TASK 1: Re-ordering the sentences of a paragraph
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Put the following sentences in the correct order to produce well organised paragraphs.

Paragraph 1
a. It's rare, but not unheard of, for mail to go astray.
b. And many corporate mail servers have had growing pains, too, experiencing holdups and the odd deletion.
c. On the whole though, you can assume email will arrive.
d. However during 1997, AOL and Microsoft Network - to name just the big players - had severe mail outages resulting in the delay, and in some cases loss, of email.
e. In general Internet email is considerably more reliable than the postal service.
(The Internet and world wide web: The rough guide, (1997), p. 15)

Paragraph 2
a. Time may indicate the importance of the occasion as well as on what level an interaction between persons is to take place.
b. The same applies for calls after 11:00 P.M.
c. Different parts of the day, for example, are highly significant in certain contexts.
d. Our realisation that time talks is even reflected in such common expressions as, "What time does the clock say?"
e. In the United States if you telephone someone very early in the morning, while he is shaving or having breakfast, the time of the call usually signals a matter of utmost importance and extreme urgency.
f. A call received during sleeping hours is apt to be taken as a matter of life and death, hence the rude joke value of these calls among the young.
(Edward Hall, (1973), The silent language, p. 2)

Paragraph 3
a. But modern anthropology stands opposed to the view that anatomy is destiny.
b. Men are taller, heavier, and stronger than women; hence it is "natural" that hunting and warfare should be male specialities.
c. Men have higher levels of testosterone; hence they are "naturally" more aggressive, sexually and otherwise, and are "naturally" dominant over women.
d. Since differences in the anatomy and physiology of human males and females are so obvious it is easy to be misled into believing that sex-linked roles and statuses are primarily biological rather than cultural phenomena.
e. As the underlying demographic, technological, economic, and ecological conditions to which these sex-linked roles are adapted change, new cultural definitions of sex-linked roles will emerge.
f. Moreover since women menstruate, become pregnant, and lactate, they "naturally" are the ones to stay at home to care for and feed infants and children.
g. Nor are women born with an innate tendency to care for infants and children and to be sexually and politically subordinate.
h. Rather it has been the case that under a broad but finite set of cultural and natural conditions certain sex-linked specialities have been selected for in a large number of cultures.
i. Males are not born with an innate tendency to be hunters or warriors or to be sexually and politically dominant over women.
(Marvin Harris, (1975). Culture, people, nature, p. 610)
Look at the following text about Leonardo da Vinci. The first sentence of each paragraph has been removed. The sentences are listed below the text. Match them with the correct paragraphs.

The Genius of Leonardo.

1. He was the illegitimate son of a Florentine lawyer and property owner. His artistic bent obviously appeared at an early age for when he was 15 he was apprenticed to the painter Verrocchio. In 1472 he was accepted in the painters’ guild in Florence, where he remained until 1481.

2. And among his early drawings were many sketches of mechanical apparatus and weapons, evidence of his interest in, and knowledge of things mechanical.

3. His artistic achievements in Milan reached their peak with the mural ‘The Last Supper’ completed in 1497.

4. In the 1490s he began monumental treatises on painting, architecture, human anatomy and mechanics. He set down his observations on these themes in voluminous notes and sketches, which he would later assemble in his notebooks. There remain of his notebooks a prodigious 7000 pages, all in characteristic ‘mirror-writing’.

5. He then went back to Milan and entered the service of the French King Louis XII. Later he was to work in Rome with Raphael and Michelangelo on designs for the new church of St Peter. In 1516 he settled in France, at Cloux, near Amboise, where he died three years later.

6. He was no mere theorist advancing fanciful ideas. He was a practical man, who designed things that would work, because he could see how they would work.

7. There is no evidence that Leonardo actually built the machines and mechanical devices he sketched and described. And in many cases their practical importance remained unrealised and unrealisable for centuries. There was neither the demand for them nor the technology.

