Kamianets-Podilskyi Ivan Ohiienko National University

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BASICS OF ACADEMIC WRITING

НАВЧАЛЬНИЙ ПОСІБНИК З ОСНОВ НАУКОВОГО ПИСЬМА

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М25 **Basics of Academic Writing**: навчальний посібник з основ наукового письма [Електронний ресурс]. 2-ге видання, перероблене і доповнене. Кам'янець-Подільський: Кам'янець-Подільський національний університет імені Івана Огієнка, 2025. 200 с.

Навчальний посібник призначений для студентів бакалаврського і магістерського рівнів вищої освіти і має на меті сформувати уявлення про академічну культуру й та оволодіти ключовими компетентностями академічного (наукового) письма й умінням спілкування в науковому середовищі. Посібник знайомить з особливостями наукового стилю, його жанрами, змістом і структурою наукового тексту, лексичними й граматичними конструкціями, характерними для текстів наукового спрямування, вчить опрацьовувати наукові джерела та оформляти бібліографічні посилання тощо.

Для студентів закладів вищої освіти, викладачів, усіх, хто цікавиться науковим стилем сучасної англійської мови.

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COURSE DESCRIPTION

The course focuses on developing academic writing skills. It is designed according to the requirements of university curricula and is meant to teach linguistic and pragmatic peculiarities of academic style to students who target to achieve proficiency in the field. The manual provides basic, yet highly advanced, skills necessary for writing correctly, structurally, and academically. The study tips are aimed at helping students to learn to conscientiously use the writing process in order to produce appropriate, well-organized, formal style, academic written texts, choosing topics and genres. Students also learn to reduce their own individual EFL grammar and lexical errors as they progress through various assignments. Academic writing implies conscious effort and much practice in composing, developing, and analyzing ideas.

Beside practicing to express their own ideas and formulate them coherently in a proper lingual representation, students are to be taught to synthesize, summarize, paraphrase, quote, source, and evaluate others' work. This challenging routine involves constant mental and emotional struggles as far as it covers teaching not only the academic writing skills, but also abilities to take part in a discussion: to argue, to persuade, and to defend certain position. By the end of the course, students are expected to:

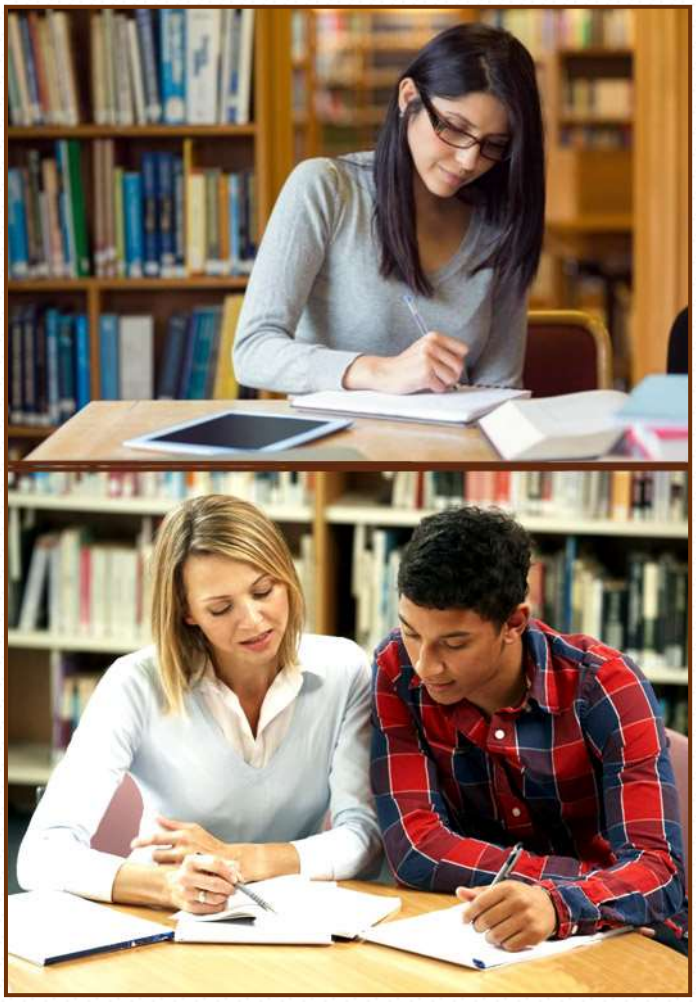
- read and understand pieces of academic writing;
- define and explain concepts;

- classify/categorize and compare/contrast things;
- agree or disagree with others' points of view;
- provide examples and offer explanations;
- acknowledge limitations and make recommendations;
- develop linguistic awareness and stylistic sensitivity;
- write academic texts of various genres.

