

MODULE I

1

UNDERSTANDING ACADEMIC COMMUNICATION PROCESS

Unit Structure

- 1.0 Objectives
- 1.1 Academic Communication- Introduction
 - 1.1.1 Concept of Academic Communication
 - 1.1.2 Elements
 - 1.1.3 Significance
- 1.2 Models of Communication
 - 1.2.1 Linear
 - 1.2.2 Interactional
 - 1.2.3 Transactional
- 1.3 Types of Communication
 - 1.3.1 Target related
 - 1.3.2 Process related
- 1.4 Let us Sum up
- 1.5 Unit End Questions
- 1.6 References

1.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, the student will be able to:

- Define academic communication
- Explain the concept of academic communication
- Describe the elements of academic communication
- State the significance of academic communication
- Differentiate among the various models of academic communication
- Discuss types of communication

1.1 ACADEMIC COMMUNICATION- INTRODUCTION

Nature and Purpose of communication:

Definitions and meaning of communication:

Several scholars have been studying communication for centuries. As such great deal has been learnt about what it is and how it works (Bell and Smith, 2006). To communicate effectively, you need to consider:

- i) How communication takes place, and
- ii) How people could communicate even better.

The word 'communication' is derived from the Latin word 'communicare', which means 'to make common' (Bell and Smith, 2006, p. 14). The primary meaning of communication is not to recite, deliver, speak, write or sermonize.

Academic communication, also called scholarly communication, refers to the methods of communication that are highly structured and generally only used in Communication is paramount of education. Whether it is the teacher, student, admin, parent, communication is needed to make sure that relationship of each are secured towards the aim of producing a successful students. Communication is something that does not always happen. Sometimes is a lack of time, a lack of resources, and a lack of knowing how to get the Human civilization predates communication by millennia. When there was no developed language, man communicated with his fellow beings using sounds, signals, and gestures. The ability to communicate at the primitive level gave an evolutionary advantage to mankind. Humans who could interact were better able to cooperate, share information, create better tools, and warn others of danger. Human society would not have been what it is now without communication. Communication is what has made mankind the most sophisticated, sensible, and successful species on the planet.

Despite the fact that communication is essential for human survival, our ability to communicate, as well as the various modalities in which we communicate, is sometimes taken for granted. So, it is crucial to first understand "what is communication?"

Communication: Meaning:

The act of conveying information is known as communication. The word communication stems from the Latin word 'communis,' which means 'common public,' and is formed from 'communicatus' perfect passive participle of 'communico' which means 'to share. 'Giving, receiving, or exchanging ideas, facts, information, signals, or messages through proper media is communication. It empowers individuals and groups to persuade, seek information, deliver information, educate, argue or express feelings. Let us analyze the definitions provided by scholars on the subject to better grasp the term 'communication'.

According to **G.G. Brown** (2009), "Communication is the transfer of information from one person to another, whether or not it elicits confidence; but the information transferred must be understandable to the receiver".

Adams and Calanes (2006) states that "Communication refers to the perception, interpretation and response of people to message produced by other people." Further, John Adair posits that "Communication is essentially the ability of one person to make contact with another and

make himself or herself understood". While Schramm (1993) expresses "Communications is the mechanism through which human relations exist and develop".

Emphasizing the various processes of communication, Keith Davis defines "Communication as the process of passing information and understanding from one person to another." He further explained, "It's essentially a bridge of meaning between people," and that with this bridge, one can safely cross the river of misunderstanding.

In the same line, Louis Allen describes, "Communication is the sum of all the things one person does when he wants to create understanding in the mind of another. Communication as a bridge of meaning. It involves a systematic and continuous process of telling, listening and understanding."

In the words of Gerber (1957), "communication is social interaction through messages". While **Koontz and O'Donnel**, opines, "Communication may be understood "as the exchange of information at least between two persons to create an understanding in the mind of the other, whether or not it gives rise to conflict."

In brief, communication can be defined as the process of generating meaning through the transmission and reception of verbal and nonverbal symbols and signs influenced by multiple contexts. It is a two-way process that involves at least two person or parties i.e., the sender and the receiver.

It is clear from the aforementioned definitions, that communication is a systematic and continuous process of expressing, listening, and comprehending that involves the exchange of ideas, thoughts or information among people. Communication always happens in some context such as relational, cultural, academic, business or psychological. A key part of communication is ensuring that a message is understood correctly. When all the people who are interacting, are apparently on the same level of understanding and comprehension, communication happens. As a result, communication is determined by what is understood rather than what is expressed, whether verbally or nonverbally.

In layman's terms, communication refers to the day-to-day conversations and discussions that we all have. Though the term "communication" refers to all human interactions, it is not synonymous with talking, chattering, or blabbering in a senseless manner. Communication has different purposes depending on how one can use communication. Academic communication is much different from business communication or social communication. In the following subunits, the concept of Academic communication, elements and significance are discussed in depth.

1.1.1 Concept of Academic Communication:

Communication is paramount of education. Whether it is the teacher, student, parent or administrative persons, communication is essential to ensure that each relation is built on and is working for producing successful students. Communication in the academic setting involves more

than just informal conversation. As a student or a research scholar who works on a project and develop his/her argument, communication necessitates him/her to think more logically and coherently. It is expected of a university student to present their conclusions and arguments in this academic manner.

In the 1580s, the word "academic" was first used in the English language. It has its root in the Latin term 'academicus', which itself is derived from the Ancient Greek Ἀκαδημία (Akadēmía), the name of an olive grove dedicated to the goddess Athena that was situated in North Athens and where the renowned Greek philosopher Plato (who lived between 427 and 347 BC) constructed his school. The online Merriam-webster Dictionary defines academic as "relating to, or associated with an academy or school especially of higher learning." Essentially, the scholarly pursuits of a school, college, or university, particularly one for higher education, are referred to be as 'Academic'. These activities are related to knowledge, creation and its development.

The meaning of the term 'communication' has already been dealt with in previous section. Let us try to understand the concept of the term Academic+Communication. The necessity of distinguishing between basic interpersonal communication and cognitive academic language-based communication was brought to the attention of the education community as early as the 1980s by Jim Cummins. In the USA, his work has had an especially large impact.

Cummins (1984) states that, "Conversational (social) language, also known as basic interpersonal communication, consists of the language skills that are needed in day-to-day social interaction". While "Academic language-based communication, on the other hand, refers to the linguistic ability to manipulate and interpret language in the kinds of cognitively demanding, contextually reduced texts that are associated with schooling" (Cummins, 1984). The mastery of academic language-based communication is reported to require five to seven years, depending on their prior educational and literacy experiences.

American Library Association in the article Principles and Strategies for the Reform of Scholarly Communication defines "Academic communication as the system through which research and other scholarly writings are created, evaluated for quality, disseminated to the scholarly community, and preserved for future use". This definition is limited to only scholarly settings from research and publication purpose. According to it, the process through which research and other academic works are developed, assessed for quality, communicated with the scholarly community, and preserved for subsequent use are referred here as academic communication.

Academic communication refers to highly structured communication approaches that are typically only applied in pedagogical settings. Academic communication is a type of communication that stresses one

particular subject area while concentrating on establishing or supporting a theory or point of view.

In the simplest words, communication that is used for academic purpose is known as academic communication. In essence, it is a method of acquiring and disseminating knowledge to an audience that will benefit from it. Journal articles, papers, monographs, reviews, and chapters in edited collections are among the works that academics most frequently produce for publication. Some examples of academic communication activities for students include essays, research papers, symposia, seminars, research proposals, thesis papers, and dissertations. For any student in general and especially of higher education like PG, M.Phil. or Ph.D. skills for academic communication both in oral and written form is highly required.

Academic communication differs from everyday communication in that it is considerably better researched, biases are accounted for, all plausible arguments are made, sources are thoroughly acknowledged, etc. Its objective is to provide the readers with evidence based accurate information. Citations and references are included. It follows a specific structure.

The aforementioned definitions and discussion reveal that the concept of academic communication encompasses the following dimensions:

- Academic communication is a complicated, dynamic, and creative process.
- Academic communication is a practice that is extensively institutionalized and regulated.
- Academic communication is formed as a general welfare to promote in inquiry and knowledge, which is one of its core qualities.
- Academic communication also includes ideas that are presented effectively and formally in a scholastic manner.
- Unlike non-academic communication that concentrates on a general subject rather than an academic subject, Academic communication contains contents on specific discipline or field.
- Not only the words and structures used to represent ideas, but also the techniques by which ideas are disseminated, are all essential for academic communication.
- Academic communication can be both in written or oral form. For example, writing research proposal and delivering its presentation.
- Article, research paper, academic essay, book review, symposia, text book analysis, handbook, referencing, repertoire, etc. have a specific place in academic communication.
- It is a focused communication that presents an idea or argument using evidence, analysis and interpretation.

- It is mostly formal. It includes proper planning in terms of understanding the subject with all attached connotations, selecting a topic, doing proper research using primary and secondary sources, taking up notes to build up an argument, and come up with clear conclusions.
- It typically has a particular audience or reader who belongs to the same field on which the academic communication is focused on.
- It plays a crucial role in the development of the student's personality and future preparedness.

The best way to sum up the communication that academics and students make is "communicating to exhibit what has been learnt." Academic communication is used to exhibit what has been learnt and how that learning has been used. They communicate to discuss and explore different topics, make arguments, and convey it to specific audience. They must convince readers of a specific theory or provide research-based information.

There is a great deal of responsibility involved in academic communication. Since the wider populace cannot dedicate their working day to research, they frequently need to rely on experts for such academic communication. Such communication when it is in form of research receives significant public funding, either directly via federally financed research initiatives or indirectly from state funding of scholars at state higher education institutions. Furthermore, the great majority of academics do, publish, and distribute their research with no prospect of receiving immediate financial compensation.

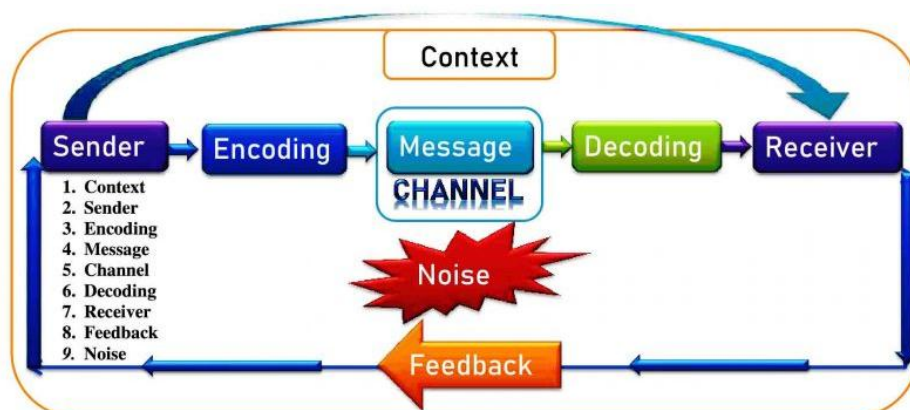
1.1.2 Elements:

Elements of communication are the fundamental means of exchange of information through which the communication process is carried out. The cycle of information exchange between the sender and receiver is initiated and regulated by elements of communication. The elements of communication are therefore crucial and interrelated parts of the communication process. The basic elements that are integrated in communication, whether it is interpersonal communication or business communication or academic communication, are: Context, Sender, Message, Channel, Encoding and Decoding, Receiver and Feedback. The elements are discussed below with sufficient detail.

Context:

The key component of any communication process that regulates the flow of information between senders and recipients is the communication context. Context refers to the environment of communication in which the interaction happens or takes place. This setting may also be geographical, physical, historical, psychological, academic, social, temporal, or cultural. Everything that is said or communicated in a climate that either makes the message appropriate or inappropriate, effective or ineffective.

For example, a researcher may ensure optimum success by sharing information with group of his classmates or colleagues rather than sharing it with someone who is not from same academic or interest background.



Source: <https://newsmoor.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/11/Communication-elements-elements-of-communication-9-elements-of-communication-process-are-sender-encoding-message-channel-decoding-receiver-feedback-context.-scaled.jpg>

Sender:

The person who sends the message to the recipient is known as the sender. The sender is sometimes referred to as the source or encoder of message. By sending a message or piece of information, the sender starts the communication process. As a result, the sender plays a crucial role in the communication process. Consequently, a sender is a speaker, writer, or other someone who offers the data to express beliefs, concepts, and messages.

In the context of Academic communication, the message the sender intends to convey must answer: Why is it significant to send the message? What is its primary goal? Will it be understood completely? Then only the usefulness and accuracy of the information being provided is established. Here, the teacher, faculties, research institute, researcher, studentetc. plays the role of sender.

Code:

A systematic arrangement of symbols is employed in human communication, much like in computers, to convey information to the mind of receiver. Words, phrases, and sentences transform into 'symbols' that are employed to bring to mind up pictures, ideas, and thoughts in the minds of others. Verbal codes consist of symbols and their grammatical arrangement. A systematic arrangement of symbols is employed in human communication, much like in computers, to convey information to the recipient's mind. Words, phrases, and sentences transform into symbols that are employed to bring to mind up pictures, ideas, and thoughts in the minds of others. Symbols and their grammatical arrangement make up verbal codes. Every language is a code. All symbols other than words,

such as bodily movements, use of time and space, dress and other adornments, and noises other than spoken language, are considered nonverbal codes.

For example, the language related basic elements of an academic communication that are to be kept in mind while planning a communication are:

- (a) **impersonal language:** being more impersonal by avoiding pronouns in place of "you can see use it can be seen"
- (b) **nominalization:** nouns instead of verbs e.g. instead of "academic scores needs to improve", use "improvement of academic scores is needed"
- (c) **formal and precise language:** unambiguous and precise language with formal vocabulary. Avoid using the words "don't," "won't," "can't," and other colloquialisms
- (d) **cautious language:** Avoid using absolute certainty statements and instead use terms like "suggests," "indicates," and so on.

Encoding and Decoding:

If the communication uses codes, the process of communication may be seen as one of the encoding and decoding processes. The act of converting a concept or thought into code is known as encoding. Assigning meaning to that concept or thought is the act of decoding.

Message:

The information, ideas, emotions, thoughts, attitudes, and points of view that the sender intends to convey to the recipient are referred to as the message. Any communication mechanism seems to depend heavily on the message. Any type of communication, which includes exchanging ideas, views, thoughts, and information, conveys the message. Both verbal and nonverbal messages are used in communication. The words spoken during the interaction are included in verbal messages. Nonverbal cues include gestures, posture, eye contact, physical appearance, and facial expression. In essence, senders must therefore make sure that the message is clear and comprehensible. Spoken words, written words, facial expressions, eye contact, audio message, videos, emails, and text messages are the most typical forms of messages in communication.

For example, A message in form of document intended for academic purposes must have a clear objective in order to be considered academically sound. It should be developed from credible sources and only include information that is relevant to the objective.

Channel:

A channel is a means or device used to convey a message. It is also referred to as a communication medium since it is used to send and

receive messages. Different channels are used by communicators in various contexts of communication. A researcher can utilize journal publication, newspapers, and internet to spread information. To converse with someone who lives far away, people utilize computers and mobile phones. To have virtual group meetings, many individuals use free online meeting platforms google Meet or Microsoft Team. When a recipient's spontaneous reaction is necessary, some people prefer face to face communication or an email or a letter. Blogs, official websites and social media platforms are channels of communication used widely in this era.

For example, Face-to-face communication like research proposal presentation uses the sender's senses such as hearing, seeing, smelling, touching, and tasting, are the channel of communication.

Receiver:

In contrast to the sender, a receiver is a person to whom the communication is addressed. The audience of the communication process is the receiver, who decodes the message to understand its meaning. Receivers can be a single person, a small group, or a large population. The degree to which the decoder understands the message relies on numerous aspects such as knowledge of the receiver, their attentiveness to the message, experience, trust and relationship with the sender.

It is to be noted here, the teacher, faculties, research institute, researcher, student etc. alternatively plays the role of receiver in Interactional and Transactional communication.

Feedback:

Feedback is a crucial component of communication since it engages the receiver or the audience as well as the sender or speaker at the same time. It is the last stage of communication and verifies that the receiver has understood the message in both text and spirit.

For example, as the research proposal is being presented, the audience is responding either verbally or nonverbally. The speaker checks to see if his/her audience members comprehend him well. Their feedback in the form of clarification-seeking queries, nods of agreement, or expressions of perplexity in their eyes directs for the future steps as researchers.

Apart from the above discussed elements, there are extraneous components of communication that prevent recipients from understanding the message. Communication experts always try to keep noise to a minimum during interactions since it is an undesired component of the process. Any impediment that prevents efficient communication is referred to as noise or barriers in that context. In reality, noise is present in all forms of communication, including face-to-face, group, mediated, and so on.

As a result, it makes complete sense that knowing how communication works and which are the elements involved would make the person more

mindful of what happens during communication. It also makes the person aware of what may be done to make sure the message is understood well. In academic setting, where expressing ideas and information needs to be more efficient, the knowledge about the elements usually ensures that the message in form of certain statements or opinions are not construed incorrectly and is properly understood both in oral and written form. The channels or mediums of communication are chosen with caution. The context is included in the message as well as an attempt is made to understand the target audience.

1.1.3 Significance:

Nowadays, academic communication is evolving rapidly, and more teachers, researchers and university professors are increasingly creating and maintaining personal webpages or academic blogs in addition to using social media to facilitate teaching and learning and disseminate knowledge. Academic communication is an important component of learning and is required in higher education institutions, regardless of the eventual career route the students choose. Academic communication is not just confined to the auditoriums, lecture halls and classrooms of institutions but is carried out through software and applications, like Moodle, in the virtual environment. Both educators and students have access to video lectures that are delivered as MOOCs. Coursera, Edx, SWAYAM, and other well-known websites that provide MOOCs are among the best. In this virtual era, the academic communication comprises the concepts of knowledge sharing, open access to scientific information, and presenting the lectures of renowned professors from other universities or through TED talks. The following discussion touches on a few of the points on the significance of academic communication.

- It is the basic necessity for education to happen. As stated by Tsvetanska (2006) “Academic Communication is the main factor allowing the effective conduction of the educational process and that the communicative competences are part of the professional mastery of the teacher”.
- Academic communication has the power to completely change someone's personality as the person will communicate with clarity and always substantiate his/her ideas with facts and data. Those who communicate well with interviewers about their abilities and knowledge are more likely to gain employment after completing their education. Thus, indirectly it helps in career advancement.
- Academic communication is significant for advancing academic conversations and intellectual debate. In a higher education setting, students and academicians utilize it frequently for scholarly conversation with their peers and teachers. It is significant as it enables individuals to synthesize intricate ideas and concepts and write arguments, summaries, and hypotheses with clarity.
- In order to train students and professionals to develop cognitive, psychomotor, and social skills, academic communication skills are

more crucial than merely having specialized knowledge. These abilities are essential for surviving and advancing in higher education institutions. It has a significant impact on the lives of students and working professionals majorly throughout their academic career.

- Academics that engage in conducting research require to bring funding. Grants are the main source of funding used by academics to support their research initiatives, which may also involve paying for interns, assisting with experiments, maintaining equipment, keeping resources available, and organizing community outreach. Academic communication in written form for grant submission remains the communication that counts heavily.
- Researchers and students communicate their work to the public in large part through the publication of results. A researcher places the highest value on communicating new finding. As performance is ascertained by how much, how frequently, and how well the work has been published, the ability to communicate academically becomes crucial in this situation.
- Apart from writing research proposals and papers, academics have to communicate orally on a regular basis on a lot of occasions. Conferences, presentations, seminar, symposia, teaching, group presentations, workshops, panel discussions or webinars are the occasions where educators and students are engaged in academic speaking. Such programme provides favorable opportunities to them for sharing the work, brainstorming on crucial areas, refocusing as necessary. Clarity of thought and appropriate tone and language for the target audience are required when expressing ideas and thoughts for such occasions. A well- crafted academic communication can serve these purposes.
- Academic communication is essential for the spread of knowledge and for advancement. It also facilitates academic listening, understanding the point of view of teachers or fellow researchers and asking them questions with confidence which will help them gain more knowledge.

Thus, communication serves as the cornerstone of both academic and professional success. Researchers and students feel empowered when communication is used effectively. It enables individuals to express when and how their academic needs aren't being addressed. When communicating in any academic or professional setting, it enables individuals to make decisions about structure and organisation, speaking style, complexity, intelligibility, and audience.

Check your progress:

1. What is Academic Communication?
2. Discuss the significance of Academic communication.

1.2 MODELS OF COMMUNICATION

Given the nature of communication which is rather complex, it can be challenging to understand the way communication happens in various context. Communication models make the process simpler by giving a visual depiction of the numerous elements of a communication. Models are helpful because they make it possible to describe communication, apply communication concepts, and see particular elements and steps in the communication process.

Models of communication are conceptual frameworks or theoretical explanations of how people communicate. Actually, it depicts the entire process of information sharing between the sender and the receiver. The elements of the communication process, such as context, sender, receiver, encoding, decoding, channel, message, feedback, and noise (discussed in 1.1.2), are articulated by communication models. These elements of communication sum up the whole exchange of information. The communication model also clarifies the obstacles to communication, commonly referred to as communication barriers, that come in the way of effective communication. Effective communication procedures are impeded by communication barriers or noise.

Furthermore, the communication model tries to answer the crucial questions regarding communication process; for example,

- What is communication?
- Who is a part of this procedure?
- When does it take place?
- Where does it occur?
- Why does it happen?
- How is communication carried out?

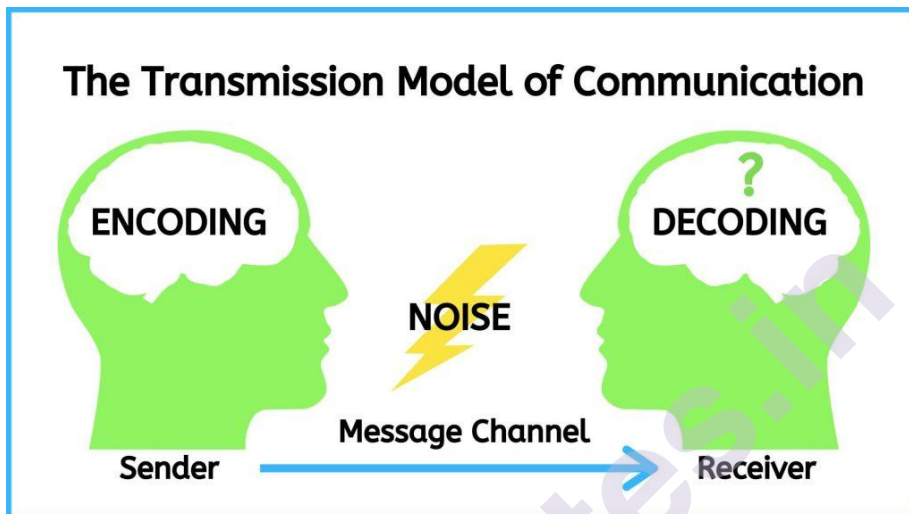
The three models of communication are the Linear Models of Communication, the Interactive Models of Communication, and the Transactional Models of Communication. Each of the three models are discussed in detail in following sections.

1.2.1 Linear Models of Communication:

Linear model of communication, also referred as Transmission Model, is the fundamental communication model. Linear communication is generated by a single source with no response. In a communication encounter, linear model focuses on the sender and the message. Despite being an element of the model, the receiver is seen more as a target or an endpoint than as a part of a continuous process. In this situation, it is assumed that the recipient either gets and comprehends the message effectively or fails to do so. A sermon, a marketing advertisement, and a voicemail left on an answering machine are some examples. Hence, a one-

way communication without feedback characterizes the linear model of communication. Without obtaining feedback, the sender communicates with the recipient. This model places responsibility on the sender to ensure the message is effectively communicated since it is sender- and message-focused.