(Pears Encyclopaedia, 1987, p. 342)

a. Leonardo returned to Florence in 1499, where he painted that most famous painting ‘The Mona Lisa’ (1503).
b. Between 1482 and 1499 he was employed in the service of the Duke of Milan, to whom he was painter, sculptor, musician and technical adviser on military and engineering matters.
c. In whatever subject he studied, Leonardo laid absolute faith in the evidence of his eyes.
d. Leonardo da Vinci was born in 1452 in Vinci, a small village in Tuscany.
e. And it is in his ‘things’, his machines, that we are interested in this book.
f. By then Leonardo’s expertise with paint brush and palette, pen and pencil was already well advanced.
g. But his creative energies now were turning more and more to scientific and literary pursuits.
Paragraph 1
Atoms of all elements consist of a central nucleus surrounded by a "cloud" containing one or more electrons. The electrons can be thought of as occupying a series of well-defined shells. The behaviour of a particular element depends largely on the number of electrons in its outermost shells. Other factors, such as the total number of electron shells, also play a part in determining behaviour but it is the dominance of the outer electron configuration that underlies the periodic law and justifies the grouping of the elements into groups or families.
(The sciences: Michael Beazley Encyclopaedias (1980), p. 118)

Paragraph 2
In general, Victorian families were big. In 1851 their average size was 4.7, roughly the same as it had been in the seventeenth century, but the 1½ million couples who married during the 1860s, which the historian G. M. Young described as the best decade in English history to have been brought up in, raised the figure to 6.2. Only one out of eight families had one or two children, while one in six had ten or more, so that the counsel 'little children should be seen and not heard' was prudent rather than simply authoritarian advice.

Paragraph 3
This is a period when education faces many disturbing circumstances originating outside itself. Budgets have been drastically cut throughout the country affecting every type of education. Enrolments are dropping rapidly, because the children of the post-World War II "baby boom" have now completed their schooling, and we are feeling the full effect of the falling birth rate. So there are fewer opportunities for new teachers, and the average age of teachers is increasing.
(Carl Rogers, (1969), Freedom to learn, p. 11.)

Paragraph 4
The maintenance of order in prestate societies is rooted in a commonality of material interests. The greater the amount of common interests, the less need there is for law-and-order specialists. Among band-level cultures law and order stem directly from the relations between people and the natural habitat from which subsistence is derived. All adults usually have open access to this habitat: the rivers, lakes, beaches, oceans; all the plants and animals; the soil and the subsoil. In so far as these are basic to the extraction of life-sustaining energy and materials they are communal "property."
(Marvin Harris, (1975), Culture, people nature, p. 356)

Paragraph 5
Though the United States has spent billions of dollars on foreign aid programs, it has captured neither the affection nor esteem of the rest of the world. In many countries today Americans are cordially disliked; in others merely tolerated. The reasons for this sad state of affairs are many and varied, and some of them are beyond the control of anything this country might do to try to correct them. But harsh as it may seem to the ordinary citizen, filled as he is with good intentions and natural generosity, much of the foreigners' animosity has been generated by the way Americans behave.
(Edward Hall, (1973), The silent language, p. xiii)
Importantly, all this will be the notion of typicality. It seems likely that facts about the ways in which words are typically used are at least as important to dictionary readers as facts about the rarer occurrences and wilder possibilities of meaning. If a learner or translator is wondering about how to use a word naturally, a dictionary that holds up strong models of typicality is going to be of much more use than one that explains all sorts of marginal and untypical words and senses. Language teachers tell us that some dictionary users read their dictionaries as if they actually do give information about typical usage rather than possible usage, sometimes with unfortunate results. Comparison of dictionary texts with a corpus of natural language shows that dictionaries do not in fact give much prominence to typicality.


Hanks, P. (1993) Word Sketches are designed to support lexicographic analysis. Where a word is polysemous, central to the analysis is the division of the word's semantic range into distinct meanings. An intimately related language-technology task is 'word sense disambiguation' (WSD): automatically, working out which of a polysemous word's meanings applies, given a particular instance of use of the word. While WSD has made great progress in the last ten years, mostly through the application of machine-learning techniques and the use of large corpora, it now seems unlikely it can make much further progress unless it looks more closely at lexicography. Almost all large-scale WSD work to date has aimed to disambiguate between the meanings provided in an off-the-shelf resource, either a publisher’s dictionary or WordNet. It is increasingly apparent that the limits of this approach have been reached, as the analyses of polysemy in these resources are not sufficiently precise or explicit, to give the computer leverage to perform any better. What is needed is more explicit lexicography, coupled with good analyses.

