

### 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** \_\_\_\_\_ your studies is rather (2) **different** \_\_\_\_\_ 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** \_\_\_\_\_ your 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** \_\_\_\_\_ what those they are (5) **speaking** \_\_\_\_\_, or those they are (6) **writing** \_\_\_\_\_, know already, and aim to guide them towards less familiar areas and topics.

The ability to use academic English, and/or (7) **write** \_\_\_\_\_ an academic style, is an important skill to develop as (8) **part** \_\_\_\_\_ 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 \_\_\_\_\_ 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) \_\_\_\_\_ **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., pronounce v pronunciation]
- spelling: how to spell the word
- 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 main types of vocabulary.

**(G) general vocabulary:** words that are also commonly used in everyday language.

**(A) academic vocabulary:** 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 words are general (G), academic (A) or specialized (S).

<u>A</u>	(1) analyses	___	(6) different	___	(11) methods
___	(2) beyond	___	(7) growing	___	(12) necessary
___	(3) conclusions	___	(8) ethnomusicological	___	(13) proficiency
___	(4) debate	___	(9) Hispanic	___	(14) quintuple
___	(5) dichromium	___	(10) likely	___	(15) transformation

### Word Forms / Grammatical Patterns PRACTICE:

Look at the words below and decide which one belongs in the sentence that follows.

You need to decide which form of the word to use [verb, noun, adjective, etc.] as well as the tense):

#### EXAMPLE:

academic [adjective]      academic [noun - person]      academy [noun]      academically [adverb]

The research company was founded by a group of **ACADEMICS** [n.] from Stockholm University.

(1) assume [verb]      assumption [noun]

She was young and she was wearing student-type clothes so I \_\_\_\_\_ she was studying here.

(2) claim [verb]      claim [noun]      claimant [noun - person]      claimable [adjective]

The company \_\_\_\_\_ (that) it is not responsible for the pollution in the river. **[NOTE: NO COMMA before "that"]**

(3) distinguish [verb]      distinguished [adjective]      (in)distinguishable [adjective]

Apart from the color, the two devices were \_\_\_\_\_.

(4) evidence [noun]      evident [adjective]      evidently [adverb]

\_\_\_\_\_ her injuries were more severe than it first appeared, and she is now in a coma.

(5) explain [verb]      explanation [noun]      (in)explicable [adjective]

Could you give me a quick \_\_\_\_\_ of how it works? **[NOTE: it is NOT "the way how it works"]**  
["way" and "how" are **NEVER** used together]

(6) fact [noun]      factual [adjective]

She gave a clear, \_\_\_\_\_ account of the attack to the police.

(7) justify [verb]      justification [noun]      justifiable [adjective]      (un)justified [adjective]

Are you sure that these measures are \_\_\_\_\_?

(8) opinion [noun]      opinionated [adjective]

People tend to have strong \_\_\_\_\_ on capital punishment.

(9) plagiarise (BrE) / plagiarize (AmE) [verb]      plagiarism [noun] **[NOTE: NEVER with Z - plagiarize]**      plagiarist [noun - person]

Submissions must be your own work. Reproduced and \_\_\_\_\_ works are not acceptable.

(10) reason [verb]      reason [noun]      (un)reasonable [adjective]

