ENGLISH

Final term assignment

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Question 1

What are the methods and steps for writing an essay?

Answer:

7 Steps to Writing an Essay
For some, writing an essay is as simple as sitting down at their computer and beginning to type. But, a lot more planning goes into writing an essay successfully. If you have never written an essay before, or if you struggle with writing and want to improve your skills, it is a good idea to follow a number of important steps in the essay writing process.

For example, to write an essay, you should generally:
- ❑ Decide what kind of essay to write
- ❑ Brainstorm your topic
- ❑ Research the topic
- ❑ Develop a thesis
- ❑ Outline your essay
- ❑ Write your essay
- ❑ Edit your writing to check spelling and grammar

1. Choose the Type of Essay

The first step to writing an essay is to define what type of essay you are writing. There are four main categories into which essays can be grouped:

Narrative Essay: Tell a story or impart information about your subject in a straightforward, orderly manner, like in a story.

Persuasive Essay: Convince the reader about some point of view.

Expository Essay: Explain to the reader how to do a given process. You could, for example, write an expository essay with step-by-step instructions on how to make a peanut butter sandwich.

[Descriptive Essay](): Focus on the details of what is going on. For example, if you want to write a descriptive essay about your trip to the park, you would give great detail about what you experienced: how the grass felt beneath your feet, what the park benches looked like, and anything else the reader would need to feel as if he were there.

2. Brainstorm

You cannot write an essay unless you have an idea of what to write about. Brainstorming is the process in which you come up with the [essay topic](). You need to simply sit and think of ideas during this phase.

    A. Write down everything that comes to mind as you can always narrow those topics down later.

    B. Use clustering or mind mapping to brainstorm and come up with an essay idea. This involves writing your topic or idea in the center of the paper and creating bubbles (clouds or clusters) of related ideas around it.

    C. Brainstorming can be a great way to develop a topic more deeply and to recognize connections between various facets of your topic.

3. Research the Topic

Once you have done your brainstorming and chosen your topic, you may need to do some research to write a good essay. Go to the library or search online for information about your topic. Interview people who might be experts in the subject.

Keep your research organized so it will be easy for you to refer back to. This will also make it easier to [cite your sources]() when writing your final essay.

4. Develop a Thesis

Your [thesis statement]() is the main point of your essay. It is essentially one sentence that says what the essay is about. For example, your thesis statement might be "Dogs are descended from wolves." You can then use this as the basic premise to write your entire essay, remembering that all of the different points throughout need to lead back to this one main thesis. You should usually state your thesis in your introductory paragraph.

The thesis statement should be broad enough that you have enough to say about it, but not so broad that you can't be thorough.

To help you structure a perfectly clear thesis, check out these [These Statement Examples]().

5. Outline Your Essay

The next step is to outline what you are going to write about. This means you want to essentially draw the skeleton of your paper. Writing an outline can help to ensure your paper is logical, well organized and flows properly.

6. Write the Essay

Once you have an outline, it's time to start writing. Write based on the outline itself, fleshing out your basic skeleton to create a whole, cohesive and clear essay.

You'll want to edit and re-read your essay, checking to make sure it sounds exactly the way you want it to. Here are some things to remember:

1. Revise for clarity, consistency, and structure.

2. Support your thesis adequately with the information in your paragraphs. Each paragraph should have its own topic sentence. This is the most important sentence in the paragraph that tells readers what the rest of the paragraph will be about.

3. Make sure everything flows together. As you move through the essay, transition words will be paramount. Transition words are the glue that connects every paragraph together and prevents the essay from sounding disjointed.

4. Reread your introduction and conclusion. Will the reader walk away knowing exactly what your paper was about?

7. Check Spelling and Grammar

Now the essay is written, but you're not quite done. Reread what you've written, looking out for mistakes and typos.

➢ Revise for technical errors.