Kilgarriff, A. & D. Tugwell (2002). Sketching words. LEXICOGRAPHY AND NATURAL LANGUAGE PROCEEDINGS. (pp. 125-137)

The domain of texts and ideas that can be properly labeled lexicography includes an almost equal balance, notwithstanding competing claims, of commercial or market-driven projects, and scholarly or criticism-based projects. Not many years ago at lexicography conferences, colloquia, and seminars, it was not uncommon to hear a call for more cooperation between the two groups; of course, there was a third set of interests that both commercial and critical lexicographers agreed had a claim on the field: linguistic theory. One of the programmatic calls that issued forth from within this general state of affairs concerned what is called ‘the dictionary user’. The study of the dictionary user seems likely to be a project where cooperation could readily be developed among the varied interest groups. Indeed, as we look back over the past fifteen years, there is evidence that lexicographers and metalexicographers have created a recognizable body of literature that draws on multiple perspectives, especially that of dictionary makers and of applied linguistics.


Our claim is that for terms which are created in full awareness of retrospect lexicalisation the historical information on the coming into existence of the concept is part of its essential meaning. Not only can the terms not be understood fully without the time information, what is more is that the concepts are shaped in time and only exist in time. The characteristics which make up part of the concept's meaning are structured in time.

Phonology leads into another point. Pawley and Syder (1983) and Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) argue the case forcefully for 'lexical phrases': semifixed lexicalizations which are used to structure discourse or to prepackage responses, evaluations, and so on, for example

\textit{Come to think of it, It doesn't bear thinking about, I thought you knew, What I'd like to do today is..., I think the most interesting one is...}. It is accepted that there is a very large number of these, yet they are difficult to identify or inventorize. In fact, this may only be possible if their phonological realizations are considered, rather than their graphological forms or syntactic structures: it seems more likely that they could be identified by looking at the tone unit structures of utterances (see Brazil 1985): then lexical phrases can be distinguished as recurrent realizations forming complete tone units, rather than by being syntactic units or semantically/pragmatically non-compositional strings. From the dictionary point of view, the traditional inventory of the lexical units of a language may not be wholly appropriate for spoken language. Should dictionaries even attempt to be repositories of spoken discourse?


Corpus data shows that there is no simple and clear distinction between written and spoken modes: neither mode is monolithic, and each comprises many genres and subgenres with their own structural patterns and conventions. There does, however, appear to be a discontinuity between conversation and other spoken modes, such as monologues, lectures, screenplays, semiscripted broadcast journalism, and so on. This can be demonstrated by considering just the ten most frequent forms in a series of subcorpora of British English in The Bank of English, as in Table 1. These subcorpora are ordered crudely according to formality, and they consist of data drawn from respectively the semitechnical journal \textit{The New Scientist} (6 million words); the broadsheet newspaper The Times (21 million); a collection of fictional and non-fictional, non-journalistic prose works (42 million); the now defunct tabloid newspaper Today (27 million); transcriptions of semiscripted broadcasts from the BBC World Service (19 million); and transcriptions of unscripted conversation (20 million).


The following study has been carried out within a larger research project concerning the lexical organisation of verbs in Swedish seen from a crosslinguistic perspective (Viberg 1994a, 1996). From a semantic point of view, verbs can broadly be divided into the macrofields Concrete (Physical Action) verbs, Mental verbs and Grammatical verbs. Among the Concrete verbs, the verbs of motion hold a central position. Verbs of motion can be divided into subjective verbs of motion such as \textit{walk} and \textit{run}, which describe the displacement of the subject, and objective verbs of motion, such as \textit{throw} and \textit{put}, which describe the displacement of the object. Directional verbs such as \textit{falla} 'fall' and \textit{stiga} 'rise', have meaning components which more or less exclusively belong to the spatial domain. Many motion verbs such as \textit{springa} 'run' or \textit{kasta} 'throw' in addition to the displacement of the subject or object also describe a characteristic bodily activity, which in certain uses may be the focused part of the meaning, for example \textit{kasta med huvudet} 'toss one's head' or \textit{sparka med benen} 'kick one's legs'. Even if such bodily activities involve stationary motion, they do not describe displacement (or change of place). A more thorough treatment of the motion verb field in Swedish is given in Viberg (1992).

