Academic English: A Definition

Academic English is often considered relatively formal complex English that conveys ideas in a precise and objective manner. It is generally acknowledged to include the essential skills of literary analysis, the observance of reference systems, the synthesis of associated scholars and the ability of critical evaluation. Essential academic vocabulary, phrases and grammatical complexity are often used traditionally in academic dialogue and text. Specifically, Academic English refers to words and practice that are not necessarily common or frequently encountered in informal conversation and circumstances.

In other words...

...the kind of English you (1) **need <u>FOR</u>** your studies is rather (2) **different <u>FROM</u>** that which you use in everyday situations. What is known as 'Academic English' is the type of English you need for:

- reading and understanding study materials
- (3) writing <u>AROU</u>Tyour subject.

Academic English is different from everyday spoken English, particularly in the way it is used to:

- describe an object or situation
- describe a process or how something works
- explain something.

Much of academic English is about expressing the relationship between ideas. Although the language of Academic English may be more complex than that of everyday English, users of good Academic English aim to be as clear, precise and simple as **possible**. They (4) think <u>ABOU</u> what those they are (5) speaking or those they are (6) writing <u>FOR</u>, know already, and aim to guide them towards less familiar areas and topics.

The ability to use academic English, and/or (7) write <u>IN</u> an academic style, is an important skill to develop as (8) part <u>OF</u> your university studies. It can be difficult to give overall 'rules' on the way to write for a particular university course, as academic subjects often vary in:

- their vocabulary and expressions
- the types of text used (e.g., essays, reports, research articles or letters)
- how these texts are structured and organized.

(9) Main features OF academic English:

- is usually formal in tone and impersonal in style
- avoids contractions or shortened forms of verbs, such as won't, doesn't or it's
- avoids using a linking word such as 'and' or 'but' (10) AT _____ the beginning of a sentence
- avoids personal pronouns such as I, me, you, your
- commonly uses the passive form of verbs
- tends to be cautious when explaining findings, using expressions such as: 'may', 'it is possible that...', 'could'
- may use specialized vocabulary.

What is Academic Vocabulary?

Academic vocabulary can be difficult to **define**. One broad definition is the vocabulary which can be used in academic contexts. The problem here though is what does 'academic contexts' really mean? Does this mean spoken contexts (e.g. lectures, seminars, presentations), written contexts (e.g. essays, articles, reports), or both? Writers on academic vocabulary tend to focus on the latter (i.e. written contexts), and often overlook the former (i.e. spoken contexts). It also depends on what subject is being discussed. The academic vocabulary necessary for writing a science laboratory report (e.g. apparatus, procedure, errors) has some differences from the academic vocabulary which might be used in social science research (e.g. survey, population, sample), though of course they would also have much in common.

In general, academic vocabulary can be considered to consist of three types of vocabulary:

- general words (not all of which are acceptable for academic use)
- academic words
- specialized (technical words specific to an individual subject area)

The main issue for students is to raise their awareness of which general words are formal enough to use in academic writing, build up a knowledge of common academic words, and study and learn the **technical** vocabulary which is used in the discipline one is studying (or plans to study).

Proper use of vocabulary - general or academic – includes knowledge of the following:

- pronunciation: how to pronounce the word [e.g., pron<mark>OU</mark>nce v pron<u>U</u>nciation]
- spelling: how to spell the word

UNREASONABLE

- grammatical patterns: whether the word is a noun, verb, adjective etc. and in which patterns it occurs
- collocations: which other words it typically occurs with frequency: how common the word is
- register: which type of language the word is used in, letters / reports, spoken / written biology / business / etc.
- meaning: what the word means (including the ability to explain it and/or offer synonyms)
- formation: what other forms of the word are there (including prefixes & suffixes)
- connotations what meanings, other than main meaning a word has (e.g. Is it a positive or negative word?)