The manual is written in a readable and lively personal style. The advice given is direct and based on contemporary research.

INTRODUCTION

The ability to write well is not a naturally acquired skill; it is usually learned or culturally transmitted as a set of practices in formal instructional settings or other environments. Writing skills must be practiced and learned through experience. Writing also involves composing, which implies the ability either to tell or retell pieces of information in the form of narratives or description, or to transform information into new texts.



Lecture 1. ACADEMIC WRITING AS A SPECIAL SKILL

English is now considered to be the world language of science, technology, and education. The knowledge of English allows professionals and researchers to get access to the latest information in their fields and to effectively communicate with their colleagues throughout the world.

Academic writing is 'structured research' written by 'scholars' for other scholars (with all university writers being 'scholars' in this context). Academic writing addresses topic-based 'research questions' of interest to anyone who is seeking factually-based, objectively-presented information on a particular topic. The objective of academic writing is the creation of 'new knowledge' via (a) a review of *what is currently known about a given topic* as (b) the foundation for *the author's new views or perspectives on the topic*.

Writing is a complex process that requires a number of various skills. As research shows, its nature may be treated differently in different cultures and educational systems.

There exists an opinion that being able to write is a special talent. However, you can develop your writing abilities by following certain strategies and practicing various patterns.

As most Ukrainians (and not necessarily academics) know, our educational system is based primarily upon the non-written forms of knowledge acquisition, control, and evaluation. The only place in Ukraine where writing is explicitly taught is secondary school. There writing is viewed as a kind of verbal art that is assumed to be mastered in its 3 aspects – orthographic, grammatical, and stylistic. Teaching composition is traditionally a prerogative of the teachers of

Ukrainian literature. Much emphasis is laid upon reading and producing grammatically and stylistically correct texts which have to evoke a certain aesthetic impression. At the same time structuring of the text, parameters of written communication, the context of situation, the purpose and message of the text are usually left unaddressed.

The attitudes toward writing and its teaching differ across cultures and educational systems. For example, in the United States writing has become a compulsory subject in all colleges. Such classes focus exclusively on composing and other writing skills rather than on the study of literature or the English language. The theoretical framework for such courses has been derived from the classical rhetoric that consists, according to Aristotle, in persuasion. This phenomenon is understood differently in Anglo-American and Ukrainian cultures.

Recent research has demonstrated that there exist certain differences in the organization and the ways of argumentation in academic writing of different languages and cultures. Such investigations have focused on the comparison of English and other languages, usually with a practical aim: to help non-native speakers to master the conventions of Anglo-American academic writing. For example, Chinese authors prefer indirect criticism, while English writers usually do not hide their attitudes. Finns pay less attention to the general organization and structure of their texts than Anglo-Americans. Ukrainian authors tend to avoid self-advertising, "eye-catching" features in their research papers. However, the writing style of one language and culture is neither better nor worse that the writing style of another language and culture: it is simply different.

The features characteristic of academic writing and relatively prominent in Anglo-American research texts are as follows:

1) intensive use of logical connectors (words like "*therefore*" or "*however*");
2) high degree of formal text structuring (i.e., division of the text into sections and subsections with appropriate headings);
3) tendency to cite and to include into the lists of reference the most recent publications in the field;
4) frequent occurrence of the phrases which provide reference to the text itself (e.g., "*This paper discusses*…");
5) tendency to follow a certain pattern of textual organization (e.g., problem-solution).

As for the Ukrainian scholars trying to write academic prose in English, they are to follow such useful strategies:

1) "lift" useful expressions from authentic English papers, combine them, add some of your own and use them in your writing;
2) pay attention to the organization and language of English papers in the leading journals in your discipline;
3) learn how the key parts of the academic text are typically organized and structured;
4) rely on assistance of your colleagues (working or studying in your discipline) – native speakers of English;
5) be always eager to rewrite and revise believing that the best way of mastering or improving writing (and not only in English) is to write as much as possible.

In general, such pieces of advice can be given to a writer of academic texts:

- use correct spelling, grammar, and punctuation;
- write in an objective, neutral manner;
- accurately use the terminology of your discipline;
- ensure that your language is rich enough;
- write in an academic style, avoid colloquial language, jargon, and slang;
- arrange your ideas in a strict logical order;
- pay special attention to the introduction of your text;
- incorporate visual support (tables, diagrams, graphs) for your ideas;
- cite leading papers in your field;
- think of the general presentation (chapters, subchapters, paragraphs, etc.) of your text;
- pay special attention to the conclusion of your text.