It would be \_\_\_\_\_ 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**

⬅ of THIS word . . . ↓ . . . ↓ HERE ↓ . . . in THIS sentence

- |                 |  |
|-----------------|--|
| (1) ABLE        | He has the _____ to do the work.                                       |
| (2) KNOWLEDGE   | The students _____ the authority of the student council.               |
| (3) ANALYZE     | The book is an _____ of poverty and its causes.                        |
| (4) ASSOCIATION | I have never _____ myself with political extremism.                    |
| (5) COMPLEX     | It is difficult to convey the sheer _____ of the situation.            |
| (6) CONSIDER    | The number thirteen is traditionally _____ to be unlucky.              |
| (7) CONVERSE    | He apologized for interrupting our _____.                              |
| (8) ESSENTIALLY | Mistakes are an _____ part of education.                               |
| (9) EVALUATE    | We need to carry out a proper _____ of the new system.                 |
| (10) FREQUENT   | She's written a program to find words which _____ occur together.      |
| (11) GRAMMAR    | These sentences all have the same _____ pattern.                       |
| (12) LITERATURE | Her internationally acclaimed novel has won several _____ prizes.      |
| (13) NECESSARY  | The vaccination doesn't _____ make you completely immune.              |
| (14) OBJECT     | I can't really be _____ when I'm judging my daughter's work.           |
| (15) OBSERVE    | Local councils should use their powers to ensure strict _____ of laws. |
| (16) PRECISION  | She gave me clear and _____ directions.                                |
| (17) REFER      | She made no _____ to her illness but only to her future plans.         |
| (18) RELATIVE   | Installing the program is _____ straightforward.                       |
| (19) SPECIFIC   | The book was written _____ for children.                               |
| (20) TRADITION  | The festival is _____ held in May.                                     |

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: occurance, occurance, occurence        |
| • plagiarism     | Common misspelling: plagiarizm                              |
| • referred       | Common misspelling: refered                                 |
| • relevant       | Common misspellings: relevent, revelant                     |
| • separate       | Common misspelling: seperate                                |
| • successful     | Common misspellings: succesful, successfull, sucessful      |
| • writing        | Common misspelling: writting                                |

### A Note on Prepositions:

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Prepositions are often called the biggest small words in English because although they are generally short words, they are very **important to** the meaning of the sentence. A misused preposition can make **a big difference between** a clearly stated sentence and a confusing jumble of words. When used properly, however, prepositions provide the glue between **parts of** 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** \_\_\_\_\_ a group of academics from Stockholm University.
- (2) The company claims (that) it is not **responsible** \_\_\_\_\_ the pollution in the river.
- (3) **Apart** \_\_\_\_\_ the color, the two devices were indistinguishable.
- (4) Evidently her injuries were more severe than it first appeared, and she is now \_\_\_\_\_ **a coma**.
- (5) Could you give me a quick **explanation** \_\_\_\_\_ how it works?
- (6) She gave a clear, factual **account** \_\_\_\_\_ the attack to the police.
- (7) People **tend** \_\_\_\_\_ have strong **opinions** \_\_\_\_\_ capital punishment.
- (8) The government will **provide** temporary accommodation \_\_\_\_\_ up to three thousand people.
- (9) It would be unreasonable to expect them to do all that **work** \_\_\_\_\_ **free**.

### SOME COMMON PROBLEMS:

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

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

**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.

## MORE about Prepositions:

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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 PREPOSITIONS				
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.

The parade passed + 

PREPOSITION
near
in front of
behind
through
next to
around

 + City Hall.

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

The girls played + 

PREPOSITION
behind
next to
near
opposite
in back of
inside

 + the gym.

### 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 <b>since</b> 2005.          | (I moved there in 2005 and still live there.)           |
| • He will be in Toronto <b>for</b> 3 weeks.               | (He will spend 3 weeks in Toronto.)                     |
| • She will finish her homework <b>by</b> 6:00.            | (She will finish her HW sometime between now and 6:00.) |
| • He works part time <b>during</b> the summer.            | (For the period of time throughout the summer.)         |
| • I will collect data <b>from</b> January <b>to</b> June. | (Starting in January and ending in June.)               |
| • They are in school <b>from</b> August <b>until</b> May. | (Starting in August and ending in May.)                 |
| • She will graduate <b>within</b> 2 years.                | (Not longer than 2 years.)                              |

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

### 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 <b>in</b> the country.             | (an area)   |
| • She will find him <b>at</b> the library.     | (a point)   |
| • There is a lot of dirt <b>on</b> the window. | (a surface) |



## Prepositions of Spatial Relationships

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 I like spaghetti.
- o 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.

- o Although I like spaghetti,...
- o 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?"

- o I like spaghetti.
- o 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 like spaghetti.
- o He reads many books.
- o The movie is 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.
- o 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?"

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

## SIMPLE SENTENCES

A simple sentence 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

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A [compound sentence](#) contains at least **two** independent clauses. These two independent clauses can be combined with a [comma](#) and a [coordinating conjunction](#) or with a [semicolon](#).