Academic texts include three	e main types of vocabulary.
(G) general vocabulary: (A) academic vocabulary:	words that are also commonly used in everyday language. words that are commonly used in many different academic subjects, but are less common in everyday language.
(S) specialized vocabulary:	words that are used mainly in particular academic subject areas, but may be more rare in other subjects or in everyday language.
Decide whether the following	g words are general (G), academic (A) or specialized (S).
_A (1) analyses (2) beyond (3) conclusions (4) debate (5) dichromium	(9) Hispanic (14) quintuple
You need to decide which for EXAMPLE:	d decide which one belongs in the sentence that follows. orm of the word to use [verb, noun, adjective, etc.] as well as the tense):
	Idemic [noun - person] academy [noun] academically [adverb] was founded by a group of ACADEMICS [n.] from Stockholm University.
(1) assume [verb] She was young and she	assumption [noun] was wearing student-type clothes so I <u>ASSUMED</u> she was studying here.
(2) claim [verb] The company <u>CLAIMS</u>	Claim [noun] Claimant [noun - person] Claimable [adjective] (that) it is not responsible for the pollution in the river. [NOTE: NO COMMA before "that"]
	distinguished [adjective] (in)distinguishable [adjective] e two devices were INDISTINGUISHABLE
(4) evidence [noun] EVIDENTLY her injur	evident [adjective] evidently [adverb] ies were more severe than it first appeared, and she is now in a coma.
(5) explain [verb] Could you give me a qu	explanation [noun] (in)explicable [adjective] yick EXPLANATION of how it works? [NOTE: it is NOT "the way how it works"] ["way" and "how" are NEVER used together]
(6) fact [noun] She gave a clear, FAC	factual [adjective] CTUAL account of the attack to the police.
	ation [noun] justifiable [adjective] (un)justified [adjective] measures are JUSTIFIABLE ?
(8) opinion [noun] People tend to have str	opinionated [adjective] ong OPINIONS on capital punishment.
	(AmE) [verb] plagiari S m [noun] [NOTE: NEVER with $Z - \frac{1}{\text{plagiarzm}}$] plagiarist [noun - person] ur own work. Reproduced and $\frac{\text{PLAGIARISED}}{\text{PLAGIARISED}}$ works are not acceptable.
(10) reason [verb] It would be	reason [noun] (un)reasonable [adjective] to expect them to do all that work for free.

PRACTICE: This part looks EXACTLY like it will on the B2 Exam...EXCEPT there will be 12 instead of 20 Complete the following sentences (1 - 20) by filling in the blank spaces with the proper form of the word given for that sentence. (ONE word per blank space: DO NOT add any words [e.g. prepositions]).

IMPORTANT – Use the correct form

 $m{arksigma}$ of THIS word \ldots $m{\psi}$ \ldots $m{\psi}$ HERE $m{\psi}$ \ldots in THIS sentence (1) ABLE He has the ABILITY to do the work. The students <u>ACKNOWLEDGE</u> the authority of the student council. (2) KNOWLEDGE The book is an ANALYSIS (3) ANALYZE of poverty and its causes. I have never **ASSOCIATED** (4) ASSOCIATION myself with political extremism. It is difficult to convey the sheer **COMPLEXITY** of the situation. (5) COMPLEX (6) CONSIDER The number thirteen is traditionally **CONSIDERED** to be unlucky. (7) CONVERSE He apologized for interrupting our **CONVERSATION**. _part of education. Mistakes are an **ESSENTIAL** (8) ESSENTIALLY We need to carry out a proper **EVALUATION** (9) EVALUATE of the new system. She's written a program to find words which <u>FREQUENTLY</u> occur together. (10) FREQUENT These sentences all have the same **GRAMMATICAL** pattern. (11) GRAMMAR Her internationally acclaimed novel has won several <u>LITERARY</u> (12) LITERATURE The vaccination doesn't NECESSARILY make you completely immune. (13) NECESSARY I can't really be OBJECTIVE when I'm judging my daughter's work. (14) OBJECT Local councils should use their powers to ensure strict OBSERVANCE (15) OBSERVE She gave me clear and PRECISE _ directions. (16) PRECISION She made no REFERENCE to her illness but only to her future plans. (17) REFER Installing the program is **RELATIVELY** straightforward. (18) RELATIVE The book was written SPECIFICALLY for children. (19) SPECIFIC The festival is **TRADITIONALLY** held in May. (20) TRADITION

The form of the words needed for each of the blank spaces can be found in the" Academic English: a definition" paragraph on page 1.

DID you spell all of the words correctly?

DO you know any other forms of the words?

CAN you correctly pronounce these words?

SOME COMMONLY MISSPELLED WORDS (in B2 courses, and on B2 Exam):

accommodate
 Common misspellings: acommodate, accomodate

acknowledgment
 Common misspelling: acknowledgement

• advice [noun] Common misspelling: advise [verb]

advisable Common misspelling: adviseable, adviceable, advicable

apparent
 Common misspellings: apparant, aparent, apparrent, aparrent

beneficial Common misspelling: benefitial
 occurred Common misspelling: occured

occurrence
 Common misspellings: occurrance, occurrance, occurrence

plagiarism Common misspelling: plagiarizm
 referred Common misspelling: refered

relevant Common misspellings: relevent, revelant

• separate Common misspelling: seperate

• successful Common misspellings: successful, successful,

writing
 Common misspelling: writting

A Note on Prepositions: [Page 4]

Prepositions are often called the biggest small words in English because although they are generally short words, they are very <u>important to</u> the meaning of the sentence. A misused preposition can make <u>a</u> big <u>difference between</u> a clearly stated sentence and a confusing jumble of words. When used properly, however, prepositions provide the glue between <u>parts of</u> a sentence - this allows you to share your scientific research more precisely and professionally.