Viberg, Å. \textit{The Meanings of Swedish dra 'pull': A Case Study of Lexical Polysemy}. EURALEX '96 PROCEEDINGS (pp. 293-308)
Write the topic sentences for each of the following paragraphs using a word/phrase from each of the columns in the table provided (subject, verb, complement/object and adjunct).

Paragraph 1

Firstly, they live in or on a host, and do it harm. The depth to which they penetrate the host varies, as indeed does the damage. Fleas, leeches and lice live on the surface and cause superficial injury. Athlete’s foot is a skin disease caused by a fungus living in the surface layers of the foot. The parasite of sleeping sickness is found in the host’s blood wriggling between blood corpuscles. Secondly, parasites show some simplification of body structures when compared with free-living relatives. Sacculina (a relative of the crab) shows loss of limbs and is reduced to a mass of reproductive tissue within the abdomen of its crustacean host. Dodder, a plant parasite, lacks leaves, roots and chlorophyll. Thirdly, although all organisms show adaptations to their way of life, in the case of parasites they are often associated with a complex physiological response, e.g. the ability to survive in regions almost devoid of available oxygen, such as adult liver flukes, or the hooks and suckers of adult tapeworm. Lastly, parasites exhibit a complex and efficient reproduction, usually associated in some way with the physiology of the host, e.g. rabbit fleas are stimulated by the level of sex hormone in their host.

(J. Hard, (1975). Biology, p. 57)

Paragraph 2

In 1920 an average of 2.75 pounds of waste were produced each day by each individual in the United States. Today the quantity of waste produced is 53 pounds per person, and by 1980 it is estimated that this will rise to 8 pounds per person. One year’s rubbish from 10,000 people covers an acre of ground to the depth of 10 feet. In one year Americans throw away 48 thousand million cans, 26 thousand million bottles, 430 million tons of paper, 4 million tons of plastic and 100 million tyres which weigh almost a million tons.


Paragraph 3

something around us and from which we cannot escape; an ever-present part of the environment, just like the air we breathe. That it might be experienced in any other way seems unnatural and strange, a feeling which is rarely modified even when we begin to discover how really differently it is handled by some other people. Within the West itself certain cultures rank time much lower in over-all importance than we do. In Latin America, for example, where time is treated rather cavalierly, one commonly hears the expression, "Our time or your time?" "Hora americana, hora mejicana?"

(Edward Hall, (1973), The silent language, p. 6)
Paragraph 4

From the late 1870s onwards, cheap American corn began to arrive in the country in large quantities, along with refrigerated meat and fruit from Australia and New Zealand, and in a period when both farmers and businessmen were complaining of depression, standards of living rose higher than they had ever done. The change began each day, as Victorian writers frequently pointed out, with the food on the breakfast table - with eggs and bacon as staple fare for the middle classes - and went on through tea, high or low, to multi-course dinners or fish-and-chip suppers. The poor were eating better as well as the rich. The annual per capita consumption of sugar, which had increased from 18 lb. to 35 lb. between the Queen’s accession and 1860, rose to 54 lb. in 1870-99 and 85 lb. in 1900-10; that of tea, which along with beer had now become a national drink, went up from 1½ lb, first to 4¼ lb and then to 6 lb.


Paragraph 5

The first is the way in which living cells develop an energy currency. This, like ordinary money, can be used to exchange one vital commodity for another. The second is the use of substances called enzymes as go-betweens to reduce the amount of energy needed to make many chemical reactions essential to life take place fast enough.