This model has limitations since it prioritizes the sender's communication style while giving little consideration to the recipient's response. It is also limited in terms of message, because it just assesses whether or not the message was delivered.



Source: <https://pressbooks.library.ryerson.ca/communicationnursing/wp-content/uploads/sites/99/2020/03/Transmission-Model-of-Communication.jpg>

Aristotle's Model of Communication from 300 BC, Lasswell's Model from 1948, Shannon- Weaver's Model of Communication from 1949, and Berlo's SMCR Model from 1960 are examples of several academics who have developed linear communication models.

- I. Aristotle was the one who first suggested and discussed a distinct model of communication in 300 BC. His model is now known as the Aristotle Model of Communication. The Aristotelian Model of Communication outlines that in order to determine the most effective way to communicate, we need consider the speaker, speech, occasion, target audience, and effect of a communication encounter. The model was developed to look at ways to communicate more effectively and persuasively. Additionally, he listed three modes of persuasion that will enhance communication: ethos i.e., credibility, pathos i.e. ability to relate or connect, and logos i.e., logical argument.
 - Ethos is concerned with authority and degree of credibility of the speaker or writer, particularly in connection to the subject at hand.
 - Pathos refers to the audience and how they respond to the speaker's message.

- In particular, the facts, assertions, and other components that make up the argument are referred to as the speaker's Logos.

The speaker is the central figure in communication, according to the Aristotle Model of Communication. All communications are solely the responsibility of speaker. In this model of communication, it is crucial that the speaker makes thoughtful choice of words. He must assess his audience before preparing his speech. Even today, many people still prepare seminars, lectures, and presentations using the basic Aristotelian Model.

This model has been particularly criticized for considering only a directional process of communication, from speaker to receiver. It completely neglects the dynamic process of communication where both sender and receiver are active. The importance of feedback in communication is not taken into account by Aristotle's model.

II. Model of Communication by Lasswell provides a fundamental framework for studying one-way communication by asking five basic questions—who created the message (sender), what has been said (message), through what channel (medium), to whom (audience), and what is the effect on receiver (effect). Because it views learning as proceeding in just one direction, it is best known as the original linear model. The key components of the model based on five questions are as follows:

- **Control analysis:** According to Lasswell, the sender is the primary factor to consider when determining who controls a communication.
- **Content analysis:** Lasswell is recognized as one of the pioneers of content analysis. When we examine a message's content, we genuinely attend to what is being stated.
- **Media analysis:** The medium is the channel through which information is sent from the sender to the recipient.
- **Audience analysis:** This process involves analysing the audience to ascertain which messages are more effective for certain demographics.
- **Effect analysis:** After the sender has delivered their message, an effects analysis is conducted to discover whether the message has influenced the receiver, public in general.

This model is helpful because it enables a very easy and practical way to analyze a message by looking at five crucial components by asking questions. It outlines a five-step process for analyzing and evaluating any communication. The model is particularly beneficial for studying marketing and mass media.

It only looks at communication as linear process ignoring cyclic approach. This model ignores the possibility that receivers of communication may

likewise send messages back to the sender. Noise, which may result into misinterpretation, is not taken into consideration.

III. The SMCR Model of Communication by David Berlo (1960) depicts communication in its most basic form. The four components that describe the communication process: Source, Message, Channel, and Receiver are all abbreviated as SMCR. The distinctive feature of this model is that it provides a thorough description of the essential components, Source, Message, Channel, and Receiver, in each phase that will influence how well the message is conveyed. The key components of the model are as follows:

- The sender of the message is the source who composes and sends the message to the receiver. The Sender's communication skills, attitude, knowledge, social system and culture are among the elements for Source.
- The information that is delivered from the sender to the receiver is known as the message. Content, elements, treatment, structure and code are all elements of the Message.
- The channel is the medium through message is sent. The senses of hearing, seeing, touching, smelling, and other senses are elements of the Channel.
- The receiver is the one who gets the coded communication and then decodes it. The communication skills, attitude, knowledge, social system and culture of the Receiver are among its elements.

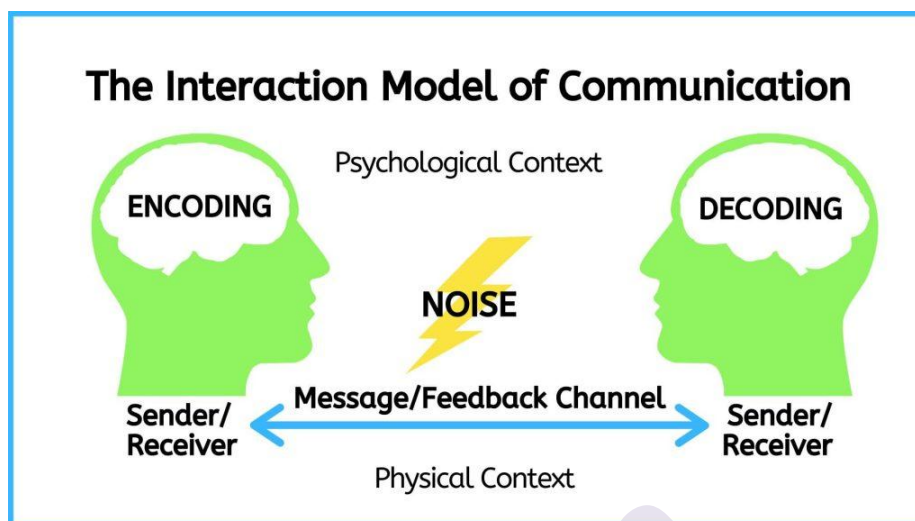
According to Berlo's model, the source and the receiver must be on the same level for communication to be effective. But in real life, that does not happen very often. This communication model also emphasizes the coding and decoding of the message. SMCR model of communication has been criticized as is rather complicated. Even, feedback is neglected in this model. Practically nothing is documented about the effects. Apart from these, communication barriers are not acknowledged.

1.2.2 Interactional Models of Communication:

The Interactional Model of Communication is a relatively recent development. The two-way process of communication with feedback characterizes the interactional model of communication. The Interactional Model of communication describes communication as a process in which participants alternate positions as sender and receiver in order to maintain communication. Rather than having one sender, one message, and one receiver, this model has two sender-receivers who exchange messages.

This model includes feedback, which transforms communication into a more participatory, two-way process rather than depicting it as a linear, one-way process. Feedback, however, does not occur simultaneously, therefore it produces gradual and indirect feedback. If the recipients do not respond to the senders, communication may occasionally be linear.

Human interaction with artificial intelligence (AI) robots, interactive media like video games, interactive characters and other forms of art are some recent examples of this communication.



Source: <https://pressbooks.library.ryerson.ca/communicationnursing/wp-content/uploads/sites/99/2020/03/Interaction-Model-of-Communication.jpg>

The interactional communication model implies mediated and internet-based communication. Example of Interaction models are:

- I. Osgood-Schramm's Model of Communication from 1954 examines reciprocal communication and demonstrates the need for real-time encoding, decoding, and interpretation of information during a conversation. According to Schramm (1955), "In fact it is misleading to think of the communication process as starting somewhere and ending somewhere. It is really endless. We are really switchboard centers handling and re-routing the great endless current of information."

This model highlights four important ideas:

- The communication is circular rather than linear
- The communication is equal and reciprocal.
- After receiving a message, there is a lot of interpretation required
- Encoding, decoding, and message interpretation are the three phases that every communication involves.

The cyclical feedback is effectively explained by this model. As two-way communication keeps on going in its circular pattern, each person is both receiver and a sender. Linear models, which ignore feedback and dialogue, consider communication to be a one-way path. It affirms that communication is a complex process by accounting for need of encoding, decoding and interpretation. This model illustrates how we actively

interpret the information we get, in contrast to other models that regard information receivers as passive recipients.

This model fails to explain a situation where communication entails a single authoritative figure speaking while one or more listeners attempt to decode what they heard. In contrast to Schramm's concept, communication is far less equitable in these situations. As a result, this approach frequently fails in circumstances where there are power imbalances.

II. While in 1957 Westley-Maclean's came up with Interactional Model of Communication that demonstrates how our communication is impacted by environmental, cultural, and personal influences. This model highlights following important ideas:

- It asserts that the message sender is not where the communication process begins. Instead, it begins with environmental factors that impact the sender. The sender will be inspired to compose and share a message by some external stimuli.
- It may be used to explain both interpersonal and public communication. It includes concept of 'gatekeepers' - the editor of the message and 'opinion leaders' - one key person like political leader or social media influencer for the mass communication
- Additionally, it recognizes the need of feedback in communication. The feedback from receiver can prompt the message sender to craft a new message that has been improved in light of the received feedback.

The merit of this model lies in acknowledging the subjectivity or personal bias, that plays significant role in the encoding and decoding of messages. It emphasizes how social and cultural elements may affect how communications are received. The model is versatile as both interpersonal and public communication are covered here. It also acknowledges the role of feedback in communication which was not present in earlier Linear Models.

However, it has been criticized for giving greater weight to the message sender than the feedback of the message. The Osgood-Schramm model presents a more impartial view of feedback mechanisms. In an era of new media when anybody may produce writings that can be disseminated over the internet to masses, the "gatekeeper" phase may be a little out of date. The noise that influences the message during communication is not taken into consideration by the model. The model also doesn't convey a lot about the communication channel.

1.2.3 Transactional Models of Communication:

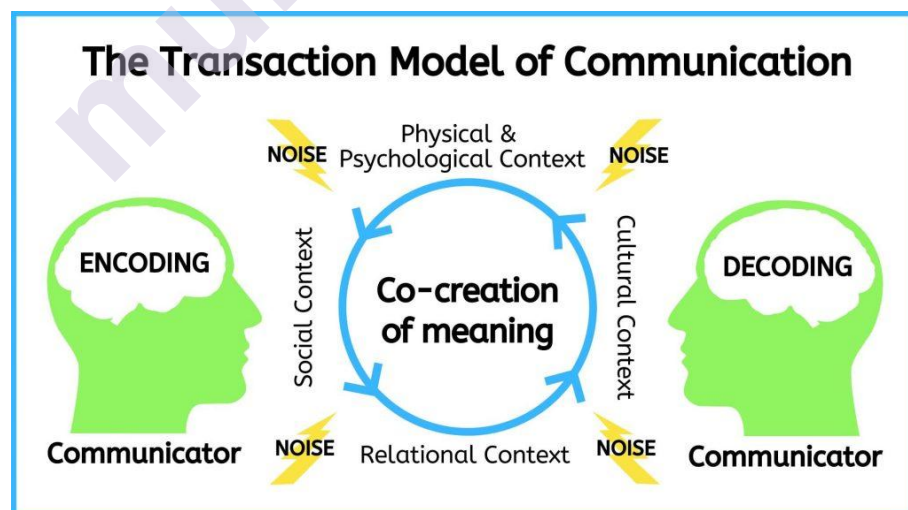
Interaction between two persons, which is the most prevalent mode, is transactional communication. A question-and-answer session or a written discussion are some examples. The transactional model is built using the linear model as a foundation. A two-way communication process with

immediate feedback characterizes the Transactional Model of Communication. The transactional modes of communication require simultaneous feedback, which is the key element of this model. Therefore, if there is no feedback, the communication process will not turn transactional. Direct and prompt feedback is provided in this mode of communication. The receiver is compelled to respond immediately.

The Transaction Model of communication is fundamentally different from the Linear and Interactional Models in terms of how it conceptualizes communication, how sender and receiver roles are played, and how context is incorporated. Feedback is received indirectly in Interactional Model as opposite to direct feedback transactional models.

According to the Transaction Model of communication, communication is a process through which communicators create social realities in a variety of social, relational, and cultural settings. Feedback received indirectly and directly is a crucial difference between the interaction and Transactional models. In contrast to, the Interaction Model, which suggests that participants alternate positions as sender and receiver, the Transaction Model suggests that the participant is simultaneously a sender and receiver. Instead of labeling participants as senders and receivers, they are referred to as communicators in this model.

Additionally, the Transactional Model incorporates a greater understanding of context. According to the Interaction Model, the context has both positive and negative effects on communication. Despite the fact that these effects are significant, the Interactional model concentrates on message transmission and reception. This model provides a broader perspective and a deeper comprehension of the roles that intrapersonal, interpersonal, and contextual factors play in communication.



Source: <https://pressbooks.library.ryerson.ca/communicationnursing/wp-content/uploads/sites/99/2020/03/Transaction-Model-of-Communication.jpg>

Transactional communication models include Eugene White's Model of Communication from 1960, Dance's Helical Model of Communication from 1967, and Barnlund's Transactional Model from 1970.

I. Frank Dance introduced the helix model of communication in 1967, it was first known as "Dance's Helix Model of Communication." According to Dance's Helical Model, communication is a circular process that becomes increasingly complex as it actually happens. This process may be seen as a helical spiral. The model asserts following views on communication:

- Communication is cyclical.
- Time and experience have an impact on it. Every communication experience, whether it be a conversation with a relative or a chance to speak in front of an audience at public gathering, teaches us how to communicate more successfully in the future.
- It is ongoing.
- It doesn't perfectly repeat itself, as the information received will be used in smarter or informed way by the individual.
- It is accumulative that becomes more complex and "knowledgeable" with time.

Dance's model has several advantages. the model accounts for the dimension of time, which is rather neglected by other models. This model is really comprehensive as it depicts a single instance of communication between two individuals or the development of a single person's communication abilities over time. The model considers how complexity rises as a result of learning over the span of a communication cycle. Further, there is a recognition that every event has an influence on our future behaviour.

On the contrary, the approach presupposes continuity and does not take into account the instances when communication breaks down or when we are not improving our communication skills. In this model, the significance of forgetting or erasing previous forms of communication is not well understood. It may be assumed that communication development is, in some sense, just linear. There is never a step back. Due to its abstract character, the model is a little ambiguous in comparison to other models, such as the Osgood-Schramm and Lasswell models.

II. Barnlund's Transactional Communication Model (1970) taken by critics as the most systematic model of communication, is a multi-layered, feedback system. Sender and receiver alternate roles in this ongoing process, and each play an equally significant role. Both sides are continuously providing input while the communication is being passed. The message for one is also the feedback for the other. Barnlund identifies three types of cues: behavioral, private, and public. Cues in this context refers to the signs to take action. The

importance of both private and public cues in influencing our communications is highlighted by Barnlund's Transactional Model of Communication. Public cues, or environmental signals, and private cues, or a person's own ideas and his/her background, are both important, according to Barnlund.

This model emphasizes the factors that affect what we believe and say by putting a focus on cues. The interpersonal, immediate-feedback communication is examined under the Barnlund Transactional Model of Communication. The idea that the recipient's response is the sender's feedback is at the core of this model. However, the model has been criticized as very complex.

In nutshell, communication models are genuine results of comprehensive study by several scholars on many aspects of communication. A communication model provides a thorough knowledge of a system or structure, allowing the researchers and students to comprehend related systems or structures. One-way communication is studied using linear models. Two-way communication is analyzed in interactive models. Transactional models focus on two-way communication where the immediate and direct feedback is involved.

Check your progress:

1. Compare the three models of communication: transactional, linear, and interactional.
2. Which are the four essential components of SMCR Model of Communication by David Berlo? Explain in brief.

1.3 TYPES OF COMMUNICATION

Communication is the process of transmitting data with a specific audience through speech, signs, writing, or behaviour. In the communication process, the sender encodes a message and then uses a medium or channel to deliver it to the audience or receiver, who decodes the message and then sends back the proper feedback or response using a medium or channel after processing the information. Depending on the message and the context in which it is being conveyed, people can communicate with one another in a variety of different ways. All these elements involved in the communication process determine various ways of communicating. The types of communication represent the different ways used to communicate messages. There are various types of communication based on process involved, intended target, media used or based on the purpose and style. The following sections discuss Target related types of communication (1.3.1) and Process related types of communication (1.3.2).

1.3.1 Target related:

A target or audience is the person or group of people to whom a piece of information in the form of message is intended to reach. In other words, it

is important for a sender to know who will be receiving the message. Thus, the target or the audience is the person or group of people the source or sender is aiming for or trying to reach. Target based types of communication are:

- Intrapersonal Communication (communication within oneself),
- Interpersonal Communication (communication between two individuals),
- Small Group Communication (communication that involves 3 or more people who actively participate with each other),
- Public communication (communication that occurs in a large context usually with one person (or a small group) speaking to a larger audience).

1. Intrapersonal communication:

Understanding how to speak with oneself first is a prerequisite for all forms of human communication. The silent conversations, quiet dialogues, or internal discussion that we make with ourselves constitute intrapersonal communication. Intrapersonal communication is any communication that an individual has with oneself. For example, it can be a mental dialogue where the one gives commendation for achievement of some benchmark or, an attempt to come out of some ethical dilemma through silent conversation with self. It also covers diverse activities like monologues, inner speech, solo writing etc. To-do lists, journals, assignment notebooks, calendar reminders, and other items can also be included. Some key features of Intrapersonal communication are:

- Intrapersonal communication is greatly influenced by the person's inner sentiments or ideas.
- The individual is both the source of information and the target. He/she acts as both the sender and receiver of the message.
- Media used here can be the mind, diaries, to-do list, photo album, audio/video recordings.
- The purpose of this communication is not exchange of information but thought and analysis. It entails self-thinking, analysis, thoughts, assessments, etc. associated with the inner state of mind.
- It can be difficult to identify feedback for intrapersonal communication. The individual alone is responsible for how he/she respond to his/her own feelings, thoughts, and ideas.
- Intrapersonal communication is centred on one's own self-concept. It involves assessing one's own attitudes, values, and beliefs and using those assessments.
- Visualizations or imaginative activities, or recalling some memory may be part of intrapersonal communication.

Intrapersonal communication is crucial as we interact with ourselves through intrapersonal communication for everything may it be planning, problem-solving, resolving internal conflicts, reaching clarity and evaluating and judging oneself and others. An individual needs interpersonal abilities including listening, empathy, and leadership in order to get along with others in day-to-day life situations. These abilities are enhanced by stronger intrapersonal communication that amplify one's understanding of his own self, emotions and thinking. Therefore, developing intrapersonal communication skills will probably help the individuals to comprehend and treat others well. Through intrapersonal communication, the individual can find options and alternatives for how to proceed and assess the possibility of those various aspects by envisioning and viewing a problem from a different perspective. Consequently, it improves the decision-making as he/she is at better position to understand the consequences of different decisions.

2. Interpersonal communication: (One-to-one):

Interpersonal communication, also known as dyadic communication, takes place when two people who are physically present are engaging in or exchanging information, ideas, attitudes, and sentiments about a personal, societal, organisational, national, or international issue. It is a process of face-to-face communication between two people in which messages may be verbal or may not contain any words at all but instead include gestures, particular postures, and facial expressions. Here we are referring to just one-to one, based interpersonal communication. The interpersonal communication wherein more than two people are involved is dealt in 'small group communication'.

Accordingly, Interpersonal communication is the verbal or nonverbal exchange of information, ideas, and feelings between two individuals. The efficacy of conveying messages to others functions as a measure of one's interpersonal communication level. The key features of this communication are:

- In interpersonal communication, the dialogue involves at least two communicators. As their communication progresses, the two individuals will alternate between the roles of message sender and message receiver.
- The message is among the most crucial elements of interpersonal communication. There are various methods to communicate a message, including speech, body language, tone of voice, gestures, and other signs.
- Interpersonal communication is context-specific. The context includes time and place as well as elements like personal interests, gender, culture, and the environment.
- Interpersonal communication is mostly face-to-face. Emails and internet services are two of other popular forms of communication channels, in addition to face-to-face interactions.

- Feedback from the receiver allows the sender to regulate, adapt or repeat the message in order to improve communication.
- Noise is the gap between the message that is sent and received. Jargon, communication difficulties, inappropriate tone or body language, distraction, and other factors are examples of noise.

Here, the intended target is mostly in face-to-face situation with the source hence communication process is considered to be the simplest. But people misunderstand each other even in the simplest of interactions, so it's necessary on the part of the sender to find the simplest possible manner to deliver his/her point. The receiver could find it difficult to comprehend the message if the sender strays from the subject and change his/her line of thought frequently. In interpersonal communication, if the sender speaks in a patronising manner or disregard for the receiver, it hinders smooth communication.

Enhancing trust requires effective interpersonal communication skills. Interpersonal communication abilities are essential because they enable people to discuss issues and consider the advantages and disadvantages of potential solutions before choosing the best one. Examples of interpersonal communication that is often employed include daily internal meeting with research guide at PG department, project discussion with partner or online conversations.

3. Small group communication:

Small group communication is a form of interpersonal communication that unfolds between more than two individuals. Small group communication describes interactions between three or more people who are connected by a common objective, shared identity, a group understanding, or some mutual influence. Though the participants are more than one-to-one interpersonal communication, the number of participants in the communication is still small enough to allow all participants to interact with all the other participants, at one point in the conversation. For example, small group communication is necessary during brainstorming sessions, or among the members of a study group. Some of the prominent features are:

- In small group communication, the dialogue involves more than two people.
- In this communication different members of the group may take on different roles.
- Small groups are interdependent, which means they have a same goal and are connected by a common objective or shared identity.
- All members of the group are impacted if the activities of one or two group members cause the group to stray from or fail to accomplish its goal.

- It is goal-oriented. Small groups generally concentrate on some sort of task completion or goal accomplishment, while interpersonal connections largely focus on relationship development.
- Group communication is more intentional and formal than interpersonal communication.

In a small group, the communication will proceed in one of the two modes described below depending on the group's structure:

- **Decentralized:** In a decentralised group, no one assumes leadership or manages communication; studies show that decentralised groups perform better while working on more difficult and time-consuming projects.
- **Centralized:** In a centralised organisation, there is a central authority who serves as the group's coordinator and who guides discussion. According to studies, centralised groups are far more effective for tasks that demand for quickness and efficiency.

Communication among small groups boosts overall performance and effectiveness. It is crucial that everyone feels appreciated and free to express their opinions. It promotes strong group rapport and camaraderie as well as projects and supports a sense of trust and dependability. Additionally, effective group communication promotes good trust between colleagues or classmates. By fostering a culture of trust and transparency, group members who effectively communicate are far more motivated to offer much better solutions.

However, unless the small group is discussing a specific topic, it may become difficult for all the participants to fully comprehend what the others are trying to convey. Apart from it, Task-oriented interactions, such as selecting who will complete each part of a project or assignment, is also one of the communication difficulties that groups face. However, a lot of difficulties are brought on by interpersonal disputes or miscommunications inside the group. Element of interpersonal communication also occurs in group communication since group members also connect with and relate to each other on a personal level. These relationships may sometimes hinder of group interaction.

4. Public communication:

In public communication, one individual is normally responsible for conveying information to an audience. It is a sender-focused kind of communication. Public communication is a crucial component of our academic, professional, and civic life, much like group communication. Public communication is the consistently deliberate, formal, and goal-oriented type of communication when compared to interpersonal and group communication. A good example would be the prime minister speaking to the public about the several projects that are currently in development. Other examples are principal's speech during general assembly or election campaigns etc.

- Public communication consists of one individual or group of individuals sharing information with another group of individuals. It is specifically the sender-focused
- The receivers are a large group of individuals who are listening to the speaker/s in public as they share information.
- The message sharing needs to be more formal and intentional as compared to interpersonal or group communication.
- The means of distributing information to the general audience, such as a Slide presentation or a video presentation.
- Though feedback is present in form of cheers or responses from the target audience. This type of communication does not have much scope of individualised feedback.