There are hundreds of prepositions in the English language. Understanding how to use each one may seem a bit frightening. Most of these prepositions *fall into* one of three categories: those denoting space (place, position, or direction), time, or other relationships. Some prepositions are formed using two or three words – like "across from" or "in front of."

PRACTICE:

Look at some of the sentences from the previous pages – fill in the blank spaces with the proper preposition.

- (1) The research company was **founded** <u>BY</u> a group of academics from Stockholm University.
- (2) The company claims (that) it is not **responsible** FOR the pollution in the river.
- (3) Apart FROM the color, the two devices were indistinguishable.
- (4) Evidently her injuries were more severe than it first appeared, and she is now IN a coma.
- (5) Could you give me a quick **explanation** OF how it works?
- (6) She gave a clear, factual **account** OF the attack to the police.
- (7) People **tend** TO have strong **opinions** ON capital punishment.
- (8) The government will **provide** temporary accommodation FOR up to three thousand people.
- (9) It would be unreasonable to expect them to do all that work FOR free.

SOME COMMON PROBLEMS:

Look at some the following sentences (1 - 15) and fill in the blank spaces with the proper preposition – where needed.

- (1) I'll begin BY thanking you all for being here tonight.
- (2) The proceedings will begin <u>WITH</u> a speech to welcome the guests.
- (3) If you don't start taking care OF your body, you're going to have a heart attack one of these days.
- (4) Most of her life was spent in caring FOR others.
- (5) Liz realized that, despite herself, she cared ABOUT Edward.
- (6) This increase IN production is significant.
- (7) This increase OF 30% in production is significant.
- (8) This kind of hot and spicy food is very typical OF the food in the south of the country.
- (9) He has no respect <u>FOR</u> authority whatsoever.
- (10) I can always count ON my parents to help me.
- (11) The class were struggling to find the solution TO a mathematical problem.
- (12) There's no logic in spending money ON things you don't need.
- (13) The report is highly critical $\overline{\mathsf{OF}}$ safety standards at the factory.
- (14) I am studying $\underline{\mathsf{AT}}$ the Czech Technical University.
- (15) I am studying _____ Electrical Engineering.

1 chy /c

IMPORTANT 'TO' OR 'FOR'?

IMPORTANT TO refers to something one values or holds in great esteem.

- My parents are important to me.
- Her job is very important to her.

IMPORTANT FOR refers to a cause, e.g. It's important for my health/success etc.

- Sunlight is important for plant growth.
- Water is important for survival.

DIFFERENCE 'BETWEEN' 'AMONG'

Use BETWEEN when referring to one-to-one relationships.

• Can you tell the difference between apes and monkeys?

Use AMONG when referring to indistinct or nonspecific relationships.

• Kraut's study looked at the similarities and differences among managerial jobs.

DIFFERENT 'FROM' 'THAN' or 'TO'?

THAN, TO, AND FROM are all prepositions used to specify a relationship between words in a sentence. When they follow the word "different," all these terms suggest a comparison between two things that aren't alike.

- Apples are different than oranges.
- Apples are different to oranges.
- Apples are different from oranges.

Each sentence here means the same - that apples and oranges are distinct from one another - so most of the time these terms are interchangeable. The biggest difference between these terms is between "different than" (generally considered to be standard in American English) and "different to" (generally considered to be standard in British English). Meanwhile, "different from" is common in both dialects.

PART 'OF' or 'IN'?

PART OF (SOMETHING) means a separate piece of something, or a piece that combines with other pieces to form the whole of something:

- Part of the money will be spent on a new playground.
- Part of the castle was destroyed by fire.
- For part of the day, you will be outside doing practical work.

(A) PART IN means one of the characters in a film, play, or dance, or the words, actions, or movements that are said or done by that character:

• He has a small part in the school play.

IN is mainly used with PART in the phrasal verb 'TAKE PART IN' - meaning to participate.

FALL 'INTO' or 'IN'?

Definition(s) of FALL INTO

- 1) to go down quickly into (something)
 - She fell into the swimming pool.
- 2) to pass to (a less active or less desirable state or condition)
 - This word has fallen into disuse.
 - His theories have now fallen into disrepute/disfavor.
 - The machinery has fallen into disrepair.
- 3) to belong in (a particular category or range)
 - His creative output falls into three distinct categories.
- 4) to be caught in (a trap)
 - We fell into a trap.
- 5) to begin to do or experience (something) or to be affected by (something) without wanting or trying to
 - He fell deeply into debt.
 - She fell into her career almost accidentally.
 - She fell into the habit of going out for ice cream every night.

