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# **Part I General/Introductory Chapters**



# 1

## Knowledge Creation and the Journal Editor's Role

*Alison M. Konrad*

Much has been written on the role of reviewers in the academic publishing process, yet little guidance is available to new editors of academic journals. When I took over as a new editor, what I received in the form of guidance was a set of cardboard boxes in the mail (filled with manuscripts) with all the best wishes of the previous editor. Upon asking senior people in the field for suggestions, I was told that I can do “anything I want.”

Autonomy is a wonderful thing, and something that many academics value; however, I do not believe that editors should be able to do “anything they want.” Given that the editorial role is so crucial to the development of the field as well as to the lives and careers of academics, it is important to start developing a set of process standards for assessing the quality of editorship. Outcome standards such as journal rankings by the ISI and other evaluation lists (e.g. Starbuck, 2005) already exist, but due to long lead times and the distal nature of outcomes, process standards are needed to help editors spend their time in ways that are most likely to result in the publication of high-quality manuscripts.

Given that the editor's work is to create, maintain, and extend the body of knowledge in the field, I thought that reading about knowledge creation might provide some useful implications for editorial action. By no means did I conduct a thorough reading of all of the knowledge-management literature, and I do not claim to provide a comprehensive synthesis of it here. I did find some very useful ideas, however, that helped to clarify and justify some of my own thoughts on what constitutes a high-quality editorial process.

First, the knowledge-creation literature suggests that the work of an editor is to *adjudicate the intersubjective knowledge-conversion process* whereby a manuscript representing the personal knowledge of the author(s) becomes part of the common body of knowledge in the field. As such, the work of an editor requires judgment, and the process is wrought with subjectivity. Subjectivity brings with it a set of knowledge-related exchange hazards, which others have considered in detail (Aguinis & Henle, 2002; Shapiro & Bartunek, this volume). The major point of this chapter will be that *the*

*subjectivity and complexity of the content which editors work with means that the use of editorial judgment and extensive communication with authors and reviewers is essential.*

### What is knowledge?

Defining knowledge is a nontrivial task, and the extant literature provides several definitions and debates about what knowledge is (see Calhoun & Starbuck, 2003). I found Tywoniak's (2007) "complexity" definition to be particularly interesting and useful for the discussion of the role of editors. Tywoniak begins by defining knowledge as "rules that reduce environmental uncertainty through connections between ideas and facts," which serve as guides for behavior (p. 53). He then suggests that this definition considers knowledge only as a structure, whereas a complexity perspective considers knowledge as a structure, a process, and a system (see Table 1.1).

As a structure, knowledge is stable, and as such can only be useful under stable conditions. Under conditions of instability, individuals must be able to generate new rules linking new sets of facts and ideas in order to adapt their behaviors to complicated and changing environments (Tywoniak, 2007, p. 57). Hence, knowledge must be more than a structure; it is also a process incorporating feedback loops to enable the generation of new heuristics. As individuals face new features in their environments, old behaviors may no longer result in desired outcomes, motivating a search for new solutions. Individuals continually modify and update their personal stores of knowledge by adjusting their behaviors to fit the new conditions they encounter, testing the new behaviors, and storing representations of the new behavioral contingencies in memory. This knowledge-development process, which is similar to Argyris and Schon's (1978) concept of single-loop learning, benefits individual survival in a complex and changing environment.

Tywoniak (2007) considers knowledge to have yet another level of complexity, arising due to the use of language. Human language facilitates the development of knowledge purely through the manipulation of symbols.

*Table 1.1* Tywoniak's (2007) complexity definition of knowledge

<b>Knowledge is ...</b>	<b>Description</b>
a structure	A set of rules that reduce environmental uncertainty through connections between ideas and facts which serve as guides for behavior
a process	A process incorporating feedback loops that enable the generation of new links between ideas and facts or heuristics
a system	The common language and the rules used to generate and validate new links between facts and ideas within a given community

This human capacity to increase understanding of the environment in the absence of immediate experience allows for the development of “ever greater quantities of knowledge, going beyond the cognitive ability of a single individual” (Tywoniak, 2007, p. 57). In other words, humans are able to learn from the experiences of others, through the process of communication. At this level, knowledge is a system or “network of rule generating processes inter-linked through social interaction” (Tywoniak, 2007, p. 58).