**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 [sentence variety](#).

## COMPLEX SENTENCES

A [complex sentence](#) 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.**
  - 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.**
  - 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.*
  - 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 [sentence variety](#).

## 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 [comma](#) usage in complex-compound sentences so that the reader is easily able to follow the intended meaning.

**Reading Comprehension PRACTICE:****[Page 11]**

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 used in paragraph 2, what is the best antonym for **credible**?

- a) unintelligent      b) boring      c) dishonest      d) amazing

**(2)** Amy is trying to convince her mother to buy her a pair of \$200 shoes. She says: "Mom, the shoes I have are really old and ugly. If I don't get these new shoes, everyone at school is going to laugh at me. I will be so embarrassed that I will want to die." What form of persuasion is Amy using here?

- a) pathos      b) ethos      c) logos      d) a combination of ethos, pathos, and logos

**(3)** According to the passage, logos can build ethos because...

- a) ...an audience is more easily convinced by facts and information than simple appeals to emotions like pity or fear  
b) ...an audience is more likely to trust a speaker who uses evidence to support his or her argument  
c) ...a speaker who overuses pathos might make an audience too emotional; audiences who are too frightened or too sad are unlikely to be persuaded  
d) ...a speaker can use misleading or false information to make his or her argument seem more convincing

**(4)** Gareth is running for mayor. He tells his audience: "Under our current mayor, there have been 15,000 new cases of unemployment. If he stays in office, who knows how many more people will lose their jobs? The number could go up even higher. When I was the CEO of Magnatech, I helped to create over 1,000 new jobs. I can do the same thing for this city if you vote for me."

Which form of persuasion is Gareth using here?

I. pathos

II. Logos

III. Ethos

- a) I only      b) I and II only      c) II and III only      d) I, II, and III

**(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  
b) ...logos, because it can also be used to build ethos  
c) ...a combination of ethos, pathos, and logos  
d) ...pathos, because human beings are most easily persuaded by emotion

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/>]

### Why Study English for Academic Purposes?

Academic English (often referred to as 'English for Academic Purposes') is not just about writing good essays. There are several reasons to explore this field (1) \_\_\_\_\_ the language, even for those who are not currently students. Here are some key reasons you might study academic English:

- **You are considering studying at an English-speaking university.** In this case, it is crucial to have the vocabulary, the writing skills and the grammar knowledge required for you to succeed (2) \_\_\_\_\_ the highest level of education.
- **You work in an (3) \_\_\_\_\_ organization or an academic institution.** You probably communicate a lot with different academic audiences, so you definitely need to be able to speak and understand English for academic purposes.
- **You want to (4) \_\_\_\_\_ your reading list.** If you enjoy reading non-fiction in English, mastering English for academic purposes will give you access to academic publications and articles that can be pretty difficult to read otherwise!
- **You are interested (5) \_\_\_\_\_ science and technology.** Mastering vocabulary and publication formats that come with academic English will allow you to read the (6) \_\_\_\_\_ scientific papers and conference reports. These are difficult for a more casual English learner.
- **You want to improve your writing skills.** If you practice academic English writing, you will see significant improvements (7) \_\_\_\_\_ the clarity and flow of all your writing, regardless of the circumstances in which you need to use it.

As you can see, the skill of understanding English for academic purposes is useful for everyone, not just university students. So it is time to start overcoming the challenges it presents!

### How to Overcome the 4 Biggest Obstacles of English for Academic Purposes

#### 1) Complex Sentence Structure

The first thing you may notice (8) \_\_\_\_\_ academic writing is the complexity of the sentences that make up most articles, essays and papers. The reason (9) \_\_\_\_\_ this is simple: academic English favors longer sentences that can better convey complex ideas!

Compare these examples:

*"I live in a big house. It was built in the year 2000. It is good for a large family."*

*"I live in a big house that was built in the year 2000 to accommodate a large family."*

Both examples convey the same idea. However, the first example (10) \_\_\_\_\_ three short sentences to do that. The second example weaves all three points into a single, more complex sentence that is still easy to understand.