Definition(s) of FALL IN

- 1) to sink inward
 - Too much snow caused the roof to fall in.
- 2) to take one's proper place in a military formation
 - The sergeant ordered him to fall in with the other recruits.
- 3) to concur with / to harmonize with
 - He had to fall in with her wishes or she would end the affair.
 - It falls in exactly with my views.
- 4) to begin associating with
 - She fell in with a bad crowd.

The word "preposition" means "positioned before." A preposition sits before a word (either a noun or a pronoun) to show that word's relationship to another nearby word.

Prepositions function as connectors, relating one word to another within a sentence, allowing a speaker or writer to express the link between separate items.

Prepositions can convey information about location, time, or direction or provide details.



EXAMPLES: The duck floated on the surface of the pond.



The dog ran across the yard and hid between the bushes.

In the first example, the duck floated where? (on the surface) It was the surface of what? (the pond). In the second example, the dog ran where? (across the yard) The dog hid where? (between the bushes)

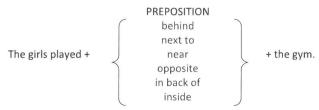
	FIFTY	COMMON PREPOSI	TIONS	
about	behind	during	off	to
above	below	except	on	toward
across	beneath	for	onto	under
after	beside	from	opposite	underneath
against	besides	in	out	until
along	between	inside	outside	up
among	beyond	into	over	upon
around	but	like	past	with
at	by	near	since	within
before	down	of	through	without

Compound Prepositions: Prepositions consisting of more than one word are called compound prepositions. Some of them are listed in the chart below:

	COMPOUND PREPOSITIONS	
according to	by means of	instead of
ahead of	in addition to	in view of
apart from	in back of	next to
aside from	in front of	on account of
as of	in place of	on top of
because of	in spite of	out of

Because prepositions have different meanings, using a particular preposition will affect the way other words in a sentence relate to one another. In the first sentence, for example, notice how each preposition changes the relationship between parade and City Hall.

In this sentence, the preposition changes the relationship between girls and gym.



A Few Rules [Page 7]

Prepositions of Direction

To refer to a direction, use the prepositions "to," "in," "into," "on," and "onto."

- She drove to the store.
- Don't ring the doorbell. Come right in(to) the house.
- Drive **on(to)** the grass and park the car there.

Prepositions of Time

To refer to one point in time, use the prepositions "in," "at," and "on."

Use "in" with parts of the day (not specific times), months, years, and seasons.

- He reads in the evening.
- The weather is cold in December.
- She was born **in** 1996.
- We rake leaves in the fall.

Use "at" with the time of day. Also use "at" with noon, night, and midnight.

- I go to work at 8:00.
- He eats lunch at noon.
- She often goes for a walk **at** night.
- They go to bed **at** midnight.

Use "on" with days.

- I work on Saturdays.
- He does laundry on Wednesdays.

To refer to extended time, use the prepositions "since," "for," "by," "during," "from...to," "from...until," "with," and "within."

• I have lived in Minneapolis since 2005. (I moved there in 2005 and still live there.)

• He will be in Toronto for 3 weeks. (He will spend 3 weeks in Toronto.)

(She will finish her HW sometime between now and 6:00.) • She will finish her homework **by** 6:00.

• He works part time **during** the summer. (For the period of time throughout the summer.) • I will collect data **from** January **to** June. (Starting in January and ending in June.) • They are in school **from** August **until*** May. (Starting in August and ending in May.)

• She will graduate within 2 years. (Not longer than 2 years.)

Prepositions of Place

To refer to a place, use the prepositions "in" (the point itself), "at" (the general vicinity), "on" (the surface), and "inside" (something contained).

- They will meet in the lunchroom.
- She was waiting **at** the corner.
- He left his phone **on** the bed.
- Place the pen **inside** the drawer.

To refer to an object higher than a point, use the prepositions "over" and "above." To refer to an object lower than a point, use the prepositions "below," "beneath," "under," and "underneath."

- The bird flew over the house.
- The plates were on the shelf **above** the cups.
- Basements are dug **below** ground.
- There is hard wood **beneath** the carpet.
- The squirrel hid the nuts **under** a pile of leaves.
- The cat is hiding **underneath** the box.

To refer to an object close to a point, use the prepositions "by," "near," "next to," "between," "among," and "opposite."

- The gas station is **by** the grocery store.
- The park is **near** her house.
- Park your bike **next to** the garage.
- There is a deer **between** the two trees.
- There is a purple flower **among** the weeds.
- The garage is **opposite** the house.

Prepositions of Location

To refer to a location, use the prepositions "in" (an area or volume), "at" (a point), and "on" (a surface).