Learning writing in the majority of cases is learning ***genres***, i.e. developing knowledge of the rules of organization and the structure of integral texts. You must have already met this word, which originally came from French and has the meaning of "a kind of".

Genre is an event of communication, it is aimed at achieving certain communicative purposes. At the same time, genre may also be defined as a type of a written or oral text with a recognizable set of relatively stable features.

There are two types of genre — conversational genres and instituted genres. Varying levels can be distinguished in the range of instituted genres: from genres deprived of any authorship to genres in which a single author partly defines the frame of the communicative event. Instituted genre is closely linked to scientific research communities, it implies an original configuration of authorship and triggers indirect interpretation strategies.

The most widely spread genres of English academic texts are as follows: summary, abstract, review, conference abstract, research paper, grant proposal.

Lecture 2. ENGLISH ACADEMIC STYLE AND LANGUAGE

An **English writing style** is a way of using the English language.

The style of a piece of writing is the way in which features of the language are used to convey meaning, typically but not always within the constraints of more widely accepted conventions of grammar and spelling.

An individual's writing style may be a very personal thing. Organizations that employ writers or commission written work from individuals may require that writers conform to a standardized style defined by the organization. This allows a consistent readability of composite works produced by many authors, and promotes usability of, for example, references to other cited works.

In many kinds of professional writing aiming for effective transfer of information, adherence to a standardised style of writing helps readers make sense of what the writer is presenting. Many standardised styles are documented in style guides. Some styles are more widely used, others restricted to a particular journal. Adherence to no particular style is also a style in its own right; some may think it undesirable, others not.

Personal styles

All writing has some style, even if the author is not thinking about the style. It is important to understand that style reflects meaning. For instance, if a writer wants to express a torrent of euphoria, he might write in a style overflowing with expressive modifiers. Some writers use styles that are very specific, for example in pursuit of an artistic effect. Stylistic rule-breaking is exemplified by the poet E.E.Cummings, whose writing consists mainly of only lower case letters, and often uses unconventional typography, spacing, and punctuation.

Proprietary styles

Many large publications define a house style to be used throughout the publication, a practice almost universal among newspapers and well-known magazines. These styles can cover the means of expression and sentence structures, such as those adopted by *Time*. They may also include features peculiar to a publication; the practice at *The Economist*, for example, is that articles are rarely attributed to an individual author. General characteristics have also been prescribed for different categories of writing, such as in journalism, the use of SI units, or questionnaire construction.

Academic styles

University students, especially graduate students, are encouraged to write papers in an approved style. This practice promotes readability and ensures that references to cited works are noted in a uniform way. Typically, students are encouraged to use a style commonly adopted by journals publishing articles in the field of study. Citation of referenced works is a key element in academic style.

The requirements for writing and citing articles accessed on-line may sometimes differ from those for writing and citing printed works.

The style of English academic writing is ***formal***. Its main characteristics are the absence of conversational features and the use of an appropriate academic vocabulary. Developing a command of formal style is extremely important for non-native speakers wishing to master the conventions of English academic discourse.

Formal academic English will normally avoid:

1. Contractions:

The research *won't* be continued until appropriate funding is secured	The research *will not* be continued until the appropriate funding is secured.

2. Interjections and hesitation fillers (i.e. *um, well, you know*, etc.):

Well, we will now consider the influence of sex hormones on stress response	We will now consider the influence of sex hormones on stress response

3. Addressing the reader directly:

You can see the data in Table 3	The data can be seen in Table 3

4. Phrasal verbs (although not always):

Researchers have *found out* that many mental illnesses are based on molecular defects	Researchers have *discovered* that many mental illnesses are based on molecular defects

5. Direct questions (although not always):

What can be done to improve the state of our economy?	We now need to consider what can be done to improve the state of our economy.

6. Adverbs in initial or final positions (the middle position is preferable):

Then it will be shown how teachers can utilize this method	It will *then* be shown how teachers can utilize this method
This work relies on previous research *heavily*	This work *heavily* relies on previous research

7. Inappropriate negative forms (formal expressions of quantity):

not any ⇨ no
not much ⇨ little
not many ⇨ few
not enough ⇨ insufficient
too much ⇨ excessive
a lot ⇨ considerably
a lot of ⇨ many

The investigation *didn't* yield *any* new results	The investigation yielded *no* new results
The book *doesn't* raise *many* important issues	The book raises *few* important issues
The government *won't* do *much* to support universities in the near future	The government will do *little* to support universities in the near future
There are *a lot of* reasons for adopting this policy, but *not many* governments have chosen to do so because they *do not have enough* resources to implement it	There are *many* reasons for adopting this policy, but *few* governments have chosen to do so because *there are insufficient* resources to implement it

8. Short (contracted) forms of the words or slang:

This booklet describes the requirements and content of the university graduation *exams*	This booklet describes the requirements and content of the university graduation *examinations*

9. Figures at the beginning of the sentence:

97 people visited the museum last week	*Ninety-seven* people visited the museum last week Last week *97* people visited the museum

10. Informal phrases that have an idiomatic (non-standard) meaning:

People need to know <u>what's up</u>.	*People need to <u>be aware of the current issues.</u>*
It's not their <u>cup of tea</u>.	*They <u>dislike</u> it*.
It was <u>way</u> too expensive.	*It was <u>much</u> too expensive*.
The fans <u>went crazy</u>.	*The fans <u>cheered enthusiastically</u>*.