➢ Check for grammar, punctuation and spelling errors. You cannot always count on spell check to recognize every spelling error. Sometimes, you can spell a word incorrectly but your misspelling will also be a word, such as spelling "from" as "form"

➢ Another common area of concern is quotation marks. It's important to cite your sources with accuracy and clarity. Follow these guidelines on how to use quotes in essays and speeches.

➢ You might also want to consider the difference between quoting, paraphrasing, and summarizing. Quoting is reserved for lines of text that are identical to an original piece of writing. Paraphrasing is reserved for large sections of someone else's writing that you want to convey in your own words. Summarizing puts the main points from someone else's text into your own words. Here's more on When to Quote, Paraphrase, or Summarize.

Question 2

What is a Paragraph, explain the elements in detail?

Answer:

Definition of Paragraph

- ⦿ • A paragraph is made of a few sentences that talk about ONE single topic. You should have at least five to seven sentences in your paragraph.

- ⦿ • Your topic can have some evidence or examples to support it, but these should all be related to each other. Do not introduce any new topic.

- ⦿ • Each paragraph should have coherence and cohesion.

Different Parts of a Paragraph:
Topic Sentence

- ⦿ A Topic Sentence is a sentence that tells the reader what your paragraph is about. You can write your topic sentence in the beginning, middle, or end of your paragraph. If you are a new writer, it might be easier for you to start your paragraph with your topic sentence and take it from there.

- ⦿ Remember this formula:

- ⦿ Topic Sentence= Topic + Controlling Idea

Controlling Idea

As the name suggests, controlling idea controls your thoughts and ideas. The controlling idea tells your reader what specific aspect of this topic you are going to write about.

Example of Topic Sentence and Controlling Idea

• Look at the following word:

Raw Vegetables

• If I say raw vegetable, nobody will know what I will write about raw vegetables. I could write about how they are planted, what they are used for, different recipes calling for raw vegetables, the vitamins in them, etc.

• By writing a controlling idea, I can clarify what I am talking about.

Raw vegetables might not be as healthy as we thought they were.

⊙ • Here I made it clear that I am going to talk about the health related aspect of raw vegetables. So, my topic is "raw vegetables" and my controlling idea is "might not be as healthy as we thought they were". I also started my sentence with a shocking claim that raw vegetables might actually be harmful!

Supporting Details

If your paragraph has five sentences, usually the three sentences after the Topic Sentence are called the Supporting Details (Sentences). These sentences give explanation, evidence, and reason for your claim.

Example of Supporting Sentence

• Take the example of our paragraph about Raw Vegetables. I can write three supporting sentences bringing evidence to support my claim that raw vegetables might not be as healthy for you.

Read the first supporting sentence below:

We all agree that raw vegetables are full of vitamins and minerals, but some of these raw vegetables can also carry toxic ingredients that can cause severe harm to your health if you don't cook them.

Concluding Sentence

The last sentence in your paragraph is called a Concluding Sentence. The Concluding Sentence does NOT introduce anything new. It either summarizes what you already talked about or paraphrases the Topic Sentence.

Example of Concluding Sentence

• Raw vegetables have always been considered one of our best friends when it comes to our diet, but we should always familiarize ourselves with the ingredients inside them and the best way to eat them: cooked or uncooked.

KINDS OF PARAGRAPH
Narrative Paragraph

In a Narrative Paragraph, you will share your story or what happened with your reader. Again, to get your readers involved in your story in a better way, try using the Journalists' Questions: why, who, where, what, when, where. Try to write the events in your story chronologically (in order of their occurrence).

Descriptive Paragraph

In a Descriptive Paragraph, you should try to engage your reader by answering the Journalists' Questions: why, who, where, what, when, where. If applicable, you should also describe how you, as the writer, felt. You should use active voice (normal) verbs in this kind of paragraph. In sentences with active voice verbs we know who the doer of the action is. For example: George washed my car yesterday.

Definition Paragraph

In a Definition Paragraph you explain something to the reader: an unfamiliar term, concept, or a cultural event, etc. You can do this by likening it to something your audience is familiar with, or by giving synonyms and explanations for it.