• They live **in** the country. (an area) (a point)

• She will find him **at** the library.

• There is a lot of dirt **on** the window. (a surface)

^{*} NOTE: "till" is spoken / informal English (generally NOT to be used in Academic Writing)

Prepositions of Spatial Relationships

[Page 8]

To refer to a spatial relationship, use the prepositions "above," "across," "against," "ahead of," "along," "among," "around," "behind," "below," "beneath," "beside," "between," "from," "in front of," "inside," "near," "off," "out of," "through," "toward," "under," and "within."

- The post office is **across** the street from the grocery store.
- We will stop at many attractions **along** the way.
- The kids are hiding **behind** the tree.
- His shirt is **off**.
- Walk toward the garage and then turn left.
- Place a check mark within the box.

SOME COMMON VERB + PREPOSITION COMBINATIONS

ABOUT: worry, complain, read

- He worries about the future.
- She **complained about** the homework.
- I read about the flooding in the city.

AT: arrive (a building or event), smile, look

- He arrived at the airport 2 hours early.
- The children **smiled at** her.
- She **looked at** him.

FROM: differ, suffer

- The results differ from my original idea.
- She suffers from dementia.

FOR: account, allow, search

- Be sure to account for any discrepancies.
- I returned the transcripts to the interviewees to **allow for** revisions to be made.
- They are **searching for** the missing dog.

IN: occur, result, succeed

- The same problem **occurred in** three out of four cases.
- My recruitment strategies resulted in finding 10 participants.
- She will **succeed in** completing her degree.

OF: approve, consist, smell

- I approve of the idea.
- The recipe **consists of** three basic ingredients.
- The basement **smells of** mildew.

ON: concentrate, depend, insist

- He is **concentrating on** his work.
- They **depend on** each other.
- I must insist on following this rule.

TO: belong, contribute, lead, refer

- Bears **belong to** the family of mammals.
- I hope to contribute to the previous research.
- My results will **lead to** future research on the topic.
- Please refer to my previous explanation.

WITH: (dis)agree, argue, deal

- I (dis)agree with you.
- She argued with him.
- They will **deal with** the situation.

Prepositional Phrases

A **prepositional phrase** is a group of words that begins with a preposition and ends with a noun or pronoun. The **noun** or **object pronoun** following the preposition is the object of the preposition.

Some prepositional phrases contain just two words- the preposition and its object. Others are longer because they contain modifiers.

EXAMPLES: in water

from the system

in place of the old, broken **antenna** inside the large, modern **stadium**

Prepositional phrases convey information about location, time, or direction or provide details.

KEY: Yellow, bold = subject; green underline = verb, blue, italics = object, purple, regular font = prepositional phrase

Independent clause: An independent clause can stand alone as a sentence. It contains a subject and a verb and is a complete idea.

- o like spaghetti.
- He reads many books.

Dependent clause: A dependent clause is not a complete sentence. It must be attached to an independent clause to become complete. This is also known as a subordinate clause.

- Although I like spaghetti,...
- Because he reads many books,...

Subject: A person, animal, place, thing, or concept that does an action. Determine the subject in a sentence by asking the question "Who or what?"

- I like spaghetti.
- He reads many books.

Verb: Expresses what the person, animal, place, thing, or concept does. Determine the verb in a sentence by asking the question "What was the action or what happened?"

- o I <mark>like</mark> spaghetti.
- o He <mark>reads</mark> many books.
- o The movie good. (The be verb is also sometimes referred to as a copula or a linking verb. It links the subject, in this case **the movie**, to the complement or the predicate of the sentence, in this case, **good**.)

Object: A person, animal, place, thing, or concept that receives the action. Determine the object in a sentence by asking the question "The subject did what?" or "To whom?/For whom?"

- o I like spaghetti.
- He reads many books.

Prepositional Phrase: A phrase that begins with a preposition (i.e., in, at for, behind, until, after, of, during) and modifies a word in the sentence. A prepositional phrase answers one of many questions. Here are a few examples: "Where? When? In what way?"

- I like spaghetti for dinner.
- o He reads many books in the library.

SIMPLE SENTENCES

A <u>simple sentence</u> contains a subject and a verb, and it may also have an object and modifiers. However, it contains only **one** independent clause.

KEY: Yellow, bold = subject; green underline = verb, blue, italics = object, purple, regular font = prepositional phrase

Here are a few examples:

- She read.
- She completed her literature review.
- **He** organized his sources by theme.
- They studied APA rules for many hours.

COMPOUND SENTENCES [Page 10]

A <u>compound sentence</u> contains at least **two** independent clauses. These two independent clauses can be combined with a <u>comma</u> and a <u>coordinating conjunction</u> or with a <u>semicolon</u>.