The key to effective public communication is being aware of the heterogeneous audience. Before beginning speech or presentation, the speaker should be aware of his audience because they may not be familiar with his jargon. Even the speaker must consider the audience's level of familiarity with the topic. Public communication involves not just selecting what to say, but also how to express it. Effective public communication is characterised by verbal clarity, keeping a steady pace that everyone can follow, and a powerful voice that is audible to everyone. Public communication might, however, end up being a one-way process and switch to linear communication. Care must be given to allow time for questions and comments from the audience by pausing after each segment of the presentation or speech.

When a public communication is disseminated by print or electronic media to a large audience, it becomes mass communication. Print media such as newspapers journals, books and magazines continue to be an important channel for mass communication. Electronic media like television, websites, blogs, podcasts, e-journals, e-books, and social media are mass communication channels that are used more frequently. Mass communication differs from other kinds of communication due to the technology needed to convey messages in large numbers to masses.

1.3.2 Process related:

Communication is always done with a purpose i.e., with the objective of evoking the desired response out of the recipient, to the communication made. When it comes to the categorization, communication is classified on different basis. Communication process especially in formal type flows in upward, downward, horizontal/lateral or crosswise directions. None of these types is inherently superior or inferior to the others, and one should rely on them all for optimum results in diverse situation.

1. Downward communication:

Downward communication is when information is sent downstream from the superiors to the subordinate level in the chain of command.

Downwards communication occurs when information is sent from leadership to those at lower levels of the organisation. Messages come from higher-ups and are directed at subordinates. Depending on the significance of the message and the level of the people involved in the communication process, it may be written or oral form. An information source, an audience, and a communication channel are all components of downward communication. This type of communication is mostly public.

It aids in directing and controlling the subordinate. At the same time, through feedback, it promotes the efficiency of the upward communication. It mostly entails conveying the plans and policies to subordinates, and in particular, giving commands and directives to staff members so they may initiate acting in accordance with them to complete their assigned tasks. It mostly consists of orders and instructions and is majorly used to communicate new information or direct or delegate tasks. The most often used communication tools are reports, emails, letters, manuals, guidelines or advisory etc. For example, a research guide pins the document link containing guidelines for preparing research proposal for research fellows working under him so they can access it anytime. Here the communication progresses from top to down level.

However, the message is frequently distorted or diluted in downward communication. Every time information is passed from one person to another, some of its accuracy is lost. The fact that downward communication usually takes a lot of time is another disadvantage. The likelihood of a delay increases with the number of tiers. Mid-level employees occasionally withhold crucial information from the staff. The employees feel so powerless, frustrated, and confused in such a circumstance. It also tends to promote one-way communication.

2. Upward communication:

As the name implies, upward communication is the communication where information or messages flows between or among the subordinates and superiors of the organization. It processes through different links in the scalar chain from subordinates to midrange and higher level. The message travels upward from the subordinate level to the leadership level. This communication proceeds up the hierarchical chain, from subordinates to their superiors. It enables leadership to communicate with team members and enables team members to express issues, ideas, opinions, etc. This type of formal communication is really feedback to downward communication. Upward communication is hardly one-to-one interpersonal.

Here, requests, reports, suggestions, complaints, and queries are all forms of communication that go from subordinates to leaders. For example, progress report submission by Ph.D. student, which passes through guide and submitted to university department. Grievances, problems or difficulties of subordinates forwarded to superiors, at appropriate levels is also an example of it. It also entails clarifications sought by subordinates from superiors as to the orders and instructions issued by the superiors. It

reinforces innovative suggestions and ideas from subordinates. It establishes cooperation and harmony between management and employees.

The core issue with upward communication has a psychological basis. Most powerful people still dislike having suggestions from subordinates. Additionally, workers are reluctant to approach superiors and start an upward conversation. Sometimes, subordinates may get overconfident and bring their grievances to the attention of the highest authority. As a result, the relationships between the employees and their direct superior deteriorate. At the same time, there is also a possibility of purposeful manipulation of information for personal gain by subordinate.

3. Lateral or Horizontal Communication:

Horizontal or lateral communication takes place between staff members or departments that are on an equal level in terms of position or rank. Horizontal communication is the communication where information or messages flows between or among the parallel or among individuals who are assigned the same rank. It assists in preventing work duplication and resolves issues across departments. It facilitates in preserving the social and emotional support from peer group. It is required to coordinate the actions of people performing the same type of work for personnel of equivalent rank. This type of communication allows smooth functioning as it encourages communication and coordination amongst different departments. Though it cut across departmental barriers, it can be misused for spreading rumours and wrong information.

This is just regular, everyday interaction between co-workers, which enables them to plan projects, address issues, assist one another, etc. Alternatively, it is communication between entire departments that allows them to coordinate. Verbal or written communication can occur between individuals for lateral communication. This type of communication is either one-to-one interpersonal or group communication.

4. Crosswise or Diagonal communication:

Crosswise communication occurs when information flows between persons at different levels who have no direct reporting relationship. Diagonal or crosswise communication happens when personnel from various departments and levels speak to one another without regard to the chain of command. For example, a student who wants to give best during his/ her VIVAs, assignments and other seminar presentations takes help from every possible source and person from the department and can approach some online tutoring as well.

It is used to speed information flow, to improve understanding to coordination etc. for the better achievement of goal. Through informal gatherings, formal conferences, lunchtime gatherings, general announcements, etc., this crosswise communication serves the crucial function of coordination. Giving lower-level employees the chance to speak with superiors in casual settings boosts their morale and increases

their loyalty. However, the superior can consider it to be an offence because his subordinate has received undue attention and has been passed over. Since he was also not contacted, the superior might not be able to implement the idea. Internal anarchy and hostility from others may result from the absence of approved procedures.

Numerous types of communication are available all around the world, and they are all necessary in some way. According to the requirements, environment, usage, and tools taken into account for communication, there are also a number of variants and distinctions in the communication types. In light of all of the above-mentioned types of communication, it is vital to be aware of the numerous types and subtypes of communication in order to improve our ability to express ourselves clearly, as well as our ability to understand others and be understood by them.

Check your progress:

1. Describe types of communication based on the process.
2. What is interpersonal communication? How is it different from intrapersonal communication?

1.4 LET US SUM UP

The American screenwriter Charlie Kaufman once remarked that “Constantly talking isn’t necessarily communicating.” Essentially, effective communication entails more than just information exchange. It also calls for effective information transmission, which means that the information must be adequately communicated by the one providing it and correctly interpreted by the one or group receiving it. In this Unit, we discussed the concept of Academic Communication, certain foundational elements of communication in general and its significance in communication. It further discusses the details of three models and various types of communication with relevant examples.

1.5 UNIT END QUESTIONS

1. Explain the concept of Academic communication.
2. “Communication is the mode of conveying messages to specific audience.” Justify with reference to the elements of communication.
3. Discuss in detail the linear model of communication.
4. What is transactional communication model? Discuss Frank Dance’s the helix model of communication.
5. Explain Small-group Communication and public communication with suitable examples.
6. Describe upward, lateral, downward and crosswise communication with suitable examples.

7. Differentiate these two types of communication: interpersonal and intrapersonal communication.

1.6 REFERENCES

- "Principles and Strategies for the Reform of Scholarly Communication 1", American Library Association, September 1, 2006. Document ID: e34e8161-fa32-5cd4-19d7-8614fd62e9c3retrieved from <http://www.ala.org/acrl/publications/whitepapers/principlesstrategies>
- Haneda, Mari. (2014). From Academic Language to Academic Communication: Building on English learners' resources. *Linguistics and Education*. 10.1016/j.linged.2014.01.004. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/260296219_From_academic_language_to_academic_communication_Building_on_English_learners_resources
- Mavrodieva, Ivanka &Simeonov, Todor &Nikolova, Anita. (2017). Features of the Academic and Pedagogical Communication in Virtual Environment. *US-China Foreign Language*. 15. 10.17265/1539-8080/2017.09.008. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/321967696_Features_of_the_Academic_and_Pedagogical_Communication_in_Virtual_Environment
- Wambui, Tabitha. (2015). Communication Skills, Students Coursebook. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/303893422_Communication_Skills_Students_Coursebook
- <https://helpfulprofessor.com/communication-models/>
- <https://newsmoor.com/3-types-of-communication-models-linear-interactive-transactional/>
- <https://open.lib.umn.edu/communication/chapter/1-2-the-communication-process/>
- <https://students.unimelb.edu.au/academic-skills/explore-our-resources/developing-an-academic-writing-style/key-features-of-academic-style>
- <https://pressbooks.bccampus.ca/professionalcomms/chapter/3-2-the-communication-process-communication-in-the-real-world-an-introduction-to-communication-studies/>
<https://pressbooks.library.ryerson.ca/communicationnursing/chapter/transaction-model-of-communication/>
- https://pumble.com/learn/communication/communication-types/#Types_of_business_communication

- <https://slcc.instructure.com/courses/398556/pages/communication-concepts#:~:text=In%20the%20linear%20model%20of,model%20people%20BUILD%20shared%20meaning>
- <https://smallgroup.pressbooks.com/chapter/introduction/>
- <https://www.etymonline.com/word/academic>
- <https://www.montgomeryschoolsmd.org/curriculum/esol/cpd/module2/docs/cummins.pdf>
- https://www.tutorialspoint.com/effective_communication/effective_communication_models.htm
- <https://www.yourarticlelibrary.com/business-communication/4-types-of-direction-in-formal-communication/28014>

munotes.in

ACADEMIC COMMUNICATION SKILLS

Unit Structure

2.0 Objectives

2.1 Overview

2.2. Academic Listening-

- a) Introduction
- b) Define Listening
- c) Cognitive Components of Listening
- d) Affective Components of Listening
- e) Behavioural Components of Listening
- f) Listening skills and the competent listener
- g) Cognitive Listening Competence
- h) Stages of Listening

2.3 Academic Reading

- a) Introduction
- b) Academic reading -Meaning
- c) Academic reading Steps

2.4 Ethics and Etiquettes in Academic Communication- General and Social Media

- a) Ethics for Academic Communication
- b) Academic Etiquettes-General
- c) Academic Etiquettes-Social Media

2.5 Let Us Sum Up

2.6 Unit End Questions

2.7 References

2.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain the meaning of academic listening.
- Discuss the components and steps of academic listening.
- Explain the meaning of academic reading.
- Describe the steps of academic reading.
- Discuss the ethics in academic communication.
- Describe the general and social media etiquettes.

2.1 OVERVIEW

Like academic writing, academic communication that is delivered face to face is distinctive in many respects. Perhaps the most obvious feature is the use of words that are specific to academic communication and to the subject being talked about. These words bring with them sentence constructions that are often more conventionalized and elaborate than those in less formal registers. The goal of using these precise forms is to be maximally explicit about argumentation and logic, including forms of logic specific to the discipline. Conventional ways of speaking also help maintain consistency with what other scholars have said and written, reducing unintentional slippages in meaning. In this unit we will learn listening and reading skills for academic communication and process for the same. While using academic communication which ethics do we have to follow and academic etiquette are necessary in general and social media.

2.2 ACADEMIC LISTENING

A) Introduction:

Listening represents a kind of “human behavior that almost everyone thinks important.” Abilities to comprehend, understand, and reflect spoken language are universally recognized to help foster professional success and personal happiness alike. Listening is important to parenting, marriage, salesperson performance, customer satisfaction, and healthcare provision and the list could go on. Quality listening can enhance others’ ability to cope with and remember events and those who are able to display quality listening on a consistent basis (i.e. competent listeners) are more liked, rated as more attractive, and garner more trust than those less proficient. Good listening has additionally been linked to academic motivation and achievement and a higher likelihood of upward mobility in the workplace. Adding to the importance of listening, research finds that natural decrements in the ability to process speech can negatively impact individual and relational health and well-being.

Comprehension is but one goal of listeners who also aim to learn, connect, relate, support others, find enjoyment, release tension, critically evaluate evidence, and achieve numerous practical aims.

In addition to being essential, also incontrovertible is that listening skills can be taught. Thus, it likely comes as no surprise that numerous taxonomies have been developed to delineate the skills necessary for listening competence. What most of these lists have in common is a focus on not only the cognitive facets of listening (the primary focus of past research) but also its affective and behavioral components. Indeed, listening is simultaneously a cognitive, affective, and behavioral phenomenon, something that occurs internally but also something that is judged as competent (or incompetent) based on overt behavioral responses in specified contexts.

B) Define Listening:

In common parlance, listening and hearing are often used interchangeably. For example, asking, did you hear me? or, were you listening? Will not change the recipient's reaction for most intents and purposes. Parents wishing children were more obedient or teachers wishing students were more attentive are equally likely to use either question without giving much thought to differences among terms. Listening scholars are, however, quick to separate the capacity to hear from the ability to listen. While hearing denotes a capacity to discriminate characteristics of one's environment through aural sense perception, listening is a relationally oriented phenomenon; it "connects and bridges". To listen thus involves skill sets that go beyond the physiological requirements to perceive sound.

C) Cognitive Components of Listen in:

Listening has been defined in hundreds of ways, with most definitions stressing how people come to understand and respond to orally delivered speech, a focus that can be traced to early models of language competency. Early models of language competency defined listening as a higher-order cognitive process that involves "taking in sounds" along with an active choice of the individual to select and attend to particular sound, for particular purposes. As a result, most models of listening set hearing as the first step in a complex set of processes including attention, selection, comprehension, understanding, and responding.

The HURIER model presents hearing as an innate, reactive, and passive process, something that operates as a "mechanical" or automatic outcome of the operation of the auditory anatomical structure. Hearing does involve a complex set of sensory and brain processes that allow humans to detect and use sounds (Davis, 1970), and these are non-trivial to be sure. Nevertheless, most models assume that hearing is not under conscious control. Whether sleeping or awake, humans are constantly processing sound; that is, vibrations pass through our ears and are processed in our brains continuously, not all of these sounds, however, are attended to consciously. Most sounds we hear are not "listened to" cognitively, that is, in the language of the HURIER model, understood, remembered, interpreted, evaluated, and responded to.

Over the past several decades, scholars have broadened our understanding of listening by defining it not only as a set of complex cognitive processes, but also a complex set of affective and behavioral processes. Affective components of listening include how individuals think about listening and their motivation and enjoyment of the activity. Individuals' views about listening and their barriers to attending to others can have profound effects on comprehension and understanding as well as consequences for personal, professional, and relational success. Listening behaviors are actions such as eye contact and asking questions that serve to signal attention and interest to others. The responses that listeners enact while engaged with another are the only signals that listening is taking (or has taken) place. Finally, cognitive elements of listening are those internal

processes that operate to enable individuals to attend, to comprehend, interpret, evaluate, and make sense of spoken language. The notion that listening is an information processing activity consisting of a stable set of practices that can be trained and improved is the most popular way to conceptualize the term and one that has framed all listening research at least since the early 1940s. As such, I will begin my extended discussion of our multidimensional definition of listening with its cognitive components.

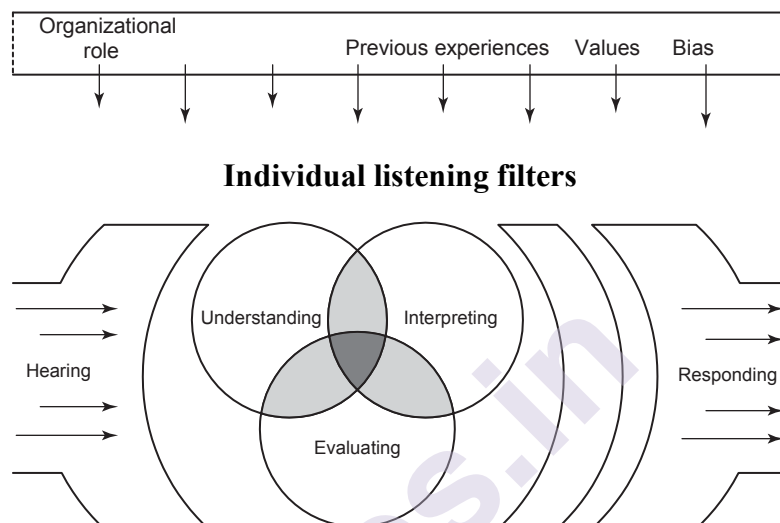


Figure 1. The HURIER listening model, reprinted by permission of Judi Brownell, School of Hotel Administration, College of Business, Cornell University

By separating listening into its constituent parts (e.g. hearing, understanding, remembering), researchers claimed an ability to develop more valid tests that could be shown unique, but complementary to, tests of other language abilities. Test development efforts defined listening research during the 1970s and 1980s, and multidimensional tests of comprehension proliferated. The development of many of these tests was largely a response to the perceived failings of those that had come before. The most popular target of criticism was the Brown-Carsen Listening Test (Brown & Carlsen, 1955) which was designed as a comprehensive test and claimed to measure recall of items, recognition of word meanings, following instructions, lecture comprehension, and inference making. Each multidimensional test developed during the 1970s and 80s held a similar assumption to prior tests: there exists some identifiable set of skills that can be taught in order for a person to become a good listener. Of course, agreement about which skills to include was far from universal.

D) Affective Components of Listening:

In addition to outlining several cognitive processes involved in listening, models (like the HURIER) also feature myriad listening filters. Common among recommendations for how to be a “good listener” include recognising biases and learning to work within one’s own and others’ attitudes and values. A focus on individual predispositions and their

influence on how people interpret and process aural information was implicit in the work of Nichols but was not formally included in cognitive models of listening until Carl Weaver published *Human Listening: Process and Behavior*. In his book, Weaver (1972) argued that a listener's "attitudes" should be incorporated as part of a "selective perception" model of listening. For the first time, a listener's willingness to or attitude toward listening was identified as a separate component of the listening process. In other words, individual choice is a key element of listening we choose to listen (or to avoid it).

Indeed, most holistic models of listening (including the HURIER) consider some form of "selective attention" a necessary first step to move from hearing to listening. In their systems model of the listening process, Imhof and Janusik (2006) introduced the notion of listening presage, which includes various individual and contextual factors that contribute to how people select among relevant listening goals. How and why individuals come to the conclusions they do as they listen has additionally been studied under the auspices of message interpretation (Edwards, 2011), relational framing (Dillard, Solomon, & Palmer, 1999), and other research programs like constructivism (Burleson, 2011) and schema theory (Edwards & McDonald, 1993).

E) Behavioural Components of Listening:

While placing an emphasis on a listener's motivation and willingness to listen in particular ways, Weaver's book set aside the listening response as a viable research trajectory. It was not until the mid-1980s and the push to develop "speaking and listening competencies" in US high schools and universities that listening scholars began to focus on the performative aspects of listening (i.e. overt behaviours). Most scholars writing in the 1970s and early 1980s considered the response phase to begin a new process, one that was more speaking-focused in nature (Ridge, 1993). Models of listening competency that stressed overt behaviours were, however, natural outgrowths of previous research emphasising outcomes of retention and recall. For instance, in Nichols's study reviewed above, the observations made by educators to classify students into upper and lower categories were based solely on outward signs of attention and engagement within the classroom setting (i.e. listening behaviours). Even so, a behavioural view of listening was not mainstreamed until the movement toward assessment and measurement was tied to federal funding initiatives in the USA.

Fundamental to the "listening as competent behavior" perspective is "the view that an identifiable set of skills, attitudes, and abilities can be formulated and taught to improve individual performance". Indeed, the phrase "listening behaviours" was used until the 1980s to describe internal actions of listeners as they processed information, and the term "response" was reserved for internal actions such as transferring information into long-term memory (Barker, 1971; Weaver, 1972). What the research between the latter part of the 1980s and throughout the 1990s accomplished was to shift the focus from covert mental processes to overt

behavioural ones. Two claims are central in this shift: (1) that our behavioural choices are moderated by our relationships and (2) that competency resides in the eye of the beholder. In other words, our listening competency is judged by others, and this judgement varies with the context. Judgements of listening competence, like judgements of communication competence, are made on the basis of the appropriateness and effectiveness of specific behaviours enacted in particular settings (Cooper & Husband, 1993; Spitzberg & Cupach, 2002).

Along with a conceptual shift, the behavioural perspective inspired new measurement techniques. Competency expanded beyond multiple-choice assessments of comprehension to include multi-item scales that could be completed by listeners, their interlocutors, and their peers, co-workers, friends, and family members (Worthington & Bodie, 2017). Along with traditional self-report measures used to assess affective components of listening, researchers began utilizing a variety of other reporting techniques including third party and critical incident techniques. Moreover, there was a growing acknowledgment that listening competency was contextual, with researchers exploring listening competency in the areas of business, education, and health. Researchers in these areas have tied listening competency (measured in multiple ways) to attentiveness, memory, and understanding, as well as employee motivation, upward mobility in the workplace, and job and class performance. At the same time, a focus on the skills needed to be judged as a competent listener meant that research was largely atheoretical in nature (Wolvin, 1999). Indeed, no unified framework currently exists to organise and evaluate competency skills, and some even take issue with the need for theoretically oriented research more generally (Purdy, 2011).

F) Listening Skills and The Competent Listener:

The difference between merely receiving an oral message and listening actively is similar to the difference between scanning a textbook and reading it for comprehension and retention. In oral communication settings there must be involved listeners attempting to internalize and evaluate the message in order for a speaker to achieve his communication objective. (Barker, 1971)

The above quote comes from Barker's *Listening Behavior*, one of the earliest listening textbooks. A major goal of Barker's text was to outline what people can do to become more active participants in (versus passive recipients of) a communication exchange. Recommendations such as Barker's were common starting points when designing multidimensional tests of listening comprehension in the 1980s and 1990s as well as attempts to develop standards for teaching listening in US schooling contexts. Furthered by federal funding initiatives in the US, several large-scale efforts were launched as well, including a series of meetings that eventually resulted in the National Communication Association's (NCA) publication of expected outcomes for the basic communication course.

NCA's definition of listening, "the process of receiving, constructing meaning from, and responding to spoken and or nonverbal messages" provides evidence that by the late 1990s competence in listening required mastery of the ABCs of listening (that is, affective, behavioural, and cognitive skills).

G) Cognitive Listening Competence:

As a reminder, cognitive facets of listening include internal processes such as attention, comprehension, interpretation, and evaluation of message content. As illustrated in the NCA list of listening skills, understanding speech is generally thought to consist of two related but unique tasks. NCA labels these literal comprehension and critical comprehension; in the second-language literature they are often referred to as abilities to understand a basic level of meaning and abilities to understand inferences and deduce meaning from "linguistic clue". Literal comprehension begins with the ability to recognise sounds and phrases. Those sounds into phrases, sentences, and longer strings of utterances. This, of course, requires various auditory processing capacities. Indeed, people who have some level of central auditory processing disorder (CAPD) can experience difficulties acquiring language or understanding paralinguistic cues (Geffner, 2007). Consequently, a basic level of auditory discrimination skill is necessary to become a proficient listener; but cognitive listening competence requires more than physiological capabilities.

Burleson (2011) offered one model of competent listening from a cognitive perspective. His model, suggests that cognitive listening competency begins with hearing (the capacity to discriminate characteristics of one's environment through aural sense perception) and moves through four additional, successive stages. Comprehension or understanding what the speaker has said involves syntactic analysis. In other words, once we have phrased the sound-waves into words and sentences, we engage in a process of inference which drives our ability to grasp exactly what the speaker is articulating. Typical measures of comprehension include memory of facts after a lecture-based presentation, and most utilise multiple choice questions scored as right or wrong (Watson & Barker, 1984). So, comprehension is completed when the listener knows what was said or expressed without necessarily knowing what the speaker means.

To understand what a speaker means, the listener goes through the third process, the process of interpretation. Edwards (2011) defined the interpretation of messages in order to be a COMPETENT LISTENER, a person must be able to follow the following steps listen with literal comprehension.

H) Stages of Listening:

A. Recognise Main Ideas:

1. Distinguish ideas fundamental to the thesis from material that supports those ideas
2. Identify transitional, organisational, and nonverbal cues that direct the listener to the main ideas
3. Identify the main ideas in structured and unstructured discourse.