Classification Paragraph

In Classification Paragraph, you need to put items into different groups or categories where they belong based on a criteria or rule. You should start by identifying what it is that you are classifying. You can categorize things from the most educational to the least educational, or from the most watched TV show to the least watched TV show, but make sure that your categories are consistent. In this type of paragraph you do both comparing and defining.

Question 3

What is a sentence and a fragment sentence, explain all the types and differences?

Answer:

Sentence Fragments
Recognizing Sentence Fragments:

Fragment: A small part broken off or separated from something.

 Synonym: Piece

- Sentence fragments are groups of words that don't express a complete thought. They are only part of a sentence.

- They are fine to use in conversation, but they are a no-no when it comes to any kind of formal or academic writing.

- We talk about sentence fragments in contrast to complete sentences.

- A complete sentence expresses a complete thought.

Here are a few examples of fragments and complete sentences:

<u>Fragments:</u>

On the table.

Over there.

This thing.

If I walk home

**<u>*Complete Sentences*</u>*:*

My hat is on the table.

The dog ran over there.

This thing is bothering me!

I'll call you if I walk home.

When a group of words is missing important information, it no longer expresses a compete thought.

<u>There are four types of sentence fragments:</u>

1. Missing Subject Fragments
2. Missing Verb Fragments
3. Missing a Subject and a Verb Fragments
4. Dependent Clause Fragments

Sentence Fragment 1
(Missing Subject Fragment):

Subjects tell whom or what the sentence is about.
If the subject is missing, we are left wondering **who** or **what** performed the action.
Ran around the tree.
(**Who** ran around the tree?)
Will walk into the room.
(**Who** will walk into the room?)
Shot through the sky.
(**What** shot through the sky?)

Fixing Sentence Fragment 1
(Missing Subject Fragment):

We can fix each of those fragments and turn them into sentences by adding a
<u>subject</u>.
The <u>dog</u> ran around the tree.
The <u>president</u> will walk into the room.
A <u>rocket</u> shot through the sky.

Sentence Fragment 2
(Missing Verb Fragment):

Verbs tell what the subject did or is.
If the verb is missing, we are left wondering **what the subject did** or **what the
subject is**.
My little brother.
(My little brother **did/is what**?)
My cute little dog.
(The cute little dog **did/is what**?)

Fixing Sentence Fragment 2
(Missing Verb Fragment):

We can fix these types of fragments by adding a verb.
My little brother <u>ran</u> away.
My cute little dog <u>is</u> cuddly.

Sentence Fragment 3
(Missing Subject and Verb):

Some fragments are missing both subjects and verbs. That means that we don't
know whom the sentence is about or what they did or are.
On the table.
Over there.
These are prepositional phrases rather than clauses.

Fixing Sentence Fragment 3
(Missing Subject and Verb Fragments):

We need to add a subject and a verb to these prepositional phrases in order to make them
complete sentences.
The corn is on the table.
My doggie ran over there.

Sentence Fragment 4
(Dependent Clause Fragments):

Dependent clauses are groups of words that have a subject and a verb, but don't express a complete thought on their own. They are sentence fragments and dependent upon an independent clause.

Whenever I walk the dog.

Until my little sister walks into the room

Sentence Fragments Without a Subject

1.   Shows no improvement in your efficiency.

REV: The evaluation shows no improvement in your efficiency.

2.   Slammed the door and left.

REV: Sarah slammed the door and left.

3.   Running down the lane and into the forest.

REV: The moose was running down the lane and into the forest

4.   Discovered the cure for the disease.

REV: The researcher discovered the cure for the disease.

5.   Gave many reasons but no logical ones.

 REV: Our boss gave many reasons but no logical ones.

Sentence Fragments Without a Verb

1   A time of wonder and amazement.

 REV: That was a time of wonder and amazement.

