle *bringing* refers to future time: “which will bring.”

**Present and Past Participle Phrases**

As stated, the difference between present and past participle phrases does not relate to time. Present participle phrases are used as an alternative for clauses in the active voice, and past participle phrases, as an alternative for clauses in the passive voice.

The following sentences illustrate this difference.

**Present Participle Phrases**

1. Many registered fair trade coffee producers *living in Nicaragua* have invested in high registration costs in the hope of future benefits. *(defining)*

2. *Aiming for increased benefits for local communities*, Nicaraguan fair trade coffee producers campaigned for lower registration fees. *(non-defining)*
3. Fair trade producers will increase their market share in developed countries during the next 10 years, leading to an increase in local development.

(non-defining)

Form: In the three phrases, the present participles are formed by adding ing to the verbs: living, aiming, and leading.

Concept: In the three example sentences, the participle phrases are used to convey the following meanings:

- Sentence 1: The participle phrase means “who live in.”
- Sentence 2: The participle phrase means “because they were aiming for.”
- Sentence 3: The participle phrase means “which will lead to” or “and it will lead to.”

Time idea: Present participle phrases can be used with reference to past, present, or future time.

- Sentence 1 refers to present time: “who live in.”
- Sentence 2 refers to past time: “because they were aiming for.”
- Sentence 3 refers to future time: “which will lead to” or “and it will lead to.”

Active voice: Present participle phrases are used in sentences in which the idea of the sentence would otherwise be expressed in an active-voice clause, as illustrated below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participle Phrase</th>
<th>Active-Voice Clause</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Many registered fair trade coffee producers living in Nicaragua have invested in high registration costs in the hope of future benefits.</td>
<td>Many registered fair trade coffee producers who live in Nicaragua . . .</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aiming for increased benefits for local communities, Nicaraguan fair trade coffee producers campaigned for lower registration fees.</td>
<td>Because they were aiming for increased benefits for local communities, . . .</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair trade producers will increase their market share in developed countries during the next 10 years, leading to an increase in local development.</td>
<td>. . . which will lead to an increase in local development.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Past Participle Phrases

1. The Fairtrade Labelling Organizations International (FLO), set up in 1997, coordinates registration and standards across the fair trade movement.
   (non-defining)

2. The FLO believes that money received by local farmers helps local communities to develop. (defining)

3. In the future, conscientious consumers will find an increasing variety of products marked with fair trade logos. (defining)

Form: In the three phrases, the first past participle is irregular (set up) while the second and third are regular, formed by adding d or ed to the verbs: received, marked.

Concept: In the three example sentences, the past participle phrases convey meaning in the same way as passive-voice sentences with regard to stated and unstated agents (the people or things doing the action).
• Sentence 1: The participle phrase set up in 1997 has no stated agent as the agent is unknown or unimportant for the sentence.
• Sentence 2: The participle phrase received by local farmers emphasizes the stated agents (local farmers).
• Sentence 3: The participle phrase marked with fair trade logos has no stated agent as the agent is unimportant for the sentence.

**Time idea:** Past participle phrases can be used with reference to past, present, or future time.
• Sentence 1 refers to past time: “which was set up in.”
• Sentence 2 refers to present time: “that is received by.”
• Sentence 3 refers to future time: “that will be marked with.”

**Passive voice:** Past participle phrases are used in sentences in which the idea of the sentence would otherwise be expressed in a passive-voice clause, as illustrated below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participle Phrase</th>
<th>Passive-Voice Clause</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Fairtrade Labelling Organizations International (FLO), set up in 1997, coordinates registration and standards across the fair trade movement.</td>
<td>The Fairtrade Labelling Organizations International (FLO), which was set up in 1997, . . .</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The FLO believes that money received by local farmers helps local communities to develop.</td>
<td>The FLO believes that money that is received by local farmers . . .</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the future, conscientious consumers will find an increasing variety of products marked with fair trade logos.</td>
<td>. . . products that will be marked with fair trade logos.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TASK 1**

Underline the participle phrase in each of the following sentences. Decide whether the participle phrase is replacing a clause in the active or passive voice and whether the participle phrase is present or past. Then state the time idea.

1. The slow food movement, originating in the 1980s, was a response to the spread of fast food restaurants in Italy.
   - active voice  □ passive voice  □ present participle  □ past participle
   - Time idea: ______________________________________

   - active voice  □ passive voice  □ present participle  □ past participle
   - Time idea: ______________________________________

3. Slow food promotes good, clean, and fair food for all, bringing together appreciation for the taste, culture, and local origins of food.
   - active voice  □ passive voice  □ present participle  □ past participle
   - Time idea: ______________________________________
4. At slow food events, food produced by local farmers is showcased.
   [ ] active voice  [ ] passive voice  [ ] present participle  [ ] past participle
   Time idea: __________________________________________________________

5. In the future, it is hoped that slow food will spread globally, gaining a greater
   presence in large countries such as India and China.
   [ ] active voice  [ ] passive voice  [ ] present participle  [ ] past participle
   Time idea: __________________________________________________________

6. The benefits of ethical eating will be the focus of slow food events organized
   by future members of the movement.
   [ ] active voice  [ ] passive voice  [ ] present participle  [ ] past participle
   Time idea: __________________________________________________________

**TASK 2**

The following sentences contain relative clauses (in italics). First, rewrite each
sentence, reducing the relative clause to a participle phrase. Then decide whether
the participle phrase is replacing a clause in the active or passive voice and
whether the participle phrase is present or past. Finally, state the time idea.