B. Identify Supporting Details:

1. Identify supporting details in spoken messages
2. Distinguish between those ideas that support the main ideas and those that do not
3. Determine whether the number of supporting details adequately develops each main idea.

C. Recognise Explicit Relationships Among Ideas:

1. Demonstrate an understanding of the types of organisational or logical relationships
2. Identify transitions that suggest relationships
3. Determine whether the asserted relationship exists.

D. Recall Basic Ideas And Details:

1. Determine the goal for listening
2. State the basic cognitive and affective contents, after listening.

2.3 ACADEMIC READING

A) Introduction:

Like academic writing, academic communication that is delivered face to face is distinctive in many respects. Perhaps the most obvious feature is the use of words that are specific to academic communication and to the subject being talked about. These words bring with them sentence constructions that are often more conventionalized and elaborate than those in less formal registers. The goal of using these precise forms is to be maximally explicit about argumentation and logic, including forms of logic specific to the discipline. Conventional ways of speaking also help maintain consistency with what other scholars have said and written, reducing unintentional slippages in meaning. At the same time, speakers can extend these theories with new thoughts and invite responses from listeners, who are likely to follow the same conventions in their own talk. Thus, it can be said that academic speech is not merely a channel for transmission of completed work, but a medium for developing ideas.

Genres of academic speech include lectures and seminars, conference papers, interviews and public appearances, and online videos, as well as conversation, classroom teaching. The prototypical form is the lecture, which is a monologue by an expert. Goffman described it as “an institutionalized extended holding of the floor in which one speaker imparts his views on a subject, these thoughts comprising what can be called his ‘text.’ The style is typically serious and slightly impersonal, the controlling intent being to generate calmly considered understanding, not mere entertainment, emotional impact, or immediate action”. The goal of understanding differentiates the lecture from persuasive genres such as political speeches and sales pitches.

However, there is nevertheless a persuasive element (“understand it this way”), and persuasive speech techniques can be seen to have influenced modern lecturing formats such as academic conference talks and the franchised TED talks. For teaching, large group lecturers are often said to be a misreferenced method as students now prefer a more participatory classroom or online learning. However, it is still widely practiced in schools and universities because of its efficiency and expository power. Furthermore, conference talks are still the most popular format for face-to-face sharing of ideas among active researchers in language fields. For both these reasons it is necessary for students to become proficient in academic communication.

Learning a discipline involves developing familiarity with the ways of being, thinking, writing, and seeing the world of those experts in the discipline. Reading academic texts published by those disciplinary experts permits students to immerse in the culture of the discipline and facilitates learning its conventions, discourse, skills, and knowledge. But, this is only possible if students take a deep approach to reading.

B) Meaning:

Academic reading is different than normal reading. In normal reading we just read the content to get the idea and its lower order thinking, but academic reading is to reading is the tacit acceptance of information contained in the text. Students taking a surface approach to reading usually consider this information as isolated and unlinked facts. This leads to superficial retention of material for examinations and does not promote understanding or long-term retention of knowledge and information. In contrast, a deep approach to reading is an approach where the reader uses higher-order cognitive skills such as the ability to analyze, synthesize, solve problems, and thinks meta-cognitively in order to negotiate meanings with the author and to construct new meaning from the text. The deep reader focuses on the author’s message, on the ideas she is trying to convey, the line of argument, and the structure of the argument. The reader makes connections to already known concepts and principles and uses this understanding for problem solving in new contexts. Simply put, surface readers focus on the sign, i.e., the text itself, while deep readers focus on what is signified, i.e., the meaning of the text (Bowden & Marton, 2000, p. 49).

c) Steps of Reading Academic Texts:

Reading is a process shaped partly by the text, partly by the reader's

background, and partly by the situation the reading occurs in (Hunt, 2004, p. 137). Reading an academic text does not simply involve finding information on the text itself. Rather, it is a process of working with the text. When reading an academic text, the reader recreates the meaning of the text, together with the author. In other words, readers negotiate the meaning with the author by applying their prior knowledge to it (Maleki & Heerman, 1992).

But this process is only possible if the reader uses a series of categories of analysis, some of which are specific to each academic discipline. Thus, working with a text and recreating its meaning entail both non-discipline-specific and specific strategies. So, professors in each discipline need to teach both the general analytical tools and the discipline-specific values and strategies that facilitate disciplinary reading and learning (Bean, 1996, p.133).

Steps:

Academic texts include the following steps: (i) reading purpose; (ii) context; (iii) author's thesis; (iv) deconstruction of assumptions; (v) evaluation of author's arguments; and (vi) consequences of author's arguments.

- (i) **Reading purpose:** Teacher also preview the readings in class, and explain their relevance and purpose. Since some teachers do not clearly explain the purpose of each reading assignment to students, encourage the students to ask these teachers why they need to read a given text, what they need the text for, and what they are expected to do with the text.
- (ii) **Context:** Understanding the context helps students understand the background, environment, and circumstances in which the author wrote the text. In order to analyse the context of any given text, Teacher encourage their students to do some research about the author. Teacher wants them to understand whether the author's opinion usually reflects the mainstream school of thought in the discipline or whether the author writes from the margins of the discipline. Teacher also asks the students to analyze the audience of the text as well as when and where the text was written.
- (iii) **Author's thesis:** In order to truly appreciate the context, teacher ask the students to read two or three articles written by the same author. For example, when teacher ask the students to read some Space Law articles written by Glen Reynolds, students read a few articles the author wrote on gun control and violence (Reynolds, 2001 & 1995), which are closer to the experiences and backgrounds of the students, and which permit them to have a unique insight to the author's ideas. When reading the author's Space Law publications, which are more

sophisticated, this familiarity with the author's ideas becomes very helpful in understanding the author's Space Law texts.

Students also need to be taught how to identify the author's thesis, main claims, and arguments dealing with the issues they are interested in. For this purpose, teacher encourage the students to try to understand what the author intends to do. They need to consider whether, for example, the author intends to challenge an existing position, whether she wants to examine a variable that previous researchers have missed, or to apply a theory or a concept in a new way.

- (iv) Deconstruction of assumptions:** Students need to be taught to identify the different positions used by the author, the arguments used to hold these positions as well as the counter-arguments. Bean recommends an activity where students are asked to write what a paragraph says and what it does. This exercise helps students to identify the purpose and function of academic texts (Bean, 1996).

Unlike authors of textbooks specifically designed for the college classroom, authors of academic books and articles take for granted many concepts, principles, and debates of the discipline as they presuppose that their audience is familiar with them. So, it is important to help students become aware of these assumptions and to learn to deconstruct them. Thus, students need to examine the concepts not analysed in the text. Students need to look up these concepts in college textbooks, encyclopedias, or other reference books. Similarly, if the author refers to a debate in the discipline or is responding to another article or book, they need to briefly read about these debates or articles in other publications.

- (v) Evaluation of author's arguments:** Perhaps the single most important step of reading academic texts is for students to judge the strength or validity of the author's arguments. Teacher constantly stresses the importance of not taking the author's argument at face value. Teachers need to show our students the importance of evaluating the argument's effectiveness in making its claims, and considering the evidence the author offers in support of her claim. Students also need to ponder counter-arguments used, and the logical reasoning used by the author.

Furthermore, they need to evaluate any inconsistencies of thought, and the relevance of examples and evidence. While written in very persuasive language, the article shows some contradictions as the authors themselves end up recognizing that legal arguments do not always follow logics. Besides, more serious works in Philosophy of Law prove the contrary point (Murphy, 1967). Teacher asks the students to identify the main claims of the text and to judge the validity of these arguments. For this purpose, teacher remind the students of the need to consult other texts.

(vi) Consequences of author's arguments: Finally, it is important to help students consider the non immediate consequences of the arguments used by the author. Teacher helps them reflect about the implications and applications of the author's thesis. Teacher asks the students to make connections to other texts, to relate the arguments to other topics learned in class, and to relate the author's arguments to their own experience. For example, we read an article on terrorism in the aviation industry where the author proposes a series of measures to prevent terrorist acts. While these measures may undoubtedly deter new terrorist attacks, a careful look at the author's proposal leads to the conclusion that very few people will qualify to fly. So, my students usually argue that measures that will exclude the majority of passengers from flying are not a very sensible way of controlling terrorism. Each discipline has also its own specific categories of analysis, which need to be taught alongside these general categories.

2.4 ETHICS AND ETIQUETTES IN ACADEMIC COMMUNICATION- GENERAL AND SOCIAL MEDIA

a) Ethics In Academic Communication:

A Code of Professional Ethics for the Communication Scholar/Teacher adopted by the NCA Legislative Council, November 1999

The National Communication Association believes that ethical behavior is a hallmark of professionalism in communication. We believe that ethical behavior is guided by values such as:

- Integrity
- Fairness
- professional and social responsibility equality of opportunity
- confidentiality
- honesty and openness
- respect for self and others
- freedom and safety

The guidelines that follow offer means by which these values can be made manifest in our teaching, research, publications, and professional relationships with colleagues, students, and in the society as a whole.

This code and its guidelines are intended to remind those in the discipline of accepted standard so for ethical conduct and they serve at least three broad functions:

1. to highlight ethical responsibilities and issues relevant to members of the communication discipline;

2. to stimulate personal reflection as well as public discussion of the ethical implications of our disciplinary goals and practices; and
3. to set forth the traits and moral characteristics which are appropriate for communication professionals.

Teaching:

Our primary responsibilities as communication teachers rest in being knowledgeable, communicating what we know in a fair and accurate manner, acting as an ethical role models for students, and establishing relationships with students that enhance learning and encourage students to behave ethically.

Most important is the area of academic integrity. As teachers, we maintain high standards of academic integrity by:

- Teaching only those courses for which we have academic credentials, that is, preparation in the subject matter area and knowledge of current thinking and research related to the course material.
- Helping all students to develop their fullest academic potential; encouraging them to become engaged in learning, to think critically about readings and lectures, to reflect on what they learn and, when appropriate, to disagree with what is presented; and to participate with faculty and other students in research projects and activities.
- Acknowledging scholarly debates where they exist and helping students understand the nature of scholarly controversy, rather than presenting controversial material as “truth.”
- Engaging in classroom practices only to the extent that one is qualified to do so. For example, communication teachers should not assign exercises requiring self-disclosure by students, unless they have provided ways for students to avoid making significant disclosures without penalty. Nor should communication teachers attempt to lead exercises designed to reduce communication apprehension without being trained to do so. In designing classroom activity, the ethical communication teacher avoids putting students at psychological or emotional risk.

Using with care exercises or assignments that may conflict with the closely-held values of students. Instructors must be open to allowing alternative assignments when students object for personal reasons.

- Communication teachers display personal integrity in the classroom by their own use of ethical behaviors and by refusing to encourage or tolerate unethical behavior.
- As communication teachers, we strive to treat all students fairly and we are always concerned with fairness. We model fairness in the classroom and require that students value fairness by insisting on respectful and civil expression when discussing differing viewpoints.

We encourage listening to others and presenting ideas accurately, while acknowledging differences in points of view and personal biases. We provide, and encourage students to provide, constructive feedback to others in the class while acknowledging the value of opposing arguments and evidence. We try to foster freedom of expression and a safe classroom environment in which students communicate candidly and thrive intellectually.

- We respect and honour culturally-based differences in communication and presentational styles in and outside the classroom. That respect calls for encouraging students to communicate in multiple ways, depending on what is most appropriate and effective for given contexts and communication goals. We strive to treat all students equally by not allowing personal pre-dispositions or biases to influence how we teach and interact with students.
- We demonstrate respect for students by acts of confidentiality, keeping grades and other personal information about students private. In other matters we are honest and open. We present course objectives and requirements fully and communicate clear criteria for grading and evaluating student achievement. We present ourselves honestly to students and others, accurately describing our professional credentials, qualifications, and knowledge.
- We endeavor to assess student learning using methods and instruments that are free of bias and that provide an equal opportunity for all students to perform well. We assess students' work based on the quality of content, not the viewpoints presented.
- Finally, we accept our professional and social responsibilities as communication educators by endeavoring to improve public understanding of communication theory, research, and practice. When the opportunity presents itself, we provide information and instruction to students and others about ethical communication and how to think and behave as ethical communicators.

b) Academic Etiquette- General:

In the last decade, classroom etiquette has been harder to find than bipartisan healthcare reform. It's not a problem confined to Carson-Newman. Students in colleges all across the nation often cannot identify basic breaches of classroom and academic etiquette even when given quizzes about it. Attitudes toward learning and the classroom have been changing. Given these problems, teachers say enough is enough.

The time has come to explain some basic expectations in our classes and the reasons for those expectations. Besides, if bell-bottom jeans and tie-dye t-shirts can make comebacks from the days of yesteryear, so can that old concept, "academic etiquette."

Academic etiquette is similar to social etiquette (i.e., politeness), but it goes beyond saying "thank you" and "please," and calling your instructor "Doctor" rather than "Dude."

Class Attendance:

Attendance at all class meetings is required and a student is responsible for all the work, including tests and written assignments of all class meetings. Each individual faculty member will establish the consequences for absence and publish this in the course syllabus. If students must miss class for any reason, they are obligated to account for their absences to their instructors and arrange to obtain assignments for work missed. Students will be allowed to make up class work missed if the absence was caused by documented illness, death of immediate family member, or participation in college-sponsored activities. Otherwise, the instructor has no obligation to allow students to make up work.

Punctuality:

We imagine though, that your professor is giving you displeased looks because he's wondering the same thing we're wondering: if you know the commute is long and that parking is difficult, why not leave earlier? If you are late once (maybe twice?) over the course of a term, sometimes that can't be helped. The polite way to handle this faux pas is to slip in as quietly and quickly as possible, taking the seat nearest to the door, and apologize after class is over. Such politeness, however, loses its impact if it happens several times over the course of the semester. Then, the apology takes on a different cast; it looks smarmy and insincere. Being late regularly signals to the professor that you don't treat the class as seriously as whatever it is that you were doing that made you late. It suggests that whatever you were doing is worth regularly interrupting her class. You don't want to create that impression. Leave twenty minutes earlier and you will arrive on time, and your teachers will smile upon you.

Use of cellphone in the class:

Some people have never heard that carrying cell phones into classes (or churches, or theaters) is a breach of good manners. Cell phones ringing in class is another faux pas. Perhaps you feel you need an exception to this rule. (Say, your child is at home with a fever; you told the babysitter to call if it goes above 101°.) If so, tell us. Ask if it would be acceptable to leave the phone on. Beyond such emergencies, few good reasons require bringing a cell-phone to class. Calls from your last hot date, your stockbroker, agent, or bookie don't count as emergencies. Even "vibrate" can be distracting when that student on the third row suddenly leaps up in response to the unseen buzz. And that silent "vibrate" mode isn't so silent when the cell phone is resting against materials in a backpack or against the side of a metal furniture bar. Finally, human beings make mistakes. You might intend to set it to vibrate, or you might even intend to turn it off before you enter the classroom. In spite of those intentions, students sometimes forget. Then the phone rings. Then class is disrupted. Then etiquette is broken. It's far better not to bring the devices at all. If you

normally carry a cell phone for roadside emergencies, lock it in the dashboard of your car at the beginning of the school day. That way, you will still have it for the emergency, but you won't violate rules of etiquette.

A Rose by Any Other Name:

Many instructors treasure those academic titles. For whatever reason, many female instructors have a particularly hard time getting students to use the right titles in reference to them. One of the small perks of academic occupations is the right to use and insist upon respectful use of our academic designation, so we do.

In a democratic society, differences in rank are easy to overlook especially for students fresh out of high school who are in the habit of referring to all their instructors as "Mrs. so-and-so," or "Coach so-and-so." That doesn't prepare students for distinguishing between "Dr. so-and-so" and "Professor so-and-so." Taking the time to learn the distinctions in academic rank, and using the right title is not only respectful, it suggests a degree of intelligence on any particular student's part since she is familiar with such conventions.

The academic world has a variety of ranks beyond the B.A., the M.F.A., the M.A., and the Ph.D. Your teacher may hold the rank of instructor, lecturer, assistant professor, associate professor, professor, or professor emeritus in addition to the general title of "doctor." The correct title is "doctor" if your teacher has a Ph.D., or "professor" if your teacher has any academic rank above the level of "instructor." Teachers who hold an MFA degree or who have the rank of lecturer or instructor are politely referred to as "Mr." or "Mrs." or "Ms." as they indicate in class, though it is permissible to refer to them generically by the courtesy title of "professor," especially if you are uncertain about a teacher's rank. It's better to compliment a person by using the more formal term than it is to insult someone accidentally. The same holds true for nicknames like "doc" or "prof." It is ill mannered to assume a level of familiarity that might make another uncomfortable, and it leads to a chummy attitude that is off-putting for some instructors.

Some teachers like the informality of being on a first-name basis with their students. That informality, however, is not the default setting for your discourse. Assume you should use the formal title until the instructor specifically requests that you use his or her first name.

Class Preparation:

We'll be taking the moral high ground here, thank you very much. For us, one of the most difficult aspects of teaching is when students clearly have not prepared for the class. First, it has a profound impact on our courses. Haven't you sat through classes where every remark or question the professor makes is greeted with stony silence? Does it make you uncomfortable? Does it make the class boring? For you? For all the other students? Now put yourself in the teacher's shoes, and imagine asking questions to which no one responds. If you asked a teacher a question and

wanted an answer, wouldn't you find it rude if she just ignored you? If the teacher merely looked embarrassed and said, "I didn't do the reading for today, so I can't answer that"?

As teachers, we know that not all classes will be perfect ones. We know that some days we are "on" and doing a great job with the lecture, and some days we are "off" and the class is stumbling. We don't always blame bad classes on students. Even when we do realize that lack of preparation on your part has sunk a particular class, we're experienced enough to put a class's reactions in perspective. But if you assume that teachers don't care, you misjudge our commitment to your education and to the material we teach. We want you to learn, and failure to read assignments does not help learning. So, when your friend argues that we will explain the important bits of the texts anyway if she doesn't have time to read them, we have to wonder if she understands what we all (both teachers and students) are trying to do in a class. We wonder if she considers what effect her decision will have on the class in terms of discussion and ideas.

Meeting with the Professor:

Have you told her you can't make her office hours? Have you tried to set up a time that's agreeable to both of you? You're right; most of us do more work than our office hours indicate, but often our work involves research in the library, photocopying materials, having discussions with colleagues, attending meetings, and so on. We post office hours so you will be guaranteed a time to find us when we aren't wandering elsewhere on campus on various errands.

We might have to cancel office hours if we are called to a conference with the department head, a faculty convocation, or for other legitimate reasons (we usually post a notice on the door to indicate what's keeping us elsewhere, where we are so you can find us, or when we will return). If you come by during office hours, and we aren't in, leave a message saying that you were there and that you will return at a certain time, or that you will phone us, or e-mail us, or see us in class. None of us makes a habit of skipping our office hours. Even if we weren't motivated by the hope that an actual student will come in to chat, we would be motivated by our department chair's rebuke if we abandoned our office regularly!

That point being noted, remember that the college has two types of teaching schedules: Monday/Wednesday/Friday and Tuesday/Thursday. Teachers with long commutes are often only assigned to teach on one or the other. We may be off campus on those days when we don't teach. It is a bit unfair to blame us for not being in our offices on days when we don't teach or have posted office hours. It would be like us blaming you for not being at school when you are on vacation. If you really can't find us outside of class, corner us in class and pin us down for a meeting time. You know we'll be there.

Academic Advising:

There are two most basic complaints about the etiquette of academic advising (1) students who do not show up for appointments and (2) students who are not prepared for advising sessions.

The first point would be self-explanatory. We are annoyed when students make appointments and then don't show up. It is good manners to call and let us know that you are not going to make it. That prevents us from sitting around for a half-hour waiting for you. It also opens a scheduling slot where we can fit in other students if we know you can't make the meeting. If you are unable to cancel in advance, at least have the good grace to send us a brief personal or written apology and pretend to be sheepish about the offense. (The key word is an apology--not an excuse justifying the cancellation.) We do care if you keep appointments. Don't you?

The second complaint is more serious. While we are happy to say that most of you come in with well-planned schedules, knowing exactly what you need to take to graduate, and simply wish to double-check it with us and get our signatures, we are still surprised at the number of you who are completely unprepared for meeting with an advisor. Too many students, in our opinion, are unaware of the college requirements. We are always a bit startled by this because you (or your parents, or some scholarship committee) spent considerable funding for this education.

The college requires a good deal of clerking, i.e., filling out forms and paperwork. Advising students has more than its share of this onerous burden. It is the student's responsibility to make sure that the forms are completed, to verify that transfer courses meet college requirements, to check off those Gen Ed requirements, to choose a language to gain competence in, and to see that all grades are listed correctly in the college records. In other words, you must do a large chunk of academic planning on your own. We are here to answer questions, to give advice, to offer alternatives, to smooth the way, to open doors, to negotiate with the administration, or to let you vent when events run away. But advisors are not your clerks, your servants, or your guarantee that you will graduate. It would be foolish to behave as if we were.

Academic Honesty:

Cheating and plagiarism equal stealing. You absolutely need to understand that. What's wrong with stealing in an academic setting? To begin, let us suggest that there is a kind of implicit contract in a teacher/student relationship. The instructor's side of the contract reads: "When you enrol in this course, I promise to teach you the following things: [the teacher inserts a list of facts, ideas, or skills appropriate to that particular class here]." The student's side of the contract reads: "When I enrol in this course, I promise to complete all of the required work, to read all the assigned materials, to attend all the classes, to participate in class [and so on]." Both sides assume that what information you get in the course will either be the teacher's own or will be identified as coming from someone

else, and the student's work will be the student's own or it will be identified as someone else's.

Cheating on a test or plagiarizing in an essay breaks this agreement. The teacher has agreed to look at your work, to evaluate your ideas.

Certain questions and comments arise time and again when we discuss plagiarism:

- "I understand I have to quote something an author said, but do I have to insert citation for an idea?"
- "I found this on the Internet. Do I have to quote it?"
- "I read a lot of books for this paper. I can't remember exactly where I found this idea."
- "some makes quote everything and add a Works Cited page but some aren't as concerned about a Works Cited page if the homework is written in response to a single essay without secondary sources."

Here's the quick response: keep track of your sources and give proper citation for direct quotations, putting those direct quotations in quotation marks or indented block format if the quotation is four or more lines long. If you quote somebody who is quoting somebody else, add a note explaining that the material is an indirect quotation. If you borrow somebody else's ideas, summarize somebody else's argument, or paraphrase an idea by stating it differently than the author did, you don't need quotation marks or block quotations, but you do have to include a citation in parentheses clearly showing where the material came from, and you do need a Works Cited page. At all times, the reader should be able to see what ideas are yours and what ideas are someone else's. For the long answer, read the MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers, 7th edition, or review Writing at Carson-Newman. You know you have done an adequate job of citing something if a stranger could pick up your paper, read the citation and the Works Cited page, and go the library or website and immediately find the exact quotation or citation, flipping to the exact book or journal and the exact page number. If a stranger couldn't do that, you are missing information you need to provide.

c) Academic Etiquettes- social media:

Social media etiquette refers to the guidelines that companies and individuals use to preserve their reputation online. As social media channels have evolved to become one of the primary ways people communicate in the modern world on a daily basis, typical social rules are finding their way into digital environments. Just as social etiquette dictates how people behave around others in the real world, social media etiquette revolves around online guidelines to follow.