2   Clothes and shoes scattered around the room.

REV: Clothes and shoes were scattered around the room.

 3   The elected official for our district.

REV: The elected official for our district was at the ribbon cutting ceremony.

4   The answer to our prayers.

REV: The answer to our prayers is a corporate sponsorship.

5   Showing her award and gloating.

REV: Terri was showing her award and gloating.

FRAGMENT
V E R S U S
SENTENCE

FRAGMENT	SENTENCE
Fragment does not convey a complete thought	Sentence conveys a complete thought
May not contain a subject	Always contains a subject
May not contain a verb	Always contains a verb
May not contain an independent clause	Always contains at least one independent clause

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Question 4

What are types of an essay, explain in detail?

Answer:

Types of an essay

1. Narrative Essay
2. Persuasive Essay
3. Expository Essay
4. Descriptive Essay

Four Major Types of Essays

Distinguishing between types of essays is simply a matter of determining the writer's goal. Does the writer want to tell about a personal experience, describe something, explain an issue, or convince the reader to accept a certain viewpoint? The four major types of essays address these purposes:

- *1. Narrative Essays: Telling a Story*
  In a narrative essay, the writer tells a story about a real-life experience. While telling a story may sound easy to do, the narrative essay challenges students to think and write about themselves. When writing a narrative essay, writers should try to involve the reader by making the story as vivid as possible. The fact that narrative essays are usually written in the first person helps engage the reader. "I" sentences give readers a feeling of being part of the story. A well-crafted narrative essay will also build towards drawing a conclusion or making a personal statement.

- *2. Descriptive Essays: Painting a Picture*
  A cousin of the narrative essay, a descriptive essay paints a picture with words. A writer might describe a person, place, object, or even memory of special significance. However, this type of essay is not description for description's sake. The descriptive essay strives to communicate a deeper meaning through the description. In a descriptive essay, the writer should show, not tell, through the use of colorful words and sensory details. The best descriptive essays appeal to the reader's emotions, with a result that is highly evocative.

- *3. Expository Essays: Just the Facts*
  The expository essay is an informative piece of writing that presents a balanced analysis of a topic. In an expository essay, the writer explains or defines a topic, using facts, statistics, and examples. Expository writing encompasses a wide range of essay variations, such as the comparison and contrast essay, the cause and effect essay, and the

"how to" or process essay. Because expository essays are based on facts and not personal feelings, writers don't reveal their emotions or write in the first person.

- *4. Persuasive Essays: Convince Me*
  While like an expository essay in its presentation of facts, the goal of the <u>persuasive essay</u> is to convince the reader to accept the writer's point of view or recommendation. The writer must build a case using facts and logic, as well as examples, expert opinion, and sound reasoning. The writer should present all sides of the argument, but must be able to communicate clearly and without equivocation why a certain position is correct

Question 5
Define and explain Comprehension.

Answer:

We define reading comprehension as the process of simultaneously extracting and constructing meaning through interaction and involvement with written language. We use the words extracting and constructing to emphasize both the importance and the insufficiency of the text as a determinant of reading comprehension. Comprehension entails three elements:

•The reader who is doing the comprehending

• The text that is to be comprehended

• The activity in which comprehension is a part.

In considering the reader, we include all the capacities, abilities, knowledge, and experiences that a person brings to the act of reading. Text is broadly construed to include any printed text or electronic text. In considering activity, we include the purposes, processes, and consequences associated with the act of reading. These three dimensions define a phenomenon that occurs within a larger sociocultural context (see Figure 1) that shapes and is shaped by the reader and that interacts with each of the three elements. The identities and capacities of