KEY: independent clause = yellow, bold comma or semicolon = purple, regular font coordinating conjunction = green, underlined

Here are a few examples:

- She completed her literature review, and she created her reference list.
- He organized his sources by theme; then, he updated his reference list.
- They studied APA rules for many hours, but they realized there was still much to learn.

Using some compound sentences in writing allows for more <u>sentence variety</u>.

COMPLEX SENTENCES

A <u>complex sentence</u> contains at least **one** independent clause and at least **one** dependent clause. Dependent clauses can refer to the subject (who, which) the sequence/time (since, while), or the causal elements (because, if) of the independent clause.

If a sentence begins with a dependent clause, note the comma after this clause. If, on the other hand, the sentence begins with an independent clause, there is not a comma separating the two clauses.

KEY: independent clause = yellow, bold; comma = purple, regular font; dependent clause = blue, italics

Here are a few examples:

- Although she completed her literature review, she still needed to work on her methods section.
 - o Note the comma in this sentence because it begins with a dependent clause.
- Because he organized his sources by theme, it was easier for his readers to follow.
 - o Note the comma in this sentence because it begins with a dependent clause.
- They studied APA rules for many hours as they were so interesting.
 - o Note that there is no comma in this sentence because it begins with an independent clause.

Using some complex sentences in writing allows for more <u>sentence variety</u>.

COMPOUND-COMPLEX SENTENCES

Sentence types can also be combined. A compound-complex sentence contains at least **two** independent clauses and at least **one** dependent clause.

KEY: independent clause = yellow, bold comma or semicolon = purple, regular font coordinating conjunction = green, underlined dependent clause = blue, italics

- She completed her literature review, but she still needs to work on her methods section even though she finished her methods course last semester.
- Although he organized his sources by theme, he decided to arrange them chronologically, and he carefully followed the MEAL plan for organization.
- With pizza and soda at hand, they studied APA rules for many hours, and they decided that writing in APA made sense because it was clear, concise, and objective.

Using some complex-compound sentences in writing allows for more sentence variety.

Pay close attention to <u>comma</u> usage in complex-compound sentences so that the reader is easily able to follow the intended meaning.

Read the following passage - then choose the best answer (a, b, c or d) for each of the questions (1 - 5).

Tools of Persuasion

Persuasion is the art of convincing someone to agree with your point of view. According to the ancient Greek philosopher Aristotle, there are three basic tools of persuasion: ethos, pathos, and logos.

Ethos is a speaker's way of convincing the audience that he or she is a *credible* source. An audience will consider a speaker credible if he or she seems trustworthy, reliable, and sincere. This can be done in many ways. For example, a speaker can develop ethos by explaining how much experience or education he or she has in the field. After all, you would be more likely to listen to advice about how to take care of your teeth from a dentist than a firefighter. A speaker can also create ethos by convincing the audience that he or she is a good person who has their best interests at heart. If an audience cannot trust you, you will not be able to persuade them.

Pathos is a speaker's way of connecting with an audience's emotions. For example, a speaker who is trying to convince an audience to vote for him or her might say that he or she alone can save the country from a terrible war. These words are intended to fill the audience with fear, thus making them want to vote for him or her. Similarly, a charity organization that helps animals might show an audience pictures of injured dogs and cats. These images are intended to fill the viewers with pity. If the audience feels bad for the animals, they will be more likely to donate money.

Logos is the use of facts, information, statistics, or other evidence to make your argument more convincing. An audience will be more likely to believe you if you have data to back up your claims. For example, a commercial for soap might tell you that laboratory tests have shown that their soap kills all 7,000,000 of the bacteria living on your hands right now. This piece of information might make you more likely to buy their brand of soap. Presenting this evidence is much more convincing than simply saying "our soap is the best!" The use of logos can also increase a speaker's ethos; the more facts a speaker includes in his or her argument, the more likely you are to think that he or she is educated and trustworthy.

Although ethos, pathos, and logos all have their strengths, they are often most effective when they are used together. Indeed, most speakers use a combination of ethos, pathos, and logos to persuade their audiences. The next time you listen to a speech, watch a commercial, or listen to a friend try to convince you to lend him or her some money, be on the lookout for these ancient Greek tools of persuasion.