The basics of social media etiquette:

- The demands of social media etiquette differ from one platform to the next. For example, reposting someone's content on Instagram requires much more care than retweeting someone on Twitter.
- On the flip side, there are some basic dos and don'ts that essentially apply to all platforms:
- Don't be overly promotional. Try not to message all your customers asking them to buy your products and avoid sharing constant advertisements on your page. Make your social profiles a blend of promotional and valuable content.
- Avoid over-automation. While scheduling your posts in advance and automating analytics is helpful, don't automate everything. Some things still need a human touch.
- Handle your hashtags carefully. Avoid using too many hashtags at once. Even on Instagram, where you can use 30 hashtags in a single caption, it's important not to overdo it.
- Don't bad-mouth your competition. Don't be petty. Saying negative things about your competitors online will harm your reputation more than it hurts theirs.

Why is social media etiquette important?

- Organizations can't just delete messages that generate poor reactions anymore. A single mistake can create big problems.
- Social media etiquette is often baked into the rules of a social media policy for modern brands. This policy usually shares a complete code of conduct for anyone who interacts with a social channel:
- Protect against legal and security issues. If you exist in an industry with stringent privacy and compliance laws, your system will keep you on the right side of the regulations.
- Empower staff. When your employees know how to share content safely online, they can represent and advocate for your organization, without harming your reputation.
- Defend your brand. Social etiquette ensures that everyone who interacts with your brand on social media will see a respectable, professional business.

Social Media Guidelines When Posting As an Individual:

- U-M uses social media to supplement traditional press and marketing efforts. Employees are encouraged to share university news and events, which are a matter of public record, with their family and friends. Linking straight to the information source is an effective way

to help promote the mission of the University and build community. When you might be perceived online as an agent/expert of U-M, you need to make sure it is clear to the audience that you are not representing the position of U-M or U-M policy. While the guidelines below apply only to those instances where there is the potential for confusion about your role as a U-M agent/expert versus personal opinion, they are good to keep in mind for all social media interactions. When posting to a social media site you should:

- **Be Authentic** Be honest about your identity. In personal posts, you may identify yourself as a U-M faculty or staff member. However, please be clear that you are sharing your personal views and are not speaking as a formal representative of U-M. If you identify yourself as a member of the U-M community, ensure your profile and related content are consistent with how you wish to present yourself to colleagues.
- **Use a Disclaimer** If you publish content to any website outside of U-M and it has something to do with the work you do or subjects associated with U-M, use a disclaimer such as this: “The postings on this site are my own and do not represent U-M’s positions, strategies or opinions.”
- **Don’t Use the U-M Logo or Make Endorsements** Do not use the U-M block M, wordmark, athletic logo or any other U-M marks or images on your personal online sites. Do not use U-M’s name to promote or endorse any product, cause or political party or candidate.
- **Take the High Ground** If you identify your affiliation with U-M in your comments, readers may associate you with the university, even with the disclaimer that your views are your own. Remember that you’re most likely to build a high-quality following if you discuss ideas and situations civilly. Don’t pick fights online.
- **Don’t Use Pseudonyms** Never pretend to be someone else. Tracking tools enable supposedly anonymous posts to be traced back to their authors.
- **Protect Your Identity** While you should be honest about yourself, don’t provide personal information that scam artists or identity thieves could use. Don’t list your home address or telephone number. It is a good idea to create a separate e-mail address that is used only with social media sites.
- **Does it Pass the Publicity Test** If the content of your message would not be acceptable for face-to-face conversation, over the telephone, or in another medium, it will not be acceptable for a social networking site. Ask yourself, would I want to see this published in the newspaper or posted on a billboard tomorrow or ten years from now?
- **Respect Your Audience** Don’t use ethnic slurs, personal insults, obscenity, or engage in any conduct that would not be acceptable in

U-M's community. You should also show proper consideration for others' privacy and for topics that may be considered sensitive such as politics and religion.

- **Monitor Comments** Most people who maintain social media sites welcome comments it builds credibility and community. However, you may be able to set your site so that you can review and approve comments before they appear. This allows you to respond in a timely way to comments. It also allows you to delete spam comments and to block any individuals who repeatedly post offensive or frivolous comments.

2.6 LET US SUM UP

Listening is most important human skill in all the professional and personal life. To be a competent listener require special quality and it can be developed through efforts. According to the cognitive components listening is a complex process. Affective model recommended how to be a good listener, that include recognise biases and learning to work within one's own and others attitude and values. Behavioural components talk about listener's motivation and willingness to listen in particular ways. Then we learn about normal reading and academic reading, how it is shaped by text, readers and background. Academic ethics talks about the ethics which have to take care in the classroom by teachers and students. Academic etiquettes in general classroom which should be followed by teacher and students. Social media etiquettes talks about the guideline that have to take care of various social media.

2.7 UNIT END QUESTIONS

1. Explain the ethics of academic communication?
2. Which are the various values guiding the academic communication?
3. Discuss the general Etiquettes followed by teachers and students in academic communication?
4. Explain the basic social media academic communication etiquettes?
5. Why is social media etiquettes are important?

2.8 REFERENCES

- Antony, J.W., Gobel, E.W., O'Hare, J.K., Reber, P.J., & Paller, K.A. (2012). Cued memory reactivation during sleep influences skill learning. *Nature Neuroscience*, 15, 1114–1116. doi:10.1038/nn.3152.
- Applegate, J.S., & Campbell, J.K. (1985). A correlation analysis of overall and sub-test scores between the Watson-Barker and the Kentucky comprehensive listening tests. Paper presented at the meeting of the International Listening Association, Orlando, FL.

- Argyle, M., & Cook, M. (1976). *Gaze and mutual gaze*. London: Cambridge.
- Barker, L. L. (1971). *Listening behavior*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bavelas, J. B., Black, A., Chovil, N., Lemery, C. R., & Mullett, J. (1988). For mand function in motor mimicry. Topographic evidence that the primary function is communicative. *Human Communication Research*, 14, 275–299. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2958.1988.tb00158.x.
- Bavelas, J. B., Coates, L., & Johnson, T. (2002). Listener responses as a collaborative process: The role of gaze. *Journal of Communication*, 52, 566–580. doi:10.1111/j.1460-2466.2002.tb02562.x.
- Bavelas, J. B., & Gerwing, J. (2011). The listener as addressee in face-to-face dialogue. *International Journal of Listening*, 25, 178–198. doi:10.1080/10904018.2010.508675.
- Bavelas, J. B., Gerwing, J., Healing, S., & Tomori, C. (2017). Microanalysis of face-to-face dialogue (MFD). In D. L. Worthington & G. D. Bodie (Eds.), *The sourcebook of listening research: Methodology and measures* (pp. 445–452). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Beard, D., & Bodie, G. D. (2014). Listening research in the communication discipline. In P. J. Gehrke & W. M. Keith (Eds.), *The unfinished conversation: 100 years of Communication Studies* (pp. 207–233). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Bodie, G. D. (2010). The Revised Listening Concepts Inventory (LCI-R): Assessing individual and situational differences in the conceptualization of listening. *Imagination, Cognition, and Personality*, 30, 301–339. doi:10.2190/IC.30.3.f.
- Aldisert, R. J., Clowney, S., & Peterson, J. D. (2007). Logic for law students: How to think like a lawyer. *University of Pittsburgh Law Review*, 69(1), 1–22. Volume 3 September 2009 The International Journal of Research and Review 29 © 2009 Time Taylor International
a ISSN 2094-1420
- Bain, K. (2004). *What the best college teachers do*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Biggs, J. (1999). What the student does: Teaching for enhanced learning. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 18(1), 57–75.
- Bowden, J., & Marton, F. (2000). *The university of learning*. London: Kogan Page.
- Carlino, F. (1999). *Evaluación educacional: Historia, problemas*. Buenos Aires: Aique.
- Erickson, B. L., Peters, C. B., & Strommer, D. W. (2006). *Teaching first-year college students*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

- Forsaith, D. (2001).Introducing assessment-based learning to a commerce topic flinders. University, Research Papers Series.Available online at:
- <http://www.flinders.edu.au/socsci/index.cfm?6C53293F-CB74-C9FB-9FBE-CB0AD332A237>.
- Gibbs, G. (1999). Using assessment strategically to change the way students learn. In S. Brown, & A. Glasner (Eds.),Assessment Matters in HigherEducation, Society for Research into Higher Education and OpenUniversity Press. Buckingham, UK: Herteis, E.
- Herteis, E. M. (2007). Content conundrumsPAIDEIA: Teaching andLearning at Mount Allison University, 3(1), 2-7.
- Hunt, R. A. (2004). Reading and writing for real: Why it matters for learning.Atlantic Universities' Teaching Showcase, 55, 137-146.
- Knapper,C,(1995)Understanding student learning:Implications for instructional practice. In A. Wright & A ssociates (Eds.)TeachingImprovement Practices. Bolton, MA: Anker Publishing.
- Marshall, P. (1974). How much, how often? College and Research Libraries,35(6), 453-456.
- Marton, F., &Saljo, R. (1976). On Qualitative Differences in Learning I andII –Outcome and Process. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 46,4-11.
- Millis, B.J. (2008).Using classroom assessment techniques (CATs) to promote
- Murphy, J. (1967). Law logic.Ethics, 77(3), 193-201.Novak, J. &Gowin, B. (1984).Learning how to learn. Cambridge, MA:Cambridge University Press.
- Reynolds, G. (1995). Violence in America: Effective solutions. Journal of
- Medical Association of Ga, 84, 253.
- Reynolds, G. (2001). Guns, privacy and revolution.Tenn. L. Rev., 68, 235.
- Reynolds, G. (n/d).Key objections to the moon agreement, available online
at<http://www.nsschapters.org/hub/pdf/MoonTreatyObjections.pdf>.
- Wendling, B. (2008).Why is there always time for their Facebook but not my textbook? Paper presented at the Oklahoma Higher Education Teachingand Learning Conference, April 9-1

- https://www.natcom.org/sites/default/files/pages/1999_Public_Statements_A_Code_of_Professional_Ethics_for_%20the_Communication_Scholar_Teacher_November.pdf
- <https://web.cn.edu/kwheeler/documents/Academic%20Etiquette.pdf>
- https://www.researchgate.net/publication/306034923_Interrogating_social_media_netiquette_and_online_safety_among_university_students_from assorted_disciplines
- <https://sproutsocial.com/glossary/social-media-etiquette/>
- <https://hr.umich.edu/sites/default/files/voices-social-media-guidelines.pdf>

munotes.in

AVENUES OF ACADEMIC COMMUNICATION

Unit Structure

- 3.0 Objectives
- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 An Overview
- 3.3 Internal communication- Classroom communication & within the organization
- 3.4 External communication- Seminar, conferences and Workshop
- 3.5 Communicating with Academic community- Publishers for publication of articles and research paper
- 3.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 3.7 Unit End Questions
- 3.8 References

3.0 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Know the meaning and concept of internal and external communication
- Understand the different ways to communicate in the classroom and within the organization.
- Understand the importance of External communication
- Explain the importance of communicating with academic community

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Humans are the only species on this planet that have developed a written system of communication, and somehow still fail to get our point across. The most probable reason is that the thoughts are not put forward properly as the language used may not mean what the writer trying to convey is not properly understood by the reader.

An avenue of academic communication plays a crucial role in getting across the right information to the academicians. There are innumerable ways the academicians communicate to the researchers, readers, stakeholders and the society at large. They can be in different forms either through written, verbal. Internal and external communications are some of the ways academicians can convey their thoughts feelings and ideas to the larger teaching community. This helps the community with further

researches, making them aware of different avenues of research, updating the existing information.

3.2 AN OVERVIEW

Communication plays a pivotal role in our day to life. In the academic front, communication with others, colleagues, administrative staff, researchers, publishers are very important. It is therefore important to know the concept of internal and external communication, the importance of communicating in the classroom and within the organisation. The need for communicating with the academic community helps academicians to scale the ladder of success as it creates awareness of the new trends in the area of academic community.

3.3 INTERNAL COMMUNICATION- CLASSROOM COMMUNICATION & WITHIN THE ORGANIZATION

Internal communication is the transmission of information within an organization. Internal communication is a lifeline of a business. It occurs between an employer and an employee. It is communication among employees. Internal communication is the sharing of the information, knowledge, ideas, and beliefs between the members of the company. Internal communication can be formal or informal. It depends upon the persons to which we are communicating. We use informal or not so formal language with our colleagues. The language used while communicating the head of the company is formal.

Effective classroom communication and within the organisation must have the following:

- **Open and clear reason for communication:** widens the horizons and scope of the content being discussed. For effective classroom communication, the teacher must permit students to take an active role in the classroom. Two way communications is paramount wherein the students are involved, interactive. This helps in making the teaching learning activity more interesting and there is clarity in what is being communicated in the classroom.

Similarly within the organisation, taking the opinion of others in the organisation, leads to clarity, expression of other views and decisions can be based on the good of the organisation

- **Understanding the need of the students:** in order that the communication is effective, the needs of the students have to be borne in mind. If the teacher teaches in the class without coming down to the level of the students then the students are unable to comprehend what the teacher is trying to say and thus the teaching becomes ineffective. For eg.for the lower standards, the teacher must use various learning resources, in the form of storyboards, puppets, charts. Voice modulation plays an important role in effective classroom communications.

In an organisation, for effective communication, the needs of the employers has to be kept in mind so that they can be heard out and their problems be sorted out.

- **Consistent and regular communication:** is extremely important both in the classroom as well as within the organisation. Consistent and regular communication with the students and with the individuals within the organisation helps the teachers and the principal to become aware of the needs of the students and the employee and vice versa. Lack of communication leads to misinterpretation, misunderstanding and also hinders the growth of the organisation.
- **Clear, jargon-free language:** While communicating, it is very important that the writer is very precise what is to be communicated with the reader. Hence the language should be very clear and precise. The language must be simple. There so not be any grammatical errors and it should not be too lengthy. The language must be therefore brief, to the point and clear. Jargon free language is the essence of effective communication.
- **Two-way communication:** Communication is not possible if it is one way. The process of communication is completed when the sender sends the message via the medium to the receiver and the receiver reads the message and reacts to the message via the medium. The two way communication helps in clarifying the doubts if any and the message conveyed to the reader is properly understood and acted upon.
- **Good use of vocabulary:** Vocabulary plays an important role in effective communication. At times, the reader uses synonyms and that may not be relevant to that particular context. While using vocabulary, the writer needs to be sure of the meaning of the work being used with reference to the context. Good vocabulary is a must for every writer so that it makes the reader read it interesting. All writers must develop their vocabulary so that the process of communication is not hinders. The message that is to put across is properly conveyed to the students and the people within the organisation.

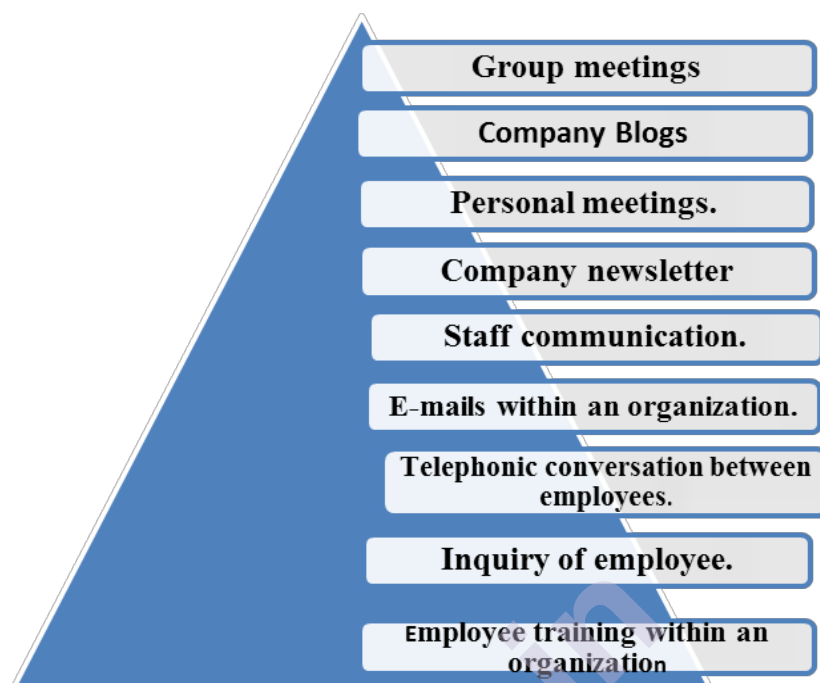
Importance of Internal Communication:

Internal communication plays a vital role in a number of ways.

- a. It increases productivity
- b. Effective and responsive customer service
- c. Easy attainment of goal
- d. Reduce day-to-day conflict between team members
- e. Enable fast response

- f. Enable fast decision making
- g. Helps in motivating the employees
- **It increases productivity:** One of the factors that internal communication helps is that it enhances productivity. In order that the institution grows it is necessary that the internal communication is properly disseminated. If the teacher communicates to the students say for e.g about the 10th standard examination time table, there is definitely clarity in the minds of the students and they can plan before hand how they are going to go about with the studies in advance. This will increase the scores of their examination and as a result the institution will be applauded and recognised.
- **Effective and responsive customer service:** Internal communication needs to be effective and responsive. Customer service plays an important role both in the organisation and in the classroom. Students are the ones who will receive the communication in the classroom and therefore it is important that the communication must be effective
- **Easy attainment of goal:** Internal communication helps in the attainment of goals. If communicated properly then the goals of the institution are enhanced, since the sender and the receiver are on the same page. They both strive hard towards the achievement of the goal.
- **Reduce day-to-day conflict between team members:** The day to day conflicts between the members of the teams are automatically reduced if they are communicated on a one to one basis. This helps in clarifying the doubts instantly and thus the help of develop cohesiveness among members of the team.
- **Enable fast response:** Internal communication helps to respond to the situation, queries almost instantly since the students are in the classroom and the teacher can clarify the doubts of the students immediately. The members of the organisation also can double check with the authorities if there is any doubt or discrepancies and will be able to respond as fast as possible.
- **Enable fast decision making:** Decision making is at a much quicker space through internal communication. This is possible because the doubts can be clarified instantly. Brainstorming can be put on the spot and issues sorted out.
- **Helps in motivating the employees:** Free and open communication among employees in the organisation and with the student teachers fosters motivation among the students and it encourages them to work better within the organisation. Students are also encouraged and motivated to do better as they have clarity.

Common Internal Communication:



3.4 EXTERNAL COMMUNICATION- SEMINAR, CONFERENCES AND WORKSHOP

External communication is the transmission of information between two organizations. It also occurs between a business and another person in the exterior to the company. These persons can be clients, dealers, customers, government officials or authorities etc. A customer's feedback is also external communication. An organization invests a lot of time and money to improve their image through external communication. External communication in the academic arena can be done through seminar, conferences and workshop. This is very important to create awareness in the teaching fraternity about the recent trends, development, researches and innovation that are growing in the teaching fraternity.

Effective External Communication – Seminar, conferences and Workshop
One can easily find the importance of external communication. Some of them are

- **Clear ideas, thoughts, and statement or the reason for communication:** Seminar, conferences and Workshops are some of the examples of external communication. Presentation done by academicians, research scholars can get their thoughts clear to the audience. The doubts can be clarified at these programmes.
- **It must be two-way communication:** Seminars, conferences and workshop need to have two way communications so that the sender who is conveying the message to the audience can be understood and the receiver through communication can find out the message was understood clearly.

- **Clear, error-free, formal, jargon-free, and easy language:** Communication whether it is external or internal must be clear. This helps in getting the message with precision. This helps in error free message. There will be precision in the message that is conveyed.
- **Understanding the need of the audience:** is a part of effective communication. It will help in writing the message. If the message to be sent is to be effectively, it must be to the level of the audience. Therefore, the age level of the students must be kept in mind.
- **Proper choice of words for communication:** Language plays a crucial role in communication. There the language used in the process of communication must be taken care of. For the meaning not to be distorted, the choice of words must be appropriate.

Importance of External Communication:

It presents a favourable image of an organization

Reduces the risks of mistakes.

Promote an organization

Advertise the organization.

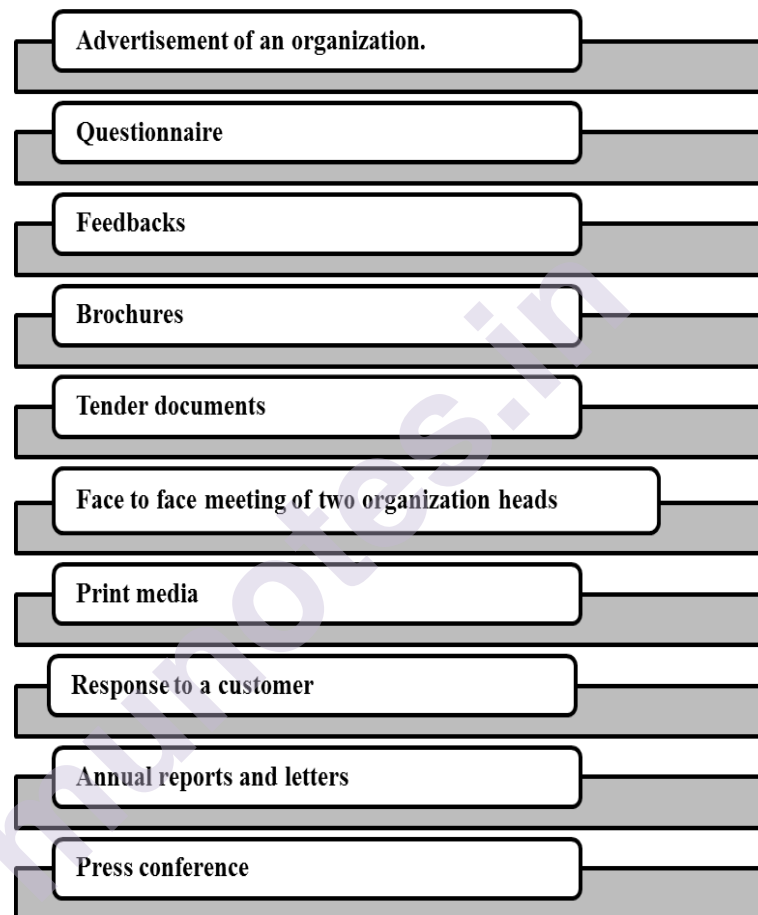
It provides information about products and services to customers.

- **It presents a favourable image of an organization:** External communication is always favourable wherein individuals can present their ideas, thought thoroughly. Content and expression can be sorted out instantly. There are fewer changes of lack of clarity of ideas.
- **It provides information about products and services to customers:** External communication provides first hand information about the products and services to customers. In academic communication, information about new researches, new methodology of teaching, new trends of teaching, innovation is provided to the teaching fraternity.
- **Advertise the organization:** External communication helps in advertisement of the organisation. Individuals can brand their organisation and can also bring laurels to the organisation.
- **Promote an organization:** It is necessary to promote the organisation and thus external communication plays a vital role. This helps in

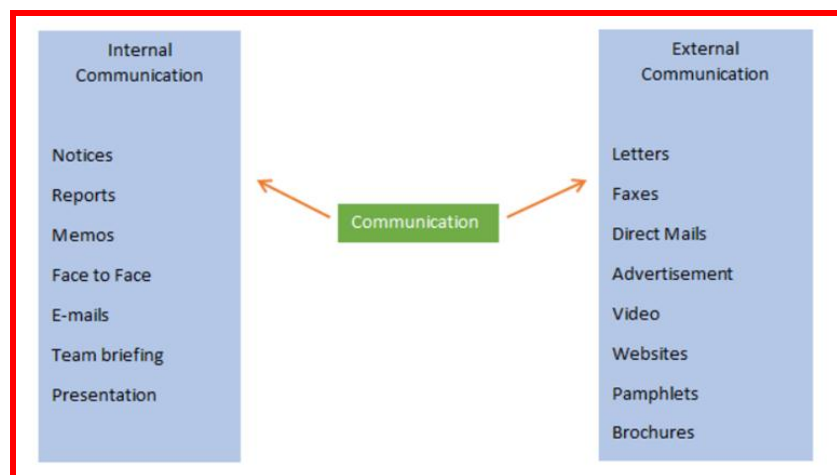
promoting the organisation and bringing it to greater heights and achieving greater laurels.