THE READER

To comprehend, a reader must have a wide range of capacities and abilities. These include cognitive capacities (e.g., attention, memory, critical analytic ability, inferencing, visualization ability), motivation (a purpose for reading, an interest in the content being read, self-efficacy as a reader), and various types of knowledge (vocabulary, domain and topic knowledge, linguistic and discourse knowledge, knowledge of specific comprehension strategies). Of course, the specific cognitive, motivational, and linguistic capacities and the knowledge base called on in any act of reading comprehension depend on the texts in use and the specific activity in which one is engaged. Fluency can be conceptualized as both an antecedent to and a consequence of comprehension. Some aspects of fluent, expressive reading may depend on a thorough understanding of a text. However, some components of fluency— quick and efficient recognition of words and at least some aspects of syntactic parsing—appear to be prerequisites for

comprehension. As a reader begins to read and completes whatever activity is at hand, some of the knowledge and capabilities of the reader change. For example, a reader might increase domain knowledge during reading. Similarly, vocabulary, linguistic, or discourse knowledge might increase. Fluency could also increase as a function of the additional practice in reading. Motivational factors, such as selfconcept or interest in the topic, might change in either a positive or a negative direction during a successful or an unsuccessful reading experience. Another important source of changes in knowledge and capacities is the instruction that a reader receives. Appropriate instruction will foster reading comprehension, which is defined in two ways—the comprehension of the text under current consideration and comprehension capacities more generally. Thus, although teachers may focus their content area instruction on helping students understand the material, an important concurrent goal is helping students learn how to become self-regulated, active readers who have a variety of strategies to help them comprehend. Effective teachers incorporate both goals into their comprehension instruction. They have a clear understanding of which students need which type of instruction for which texts, and they give students the instruction they need to meet both short-term and long-term comprehension goals.

THE TEXT

The features of text have a large effect on comprehension. Comprehension does not occur by simply extracting meaning from text. During reading, the reader constructs different representations of the text that are important for comprehension. These representations include, for example, the surface code (the exact wording of the text), the text base (idea units representing the meaning), and a representation of the mental models embedded in the text. The proliferation of computers and electronic text has led us to broaden the definition of text to include electronic text and multimedia documents in addition to conventional print. Electronic text can present particular challenges to comprehension, such as dealing with the non-linear nature of hypertext, but it also offers the potential for supporting the comprehension of complex texts, for example, through hyperlinks to definitions or translations of difficult words or to paraphrasing of complex sentences. Texts can be difficult or easy, depending on factors inherent in the text, on the relationship between the text and the knowledge and abilities of the reader, and on the activities in which the reader is engaged. For example, the content presented in the text has a critical bearing on reading comprehension. A reader's domain knowledge interacts with the content of the text in comprehension. In addition to content, the vocabulary load of the text and its linguistic structure, discourse style, and genre also interact with the reader's knowledge. When too many of these factors are not matched to a reader's knowledge and experience, the text may be too difficult for optimal comprehension to occur. Further, various activities are better suited to some texts than to others. For example, electronic texts that are the product of Internet searches typically need to be scanned for relevance and for reliability, unlike assigned texts that are meant to be studied more deeply. Electronic texts that incorporate hyperlinks and hypermedia introduce some complications in defining comprehension because they require skills and abilities beyond those required for the comprehension of conventional, linear print. The challenge of teaching reading comprehension is heightened in the current educational era because all students are expected to read more text and more complex texts. Schools can no longer track students so that only those with highly developed reading skills take the more reading-intensive courses. All students now need to read high-level texts with comprehension to pass highstakes exams and to make themselves employable.