**English for academic purposes requires that you use more of the (11) \_\_\_\_\_ rather than the (12) \_\_\_\_\_.** Simple, short sentences may be good in brief essays for your English study group. However, knowing how to construct complex sentences will make you better equipped to deliver complex information (13) \_\_\_\_\_ your audience, as required in academic English.

- |      |              |              |              |                |
|------|--------------|--------------|--------------|----------------|
| (1)  | a) in        | b) with      | c) of        | d) on          |
| (2)  | a) at        | b) on        | c) in        | d) with        |
| (3)  | a) education | b) educating | c) educate   | d) educational |
| (4)  | a) expansion | b) expand    | c) expanded  | d) expandable  |
| (5)  | a) to        | b) in        | c) about     | d) with        |
| (6)  | a) last      | b) late      | c) lately    | d) latest      |
| (7)  | a) in        | b) to        | c) on        | d) by          |
| (8)  | a) on        | b) at        | c) about     | d) to          |
| (9)  | a) with      | b) on        | c) for       | d) in          |
| (10) | a) require   | b) requires  | c) requiring | d) requirement |
| (11) | a) late      | b) later     | c) latter    | d) latest      |
| (12) | a) form      | b) former    | c) formed    | d) formerly    |
| (13) | a) to        | b) on        | c) at        | d) by          |

- **Simple:** short, with one subject and one verb.
- **Compound:** two connected independent clauses (an independent clause has a subject and verb and expresses a complete thought or idea; an independent clause can stand alone as a sentence).
- **Complex:** one independent clause with at least one subordinate, or dependent, clause (a dependent clause has a subject and verb but does not express a complete thought).

While (14) \_\_\_\_\_ in academic English, you should try to keep your text or presentation variable and interesting. Even if you are discussing difficult scientific concepts, using a range of different sentence structures is the first step to writing (15) \_\_\_\_\_ an engaging, readable way.

To practice making your sentences longer and more complex, first think about how you usually create sentences in English. Are your sentences basic, short and choppy? Do they have several clauses? Are your sentences so long that you lose track (16) \_\_\_\_\_ what you are trying to say?

- **If your sentences are short and choppy**, do not be afraid to make them longer. Just like in our examples above, making a sentence longer does not have to make it more confusing - on the contrary!
- **If you are using several clauses in your sentences already**, that is great! Study up on **punctuation**. Know when to use a comma and when to separate your clauses with a semicolon. Do not be afraid to use colons, parentheses and quotation marks. Oxford Dictionaries has a wonderful and detailed section on English punctuation to help you out.
- Last but not least, **if you (17) \_\_\_\_\_ with very long sentences**, check your writing for common syntax mistakes. Run-on sentences and comma splices are the most (18) \_\_\_\_\_, but they are easy to avoid once you understand them!

Mastering the use of conjunctions is very important too. In fact...

## 2) Conjunctions Are Everywhere

Do you know those short little words that link your sentences nicely together? These are conjunctions. The most common examples include:

and / but / or / nor / so / yet

There are also conjunctive adverbs, such as:

however / therefore / nevertheless / moreover

Academic English speakers and writers are masters (19) \_\_\_\_\_ using conjunctions and conjunctive adverbs. Why? Because without them, writing complex sentences is almost impossible! As we know, learning to construct beautifully (20) \_\_\_\_\_ sentences is an important skill for academic English.

Here are some examples:

*"I have been studying English for three years; I find it difficult sometimes. I really like reading short stories in English."*

These two sentences are just begging to be connected! Using conjunctions is the best way to do so:

*"I have been studying English for three years, **and** I find it difficult sometimes, **but** I really like reading short stories in English."*

We used the conjunctions **and** plus **but** to make this one nice complex sentence. This sounds much more natural, right?