(1) As us		t is the best antonym for		-I)i			
	a) unintelligent	b) boring	c) dishonest	d) amazi	ng		
and (ugly. If I don't get these r	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	school is going to	•	e shoes I have are really be so embarrassed tha		
	a) pathos	b) ethos	c) logos	d) a combination	of ethos, pathos, and lo	gos	
(3) Acc	ording to the passage, Ic	ogos can build ethos bed	cause				
	a)an audience is mo like pity or fear	re easily convinced by f	acts and informa	ation than simple a	ppeals to emotions		
	b)an audience is mo	re likely to trust a speake	er who uses evide	ence to support his	or her argument		
	,	eruses pathos might mak I are unlikely to be persu		too emotional; aud	iences who are too		
	d)a speaker can use	misleading or false infor	mation to make	his or her argumen	t seem more convincing	j	
uner	nployment. If he stays in	office, who knows how r	many more peop	ple will lose their job	been 15,000 new cases	o up	
		CEO of Magnatech <mark>, I he</mark>	elped to create	over 1,000 new job	s. I can do the same thin	ig for	
	city if you vote for me."	H	1 market				
wnich	form of persuasion is Gai	•	I. pathos		I. Ethos		
	a) I only	b) I and II only	c) II an	id III only	d) I, II, and III		
(5) Acc	(5) According to the passage, the most effective tool of persuasion is						

a) ...ethos, because you cannot persuade an audience that does not trust you

d) ...pathos, because human beings are most easily persuaded by emotion

b) ...logos, because it can also be used to build ethos c) ...a combination of ethos, pathos, and logos

SUPPLEMENT: PRACTICE [Page 12]

Read the following blog post and for each of the blank spaces (1 - 40) choose the correct answer (a, b, c or d) from those listed at the bottom of each page. CIRCLE your answer (a, b, c or d).

BLOG POST (SOURCE: https://www.fluentu.com/blog/english/english-for-academic-purposes/)

Acade essays		erred to as 'English asons to explore this	field (1) the lan	ses ') is not just about writing good guage, even for those who are no lemic English:	
		writing skills and the		sity. In this case, it is crucial to hav e required for you to succeed	е
		with different acade		tion. You probably ou definitely need to be able to	
		purposes will give	you access to acade	non-fiction in English, mastering emic publications and articles that	
	that come with acad	demic English will al		ring vocabulary and publication for a scientific papers and lish learner.	ormats
		ents (7) the cl	larity and flow of all y	demic English writing, you will see our writing, regardless of the	
-	ucan see, the skill of u sity students. So it is tin			oses is useful for everyone, not just presents!	Ī
How to	Overcome the 4 Bigg	gest Obstacles of E	nglish for Academic F	Purposes	
The first		e (8) academ pers. The reason (9)	this is simple: a	olexity of the sentences that make cademic English favors longer	υр
	are these examples:	.,			
	"I live in a big house. It	was built in the year 2	2000. It is good for a larg	ge family."	
	"I live in a big house th	at was built in the yed	ar 2000 to accommoda	te a large family."	
	he second example v			three short sentences to decomplex sentence that is still eas	
the (12 Howe		entences may be g onstruct complex s	good in brief essays fo entences will make y	or your English study group. ou better equipped to deliver	
(1) (2) (3)	a) in a) at a) education	b) with b) on b) educating	c) <mark>of</mark> c) in c) educate	d) on d) with d) educational	

(3) c) expanded a) expansion b) expand d) expandable (4) a) to b) in c) about d) with (5) a) last d) latest b) late c) lately (6) a) in b) to c) on d) by (7) a) on b) at c) about d) to (8) a) with b) on c) for d) in (9) a) require b) requires c) requiring d) requirement (10)a) late b) later c) latter d) latest (11) a) form b) former c) formed d) formerly (12) b) on c) at d) by a) to (13)

Sentences	s may be:				[Page 13]
· Simple:	short, with one	subject and one verl	٥.		
· Compou		a complete thought		nt clause has a subject and endent clause can stand ald	
· Complex				e, or dependent, clause (a ot express a complete thou	ght).
interesting	g. Even if you are di		tific concepts, usir	or presentation variable and a range of different sente way.	
sentences	in English. Are you		ort and choppy? D	nink about how you usually on they have several clauses to say?	
exe				make them longer. Just like o make it more confusing - c	
Kn to	ow when to use a cuse colons, parentle	comma and when to	separate your clai marks. Oxford Dicti	hat is great! Study up on pu uses with a semicolon. Do no ionaries has a wonderful and	ot be afraid
mi		ences and comma sp		check your writing for comm (18), but they are easy	
Mastering	the use of conjunc	tions is very important	t too. In fact		
Do you kn	ctions Are Everywhow those short little	words that link your s	entences nicely to	ogether? These are conjunct	ions.
an	d / but	/ or /	nor / so	/ yet	
There are	also conjunctive a	dverbs, such as:		,	
	wever /	therefore /	nevertheless /	moreover	
Why? Bec	ause without them		ences is almost im	onjunctions and conjunctive possible! As we know, learni demic English.	
Here are s	ome examples:				
	nave been studying hort stories in Englis	,	rs; I find it difficult s	sometimes. I really like readir	ng
These two	sentences are just	begging to be conne	ected! Using conju	nctions is the best way to do	so:
	nave been studying eading short stories		rs, and I find it diffic	cult sometimes, but I really lik	(e
We used t natural, riç	•	nd plus but to make th	is one nice comple	ex sentence. This sounds mu	ch more
(15) a) (16) a) (17) a) (18) a) (19) a)	straggle widespread with	b) writing b) to b) by b) straddle b) widespreaded b) for	c) writting c) for c) on c) struggle c) spread-wide c) of	d) written d) in d) to d) strudel d) spread widely d) about	
(20) a)	structure	b) structured	c) structurated	d) structurally	