As the research of Nonaka and colleagues shows (Nonaka, von Krogh, & Voelpel, 2006), knowledge is not transmitted between individuals in a simple linear manner wherein one person speaks and the other absorbs. Rather, knowledge transmission is based on an intersubjective process whereby individuals compare similar experiences in order to develop a more refined set of links between facts and ideas. The challenge faced by individuals engaged in the knowledge-sharing process is to persuade others that they have interpreted their personal experiences accurately and in a way that is useful for others to know. When individuals, each of whom has a subjective experience of the world, reach agreement about a particular piece of knowledge, it is “converted” from the personal to the common realm (Nonaka et al., 2006).

Hence, the body of common knowledge is basically a judgment among a community that a particular set of links between ideas and facts is valid. It is continually evolving as the environment changes and as community members have new experiences from which they draw conclusions that they then discuss and debate with others. Using the rules of language, community members reach agreements to add new links to the extant knowledge structure. The common language and the rules used to generate and validate new links between facts and ideas constitute the *system* of knowledge of a given community (Tywoniak, 2007).

## Types of knowledge

Tywoniak (2007) suggests that there are (at least) four different types of knowledge. Personal knowledge is distinguished from common knowledge, and tacit knowledge is distinguished from explicit knowledge as follows (Tywoniak, 2007):

- Personal knowledge consists of the set of behavioral rules developed by a particular individual to reduce environmental uncertainty.
- Common knowledge is embedded in an interactive environment and consists of that evolving set of truth claims that has been validated through the intersubjective process discussed earlier.
- Tacit knowledge is processual in nature or “knowledge in action” that reflects the limitations of cognition.
- Explicit knowledge is the set of links between ideas and facts that has been formally codified.



Table 1.2 Relationships between the four types of knowledge

	<b>Personal</b>	<b>Common</b>	<b>Tacit</b>	<b>Explicit</b>
<b>Personal</b>				
<b>Common</b>	Interrelated			
<b>Tacit</b>	Capacity to act	Routines		
<b>Explicit</b>	Analogy	Formalized	Application	

Note: Summary of Tywoniak (2007).

Tywoniak relates all four knowledge types to each other, not in a two-by-two typology, but rather, in more of an association matrix (summarized briefly in Table 1.2).

For instance, according to Tywoniak (2007), personal and common knowledge are *interrelated*. Personal knowledge is based on common knowledge because individuals use language to organize their personal understanding of the world. Common knowledge depends upon personal knowledge for its existence also, because the body of common knowledge requires individuals to share their personal knowledge with others. When personal knowledge is validated through the intersubjective knowledge-conversion process (Nonaka et al., 2006), the body of common knowledge is honed, refined, modified, and extended. This process is absolutely essential if common knowledge is to remain useful as a guide to behavior in a complex and changing environment.

To fully appreciate all six of the associations, the reader is referred to Tywoniak's (2007) original article. Here, I mention those associations that I believe are most closely linked to the process of knowledge generation and validation in the social-science fields.

One such link is the association between tacit knowledge and personal knowledge. Tywoniak (2007) argues that tacit knowledge is related to personal knowledge through the capacity to act. Individuals may know many things explicitly, but they are only able to act effectively on those ideas for which they have sufficient tacit knowledge. This tacit knowledge on *how to use* the explicit knowledge is not codified, and hence, cannot be transmitted through language, but must be developed from experience.

Common knowledge is related to tacit knowledge through the development of organizational routines (Tywoniak, 2007). An example of this association occurs when a set of organizational positions and/or processes results in a particularly synergistic outcome that no one individual understands explicitly. Yet, if the organization can reliably produce this outcome without an explicit understanding of how it occurs, then the organization can be said to have a piece of common tacit knowledge.

Journal editors work with *explicit knowledge*. Manuscripts represent authors' *personal explicit knowledge* that they hope will be raised to the level of *common explicit knowledge* through publication. The editor's goal is to

identify those submissions that critique, modify, and extend the body of *common explicit knowledge* to do a better job of reducing environmental uncertainty for action.

The interrelatedness of common explicit knowledge with other types of knowledge has interesting implications for the development of research. *It implies that researchers can and perhaps should do more than just work with the extant body of common explicit knowledge.* The work of an author likely can be enriched by engaging in action to create personal tacit knowledge, which authors then make explicit and fit into the common body of knowledge (Vermeulen, 2005). Authors can also examine organizational routines in which common tacit knowledge is embedded, and then explicate and extend that knowledge. By linking the extant literature (our body of common explicit knowledge) with sources of personal tacit knowledge and common tacit knowledge, authors may be more likely to identify research questions constituting revolutionary advances to the field, rather than incremental adjustments to current thinking.