- **Reduces the risks of mistakes:** External communication helps in reducing the risk of mistakes since communication can be clarified instantly and mistakes and misinterpretation can be sorted out at one sitting.

Common External Communication: Some of the examples of external communication are as follows



Representation of Internal and external communication



3.5 COMMUNICATING WITH ACADEMIC COMMUNITY- PUBLISHER FOR PUBLICATION OF ARTICLES AND RESEARCH PAPER

Scholarly publishing invokes various positions and passions. For example, authors may spend hours struggling with diverse article submission systems, often converting document formatting between a multitude of journal and conference styles, and sometimes spend months waiting for peer review results. Scholarly publishing is an integral part of education and research activities. The use of scholarly literature is essential for the advancement of education and research. Traditional publishing models do not favour the social purposes of knowledge sharing by the academic and research community. Authors contribute the articles free, and publishers lock them behind paywalls (Logan, 2017). Copyright creates monopolisation in the publishing industry and discourages the sharing culture among the user community. Works resulting from public-funded education and research should open up for free access to fulfil the social objectives. The alternative publishing choices and practices opened up possibilities for authors, academic and research institutions to control the publishing processes and release publications for free access (Nosek & Bar-Anan, 2012). Open Access initiative gained popularity with the spread of the Internet and the World Wide Web. Open Access literature is “digital, online, free of charge, and free of most copyright and licensing restrictions” (Suber, 2008).

Scholarly and Research Communication is a peer-reviewed, interdisciplinary, Open Access online journal that publishes original contributions to the understanding of production, dissemination, and usage of knowledge. It emphasizes the dynamics of representation and changing organizational elements, including technologically mediated workflows, ownership, and legal structures.

Scholarly and research communication is the need of the hour. It enables the research scholar to communicate their research to the community and world at large. It helps in enabling other researchers to know what researches have been done and paves way of what researches can be further conducted. It thus give other researchers clue and guidelines for new researches.

3.6 LET US SUM UP

Communication be it internal or external plays a very important role in life be it in the classroom or within the organization. Communication can be internal or external. Both types of communication are crucial for the effectiveness and growth of any institution.

In internal communication classroom communication and communication within the organization plays an important role so that the progress of the institution takes place.

External communication in the form of seminar, conferences and workshop creates an awareness of the work be done by the academic community. Dissemination of their work through seminars, conferences and workshops provides rich content to the teaching fraternity and to research scholars. Communication on these platforms helps to get an idea for further researches. It also helps to meet researchers from various states and countries so that the communication can be enriched on academic arena. Community with academic community helps the publisher to put all researches under one umbrella and provides guideline to research scholars

3.7 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Explain the meaning of communication. Elucidate its type.
- 2) Elaborate the need for internal communication within the classroom and within the organisation.
- 3) Explain how one can communicate externally? .
- 4) Elucidate the need for communicating within the academic community?

3.8 REFERENCES

- Adie, E. (2009), “Commenting on scientific articles (PLoS edition)”, Nascent, available at: http://blogs.nature.com/nascent/2009/02/commenting_on_scientific_article.html (accessed 21 September 2017)
- Becher, T. and Trowler, P. (2001), *Academic Tribes and Territories: Intellectual Enquiry and the Culture of Disciplines*, Open University Press, Buckingham.

Webliography:

- <https://www.lifeofaprofessor.com/post/academic-communication-why-is-it-so-important-and-so-difficult>
- <https://conservancy.umn.edu/handle/11299/213997>
- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Scholarly_communication
- <https://osc.cam.ac.uk/about-scholarly-communication/publishing-options-research-scholarly-communication>
- <https://sciendo.com/news/how-academic-publishers-add-value-to-scholarly-communications>

MODULE II

4

ACADEMIC WRITING AND WRITING STYLE

Unit Structure

4.0 Objectives

4.1 Introduction

4.2 An Overview

4.3 Academic Writing- Concept & Styles (Narrative, Descriptive and Persuasive Writing)

4.4 Scholar papers- Theme-based paper, research papers and review papers

4.5 Organising academic writing- Writing of Abstract, Keyword and Executive Summary

4.6 Let Us Sum Up

4.7 Unit End Questions

4.8 References

4.0 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to

- Know the meaning of academic writing and writing style
- Understand the concept and styles of academic writing.
- Understand the concept of writing scholar papers.
- Understand how to organize academic writing

4.1 INTRODUCTION

A formal style of writing used for any educational endeavour is termed as academic writing. Eg. Content written in journal articles, books on academic topics, research papers and dissertation. Academic writing should therefore be clear, concise, focused, structured and backed up with evidence. The purpose is to aid to the reader's understanding. It has a formal tone and style; however, it does not demand any long sentences and complicated vocabulary. It follows the same writing process as other types of text, but here it with specific conventions in terms of content, structure and style

4.2 AN OVERVIEW

Academic writing aims to convey information in an impartial way. Arguments is based on evidence and not the author's preconception. All claims should therefore be supported with evidence that is relevant and not just asserted. Academic writing is therefore formal and unbiased. Biasedness must be avoided. It is imperative to represent the work of the other researcher and one's own result accurately and with fairness.

Language should in academic writing should be formal. The author has to avoid informal and slang language.

Academic writing must be clear and precise to ensure that the reader is able to comprehend what you mean. Therefore, the author has to be specific and as far as possible avoid vague language. Jargon and specialist language is common and often necessary in academic writing.

Jargon should be used to make your writing more concise and accurate and to avoid complication. The best way to familiarize oneself with the jargon used in that field is to read papers written by other researchers and pay attention to the language in which they have written. A specialist term should be used when the reader is familiar with the term or commonly used by other researchers in that field.

Academic writing should be focused and well structured and not just a collection of ideas about a topic. It should start with a relevant research question or thesis statement and use it to develop a focused argument. Attention should be paid to the structure at three levels, structure of the whole text, paragraph and sentence structure. It should also be well sourced to support its claims. It can use different sources in the form of pictures, photographs, written sources of other academics, academic writing etc.

It also must be correct and consistent in the rules of grammar, punctuation and citation.

4.3 ACADEMIC WRITING- CONCEPT & STYLES (NARRATIVE, DESCRIPTIVE AND PERSUASIVE)

Academic Writing Is....	Academic Writing Is Not.....
Formal And Unbiased	Personal
Clear And Precise	Long Winded
Focused And Well Structured	Emotive And Subjective Language
Well Sourced	
Correct And Consistent	

Concept of Academic Writing:

Academic writing is clear, concise, focussed, structured and backed up by evidence. Its purpose is to aid the reader's understanding. It has a formal

tone and style, but it is not complex and does not require the use of long sentences and complicated vocabulary.

Styles of Academic Writing:

The four main kinds of academic writing are descriptive, persuasive, analytical, and critical. Each of these types of writing has specific language features and purposes.

- **Descriptive style:** It is one of the most common ones, and it requires a person to describe an event, a specific phenomenon, or a theory. In more creative pieces, it requires a person to describe something more vividly, but such assignment types are rare in formal settings. Usually, this writing style is easy to master: you just explain a specific issue from scratch.

The kinds of instructions for a purely descriptive assignment include: 'identify', 'report', 'record', 'summarise' and 'define'.

- **Persuasive style:** This one is more complicated. It requires a person to build an argument that would help to persuade the audience of their idea. Let's imagine that you're an expert in the new toys for animals, and you have to persuade the owners that the new toys are more useful for them. To do so, you would draft a persuasive text. Such works usually require a lot of additional research to help you create your own argumentation and show your logical (and sometimes ethical) appeals to the readers.

The kinds of instructions for a persuasive assignment include: 'argue', 'evaluate', 'discuss', and 'take a position'.

To help reach the point of view on the facts or ideas:

- read some other researchers' points of view on the topic. Who do you feel is the most convincing?
- look for patterns in the data or references. Where is the evidence strongest?
- list several different interpretations. What are the real-life implications of each one? Which ones are likely to be most useful or beneficial? Which ones have some problems?
- discuss the facts and ideas with someone else. Do you agree with their point of view?

To develop argument:

- list the different reasons for your point of view
- think about the different types and sources of evidence which you can use to support your point of view

- consider different ways that your point of view is similar to, and different from, the points of view of other researchers
- look for various ways to break your point of view into parts. For example, cost effectiveness, environmental sustainability, scope of real-world application.

To present argument, make sure:

- the text develops a coherent argument where all the individual claims work together to support your overall point of view
- reasoning for each claim is clear to the reader
- assumptions are valid
- have evidence for every claim you make
- use evidence that is convincing and directly relevant.
- **Analytical style:** It requires writers to write an essay that studies different (often two) ideas and examines whether they are logical and reasonable. In analytical writing, the written text offers a statement on the similarities and differences of the concepts. It can be used if a person wants to compare two companies and explain how they worked with different groups. It can also be used to show a more in-depth analysis with more objectivity and search for facts, which makes it more complicated than the descriptive style.

The kinds of instructions for an analytical assignment include: 'analyse', 'compare', 'contrast', 'relate', and 'examine'.

To make writing more analytical:

- spend plenty of time planning. Brainstorm the facts and ideas, and try different ways of grouping them, according to patterns, parts, similarities and differences. One could use colour-coding, flow charts, tree diagrams or tables.
- create a name for the relationships and categories found. For example, advantages and disadvantages.
- Use critical writing in the literature review to show where there is a gap or opportunity in the existing research
- the methods section will be mostly descriptive to summarise the methods used to collect and analyse information
- the results section will be mostly descriptive and analytical as one report on the data you collected
- the discussion section is more analytical, as one relate your findings back to the research questions, and also persuasive, as you propose your interpretations of the findings.

4.4 SCHOLAR PAPERS- THEME-BASED PAPER, RESEARCH PAPERS AND REVIEW PAPERS

A scholarly article generally consists of the background of a research topic, its study design and methodology, the results of the study, and then its conclusion. The scholarly articles or publications used to inform the research are listed at the end of the article as its references or works cited.

Theme-based paper:

Theme is an element of literature and writing in which the moral of the story is conveyed. Theme can be delivered to the reader as an overall concept or as a direct statement as to what the author is trying to express. A theme is generally not expressed by the author literally but rather, theme is expressed in one of the following ways:

- Throughout the actions of the characters
- The dialogue
- Setting of the work

Research Paper:

A research paper is piece of academic writing based on its author's original research work on a particular topic and the analysis and interpretation of research findings. In other words, a research paper is an expanded essay that presents your own interpretation or evaluation or argument. When you write an essay, you use everything that you personally know and have thought about a subject. When you write a research paper you build upon what you know about the subject and make a deliberate attempt to find out what experts know. A research paper involves surveying a field of knowledge in order to find the best possible information in that field. And that survey can be orderly and focused, if you know how to approach it. Don't worry--you won't get lost in a sea of sources. To achieve supreme excellence in anything we do, we need more than just the knowledge. Like a cricket player aiming for world cup, we must have a positive attitude and believe that we have the ability to achieve it. That will be the real start for writing A1 research paper.

Steps to write a Research Paper:

If you are writing research paper for the first time, it may seem frightening, but with good organization and focus of mind, you can make the process easier on yourself. Writing a research paper broadly it involves four main stages: choosing a topic, researching your topic, making an outline, and doing the actual writing. The paper won't write itself, but by planning and preparing well, the writing practically falls into place. Essentially a narrower research paper consists of Ten major sections. The number of pages may vary depending upon the topic of research work but generally comprises up to 8 to 10 pages.

These are:

1. Abstract
2. Introduction
3. Review of Literature
4. Objectives
5. Methodology and database used
6. Research Analysis or Research Discussion
7. Results or Finding
8. Recommendations/suggestions
9. Conclusions
10. References/Citations

A research paper is based on original research. The kind of research may vary depending on your field or the topic (experiments, survey, interview, questionnaire, etc.), but authors need to collect and analyze raw data and conduct an original study. The research paper will be based on the analysis and interpretation of this data.

Review papers:

A review article or review paper is based on other published articles. It does not report original research. Review articles generally summarize the existing literature on a topic in an attempt to explain the current state of understanding on the topic. Review articles can be of three kinds:

- A narrative review explains the existing knowledge on a topic based on all the published research available on the topic.
- A systematic review searches for the answer to a particular question in the existing scientific literature on a topic.
- A meta-analysis compares and combines the findings of previously published studies, usually to assess the effectiveness of an intervention or mode of treatment.

Review papers form valuable scientific literature as they summarize the findings of existing literature. So, readers can form an idea about the existing knowledge on a topic without having to read all the published works in the field. Well-written review articles are popular, particularly in the field of medicine and healthcare. Most reputed journals publish review articles. However, you should check the website of the journal you wish to get published in to see if they accept such articles. If published in a good peer-reviewed journal, review articles often have a high impact and receive a lot of citations.

If you are new to writing research papers, I would recommend taking this course designed exclusively for early career researchers: An in-depth academic publishing course for young researchers.

4.5 ORGANIZING ACADEMIC WRITING- WRITING OF ABSTRACT, KEYWORD AND EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Writing an Abstract:

Abstracts in published papers – and in reports or other manuscripts for your studies – have the following purpose: help potential readers decide quickly which articles are relevant to their needs, and worth looking at in more detail. Abstracts are now part of data bases which allow researchers to search and scan scientific literature. Some readers might only be interested in following up research done in their field without having to read the details. Abstracts ‘compete for attention in on-line databases’ (Glasman-Deal, 2010, p.197).

Purpose of abstracts: concise overview of

- Why you did the work;
- What you did and how you did it; and
- The main results and conclusions.

Overall structure:

Since abstracts are mostly parts of scientific papers or reports they follow this model:

Background	1-2 introductory sentences place the work in context.
Problem/ Purpose	Brief description of the problem of the investigation and on the objectives of the work.
Method/materials	Outline of the methodology and tools used, how the study was undertaken.
Results / implications / applications	1-2 sentences stating the most important results and conclusions and/or recommendations and/or applications.

Process for writing an abstract:

- abstracts are best written last or at least after a substantive part of the report is finished
- use the overall structure above as an outline

- start with key words for each section and then a first draft of your abstract
- refine your first draft a few days later, consolidating and reducing the text until you feel you have described all essential elements using as few words as possible

Key words:

Keywords are a tool to help indexers and search engines find relevant papers. If database search engines can find your journal manuscript, readers will be able to find it too. This will increase the number of people reading your manuscript, and likely lead to more citations.

However, to be effective, Keywords must be chosen carefully. They should:

- Represent the content of your manuscript
- Be specific to your field or sub-field

Examples:

Manuscript title: Direct observation of nonlinear optics in an isolated carbon nanotube

Poor keywords: molecule, optics, lasers, energy lifetime

Better keywords: single-molecule interaction, Kerr effect, carbon nanotubes, energy level structure

Manuscript title: Region-specific neuronal degeneration after okadaic acid administration

Poor keywords: neuron, brain, OA (an abbreviation), regional-specific neuronal degeneration, signalling.

Better keywords: neurodegenerative diseases; CA1 region, hippocampal; okadaic acid; neurotoxins; MAP kinase signaling system; cell death

Manuscript title: Increases in levels of sediment transport at former glacial-interglacial transitions

Poor keywords: climate change, erosion, plant effects

Better keywords: quaternary climate change, soil erosion, bioturbation

Executive Summary: The executive summary is a brief version of the report; it restates each section of the report in abbreviated form with emphasis on findings, conclusions, and recommendations. Executive summaries are standalone documents. The reader must be fully informed. An executive summary, sometimes known as a management summary, is a short document or section of a document, usually produced for business purposes, summarizing a longer report or proposal or a group of related

reports, in such a way that readers can rapidly become acquainted with a large body of material without having to read it all. It will usually contain a brief statement of the problem or proposal covered in the major document(s), background information, concise analysis and main conclusions.

An executive summary seeks to lead the reader to the significant points of the report as the reader is a decision maker who will have the responsibility of deciding on some issue(s) related to the report. The executive summary must be written with this need in mind.

A typical executive summary will:

- be possibly 5-10% or so of the length of the main report (this can be 10 pages for a report of 200 pages)
- be written in language appropriate for the target audience
- consist of short and concise paragraphs
- often have similar headings as the full report
- be written in the same order as the main report
- only include material present in the main report
- make recommendations
- have a conclusion
- be able to be read separately from the main report
- exclude references
- mostly exclude tables/ figures (maybe 1 or 2 are ok)

Process for writing an executive summary:

- think about your audience (knowledge, interest)
- use the structure above as an outline or follow the structure of your document
- identify key sentences in the report
- extract them
- edit them for readability

4.6 LET US SUM UP

Academic writing must clear, concise, focussed, structured and backed up with evidence. It helps the reader's understanding. It has a formal tone and style. Vocabulary must not be complicated. It must be as per the age level

of the audience. Long sentences creates confusion in the minds of the reader. Narrative, Descriptive and Persuasive writing plays an important role in academic writing. Scholarly papers be it theme based, research and review papers must be encourage by the academicians so that their topics and findings are further disseminated. Organisation of academic writing and with precision will help to get across the communication to the reader.

4.7 UNIT AND EXERCISE

Write in brief:

- 1) Explain the concept of academic writing.
- 2) Explain the different styles of academic writing:
- 3) Explain the different types of scholar papers. State their importance.
- 4) Explain how organisation of an academic writing.

4.8 REFERENCES

- Kamraju, M, and Siva Prathaap. "HOW TO AVOID REJECTION OF RESEARCH PAPER BYJOURNALS." International Journal of Research and Analytical Reviews (IJRAR, 2019
- Kamraju, M, and M. Kamraju. "Changing Pattern of Urban Growth in Hyderabad City: A Study." Jai Maa SaraswatiGyanadayani 3, no. 3 (2018): 483–503.
- Kamraju, M, and Vani M. "M.KAMRAJU Et AL., SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OFFARMERS: A CASE STUDY OF WARANGAL DISTRICT." KY Publications 5, no. 4 (2017):158–63.
- Kamraju, M, M. Kamraju, and Vani M. "Village Information System Using GIS: A Case Studyof Chilkur Village, Moinabad Mandal Telangana." Jai Maa SaraswatiGyandayani 3, no. 1(2017): 21–31.
- Kamraju, M. "IMPACT OF CLIMATE CHANGE ON AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIVITY: ACASE STUDY OF NALGONDA DISTRICT TELANGANA." International Journal of Research inManagement & Social Science 5, no. 3 (2017): 70–76.
- Kombo, Donald Kisilu, and Delno LA Tromp. "Proposal and thesis writing: Anintroduction." Nairobi: Paulines Publications Africa 5 (2006): 814-30.
- Kothari, Chakravanti Rajagopalachari. Research methodology: Methods and techniques. NewAge International, 2004.
- Kumar, Ranjit. Research methodology: A step-by-step guide for beginners. Sage PublicationsLimited, 2019.

- Mugenda, Olive M., and Abel G. Mugenda. Research methods: Quantitative and qualitative approaches. Acts press, 1999.
- <https://ebooks.hslu.ch/academicwriting/chapter/4-1-abstract-executive-summary/>

Academic Writing and
Writing Style

munotes.in

UNDERSTANDING THE PROCESS OF ACADEMIC WRITING

Unit Structure

- 5.0 Objectives
- 5.1 Writing a Theme Paper – Criteria & Format
- 5.2 Writing a Research Paper – Criteria & Format
- 5.3 Writing a Research Journal Article and book –Criteria & Format
- 5.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 5.5 Unit End Questions
- 5.6 References

5.0 OBJECTIVES

Academic Writing is central focus for any student, researcher or faculty. Academic writing serves as a tool of dissemination of acquired knowledge or specific study.

In this unit, learners will be able to:

1. Understand different types of Academic Writing.
2. Understand the criteria and format to be followed in different types of Academic Writing.
3. Make informed decisions while writing their academic work.

5.1 WRITING A THEME PAPER – CRITERIA& FORMAT

Academic writing primarily serves four major purposes. These are to inform, to explain, to narrate, and to persuade. Academic writing is a means of producing, codifying, transmitting, evaluating, renovating, teaching, and learning knowledge and ideology in academic disciplines. Academic writing is clear, concise, focused, structured and backed up by evidence. Its purpose is to aid the reader's understanding. It has a formal tone and style, but it is not complex and does not require the use of long sentences and complicated vocabulary. Each subject discipline will have certain writing conventions, vocabulary and types of discourse that you will become familiar with over the course of your degree. However, there are some general characteristics of academic writing that are relevant across all disciplines.

Academic writing is:

- **Planned and focused:** answers the question and demonstrates an understanding of the subject.
- **Structured:** is coherent, written in a logical order, and brings together related points and material.
- **Evidenced:** demonstrates knowledge of the subject area, supports opinions and arguments with evidence, and is referenced accurately.
- **Formal in tone and style:** uses appropriate language and tenses, and is clear, concise and balanced.

Being able to write in an academic style is essential to disciplinary learning and critical for academic success. Writing a Theme paper is one of the types of Academic writing that is generally done by students.

A theme is a major and sometimes recurring idea, subject or topic that appears in a written work. A dominant theme usually reveals what the work is really about and can be helpful in forming insights and analysis. A theme can consist of one word, two words or more. For example, your teacher might ask you to explore the straightforward ideas of “anger” or “selfishness” or more complex themes of “Personality” or “Positive Thinking.” Either way, careful reading of the work is vital so that you can marshal examples of where the theme was apparent.

Themes in research papers might require a little digging, but they are there. Sometimes they are easier to spot when several research papers on the same subject are compared or contrasted, for this is when such subtext emerges. For example, three research papers on the subject of avid TV viewing by teenagers might contain different themes, such as simpler ideas including “passivity” or “grades” or a more complex theme, such as “effects on familial relationships.”

Theme paper revolves around a particular theme. Theme paper is often referred to as Thematic Essay. Hence selecting a theme apt for your writing is crucial. The following CRITERIA needs to be followed for writing a Theme Paper

Define ‘Theme’ in a Theme Paper:

The initial step in writing this type of academic paper is to have a question, "What is a thematic essay?" answered. According to the definition, it's a piece of writing based on a particular question or theme. When working on this paper, a student is supposed to reveal and develop the central theme in a specific literature work using various literary devices such as metaphor, personification, comparison, and other techniques.

The thematic essay's primary purpose is to identify and disclose the main subject discussed in work. A student needs to use evidence, facts, and examples gathered from primary and secondary sources. As a professional

writer, you should relate various facts. Use credible sources; otherwise, you may confuse your reader with wrong facts.

Choose a 'Theme' for Theme Paper:

The first step requires coming up with a good thematic essay topic. If you have a theme assigned by your professor, consider yourself super lucky. But for those students who don't have any topic to write about, our top writers have prepared helpful tips and unique ideas to get you started.

Keep in mind these simple guidelines:

- Focus on social issues. Commonly, a thematic essay is associated with social problems in different periods of human civilization.
- Refer to literature pieces. Use appropriate materials and references suggested by the professor to come up with an unusual topic.
- Choose a compelling theme. Understand your potential audience and define the most acceptable and strong idea which would engage an ordinary reader.
- Find the angle. Consider the issue's pros and cons, and find the turning point, which will guide you in the right way.

Decide the Outline for Theme Paper

A thematic essay paper outline is supposed to lead a writer flawlessly through the entire writing process and prevent from being stuck. The paper should stick to the typical 5-paragraph structure: an introductory paragraph, 3 body paragraphs and a conclusion.

Don't think that writing an outline is just a waste of time. It is the backbone of your paper. Having a detailed essay structure in front of you allows creating a fabulous thematic work written in logical order.