_	-	in English learner's frier ump (21) the qua		few and start using the	[Page 14] m,
To inc	orporate conjunctions	s (22) your English	, try the following:		
	· Make a list of conju	unctions that you enco	ounter often and study	their meaning.	
	· Practice writing you	ur own sentences with	conjunctions.		
	· Practice linking sev	reral sentences into on	ne with the help of cor	njunctions.	
This is	an (23) writing ski	ill, especially in English	for academic purpose	es.	
Learni course	e, is very useful (24)		However, the main dif	ork. General English voo ficulty for academic Er iic publications.	
(area	of study). Biology, phy		nguistics all have their	to each individual own terms and abbrev	
menti English	oned. Very complex t	erms can often be use difficulty reading acad	d without any explan	r is familiar with concep ation. This adds difficult en if they are really inte	y to a lot of
So wh	at do you do to get us	sed to the complex vo	cabulary in academic	English?	
Unfort	unately there are no	tricks - you just have to	learn it little by little		
OFFICIT	•	•	•	os://www.vocabulary.com/li	oto (200512)
	_	idea of what to expec			<u>818/300313</u>]. II
	 If you are preparing 	g to study at an English	n-speaking university, f	ocus on the vocabular	y specific
	(29) your field o				•
		mic literature in your di technical terms and sp		o not understand most be learning.	of it, it will
	words, translate ther		em (31) sentence	c. Make lists (30) ui es (maybe even comple	
	· Check out Visual Th				
				<u>[&utm_source=shareasale&u</u> then (32) similar w	
	gives you visual map (33) each other great for learning wo	os of words instead of jo r, even if you do not im	ust lists, it is easier to se nmediately understan ademic field, because	ee how words connect d their definitions. Visual you will be able to see	al Thesaurus is
(21) (22) (23) (24) (25) (26) (27)	a) to a) on a) undispensable a) in a) in a) specific a) assume	b) in b) with b) nondispensable b) on b) on b) specifical b) assumes	c) on c) at c) indispensable c) indispensable c) indispensable c) indispensable c) at c) at c) special c) assuming	d) at d) into d) antidispensable d) to d) by d) specifically d) assumption	CHIBA
(28) (29) (30) (31)	a) to a) with a) for a) at	b) about b) at b) with b) into	c) with c) to c) of c) with	d) ind) ond) ond) by	
(32) (33)	a) <mark>explore</mark> a) on	b) explorate b) <mark>to</mark>	c) explored c) at	d) explorationd) for	

SPELLING:

-ou (e.g. colour, behaviour, mould) -re (e.g. metre, fibre, centre)

-y- (e.g. tyre)

American English (AmE) British English (BrE)

pants trousers apartment bonnet (the front of the car) hood boot (the back of the car) trunk lorry truck fizzy drink soda / pop postbox mailbox chemist drugstore

GRAMMAR: British English (BrE)

VOCABULARY:

collective Can be either singular or plural - although the plural form is most often used (e.g. The band are playing). nouns

Use 'got' as the past participle of 'get' verbs

Use 'hot' as a verb (e.g. Things are 'hotting' up).

'At' the weekend. prepositions

They live 'in' Main Street.

The classroom is 'in' the third floor.

PRONUNCIATION: British English (BrE)

advertisement = /əd'va:.trs.mənt/

algae = /'æl.gi:/

renaissance = /rə'neɪ.səns/

-o (e.g. color, behavior, mold) -er (e.g. meter, fiber, center)

-i- (e.g. tire)

American English (AmE) Generally considered singular (e.g. The band is playing).

Continue to use 'gotten'

Use the verb 'heat' (e.g. Things are 'heating' up).

(OR - e.g. Things are getting hotter).

'On' the weekend. They live 'on' Main Street. The classroom is 'on' the third floor.

American English (AmE)

advertisement = /æd.v3: 'tazz.mənt/

algae = /'æl.dʒi:/

renaissance = /'ren.ə.sa:ns/