Although the sources of tacit knowledge have important implications for the research process, journal editors are not working with the personal tacit knowledge or common tacit knowledge that might have inspired any given manuscript submission. Editors receive only the text presenting the author(s)' views and has no access to the direct personal experience or organizational arrangements that inspired the author(s)' work. Hence, the editor works with the personal explicit knowledge of the author(s). The editor's job is to *guide the knowledge-conversion process* (Nonaka et al., 2006) to determine which of the many submissions containing statements of author(s)' explicit personal knowledge will become part of the body of common explicit knowledge in the field.

## Implications for journal editors

At least five implications for journal editors can be derived from the knowledge-creation literature:

- Editorial gatekeeping is necessary
- Judgment is critical to the editor's role
- Subjectivity enters into the editorial process
- Interests and the potential for moral hazard enter into the process
- Communication is essential

I discuss each of these implications briefly.

### Editorial gatekeeping is necessary

One of the implications of the knowledge-creation field is that editorial gatekeeping is a necessary activity. This conclusion is less than obvious, given the ongoing debate in the fields of management and organization studies regarding

the development of a paradigm (De Cock & Jeanes, 2006). Pfeffer (1993) argued that the openness of these fields to a wide variety of research questions, epistemologies, and methodologies has resulted in the failure to develop a strong paradigm, which he believes reduces the ability to make scientific progress. Pfeffer's ideas were quickly rebutted by Van Maanen (1995), who argued that a diversity of voices and approaches is essential for improving what he views as an overly consistent, unimaginative and mind-numbingly banal field. Van de Ven (1999) characterized the former of these two views as a "Pfefferdigm" aiming to weed the unruly garden of organization and management theory to support only the oaks; "They can be red oaks, American oaks, dwarf oaks, or Mexican oaks – as long as they're oak trees" (p. 119). Of the latter view, Van de Ven states that Van Maanen wants "a thousand flowers to bloom" (p. 120), so that the field will become "A quilt of a thousand rhetorical patches sewn together with the voices of many people ... singing their rounds of a chorus that has become disenfranchised" (p. 120).

Should we engage in editorial gatekeeping, or should we let a thousand flowers bloom? In the field of knowledge creation, Nonaka et al. (2006) provide a clear and unambiguous answer. These authors argue that gatekeeping through the knowledge-conversion process is absolutely necessary. One reason we must limit the amount of information added to the common body of knowledge is to prevent information overload among members of our community. Another reason is to safeguard against poor-quality papers, misleading papers, or even worse, fraud and plagiarism. By gatekeeping, we help our community identify the more important links between ideas and facts, without having to go through all possible manuscripts that any academic has ever thought to write. Given the fact that more and more academics are pressured to produce refereed journal publications around the world, the sheer volume of manuscripts being produced is increasing geometrically, and any respected journal has seen its submissions increase dramatically in the last five years.

Although I advocate the need for gatekeeping, *I do not mean that certain types of methods, epistemologies, or conceptual frames should be banned*. Rather, each piece of research should be judged for quality, such that our knowledge base reflects the best of what our various scholarly traditions have to offer. Furthermore, different research questions are best addressed with different epistemologies and methodologies, and the best work demonstrates a strong fit between the research question and the data. Achieving inclusion of a variety of research approaches requires a variety of journals reflecting different perspectives, as well as diverse editorial boards capable of properly assessing the quality of scholarship from the various traditions.

### **Judgment is critical to the editor's role**

Judgment is critical to the editor's role because the ideas scholars are working with are so complex. Especially in the field of organization studies,

where the number of theories and paradigms is large and growing, judgments are very complex because there is much disagreement about many factors, including epistemology, conceptual frameworks, research methods, and appropriate conclusions to be drawn from any given piece of research (Pfeffer, 1993; Van Maanen, 1995, Van de Ven, 1999).