The following FORMAT can be followed for writing Theme Paper:

1. Introduction:

To write a thematic essay introduction, you'll need to include four key components:

- Intriguing beginning
- Background information on topic
- Clear explanation of your primary subject
- Thesis statement

2. Body Paragraphs:

Body part should follow a coherent thematic essay outline. Remember to structure your paper using these key elements:

- Topic sentence presenting your argument
- Supporting evidence (literary devices)
- Examples that prove your argument

3. Conclusion:

A good thematic essay conclusion should be brief, logical and effective. Typically, a concluding paragraph should resonate with the thesis statement and contain such information:

- Rephrased thesis statement
- Brief summary of main arguments
- Final thoughts for further exploration

Now that you know what key elements an excellent theme paper should include let's dig deeper into the entire writing process.

How to Write a Good Thematic Essay:

1. As mentioned earlier, writing a thematic essay should start with unveiling the central theme of a book or novel. Basically, the whole process is all about interpreting this main subject with the help of relevant evidence.
2. Highlight the central theme. After you choose a literary work, determine its central theme. Think about the main idea an author tried to convey. This step requires reading between the lines and finding all main points. Once you identify literary devices used to communicate the main message, try to recognize the work's overall significance.
3. Craft a thesis statement. It is the most crucial part amongst all components of the entire paper. A thesis statement is a brief claim introducing your position on the central theme. This single sentence has more significance than other sentences – remember that you will need to prove a thesis with supporting evidence.
4. Write a captivating introduction. The opening paragraph of your writing should explain the theme's significance and grab the reader's attention. Highlight the main purpose of your research and offer some information on the subject. Finally, include a previously written thesis to give your audience an idea of what claim you will be supporting.
5. Work on the body paragraphs. The text's main body contains at least three paragraphs that develop research and start with the topic sentence — argument. They present the evidence, some examples, and proven facts. Each body paragraph should focus on at least one literary device. Use only trustworthy informative sources to support the arguments. Conduct some analysis to verify your claim.

6. Write a powerful conclusion. To conclude a thematic essay, summarize the main points discussed in the body paragraphs. Your objective is to write a brief review of the work. As you write the closing paragraph, make sure that all questions were answered. Provide some food for thoughts and encourage the audience to do further research on the chosen subject.
7. As soon as you finish writing a thematic essay, don't forget to proofread it for grammar and stylistic mistakes.

Thematic Essay Format:

Once you have your thematic essay shovel-ready, make sure that the proper essay format is followed. There are three most common academic formatting styles: APA, MLA, and Chicago. Ensure that you cite all sources and compose a reference page according to specific formatting requirements. Stick to a particular style from cover to cover.

5.2 WRITING A RESEARCH PAPER – CRITERIA & FORMAT

Few things strike more fear in academics than the accursed research paper, a term synonymous with long hours and hard work.

This section concisely explains how to write an academic research paper step by step right from areas like how to start a research paper, how to write a research paper outline, how to use citations and evidence, and how to write a conclusion for a research paper.

But first, it is essential to know what a research paper is and how it's different from other writing.

What is a research paper?

A research paper is a type of academic writing that provides an in-depth analysis, evaluation, or interpretation of a single topic, based on empirical evidence. Research papers are similar to analytical essays, except that research papers emphasize the use of statistical data and preexisting research, along with a strict code for citations.

Considering their gravity, research papers favor formal, even bland language that strips the writing of any bias. Researchers state their findings plainly and with corresponding evidence so that other researchers can consequently use the paper in their own research.

Keep in mind that writing a research paper is different from writing a research proposal. Essentially, research proposals are to acquire the funding needed to get the data to write a research paper.

How long should a research paper be?

The length of a research paper depends on the topic or assignment. Typically, research papers run around 4,000–6,000 words, but it's

common to see short papers around 2,000 words or long papers over 10,000 words.

CRITERIA to write a research paper:

Below is a step-by-step general criterion that may be followed for writing a research paper, catered specifically for students / researchers.

1. Understand the assignment:

Every research paper has certain specifications to be followed. The specifications are spelled out based on purpose of writing the research paper. Hence it is essential to follow the guidelines thoroughly. Primarily read the writing prompt. Specifically, look for technical requirements such as length, formatting requirements (single- vs. double-spacing, indentations, etc.) and citation style. Also pay attention to the particulars, such as whether or not you need to write an abstract or include a cover page. Once these guidelines are followed, the next steps in how to write a research paper follow the usual writing process, more or less. There are some extra steps involved because research papers have extra rules, but the gist of the writing process is the same.

2. Choose your topic:

Unless and until specified, the student/researcher may choose their own topic. While it may seem simple enough, choosing a topic is actually the most important decision you'll make in writing a research paper, since it determines everything that follows. The top priority in how to choose a research paper topic is whether it will provide enough content and substance for an entire research paper. Choose a topic with enough data and complexity to enable a rich discussion.

3. Gather preliminary research:

As soon as the research topic is finalized, the sooner you start researching, the better. To refine your topic and prepare your thesis statement, find out what research is available for your topic as soon as possible. Early research can help dispel any misconceptions you have about the topic and reveal the best paths and approaches to find more material.

Typically, you can find sources either online or in a library. If you're searching online, make sure you use credible sources like science journals or academic papers. Some search engines—allow you to browse only accredited sources and academic databases.

Keep in mind the difference between primary and secondary sources as you search. Primary sources are firsthand accounts, like published articles or autobiographies; secondary sources are more removed, like critical reviews or secondhand biographies.

When gathering your research, it's better to skim sources instead of reading each potential source fully. If a source seems useful, set it aside to give it a full read later. Otherwise, you'll be stuck poring over sources that

you ultimately won't use, and that time could be better spent finding a worthwhile source.

Sometimes you're required to submit a literature review, which explains your sources and presents them to an authority for confirmation. Even if no literature review is required, it's still helpful to compile an early list of potential sources.

4. Write a thesis statement:

Using what you found in your preliminary research, write a thesis statement that succinctly summarizes what your research paper will be about. This is usually the first sentence in your paper, making it your reader's introduction to the topic.

A thesis statement is the best answer for how to start a research paper. Aside from preparing your reader, the thesis statement also makes it easier for other researchers to assess whether or not your paper is useful to them for their own research. Likewise, you should read the thesis statements of other research papers to decide how useful they are to you.

A good thesis statement mentions all the important parts of the discussion without disclosing too many of the details. If you're having trouble putting it into words, try to phrase your topic as a question and then answer it.

For example, if your research paper topic is about separating students with ADHD from other students, you'd first ask yourself, "Does separating students with ADHD improve their learning?" The answer—based on your preliminary research—is a good basis for your thesis statement.

5. Determine supporting evidence:

At this stage of how to write an academic research paper, it's time to knuckle down and do the actual research. Here's when you go through all the sources you collected earlier and find the specific information you'd like to use in your paper.

Normally, you find your supporting evidence by reading each source and taking notes. Isolate only the information that's directly relevant to your topic; don't bog down your paper with tangents or unnecessary context, however interesting they may be. And always write down page numbers, not only for you to find the information later, but also because you'll need them for your citations.

Aside from highlighting text and writing notes, another common tactic is to use bibliography cards. These are simple index cards with a fact or direct quotation on one side and the bibliographical information (source citation, page numbers, subtopic category) on the other. While bibliography cards are not necessary, some students find them useful for staying organized, especially when it's time to write an outline.

6. Write a research paper outline:

A lot of students want to know how to write a research paper outline. More than informal essays, research papers require a methodical and systematic structure to make sure all issues are addressed, and that makes outlines especially important.

First make a list of all the important categories and subtopics you need to cover—an outline for your outline! Consider all the information you gathered when compiling your supporting evidence and ask yourself what the best way to separate and categorize everything is.

Once you have a list of what you want to talk about, consider the best order to present the information. Which subtopics are related and should go next to each other? Are there any subtopics that don't make sense if they're presented out of sequence? If your information is fairly straightforward, feel free to take a chronological approach and present the information in the order it happened.

Because research papers can get complicated, consider breaking your outline into paragraphs. For starters, this helps you stay organized if you have a lot of information to cover. Moreover, it gives you greater control over the flow and direction of the research paper. It's always better to fix structural problems in the outline phase than later after everything's already been written.

Don't forget to include your supporting evidence in the outline as well. Chances are you'll have a lot you want to include, so putting it in your outline helps prevent some things from falling through the cracks.

7. Write the first draft:

Once your outline is finished, it's time to start actually writing your research paper. This is by far the longest and most involved step, but if you've properly prepared your sources and written a thorough outline, everything should run smoothly.

If you don't know how to write an introduction for a research paper, the beginning can be difficult. That's why writing your thesis statement beforehand is crucial. Open with your thesis statement and then fill out the rest of your introduction with the secondary information—save the details for the body of your research paper, which comes next.

The body contains the bulk of your research paper. Unlike essays, research papers usually divide the body into sections with separate headers to facilitate browsing and scanning. Use the divisions in your outline as a guide.

Follow along your outline and go paragraph by paragraph. Because this is just the first draft, don't worry about getting each word perfect. Later you'll be able to revise and fine-tune your writing, but for now focus simply on saying everything that needs to be said. In other words, it's OK to make mistakes since you'll go back later to correct them.

One of the most common problems with writing long works like research papers is connecting paragraphs to each other. The longer your writing is, the harder it is to tie everything together smoothly. Use transition sentences to improve the flow of your paper, especially for the first and last sentences in a paragraph.

Even after the body is written, you still need to know how to write a conclusion for a research paper. Just like an essay conclusion, your research paper conclusion should restate your thesis, reiterate your main evidence, and summarize your findings in a way that's easy to understand.

Don't add any new information in your conclusion, but feel free to say your own personal perspective or interpretation if it helps the reader understand the big picture.

8. Cite your sources correctly:

Citations are part of what sets research papers apart from more casual nonfiction like personal essays. Citing your sources both validates your data and also links your research paper to the greater scientific community. Because of their importance, citations must follow precise formatting rules.

You need to check with the assignment/publishing house to see which formatting style is required. Typically, academic research papers follow one of two formatting styles for citing sources:

MLA (Modern Language Association)

APA (American Psychological Association)

In addition to MLA and APA styles, you occasionally see requirements for CMOS (The Chicago Manual of Style), AMA (American Medical Association) and IEEE (Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers).

Citations may seem confusing at first with all their rules and specific information. However, once you get the hang of them, you'll be able to properly cite your sources without even thinking about it.

9. Edit and proofread:

Last but not least, you want to go through your research paper to correct all the mistakes by proofreading. We recommend going over it twice: once for structural issues such as adding/deleting parts or rearranging paragraphs and once for word choice, grammatical, and spelling mistakes. Doing two different editing sessions helps you focus on one area at a time instead of doing them both at once.

To help you catch everything, here's a quick checklist to keep in mind while you edit:

Structural edit:

- Is your thesis statement clear and concise?

- Is your paper well-organized, and does it flow from beginning to end with logical transitions?
- Do your ideas follow a logical sequence in each paragraph?
- Have you used concrete details and facts and avoided generalizations?
- Do your arguments support and prove your thesis?
- Have you avoided repetition?
- Are your sources properly cited?
- Have you checked for accidental plagiarism?
- Word choice, grammar, and spelling edit:
- Is your language clear and specific?
- Do your sentences flow smoothly and clearly?
- Have you avoided filler words and phrases?
- Have you checked for proper grammar, spelling, and punctuation?

Some people find it useful to read their paper out loud to catch problems they might miss when reading in their head. Another solution is to have someone else read your paper and point out areas for improvement and/or technical mistakes.

Revising is a separate skill from writing, and being good at one doesn't necessarily make you good at the other. If you want to improve your revision skills, read our guide on self-editing, which includes a more complete checklist and advanced tips on improving your revisions.

Technical issues like grammatical mistakes and misspelled words can be handled effortlessly if you use a spellchecker with your word processor, or even better, a digital writing assistant that also suggests improvements for word choice and tone, like Grammarly (we explain more in the Tools and resources section below).

Tools and resources:

If you want to know more about how to write a research paper, or if you want some help with each step, take a look at the tools and resources below.

Google Scholar:

This is Google's own search engine, which is dedicated exclusively to academic papers. It's a great way to find new research and sources. Plus, it's free to use.

Google Charts:

This useful and free tool from Google lets you create simple charts and graphs based on whatever data you input. Charts and graphs are excellent visual aids for expressing numeric data, a perfect complement if you need to explain complicated evidential research.

Grammarly:

Grammarly goes way beyond grammar, helping you hone word choice, checking your text for plagiarism, detecting your tone, and more. For foreign-language learners, it can make your English sound more fluent, and even those who speak English as their primary language benefit from Grammarly's suggestions.

The following FORMAT may be followed for writing a Research Paper

Research studies begin with a question in mind. A paper that describes a particular study clearly states the question, methodology, findings, and other relevant information. Read below for descriptions and examples of research paper sections.

The main sections of a typical APA research paper include:

1. Cover Page
2. Abstract
3. Introduction
4. Background
5. Methodology
6. Results
7. Conclusion
8. Appendices

A more straightforward version of a research paper is the IMRAD format (Introduction, Methodology, Results, and Discussion). However, all of the following sections are typically present in a formal research paper.

1. Title or Cover Page:

Just like any other paper you write; your research paper needs a cover page with your study's title. It also needs your and any co-writers' names and institutional affiliations (if any).

2. Abstract:

Abstract is a detailed summary of your study. It should include a broad overview of the paper, your research question, the significance of your

study, methods of research, and findings. Don't list cited works in the abstract.

3. Introduction:

The introduction section tells the reader what problem your study is attempting to solve. You can address the study's significance and originality here as well. Clearly state the research question in the form of a thesis statement.

4. Background:

What inspired you to take on this study? What has previous research stated or revealed about this topic? The background section is the place to add historical data or define previous theories that provide context for your study. It's also a helpful place to consider your audience and what information they will need to understand the rest of your paper.

5. Methodology:

Knowing whether you used qualitative or quantitative methods is an important part of understanding your study. You can list all the ways you collected data, including surveys, experiments, or field research. This section is also known as "Materials and Methods" in scientific studies.

6. Results:

What does your study find? State your findings and supply the data in this section. Use an objective perspective here; save the evaluation for your conclusion section.

7. Conclusion:

Explain why your findings are significant in the conclusion section. This section allows you to evaluate results and reflect on your process. Does the study require additional research?

8. Appendices:

If you have information that is too dense for the paper itself, include it in an appendix. Appendices are helpful when you want to include supplementary material that is relevant but not integral to the paper itself.

Other Parts of a Research Paper:

If you'd like to go into more depth than the sections above, consider including additional parts of a research paper.

- **Limitations of Study:** Found after the Introduction section, the Limitations of Study section lists any factors by which you limited your research. These can include age, location, sex, and education level. This section can also list the ways that your study was impacted by shortcomings such as limited resources or small sample sizes.

- **Literature Review:** The Literature Review section takes scholarly articles or books out of the Background section for a more focused investigation. You can usually find this section between Background and Methodology.
- **Discussion:** A more concentrated section for evaluating results is the Discussion section. This section is a helpful place to consider the process as a whole.
- **Acknowledgments:** This is a place to thank anyone who helped you complete your research. It can include colleagues, focus group participants, fellow researchers, mentors, or family members.

5.3 WRITING A RESEARCH JOURNAL ARTICLE AND BOOK – CRITERIA & FORMAT

The purpose of writing a review is to summarize and evaluate a text. The review can be of a book, a chapter, or a journal article. Writing the critical review usually requires you to read the selected text in detail and to also read other related texts so that you can present a fair and reasonable valuation of the selected text. Such a review is also called as Critical Review.

What is meant by critical?

To be critical does not mean to criticize in a negative manner. Rather it requires you to question the information and opinions in a text and present your evaluation or judgement of the text. To do this well, you should attempt to understand the topic from different perspectives (i.e. read related texts) and in relation to the theories, approaches and frameworks in your course.

What is meant by evaluation or judgement?

Here you decide the strengths and weaknesses of a text. This is usually based on specific criteria. Evaluating requires an understanding of not just the content of the text, but also an understanding of a text's purpose, the intended audience and why it is structured the way it is.

What is meant by analysis?

Analyzing requires separating the content and concepts of a text into their main components and then understanding how these interrelate, connect and possibly influence each other.

Format of a Critical Review

Critical reviews, both short (one page) and long (four pages), usually have a similar structure which is given in the following section:

Introduction:

The length of an introduction is usually one paragraph for a journal article review and two or three paragraphs for a longer book review. Include a few opening sentences that announce the author(s) and the title, and briefly explain the topic of the text. Present the aim of the text and summarize the main finding or key argument. Conclude the introduction with a brief statement of your evaluation of the text. This can be a positive or negative evaluation or, as is usually the case, a mixed response.

Summary:

Present a summary of the key points along with a limited number of examples. You can also briefly explain the author's purpose/intentions throughout the text and you may briefly describe how the text is organised. The summary should only make up about a third of the critical review.

Critique:

The critique should be a balanced discussion and evaluation of the strengths, weakness and notable features of the text. Remember to base your discussion on specific criteria. Good reviews also include other sources to support your evaluation (remember to reference).

You can choose how to sequence your critique. Here are some examples to get you started:

- Most important to least important conclusions you make about the text.
- If your critique is more positive than negative, then present the negative points first and the positive last.
- If your critique is more negative than positive, then present the positive points first and the negative last.
- If there are both strengths and weakness for each criterion you use, you need to decide overall what your judgement is. For example, you may want to comment on a key idea in the text and have both positive and negative comments. You could begin by stating what is good about the idea and then concede and explain how it is limited in some way. While this example shows a mixed evaluation, overall, you are probably being more negative than positive.
- In long reviews, you can address each criterion you choose in a paragraph, including both negative and positive points. For very short critical reviews (one page or less) where your comments will be briefer, include a paragraph of positive aspects and another of negative.

- You can also include recommendations for how the text can be improved in terms of ideas, research approach; theories or frameworks used can also be included in the critique section.

Conclusion:

This is usually a very short paragraph.

- Restate your overall opinion of the text.
- Briefly present recommendations.
- If necessary, some further qualification or explanation of your judgement can be included. This can help your critique sound fair and reasonable.

References

If you have used other sources in your review you should also include a list of references at the end of your review.

Some General Criteria for Evaluating Texts for the purpose of writing a Review Paper:

The following list of criteria and focus questions may be useful for reading the text and for preparing the critical review. Remember to check your instructions for more specific criteria and focus questions that should form the basis of your review. The length of the review will determine how many criteria you will address in your review paper.

Criteria	Criteria Possible focus questions
Significance and contribution to the field	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• What is the author's aim?• To what extent has this aim been achieved?• What does this text add to the body of knowledge? (This could be in terms of theory, data and/or practical application)• What relationship does it bear to other works in the field?• What is missing/not stated?• Is this a problem?
Methodology or approach (this usually applies to more formal, research-based texts)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• What approach was used for the research? (eg; quantitative or qualitative, analysis/review of theory or current practice, comparative, case study, personal reflection etc...)• How objective/biased is the

	<p>approach?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are the results valid and reliable? • What analytical framework is used to discuss the results?
Argument and use of evidence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is there a clear problem, statement or hypothesis? • What claims are made? • Is the argument consistent? • What kinds of evidence does the text rely on? • How valid and reliable is the evidence? • How effective is the evidence in supporting the argument? • What conclusions are drawn? • Are these conclusions justified?
Writing style and text structure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does the writing style suit the intended audience? (eg; expert/non-expert, academic/non-academic) • What is the organizing principle of the text? Could it be better organized?

5.4 LET US SUM UP

Academic writing is a very important activity of any student's or researchers work. Serious academic writing is formal and follows a specific format. Depending upon the reason, why an academic writing has been undertaken, the format may vary. Hence the criteria of academic writing should be thoroughly studied before embarking on the task.

5.5 UNIT END QUESTIONS

1. Enumerate the format of writing a research paper
2. Explain the criteria to be followed for writing a review paper
3. Describe a Theme paper and its format.

5.6 REFERENCES

- <https://www.aresearchguide.com/4format.html>
- <https://www.ilovephd.com/research-paper-format/>

- <https://penandthepad.com/write-essay-theme-book-2200.html>
- <https://writemypaper4me.org/blog/thematic-essay>
- <https://essaypro.com/blog/article-review>
- <https://www.aresearchguide.com/write-an-article-review.html>

munotes.in

ISSUES AND CHALLENGES IN ACADEMIC WRITING

Unit Structure

- 6.0 Objectives
- 6.1 Meaning of Plagiarism
- 6.2 Process of Plagiarism (Forms)
- 6.3 How to Avoid Plagiarism
- 6.4 Publication -Process
- 6.5 Challenges and Opportunities in Publication
- 6.6 Indexing and Citation
- 6.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 6.8 Unit End Exercise
- 6.9 References

6.0 OBJECTIVES

Writing and publishing a piece of academic work is desirable step in the process of dissemination of knowledge and research. While publishing one's work, it becomes imperative to maintain academic integrity. Hence every academician has to be aware about the varied pitfalls that s/he may encounter.

In this unit, learners will be able to understand Plagiarism and how to avoid Plagiarism. The learners will be able to understand the process, challenges and opportunities in Publication.

Finally, this unit will enable learners to make informed decisions while publishing their academic work.

6.1 MEANING OF PLAGIARISM

Plagiarism is derived from Latin word "plagiarius" which means "kidnapper," who abducts the child. The word plagiarism entered the Oxford English dictionary in 1621. Plagiarism has been defined by the Encyclopaedia Britannica as "the act of taking the writings of another person and passing them off as one's own." It is an act of forgery, piracy, and fraud and is stated to be a serious crime of academia.³ It is also a violation of copyright laws. Honesty in scientific practice and in publication is necessary. The World Association of Medical Editors (WAME) defines plagiarism as "... the use of others' published and unpublished ideas or words (or other intellectual property) without attribution or permission and presenting them as new and original rather than derived from an existing source."

In 1999, the Committee on Publication Ethics (COPE), defined plagiarism as “Plagiarism ranges from the unreferenced use of others’ published and unpublished ideas including research grant applications to submission under new authorship of a complex paper, sometimes in a different language. It may occur at any stage of planning, research, writing or publication; it applies to print and electronic versions.”

Plagiarism is presenting someone else’s work or ideas as your own, with or without their consent, by incorporating it into your work without full acknowledgement. All published and unpublished material, whether in manuscript, printed or electronic form, is covered under this definition. Plagiarism may be intentional or reckless, or unintentional. Under the regulations for examinations, intentional or reckless plagiarism is a disciplinary offence.

6.2 PROCESS OF PLAGIARISM (FORMS)

Plagiarism can happen in different ways. Whether done intentionally or otherwise, all of the ways mentioned in this section become a disciplinary offence.

Plagiarism can be in different forms:

Verbatim (word for word) quotation without clear acknowledgement-Quotations must always be identified as such by the use of either quotation marks or indentation, and with full referencing of the sources cited. It must always be apparent to the reader which parts are your own independent work and where you have drawn on someone else’s ideas and language.

Cutting and pasting from the Internet without clear acknowledgement:

Information derived from the Internet must be adequately referenced and included in the bibliography. It is important to evaluate carefully all material found on the Internet, as it is less likely to have been through the same process of scholarly peer review as published sources.

Mosaic plagiarism:

In this type of plagiarism each word is not copied but it involves mixing one’s own words in someone else’s ideas and opinions. This is copying and pasting in patchy manner

Paraphrasing:

Paraphrasing the work of others by altering a few words and changing their order, or by closely following the structure of their argument, is plagiarism if you do not give due acknowledgement to the author whose work you are using.