THE ACTIVITY

Reading does not occur in a vacuum. It is done for a purpose, to achieve some end. Activity refers to this dimension of reading. A reading activity involves one or more purposes, some operations to process the text at hand, and the consequences of performing the activity. Prior to reading, a reader has a purpose, which can be either externally imposed (e.g., completing a class assignment) or internally generated (wanting to program a VCR). The purpose is influenced by a cluster of motivational variables, including interest and prior knowledge. The initial purposes can change as the reader reads. That is, a reader might encounter information that raises new questions that make the original purpose either incomplete or irrelevant. When the purpose is externally mandated, as in instruction, the reader might accept the purpose and complete the activity; for example, if the assignment is "read a paragraph in order to write a summary," the compliant student will accept that purpose and engage in reading operations designed to address it. If the reader does not fully accept the mandated purpose, internally generated purposes may conflict with the externally mandated purpose. Such conflicts may lead to incomplete comprehension. For example, if students fail to see the relevance of an assignment, they may not read purposively, thus compromising their comprehension of the text. During reading, the reader processes the text with regard to the purpose. Processing the text involves, beyond decoding, higher-level linguistic and semantic processing and monitoring. Each process is more or less important in different types of reading, including skimming (getting only the gist of text) and studying (reading text with the intent of retaining the information for a period of time). Finally, the consequences of reading are part of the activity. Some reading activities lead to an increase in the knowledge a reader has. For example, reading the historical novel Andersonville may increase the reader's knowledge about the U.S. Civil War, even though the reader's initial purpose may have been enjoyment. The American history major who reads an assigned text about the Civil War may experience similar consequences, although the reading activity was undertaken for the explicit purpose of learning. Another consequence of reading activities is finding out how to do something. These application consequences are often related to the goal of the reader. Repairing a bicycle or preparing bouillabaisse from a recipe are examples of applications. As with knowledge consequences, application consequences may or may not be related to the original purposes. Finally, other reading activities have engagement as their consequences. Reading the latest Tom Clancy novel might keep the reader involved while on vacation at the beach. We are not suggesting, however, that engagement occurs only with fiction. Good comprehenders can be engaged in many different types of text. Knowledge, application, and engagement can be viewed as direct consequences of the reading activity. Activities may also have other, longer-term consequences. Any knowledge (or application) acquired during reading for enjoyment also becomes part of the knowledge that a reader brings to the next reading experience. Learning new vocabulary, acquiring incidental knowledge about Civil War battles or bouillabaisse ingredients, or discovering a new interest might all be consequences of reading with comprehension.

THE CONTEXT

One important set of reading activities occurs in the context of instruction. Understanding how the reader's purpose for reading and operations are shaped by instruction, and how short- and long-term consequences are influenced by instruction, constitutes a major issue within the research agenda we propose. When we think about the context of learning to read, we think mostly of classrooms. Of course, children bring to their classrooms vastly varying capacities and

understandings about reading, which are in turn influenced, or in some cases determined, by their experiences in their homes and neighborhoods. Further, classrooms and schools themselves reflect the neighborhood context and the economic disparities of the larger society. The differences in instruction and in the availability of texts, computers, and other instructional resources between schools serving low-income neighborhoods and those serving middleincome neighborhoods are well documented. Sociocultural and sociohistorical theories of learning and literacy describe how children acquire literacy through social interactions with more expert peers and adults. According to Vygotsky (1978), with the guidance and support of an expert, children are able to perform tasks that are slightly beyond their own independent knowledge and capability. As they become more knowledgeable and experienced with the task, the support is withdrawn, and the children internalize the new knowledge and experiences they have acquired, which results in learning. From a sociocultural perspective, both the process (the ways the instruction is delivered and the social interactions that contextualize the learning experience) and the content (the focus of instruction) are of major importance. Defining Compre Tharp and Gallimore (1988) explain that children's acquisition of knowledge (and literacy) is influenced by five characteristics of the sociocultural context, which they call activity settings: the identity of the participants, how the activity is defined or executed, the timing of the activity, where it occurs, and why children should participate in the activity, or the motivation for the activity. Clearly, all five characteristics are likely to vary as a function of both economic and cultural factors. The effects of contextual factors, including economic resources, class membership, ethnicity, neighborhood, and school culture, can be seen in oral language practices, in students' self-concepts, in the types of literacy activities in which individuals engage, in instructional history, and, of course, in the likelihood of successful outcomes. The classroom-learning environment (such as organizational grouping, inclusion of technology, or availability of materials) is an important aspect of the context that can affect the development of comprehension abilities.

END