- |      |               |                 |                 |                  |
|------|---------------|-----------------|-----------------|------------------|
| (14) | a) write      | b) writing      | c) writting     | d) written       |
| (15) | a) with       | b) to           | c) for          | d) in            |
| (16) | a) of         | b) by           | c) on           | d) to            |
| (17) | a) straggle   | b) straddle     | c) struggle     | d) strudel       |
| (18) | a) widespread | b) widespreaded | c) spread-wide  | d) spread widely |
| (19) | a) with       | b) for          | c) of           | d) about         |
| (20) | a) structure  | b) structured   | c) structurated | d) structurally  |

**Conjunctions are actually an English learner's friend!** Once you learn a few and start using them, you will see an immediate jump (21) \_\_\_\_\_ the quality of your writing.

To incorporate conjunctions (22) \_\_\_\_\_ your English, try the following:

- **Make a list of conjunctions** that you encounter often and study their meaning.
- **Practice writing your own** sentences with conjunctions.
- **Practice linking several** sentences into one with the help of conjunctions.

This is an (23) \_\_\_\_\_ writing skill, especially in English for academic purposes.

### 3) Complex Vocabulary

Learning English for any purpose involves a great deal of **vocabulary work**. General English vocabulary, of course, is very useful (24) \_\_\_\_\_ academic English. However, the main difficulty for academic English lies with the specialized vocabulary often found (25) \_\_\_\_\_ lectures and academic publications.

Vocabulary in academic English is not only complex, but also very (26) \_\_\_\_\_ to each individual discipline (area of study). Biology, physics, philosophy and linguistics all have their own terms and abbreviations. They can be tricky to understand if you are not used to that vocabulary.

What is more, academic English writing usually (27) \_\_\_\_\_ that the reader is familiar with concepts and words mentioned. Very complex terms can often be used without any explanation. This adds difficulty to a lot of English learners, who have difficulty reading academic publications, even if they are really interested (28) \_\_\_\_\_ the topics presented.

### So what do you do to get used to the complex vocabulary in academic English?

Unfortunately, there are no tricks - you just have to learn it little by little.

• **Start with this great Academic Vocabulary list by Jim Burke** (<https://www.vocabulary.com/lists/388513>). It will give you a good idea of what to expect from an academic text.

• If you are preparing to study at an English-speaking university, **focus on the vocabulary specific** (29) \_\_\_\_\_ your field of study.

• **Try reading academic literature** in your discipline. Even if you do not understand most of it, it will give you an idea of technical terms and special words you will be learning.

• **Practice academic vocabulary** like any other vocabulary topic. Make lists (30) \_\_\_\_\_ unfamiliar words, translate them, practice putting them (31) \_\_\_\_\_ sentences (maybe even complex ones with conjunctions!) to increase your retention (memory).

• **Check out Visual Thesaurus**

([https://www.visualthesaurus.com/landing/?ad=shareasale&utm\\_campaign=VT&utm\\_source=shareasale&utm\\_medium=defaul](https://www.visualthesaurus.com/landing/?ad=shareasale&utm_campaign=VT&utm_source=shareasale&utm_medium=defaul)). This is a tool that allows you to start with just one word, and then (32) \_\_\_\_\_ similar words. Since it gives you visual maps of words instead of just lists, it is easier to see how words connect (33) \_\_\_\_\_ each other, even if you do not immediately understand their definitions. Visual Thesaurus is great for learning words specific to an academic field, because you will be able to see how terms and concepts from a particular topic are related.

- |      |                  |                   |                  |                    |
|------|------------------|-------------------|------------------|--------------------|
| (21) | a) to            | b) in             | c) on            | d) at              |
| (22) | a) on            | b) with           | c) at            | d) into            |
| (23) | a) indispensable | b) nondispensable | c) indispensible | d) antidispensable |
| (24) | a) in            | b) on             | c) for           | d) to              |
| (25) | a) in            | b) on             | c) at            | d) by              |
| (26) | a) specific      | b) specifical     | c) special       | d) specifically    |
| (27) | a) assume        | b) assumes        | c) assuming      | d) assumption      |
| (28) | a) to            | b) about          | c) with          | d) in              |
| (29) | a) with          | b) at             | c) to            | d) on              |
| (30) | a) for           | b) with           | c) of            | d) on              |
| (31) | a) at            | b) into           | c) with          | d) by              |
| (32) | a) explore       | b) explorate      | c) explored      | d) exploration     |
| (33) | a) on            | b) to             | c) at            | d) for             |

#### 4) Logical Argument Structure

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What is the purpose of (34) \_\_\_\_\_ an academic audience? It is not just to make your listeners go "wow" at your beautiful long sentences and specialized vocabulary. As we learned, these are important. They serve a very specific purpose.