The importance of judgment has some very clear implications for editorial practice. Some editors seem to use a “vote-counting” method, which entails “averaging” the judgments of the reviewers to come to a conclusion (e.g., one revise-and-resubmit [R&R] plus two rejects = reject). Such editors return manuscripts to authors with a form letter, and authors receiving the coveted “R&R” decision obtain little or no guidance as to how they can best craft their revision. In my view, vote counting is not appropriate, given the complexity of the content editors are working with and the complexity of the intersubjective knowledge-conversion process that they are adjudicating. Editors must assess the quality of the reviews before determining the weight they’ll place on any reviewer’s comments, and that means they must read both the manuscript and the reviews carefully before making a decision. Because the editor must synthesize the information from multiple sources to make a judgment, the editorial job is a step more complex than that of any individual reviewer.

The task of the editor also differs substantially from that of the reviewers. Reviewers only need to judge the quality of submissions, while the editor, on top of recruiting reviewers, overseeing the review process, and making judgments on final publication decisions, in the end, for the benefit of the readership (and the publisher), *must fill the pages of the journal*. In my experience, reviewers are better at rejecting manuscripts than they are at selecting them, and for my first several months as an editor, my review teams rejected absolutely everything that was submitted. At that point, I had to send them all a message explaining that we needed to publish *something*, so please do not hold these manuscripts to an impossible standard of perfection.

Perhaps it is the “validity threat” paradigm in which we social scientists are raised that makes it so easy for us to perceive the flaws in our work and so difficult for us to see its strengths. As authors, we are advised to list the limitations of our work, which is important to ensure that it is interpreted properly. Unfortunately, these sections can often leave the reader feeling as if the study accomplished pretty much nothing of value. It is important to remember that we usually make our methodological decisions for sound reasons. It is very valuable for authors to include the reasons for their methodological choices in the limitations section. No individual piece of research is perfect, and the best we can ask of authors is to choose the best methodological tradeoffs possible, given the research question, the state of the extant literature, and the realistic availability of data.

### **Subjectivity enters into the editorial process**

Although editorial judgment is necessary to the knowledge-creation process, neither the editorial process nor our judgments as editors are perfect. All of these judgments are affected by the limitations of the human cognitive structure. Editors are plagued with all of the perceptual biases that human beings are subject to, including personal biases (Is work in our own area of expertise really more worthy of publication than work in other subfields?), stereotyping (Is the work of an established scholar really higher in quality than that of an unknown author?), recency effects (Is a topic recently published in *Academy of Management Journal*, *Administrative Science Quarterly*, or *Academy of Management Review* really more worthy than others?), sunk costs (Does the fact that the author has gone through two R&Rs mean that I have to accept the article at this point?), and more. These biases mean that editors are subject to both Type I and Type II errors, such that articles that should be published are rejected and vice versa.

Furthermore, the editorial process is inherently subjective because editors work only with texts and do not have access to the original data, that is, the material reality against which to validate or invalidate those texts. The only resources we have at our disposal to assess the quality of manuscripts are (1) our judgment as experienced professionals, (2) the judgments of the reviewers, and (3) the system of rules for generating, communicating, and validating knowledge within our field. Hence, our editorial work is very much like Nonaka et al.'s (2006) knowledge-conversion process. It is *intersubjective*, meaning that one person's knowledge can be validated or invalidated by another's knowledge, depending upon whether the authors and the editorial team can reach an agreement regarding the validity of the knowledge claim.

The editorial process is also *reflexive*, by which I mean that process of converting each piece of knowledge affects the character of the knowledge itself. The fact that scholarly papers are changed through the review process is a well-known frustration in the field, and recently, some have called for "as is" publication decisions allowing no requests for revision (Tsang & Frey, 2007). Although the reflexivity of the editorial process may seem ominous to authors, the nature of these changes is generally quite positive. In my experiences as an editor, the manuscripts submitted to my journal improved substantially over the course of the review and revision process. Given that manuscripts generally improve with revision, authors probably serve themselves and the field best when they are highly responsive to input from the editor and reviewers (not necessarily agreeing with the editorial team, but responding to all of their concerns thoroughly to maximize the strength of the methods used and to minimize needless confusion generated by the writing).

### **Interests and the potential for moral hazard enter into the process**

Beyond cognitive and process limitations, the subjectivity of the editorial process also invites what Foss (2007) terms "knowledge-related exchange

hazards" (p. 40). Foss identified two types of such hazards: knowledge appropriation and strategic knowledge accumulation. Knowledge appropriation is what we might call plagiarism. Strategic knowledge accumulation is what we might call lack of collegiality or unwillingness to help other scholars. The field of organization and management studies has seen the development of mechanisms to minimize both of these issues. The Academy of Management (December 2005) recently developed formal mechanisms for enforcing rules about plagiarism and other ethical violations in the field. We are also doing better with knowledge sharing, due to the statistical and measurement tools that are now available on the Internet, as well as information sharing on list serves. Many subtle ethical issues remain, however, and editors must grapple with these on occasion (see Shapiro & Bartunek, this volume).