1. The fair trade movement, which supports small-scale farmers and sustain-
ability, has a worldwide presence.
   __________________________________________________________
   [ ] active voice  [ ] passive voice  [ ] present participle  [ ] past participle
   Time idea: __________________________________________________________

2. Fair trade coffee and bananas, which are grown primarily in Latin America
   and Africa, are two of the best-selling products.
   __________________________________________________________
   [ ] active voice  [ ] passive voice  [ ] present participle  [ ] past participle
   Time idea: __________________________________________________________

3. A future goal of fair trade will be to tackle poverty more aggressively, which
   will raise awareness of the need for a living wage for all farmers and their
   employees.
   __________________________________________________________
   [ ] active voice  [ ] passive voice  [ ] present participle  [ ] past participle
   Time idea: __________________________________________________________
4. The move toward a living wage in fair trade will involve governments and international organizations as well as thousands of new farmers who will be registered and certified as fair trade producers.

☐ active voice  ☐ passive voice  ☐ present participle  ☐ past participle
Time idea: 

5. In world markets that are dominated by free trade, the growth of fair trade alternatives may be slow.

☐ active voice  ☐ passive voice  ☐ present participle  ☐ past participle
Time idea: 

6. Regulators need to address the problem of price reduction due to overproduction, which occurs when farmers receive a premium for their product, overproduce, and thus create surpluses.

☐ active voice  ☐ passive voice  ☐ present participle  ☐ past participle
Time idea: 

**TASK 3**

Read the following excerpt from the Suranovic article cited in Chapter 6 (see p. 128 for the full source), and decide whether the words in bold form a participle phrase. Explain why or why not.

In the coffee industry, for example, from the early 1990s, four transnational companies—Nestlé, Phillip Morris, Sara Lee and Procter & Gamble—accounted for more than 60 per cent of coffee sales in the major consuming markets.

Participle phrase?  ☐ Yes  ☐ No
Why or why not?
## PARTICIPLE PHRASES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Concept/Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Defining            | Many registered fair trade coffee producers living in Nicaragua have invested in high registration costs in the hope of future benefits. | • Essential information defining which coffee producers  
• No commas        |
| Non-defining        | The Fairtrade Labelling Organizations International (FLO), set up in 1997, coordinates registration and standards across the fair trade movement. | • Non-essential information about the FLO  
• Set off with commas |

### Present Participle Phrases

| Present participle phrases | Many registered fair trade coffee producers living in Nicaragua have invested in high registration costs in the hope of future benefits. | Defining  
• Active-voice clause: “who live in Nicaragua”  
• Present time |
| Aiming for increased benefits for local communities, Nicaraguan fair trade coffee producers campaigned for lower registration fees. | Non-defining  
• Active-voice clause: “because they were aiming for…”  
• Past time |
| Fair trade producers will increase their market share in developed countries during the next 10 years, leading to an increase in local development. | Non-defining  
• Active-voice clause: “which will lead to / and it will lead to…”  
• Future time |

### Past Participle Phrases

| Past participle phrases | The Fairtrade Labelling Organizations International (FLO), set up in 1997, coordinates registration and standards across the fair trade movement. | Non-defining  
• Passive-voice clause: “which was set up”  
• Past time |
| The FLO believes that money received by local farmers helps local communities to develop. | Defining  
• Passive-voice clause: “that is received by local farmers”  
• Present time |
| In the future, conscientious consumers will find an increasing variety of products marked with fair trade logos. | Defining  
• Passive-voice clause: “that will be marked with fair trade logos”  
• Future time |
Advance in academic writing!

Advance in Academic Writing prepares students to meet the many challenges of academic writing in English for undergraduate and graduate studies. Each chapter presents authentic academic texts on a topic of scientific or social interest. As students read and analyze the texts, they develop the critical-thinking skills and knowledge of appropriate academic vocabulary and style they need for their own writing. They also study contextualized grammar, which is linked to a dedicated handbook on writing effective sentences.

Advance takes students step by step through research and writing processes that they need for success in any field of study. Students analyze the different requirements and sections of academic articles and essays: abstracts, introductions, conclusions, citations, and references. They study different genres of academic writing and apply their learning in a series of increasingly complex writing and editing assignments.

Related Component
Advance in Academic Writing My eLab and eText (product A38266)

About the Author
Steve Marshall is an associate professor in the Faculty of Education at Simon Fraser University, Canada. He teaches academic writing and applied linguistics, and researches English for academic purposes and academic writing across the disciplines. Steve has a Ph.D. from the Institute of Education at University College London and over 25 years’ experience teaching academic writing. He is the author of numerous academic articles and books.