(The sciences: Michael Beazley Encyclopaedias (1980), p. 136)

Paragraph 6

At first it was little more than a trickle. For a long time the Norman conquerors did not mix much with their Saxon subjects. There are plenty of indications of this; for the languages, too, moved side by side in parallel channels. The custom of having one name for a live beast grazing in the field and another for the same beast, when it is killed and cooked, is often supposed to be due to our English squeamishness and hypocrisy. Whether or not the survival of this custom through ten centuries is due to the national characteristics in question it would be hard to say, but they have certainly nothing to do with its origin. That is a much more blame-less affair. For the Saxon neatherd who had spent a hard day tending his oxen, sheep, calves and swine, probably saw little enough of the beef, mutton, veal, pork and bacon, which were gobbled at night by his Norman masters. There is something a little pathetic, too, in the thought that the homely old word, stool, could be used to express any kind of seat, however magnificent, until it was, so to speak, hustled into the kitchen by the smart French chair. Even the polite, however, continued to use the old word in the idiom ‘to fall between two stools’.

Owen Barfield: History in English Words (Faber, 1954)
A               B                        C                        D
Nutritionists as well as economists and sociologists brought about an influx of French words --
Parasites can be reduced both what the Victorians ate --
People of the Western world, particularly Americans, exhibit four features and how much of it.
Still another aspect of pollution have interpreted of time as something fixed in nature
The complexities of biochemistry is that of solid wastes. that collectively identify them as such.
The conquest of England by the Norman invaders tend to think to two fundamental processes. which went on increasing in volume for more than three centuries.

**TASK 5: From topic sentence to text**

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The topic sentence is generally the first sentence of a paragraph and expresses the main idea to be developed there. Look at the topic sentences below and think about what kinds of information you would expect to follow. Then choose two of the topic sentences and write the remainder of the paragraph to which they belong. Each paragraph should be about 80-100 words in length.

1. The government of the United States of America consists of three main branches.

2. Deforestation has a direct effect on food supplies.

3. Although development in the Third World is intended to increase self-reliance, the actual result is often increased dependence on the West.

4. There is a mistaken idea that, because of pocket calculators, children no longer need to learn how to do basic arithmetic.

5. There are a number of reasons to justify a country possessing nuclear weapons.
Transitional Devices

Transitional devices are like bridges between parts of your paper. They are cues that help the reader to interpret ideas as a paper develops. Transitional devices are words or phrases that help carry a thought from one sentence to another, from one idea to another, or from one paragraph to another. And finally, transitional devices link sentences and paragraphs together smoothly so that there are no abrupt jumps or breaks between ideas.

There are several types of transitional devices, and each category leads readers to make certain connections or assumptions. Some lead readers forward and imply the building of an idea or thought, while others make readers compare ideas or draw conclusions from the preceding thoughts.

Here is a list of some common transitional devices that can be used to cue readers in a given way.

To Add:
and, again, and then, besides, equally important, finally, further, furthermore, nor, too, next, lastly, what's more, moreover, in addition, first (second, etc.)

To Compare:
whereas, but, yet, on the other hand, however, nevertheless, on the contrary, by comparison, where, compared to, up against, balanced against, vis à vis, but, although, conversely, meanwhile, after all, in contrast, although this may be true

To Prove:
because, for, since, for the same reason, obviously, evidently, furthermore, moreover, besides, indeed, in fact, in addition, in any case, that is

To Show Exception:
yet, still, however, nevertheless, in spite of, despite, of course, once in a while, sometimes

To Show Time:
immediately, thereafter, soon, after a few hours, finally, then, later, previously, formerly, first (second, etc.), next, and then

To Repeat:
in brief, as I have said, as I have noted, as has been noted

To Emphasize:
definitely, extremely, obviously, in fact, indeed, in any case, absolutely, positively, naturally, surprisingly, always, forever, perennially, eternally, never, emphatically, unquestionably, without a doubt, certainly, undeniably, without reservation

To Show Sequence:
first, second, third, and so forth. A, B, C, and so forth. next, then, following this, at this time, now, at this point, after, afterward, subsequently, finally, consequently, previously, before this, simultaneously, concurrently, thus, therefore, hence, next, and then, soon

To Give an Example:
for example, for instance, in this case, in another case, on this occasion, in this situation, take the case of, to demonstrate, to illustrate, as an illustration, to illustrate

To Summarize or Conclude:
in brief, on the whole, summing up, to conclude, in conclusion, as I have shown, as I have said, hence, therefore, accordingly, thus, as a result, consequently, on the whole