One of the issues is whether editors should publish their own work in their journal. Although the editor may be capable of contributing a fine piece to a journal, as human decision makers, editors cannot be free from bias in assessing their own work. Hence, publishing one's own research is a questionable practice, at best.

Editors can and often do publish work by associate editors and members of their editorial boards, however. This practice is acceptable for multiple reasons. First, editors can provide such manuscripts with the same blind review process experienced by other authors, ensuring an equitable process. Second, given the substantial increase in the number of submissions to refereed academic journals in recent years, editorial boards have grown larger. Often, many of the finest contributors in the field are members of prestigious editorial boards. Not only would disallowing their contributions greatly reduce participation on these boards, it would also reduce the ability of the journal to publish the highest quality work with the best chance of subsequent citation and impact.

### **Communication is essential**

As adjudicators of a complex and evolving intersubjective knowledge-conversion process, communication is core to what editors do. First, a manuscript's quality of writing can often obscure the quality of a contribution. For authors, this means that the more effort you put into your writing, the better your chances of publication.

Perhaps less obviously, the quality of reviewer communication is also critical. Sometimes, reviewers do not communicate well by failing to provide citations or failing to clearly explain what they want authors to do. Such communication failures obviously create difficulties not only for the authors, who have a hard time satisfying the reviewer, but also for the editor, who is trying to evaluate the review and provide guidance to the authors. If, as a reviewer, you are not invited to join an editorial board or if you stop receiving manuscripts to review from your favorite journal, you might consider how well your communication has served the editor in the past.

Most importantly, communication from the editor is critically important to the process (Feldman, 2006). I learned this lesson from my experience as an author working with Nancy Eisenberg, who was the editor of *Psychological Bulletin* at the time. The first round of the review process resulted in three of the most challenging reviews ever written (at least, it seemed so to me). Fortunately, these reviews were accompanied by a detailed cover letter from Nancy Eisenberg, who made many suggestions for dealing with the concerns raised by the reviewers. She provided conceptual advice, methodological suggestions, and citations. She also helped me deal with two contradictory reviews by adjudicating them. She decided which reviewer's advice was more appropriate, and indicated so in the letter, as in, "on point 19, do what Reviewer X said and do not do what Reviewer Y suggested." This detailed advice was absolutely essential to the publication of the article, and I sent her a thank-you note for her contribution as editor. Since then, Nancy Eisenberg has been my role model for how I conduct myself as an editor.

## **Conclusions for editors**

As adjudicators of the knowledge-conversion system in our fields, editors are very powerful in many ways. Editors have substantial decision-making power, especially in the typical case where multiple reviewers disagree with one another (Calhoun & Starbuck, 2003). If the reviewers are in agreement, the editor must have a very strong rationale for contradicting them. If the reviewers disagree, however, the editor has almost absolute power to decide whether or not to invite a revision.

Beyond the power to affect the lives and careers of our fellow academics, one of the greatest powers editors have is to influence the content of the common body of knowledge. Given that common knowledge is the foundation upon which personal knowledge is built (Tywoniak, 2007), by influencing the common body of knowledge, we hope to influence personal knowledge and action in the material world. A small portion of the articles we select become incorporated into academic texts and classrooms, and eventually influence the thinking of practitioners. Although most articles are never cited, the ones that are cited influence subsequent research, a small portion of which eventually influences practical thought and action. Increasing the value of academic research for improving practice by helping to develop and select high-quality articles is an editor's primary power and primary goal.

With power comes substantial responsibility. I strongly disagree that editors should be able to do anything they want. On the other hand, I do not believe that editors should be completely beholden to reviewers. Following reviewers blindly means abdicating our responsibility to judge the quality of the reviews as well as the quality of manuscripts ourselves. Because the editor has more information available, s/he is the only person who can provide authors with a higher level of judgment that synthesizes the content of the manuscript with the content of multiple reviews. Exercising that higher-level

judgment is essential to the editorial process because of the complexity of the decisions we must make about complicated and abstract ideas (Tywoniak, 2007; Nonaka et al., 2006).