A passing reference to the original author in your own text may not be enough; you must ensure that you do not create the misleading impression that the paraphrased wording or the sequence of ideas are entirely your own. It is better to write a brief summary of the author's overall argument in your own words, indicating that you are doing so, than to paraphrase particular sections of his or her writing. This will ensure you have a genuine grasp of the argument and will avoid the difficulty of paraphrasing without plagiarising. You must also properly attribute all material you derive from lectures.

Collusion:

This can involve unauthorised collaboration between students, failure to attribute assistance received, or failure to precisely follow regulations on group work projects. It is your responsibility to ensure that you are entirely clear about the extent of collaboration permitted, and which parts of the work must be your own.

Inaccurate citation:

It is important to cite correctly, according to the conventions of your discipline. As well as listing your sources (i.e., in a bibliography), you must indicate, using a footnote or an in-text reference, where a quoted passage comes from. Additionally, you should not include anything in your references or bibliography that you have not actually consulted. If you cannot gain access to a primary source, you must make it clear in your citation that your knowledge of the work has been derived from a secondary text (for example, Bradshaw, D. Title of Book, discussed in Wilson, E., Title of Book (London, 2004), p. 189).

Failure to acknowledge assistance:

You must clearly acknowledge all assistance which has contributed to the production of your work, such as advice from fellow students, laboratory technicians, and other external sources. This need not apply to the assistance provided by your tutor or supervisor, or to ordinary proofreading, but it is necessary to acknowledge other guidance which leads to substantive changes of content or approach.

Auto-plagiarism or Self Plagiarism- You must not submit work for assessment that you have already submitted (partially or in full), either for your current course or for another qualification of this, or any other, university, unless this is specifically provided for in the special regulations for your course. Where earlier work by you is citable, i.e. it has already been published; you must reference it clearly. Identical pieces of work submitted concurrently will also be considered to be auto-plagiarism. This is also called as Self Plagiarism.

“Publication of one's own data that have already been published is not acceptable since it distorts scientific record.”Self-plagiarized

publications do not contribute to scientific work; they just increase the number of papers published without justification in scientific research.⁸ The authors get benefit in the form of increased number of published papers

Self-plagiarism involves dishonesty but not intellectual theft. Roig gave classification of self-plagiarism and divided it into four types: (i) Duplicate (redundant) publication, (ii) augmented publication, (iii) segmented publication, and (iv) text recycling.

Duplicate publication:

When an author submits identical or almost identical manuscript (same data, results, and discussion) to two different journals, it is considered as duplicate (redundant) publication.⁹ As per COPE guidelines, this is an offense and editor can take an action as per the COPE flowchart

Augmented publication:

If the author adds additional data to his/her previously published work and changes title, modifies aim of the study, and recalculates results, it amounts to augmented publication. Plagiarism detection software usually do not pick it because it is not same by verbatim. This self-plagiarism is as such technical plagiarism and is not considered with same strictness as plagiarism. The editor may consider it for publication in the following three situations: If author refers to his/her previous work; if 'methods' cannot be written in any other form; and if author clearly states that new manuscript contains data from previous publication¹⁰

Segmented publication:

Also called "Salami-Sliced" publication. In this case, two or more papers are derived from the same experimental/research/original work. Salami-sliced papers are difficult to detect and usually are pointed out by reviewers or readers. The decision regarding such manuscript is again on editor's shoulder. The author must be asked to refer to his/her previously published work and explain reasonably the connection of the segmented paper to his/her previously published work

Text recycling:

If the author uses large portions of his/her own already published text in his/her new manuscript, it is called text recycling. It can be detected by plagiarism software. It can be handled as per the COPE guidelines.

Cyber plagiarism:

“Copying or downloading in part or in their entirety articles or research papers and ideas from the internet and not giving proper attribution is unethical and falls in the range of cyber plagiarism”

Image plagiarism: Using an image or video without receiving proper permission or providing appropriate citation is plagiarism. “Images can be tampered on support findings, promote a specific technique over another to strengthen the correctness of poorly visualized findings, remove the defects of an image and to misrepresent an image from what it really is”?

Summing up, it must be understood that Plagiarism is a breach of academic integrity. It is a principle of intellectual honesty that all members of the academic community should acknowledge their debt to the originators of the ideas, words, and data which form the basis for their own work. Passing off another’s work as your own is not only poor scholarship, but also means that you have failed to complete the learning process. Plagiarism is unethical and can have serious consequences for your future career; it also undermines the standards of your institution and of the degrees it issues

6.3 HOW TO AVOID PLAGIARISM

It is imperative that every researcher/author must practice academic integrity and make conscious efforts to avoid Plagiarism. The following Do’s and Don’ts should be practiced:

- Attribute references
- Describe all sources of information
- Give Acknowledgement
- Provide footnotes
- Use quotation marks wherever required
- For extensive quotation, obtain permission from publisher/copyright holder of original work
- Widely known scientific and historical facts – generally counted as common knowledge and does not require citation
- Avoid Self plagiarism by taking permission from copy right holder/ publisher of previous article

In the following situation, permission is required to use published work from publisher to avoid plagiarism.

- Directly quoting significant portion of a published work. How much text may be used without approaching publisher for

permission is not specified. The best approach is whenever in doubt, ask for permission

- Reproducing a table
- Reproducing a figure/image.

Summing up, it is essential to realise that the first and most significant step towards avoiding Plagiarism is to KNOW what is Plagiarism.

6.4 PUBLICATION – PROCESS

As scholars, one strives to do high-quality research that will advance the discipline. During this process one comes up with what one believes are unique hypotheses, base our work on robust data and use an appropriate research methodology. As researchers write up the findings, the aim is to provide theoretical insight, and share theoretical and practical implications about the work. Once the work of documenting is done the researcher submits the manuscript for publication.

Publishing one's research is an important step in one's academic career. While there isn't a one-size-fits-all approach, the following section is designed to take one through the typical steps in publishing a research paper.

Step 1: Choosing an appropriate Journal:

Choosing an appropriate journal is one of the most significant decisions one has to make as a researcher. Where you decide to submit your work can make a big difference to the reach and impact your research has.

It's important to take your time to consider your options carefully and analyze each aspect of journal submission – from shortlisting titles to your preferred method of publication, for example open access.

Don't forget to think about publishing options beyond the traditional journals format – for example, open research platform which offers rapid, open publication for a wide range of outputs.

Choosing your target journal before you start writing means you can tailor your work to build on research that's already been published in that journal. This can help editors to see how a paper adds to the 'conversation' in their journal. In addition, many journals only accept specific manuscript formats of article. So, by choosing a journal before you start, you can write your article to their specifications and audience, and ultimately improve your chances of acceptance.

2. Writing Your Paper:

Writing an effective paper vital to getting your research published. But if you're new to putting together academic papers, it can feel daunting to start from scratch.

The good news is that if you've chosen the journal you want to publish in, you'll have lots of examples already published in that journal to base your own paper on.

How you write your paper will depend on your chosen journal, your subject area, and the type of paper you're writing. Everything from the style and structure you choose to the audience you should have in mind while writing will differ, so it's important to think about these things before you get stuck in.

3. Submitting Your Manuscript:

Once you've chosen the right journal and written your manuscript, the next step in publishing your research paper is to make your submission.

Each journal will have specific submission requirements, so make sure you carefully check through the instructions for authors for your chosen journal.

To submit your manuscript, you'll need to ensure that you've gone through all the steps in our making your submission guide. This includes thoroughly understanding your chosen journal's instructions for authors, writing an effective cover letter, navigating the journal's submission system, and ensuring your research data is prepared as required. Before you submit your article to one journal, ensure that you have checked with ready to submit checklist. The most important that you have to keep in mind is submit an article to one journal at time.

4. Navigating through Peer Review Process:

Peer review is the independent assessment of your research article by independent experts in your field. Reviewers, also sometimes called 'referees', are asked to judge the validity, significance, and originality of your work.

This process ensures that a peer-reviewed article has been through a rigorous process to make sure the methodology is sound, the work can be replicated, and it fits with the aims and scope of the journal that is considering it for publication. It acts as an important form of quality control for research papers.

Peer review is also a very useful source of feedback, helping you to improve your paper before it's published. It is intended to be a collaborative process, where authors engage in a dialogue with their

peers and receive constructive feedback and support to advance their work.

Almost all research articles go through peer review, although in some cases the journal may operate post-publication peer review, which means that reviews and reader comments are invited after the paper is published.

5. The Production Process:

If your paper is accepted for publication, it will then head into production. At this stage of the process, the paper will be prepared for publishing in your chosen journal.

A lot of the work to produce the final version of your paper will be done by the journal production team, but your input will be required at various stages of the process.

During production, you'll have a variety of tasks to complete and decisions to make. For example, you'll need to check and correct proofs of your article and consider whether or not you want to produce a video abstract to accompany it.

Your research is published – now what?

You've successfully navigated publishing a research paper – congratulations! But the process doesn't stop there. Now your research is published in a journal for the world to see, you'll need to know how to access your article and make sure it has an impact.

Taking the time to ensure your research has an impact can help drive your career progression, build your networks, and secure funding for new research.

Summing up, it may be realized that a detailed explanation of the process of publication is readily available on the websites of journals, which if followed meticulously will surely benefit the author/researcher.

6.5 CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES IN PUBLICATION

For doctoral students and other young scholars, publishing a research article can be a daunting process full of challenges as well as an opportunity to enhance one's career.

Hence it is essential to identify common pitfalls and be aware of helpful solutions to prepare more impactful papers. While there are several types of research articles, such as short communications, review papers and so forth, these guidelines focus on preparing a full article (including a literature review), whether based on qualitative or quantitative methodology, from the perspective of the management, education, information sciences and social sciences disciplines.

Writing for academic journals is a highly competitive activity, and it's important to understand that there could be several reasons behind a rejection. Furthermore, the journal peer-review process is an essential element of publication because no writer could identify and address all potential issues with a manuscript.

1. Do not rush submitting your article for publication:

The scholars should start writing during the early stages of your research or doctoral study career. This secret does not entail submitting your manuscript for publication the moment you have crafted its conclusion. Authors sometimes rely on the fact that they will always have an opportunity to address their work's shortcomings after the feedback received from the journal editor and reviewers has identified them.

A proactive approach and attitude will reduce the chance of rejection and disappointment. A logical flow of activities dominates every research activity and should be followed for preparing a manuscript as well. Such activities include carefully re-reading your manuscript at different times and perhaps at different places. Re-reading is essential in the research field and helps identify the most common problems and shortcomings in the manuscript, which might otherwise be overlooked. Second, it is very helpful to share your manuscripts with colleagues and other researchers in your network and to request their feedback.

2. Select an appropriate publication outlet:

Many researchers often do not take enough efforts to select the appropriate publication outlet. Finding the right journal for your article can dramatically improve the chances of acceptance and ensure it reaches your target audience. Many publications house provide assistance to authors/ researchers to select the correct publication outlet. For instance, Elsevier provides an innovative Journal Finder search facility on its website. Authors enter the article title, a brief abstract and the field of research to get a list of the most appropriate journals for their article.

Less experienced scholars sometimes choose to submit their research work to two or more journals at the same time. Research ethics and policies of all scholarly journals suggest that authors should submit a manuscript to only one journal at a time. Doing otherwise can cause embarrassment and lead to copyright problems for the author, the university employer and the journals involved.

3. Read the aims and scope and author guidelines of your target journal carefully:

Once you have read and re-read your manuscript carefully several times, received feedback from your colleagues, and identified a target journal, the next important step is to read the aims and scope of the

journals in your target research area. Doing so will improve the chances of having your manuscript accepted for publishing. Another important step is to download and absorb the author guidelines and ensure your manuscript conforms to them. Some publishers report that one paper in five does not follow the style and format requirements of the target journal, which might specify requirements for figures, tables and references.

Rejection can come at different times and in different formats. For instance, if your research objective is not in line with the aims and scope of the target journal, or if your manuscript is not structured and formatted according to the target journal layout, or if your manuscript does not have a reasonable chance of being able to satisfy the target journal's publishing expectations, the manuscript can receive a desk rejection from the editor without being sent out for peer review. Desk rejections can be disheartening for authors, making them feel they have wasted valuable time and might even cause them to lose enthusiasm for their research topic.

4. Make a good first impression with your title and abstract:

The title and abstract are incredibly important components of a manuscript as they are the first elements a journal editor sees. The following pointers can be kept in mind:

- The title should summarize the main theme of the article and reflect your contribution to the theory.
- The abstract should be crafted carefully and encompass the aim and scope of the study; the key problem to be addressed and theory; the method used; the data set; key findings; limitations; and implications for theory and practice.

5. Have a professional editing firm copy-edit (not just proofread) your manuscript, including the main text, list of references, tables and figures:

The key characteristic of scientific writing is clarity. Before submitting a manuscript for publication, it is highly advisable to have a professional editing firm copy-edit your manuscript. An article submitted to a peer-reviewed journal will be scrutinized critically by the editorial board before it is selected for peer review. According to a statistic shared by many publication outlets, between 30 percent and 50 percent of articles submitted to them are rejected before they even reach the peer-review stage, and one of the top reasons for rejection is poor language. A properly written, edited and presented text will be error free and understandable and will project a professional image that will help ensure your work is taken seriously in the world of publishing. On occasion, the major revisions conducted at the request of a reviewer will necessitate another round of editing.

Authors can facilitate the editing of their manuscripts by taking precautions at their end. These include proofreading their own manuscript for accuracy and wordiness (avoid unnecessary or normative descriptions like “it should be noted here” and “the authors believe”) and sending it for editing only when it is complete in all respects and ready for publishing. Professional editing companies charge hefty fees, and it is simply not financially viable to have them conduct multiple rounds of editing on your article. Applications like the spelling and grammar checker in Microsoft Word or Grammarly are certainly worth applying to your article, but the benefits of proper editing are undeniable.

6. Submit a cover letter with the manuscript:

Never underestimate the importance of a cover letter addressed to the editor or editor-in-chief of the target journal. Many publication outlets revealed that many submissions do not include a covering letter, which is very essential as it gives authors an important opportunity to convince them that their research work is worth reviewing.

Accordingly, the content of the cover letter is also worth spending time on. Some inexperienced scholars paste the article’s abstract into their letter thinking it will be sufficient to make the case for publication; it is a practice best avoided. A good cover letter first outlines the main theme of the paper; second, argues the novelty of the paper; and third, justifies the relevance of the manuscript to the target journal. It is also suggested that limiting the cover letter to half a page is more suitable.

7. Address reviewer comments very carefully:

Editors and editors-in-chief usually couch the acceptance of a manuscript as subject to a “revise and resubmit” based on the recommendations provided by the reviewer or reviewers. These revisions may necessitate either major or minor changes in the manuscript. Inexperienced scholars should understand a few key aspects of the revision process. First, it is important to address the revisions diligently; second, is imperative to address all the comments received from the reviewers and avoid oversights; third, the resubmission of the revised manuscript must happen by the deadline provided by the journal; fourth, the revision process might comprise multiple rounds.

The revision process requires two major documents. The first is the revised manuscript highlighting all the modifications made following the recommendations received from the reviewers. The second is a letter listing the authors’ responses illustrating they have addressed all the concerns of the reviewers and editors. These two documents should be drafted carefully. The authors of the manuscript can agree or disagree with the comments of the reviewers (typically agreement is encouraged) and are not always obliged to implement their

recommendations, but they should in all cases provide a well-argued justification for their course of action.

Summarizing, it may be realized that given the everincreasing number of manuscripts submitted for publication, the process of preparing a manuscript well enough to have it accepted by a journal can be daunting. High-impact journals accept less than 10 percent of the articles submitted to them, although the acceptance ratio for special issues or special topics sections is normally over 40 percent. Scholars might have to resign themselves to having their articles rejected and then reworking them to submit them to a different journal before the manuscript is accepted.

The pointers provided in the aforesaid section require proper attention, planning and careful implementation; however, following the pointers could help doctoral students and other scholars improve the likelihood of getting their work published, and that is key to having a productive, exciting and rewarding academic career.

6.6 INDEXING AND CITATION

The prestige of any journal is considered by how many abstracting and indexing services cover that journal. It has been observed in last few years that authors have started searching for indexed journals to publish their articles. Probably this is happening because it has become a mandatory requirement for further promotions of teaching faculty in colleges and institutions. However, the big question is after all what is an “Index Journal”? Is a journal considered indexed if it is documented in a local database, regional database, or in any continental database? Based on available literature, we would like to clear in few forthcoming paragraphs what is the history of indexing, what is actual indexing, and what is nonindexing?

Citation index (indexing) is an ordered list of cited articles, each accompanied by a list of citing articles. The citing article is identified as source and the cited article as reference. An abstracting and indexing service is a product, a publisher sells, or makes available. The journal contents are searchable using subject headings (keywords, author's names, title, abstract, etc.) in available database. Being represented in the relevant online abstracting and indexing services is an essential factor for the success of a journal. Today search is done online, so it is imperative that a journal is represented in the relevant online search system. A citation index is a kind of bibliographic database, an index of citation between publications, allowing the user to easily establish which later documents, cite which earlier documents.

A form of citation index was first found in the 12th century in Hebrew religious literature. Legal citation indexes were found in the 18th century and were made popular by citators such as Shepard's citations (1873). In 1960, the Eugene Garfields Institute for Scientific

Information (ISI) introduced the first citation index for papers published in academic journals, first the science citation index (SCI) and later social science's citation index and the arts and humanities citation index. The first automated citation indexing was done by "CiteSeer" in 1997. Other sources for such data include Google Scholar and Elsevier's Scopus.

Currently major citation indexing services are:

SCI and SCI-expanded: Published by ISI a part of Thomson Reuters. As mentioned, SCI was originally produced by ISI and created by Eugene Garfield (1964). The SCI's database has two aims – first, to identify what each scientist has published and second, where and how often the papers by that scientist are cited. The SCI's electronic version is called "Web of Science." SCI-expanded indexes 8073 journals with citation references across 174 scientific disciplines in science edition.

Scopus: Scopus (Elsevier) is a bibliographic database containing abstracts and citations for academic journal articles. It covers 21,000 titles from over 5000 publishers.⁷ It is available online only.

Indian citation index (ICI): An online citation data ICI8 is a new web platform for measuring performance of Indian research periodically. This online bibliographic database was launched in 2009. ICI covers 800 plus journals which are published from India on science, technical, medical, and social sciences.

In addition, "CiteSeer" and Google Scholar' are freely available online.

6.7 LET US SUM UP

According to the Merriam-Webster online dictionary, to "plagiarize" means:

- to steal and pass off (the ideas or words of another) as one's own
- to use (another's production) without crediting the source
- to commit literary theft
- to present as new and original an idea or product derived from an existing source

In other words, plagiarism is an act of fraud. It involves both stealing someone else's work and lying about it afterward.

All of the following are considered plagiarism:

- turning in someone else's work as your own
- copying words or ideas from someone else without giving credit

- failing to put a quotation in quotation marks
- giving incorrect information about the source of a quotation
- changing words but copying the sentence structure of a source without giving credit
- copying so many words or ideas from a source that it makes up the majority of your work, whether you give credit or not (see our section on "fair use" rules)

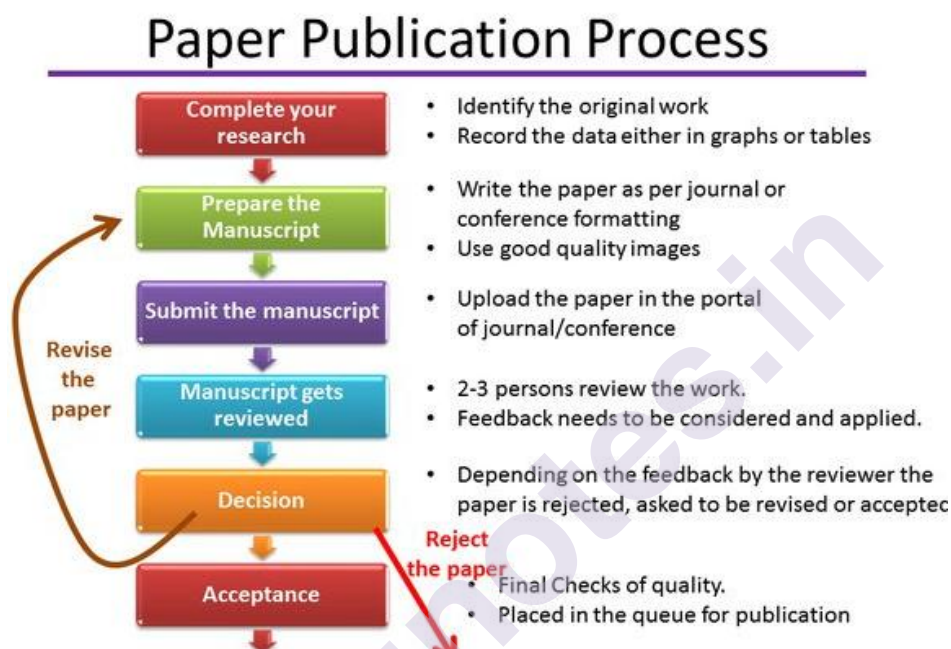
Most cases of plagiarism can be avoided, however, by citing sources. Simply acknowledging that certain material has been borrowed and providing your audience with the information necessary to find that source is usually enough to prevent plagiarism. See our section on citation for more information on how to cite sources properly.

Using an image, video or piece of music in a work you have produced without receiving proper permission or providing appropriate citation is plagiarism. The following activities are very common in today's society. Despite their popularity, they still count as plagiarism.

- Copying media (especially images) from other websites to paste them into your own papers or websites.
- Making a video using footage from others' videos or using copyrighted music as part of the soundtrack.
- Performing another person's copyrighted music (i.e., playing a cover).
- Composing a piece of music that borrows heavily from another composition.
- Certainly, these media pose situations in which it can be challenging to determine whether or not the copyrights of a work are being violated. For example:
- A photograph or scan of a copyrighted image (for example: using a photograph of a book cover to represent that book on one's website)
- Recording audio or video in which copyrighted music or video is playing in the background.
- Re-creating a visual work in the same medium. (for example: shooting a photograph that uses the same composition and subject matter as someone else's photograph)
- Re-creating a visual work in a different medium (for example: making a painting that closely resembles another person's photograph).

- Re-mixing or altering copyrighted images, video or audio, even if done so in an original way.
- The legality of these situations, and others, would be dependent upon the intent and context within which they are produced. The two safest approaches to take in regards to these situations is: 1) Avoid them altogether or 2) Confirm the works' usage permissions and cite them properly.

The following image shows the process of publication of a Research paper:



Citation indexing makes links between books and articles that were written in the past and articles that make reference to ("cite") these older publications. In other words, it is a technique that allows us to trace the use of an idea (an earlier document) forward to others who have used ("cited") it.

6.8 UNIT END QUESTIONS

1. What is Plagiarism?
2. Enumerate the dos and don'ts of Plagiarism.
3. Enlist the different types of Plagiarism.
4. Explain the process of Publication.
5. Explain the citation indexing.

6.9 REFERENCES

- Masic I. Ethical aspects and Dilemmas of Preparing, Writing and Publishing of the Scientific Papers in the Biomedical Journals. Acta Inform Med. 2012;20(3):141–148. doi:105455/aim.2012.20.141-148. [PMC free article] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- Masic I. How to Search, Write, Prepare and Publish the Scientific Papers in Bimedical Journals. Acta Inform Med. 2011;19(2):68–79. doi:10.4555/aim.2011.19.68-79. [PMC free article] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- Committee On Publication Ethics. COPE. Code of Conduct and Best Practice Guidelines for Journal Editors. Available: <http://publication>.
- https://cgscholar.com/cg_support/en/docs/63-learn-about-the-article-publication-process
- <https://www.ou.edu/webhelp/librarydemos/isi/>
- <https://www.librarianshipstudies.com/2017/02/citation-indexing.html>