And that purpose is to present a thesis or an argument and then defend it in a (35) \_\_\_\_\_ way.

This is what most academic papers, essays, presentations, lectures, articles and even books have in common. They rely (36) \_\_\_\_\_ clear, logical writing to present ideas, support theories and offer solutions (37) \_\_\_\_\_ many problems.

#### In Conclusion...

Lots of effort goes (38) \_\_\_\_\_ writing papers, preparing lectures and presentations for academic purposes. Doing so in English can be especially difficult!

Academic English is very different (39) \_\_\_\_\_ casual English, and it is normal to feel overwhelmed by its challenges. However, these obstacles can be overcome. Getting it right is mostly a matter of time and practice.

Learning English for academic purposes is (40) \_\_\_\_\_ for so many English students, and it may be just right for you, too!

- |      |               |                |               |                 |
|------|---------------|----------------|---------------|-----------------|
| (34) | a) discussing | b) greeting    | c) speaking   | d) addressing   |
| (35) | a) convince   | b) convinced   | c) convincing | d) convincingly |
| (36) | a) to         | b) on          | c) with       | d) at           |
| (37) | a) to         | b) for         | c) on         | d) with         |
| (38) | a) into       | b) about       | c) onto       | d) for          |
| (39) | a) then       | b) at          | c) in         | d) from         |
| (40) | a) beneficial | b) benefitting | c) beneficial | d) benefit      |

#### NOTE: Differences between British and American English

It is important to note that while your preference for one or the other (BrE or AmE) is your own, you must be consistent in your usage.

SPELLING:	British English (BrE)	American English (AmE)
	-oe/-ae- (e.g. anaemia, diarrhoea, encyclopaedia) -t (e.g. burnt, dreamt, leapt) -ence (e.g. defence, offence, licence) -ell- (e.g. cancelled, jeweller, marvellous) -ise (e.g. appetiser, familiarise, organise) -l- (e.g. enrol, fulfil, skilful) -ou (e.g. colour, behaviour, mould) -re (e.g. metre, fibre, centre) -y- (e.g. tyre)	-e- (e.g. anemia, diarrhea, encyclopedia) -ed (e.g. burned, dreamed, leaped) -ense (defense, offense, license) -el- (e.g. canceled, jeweler, marvelous) -ize (e.g. appetizer, familiarize, organize) -ll- (e.g. enroll, fulfill, skillfull) -o (e.g. color, behavior, mold) -er (e.g. meter, fiber, center) -i- (e.g. tire)
VOCABULARY:	British English (BrE)	American English (AmE)
	trousers flat bonnet (the front of the car) boot (the back of the car) lorry fizzy drink postbox chemist	pants apartment hood trunk truck soda / pop mailbox drugstore
GRAMMAR:	British English (BrE)	American English (AmE)
	collective nouns Can be either singular or plural - although the plural form is most often used (e.g. The band are playing).	Generally considered singular (e.g. The band is playing).
verbs	Use 'got' as the past participle of 'get' Use 'hot' as a verb (e.g. Things are 'hotting' up).	Continue to use 'gotten' Use the verb 'heat' (e.g. Things are 'heating' up). (OR - e.g. Things are <u>getting</u> hotter).
prepositions	'At' the weekend. They live 'in' Main Street. The classroom is 'in' the third floor.	'On' the weekend. They live 'on' Main Street. The classroom is 'on' the third floor.
PRONUNCIATION:	British English (BrE)	American English (AmE)
	advertisement = /əd'vɜː.tɪs.mənt/ algae = /'æɪ.lgiː/ renaissance = /rə'neɪ.səns/	advertisement = /əd.vɜː.'tæɪz.mənt/ algae = /'æɪ.l.dʒiː/ renaissance = /'ren.ə.sɑːns/