## Conclusions for authors

The complexity definition of knowledge suggests some avenues through which authors can enhance the impact of their research to advance the field in a more revolutionary and less incremental fashion. Research questions derived solely through deduction from even a thorough knowledge of the extant literature are likely to generate only incremental contributions to the field. Adding information from other sources, such as personal tacit knowledge and common tacit knowledge, and working to articulate and integrate those sources of knowledge with the extant academic literature holds considerably greater promise for enhancing understanding in a revolutionary way. Given that editors wish to enhance the impact of their journals by increasing citations, doing research that advances the field in revolutionary ways, or at least larger than average increments, is probably the best method for achieving publication.

Beyond doing high-quality research that advances the field, authors can also increase their probability of publication by attending to the communication process (Feldman, 2006). The manuscript should be viewed as a means of persuasion to readers who are well-versed in the area. The fact that the readers are very knowledgeable means that they will not be persuaded by an argument unless the author has demonstrated an understanding of the extant state of knowledge and debate on the topic. Leaving out a critical concept or debate in the field leaves an opening for reviewers to question whether the work is really adding anything new or is simply a replication of previously published work. Hence, it is very helpful for authors to begin their papers with a persuasive introduction that

- States the research question
- Summarizes existing knowledge on the topic
- Identifies the contribution of the current study
- Explains why that contribution is important for advancing the field (see chapters by Bergh and Hollenbeck in this volume for guidance on how to effectively craft a statement of a paper's contribution)

A two- to four-page introduction that accomplishes these four goals makes considerable progress in the author's quest for publication. The reason a statement of contribution is valuable up front is because most of the time, the editor and the ultimate readers of the journal are not experts in every subfield covered by every submission. Hence, without a clear statement of contribution up front, my experience as an editor has been that I'll read through the whole paper and wonder, what is new about this? Haven't I read something



like this before? As an editor, I find those reactions very frustrating because it makes me feel like I have to do a comprehensive literature search in order to be able to judge whether this new submission makes a contribution. And reviewing the extant literature is not the editor's job, it is the author's job. Specifically, it is the author's job to put the reader in a position where s/he can judge the value of the contribution to the literature based on the paper alone. If the author can accomplish that goal convincingly, the probability of publication is greatly enhanced.

Throughout the paper, authors should work to make their writing as clear and accessible as possible. Because readers do not have access to the data (i.e., the social and material reality the author is writing about), authors need to provide a clear chain of evidence from the data to their conclusions. That means providing full information on data collection, measurement, and analysis. For example, if survey items are new or have been modified from their original published versions in any way, providing the reader with full information on all items is essential to validate the authors' interpretations of their findings. If qualitative methods are used, authors need to provide a thorough description of how the data were systematically analyzed, to allow the reader to judge the validity of the conclusions drawn. Importantly, making explicit the reasons for the methodological tradeoffs made between the study's strengths and weaknesses can help to persuade the editorial team that the study merits publication despite its (inevitable) flaws.

Finally, if authors don't agree with the reviewers or the editor, often the source of the confusion is the quality of the original writing. If reviewers are asking authors to add something that the authors believe is already in the paper, it is likely that the point needs to be elaborated or emphasized, and simply telling the reviewer that the idea is already in the paper is probably insufficient. If the editor or reviewers make a methodological suggestion that is incorrect or unnecessary, the authors probably have to do a better job explaining the chosen method *in the paper* as well as in a rebuttal directed to the reviewers. Editors are likely to believe that issues raised by the reviewers are going to be raised in the mind of other readers as well, so authors serve themselves best by responding very fully to every issue and concern raised by the reviewers and the editor. Going beyond what is requested explicitly to *fulfill the spirit as well as the letter of all comments* helps authors to win the debate with the reviewers and move their work from the personal to the common realm of knowledge.

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The first couple of sentences are typically broad. Below are some examples: A paper on organic matter in soil can begin thus: "Sustainable crop production is a function of the physical, chemical, and biological properties of soil, which, in turn, are markedly affected by the organic matter in soil." A paper that discusses the possible beneficial role of bacteria in treating cancer can begin as follows: "The role of bacteria as anticancer agent was recognized almost hundred years back." A paper on lithium batteries can introduce the study with the following sentence: "The rapid growth of lithiu