11. Other casual phrases:

a lot / lots	*many/much/a large amount of*
everybody/anybody	*everyone/anyone*
super	*very, extremely*
totally	*completely*
tonnes/tons of	*many,* unless describing the weight of an object
kids	*children*

12. **Vague** words such as ‘things’ and ‘stuff’ are not used. Instead, use the precise word needed for that sentence:

The survey revealed several <u>things</u>.	*The survey produced many <u>results</u>.*
The film’s ending was <u>bad</u>.	*The film’s ending was <u>dissatisfying</u>.*
Renewable energy is the <u>best.</u>	*Renewable energy is the most <u>environmentally friendly</u>*

Traditionally, academic writing tends to avoid personal pronouns and shows preference toward impersonal style. At the same time, there is a tendency now to use an ***I***-perspective in English academic writing, mostly in humanities.

Using ***I***, however, may seem somewhat unusual or awkward to Ukrainian writers. It may thus be recommended, at least for beginners, to maintain impersonal style and to avoid the first person pronoun ***I***. This does not mean, however, that ***I*** should never be used.

An important feature of English academic written discourse is a **cautious manner** of writing, that is the avoidance of too definite statements or conclusions especially when documenting claims of new knowledge. Inasmuch as the evidence of the paper can only be based on *what is currently known* about the topic, this evidence may well change as new knowledge emerges (indeed, the "new knowledge" proposed by *your paper* will change what has been known about the topic before you wrote your paper. Thus, since the 'knowledge' will never be completely certain, it is useful to express claims with language such as:

- This report *appears to show* that . . .
- But on page 357, Virtanen *seems to feel* differently . . .
- In this context, Heiskanen *apparently* disagrees with Virtanen . . .

The purpose of cautious writing strategy is to be accurate and to protect the author from being criticized for possible errors or invalid claims. Cautious writing also allows for other opinions or points of view. The main linguistic ways of doing this are as follows:

1. By using adjectives that express probability (in all examples below the statements gradually weaken in strength):

Dinosaurs died out due to sudden climatic changes	It is *certain* It is *likely* It is *probable* It is *possible* It is *unlikely*	that dinosaurs died out due to sudden climatic changes

2. By using *there is* construction with the word *possibility*:

There is	a strong *possibility* a definite *possibility* a slight *possibility*	that dinosaurs died out due to sudden climatic changes

3. By using adverbs that express certainty and probability:

Definitely,
Undoubtedly,
Probably, dinosaurs died out due to sudden climatic changes
Possibly,
Presumably,

4. By using statements of shared knowledge, assumptions, and beliefs:

It is *generally agreed*
It is *widely accepted* that dinosaurs died out due to sudden climatic changes
It is now *generally recognized*

5. By using modal verbs:

Continuum thermodynamics of solids, fluids, and mixtures forms a powerful tool for many unsolved problems

Continuum thermodynamics of solids, fluids, and mixtures *may* form a powerful tool for many unsolved problems

Continuum thermodynamics of solids, fluids, and mixtures *could* form a powerful tool for many unsolved problems

6. By using verb phrases that distance the writer from the statements or conclusions he/she makes:

It seems … It appears … It would seem/appear …

7. By using "That" clauses:

It could be the case that …
It might be suggested that…
There is every hope that …

There are different conventions for different genres of academic writing (books, articles, conference papers) and different academic disciplines (such as humanities, social sciences or engineering). However, some principles are the same for any

ADVICE

Here are some tips to help you make the writing cautious:

- Use devices that distance the author from a proposition (*It is thought that …; It is a widely help view that …; According to recent reports*…).
- Be cautious when explaining results (*This inconsistency may be due to …; This discrepancy could be attributed to* …).
- Be cautious while discussing findings (*These findings cannot be extrapolated to all patients; These data must be interpreted with caution because …; These results therefore need to be interpreted with caution*.).
- Be cautious when discussing implications (*The findings of this study suggest that …; One possible implication of this is that …; The evidence from this study suggests that* …).

piece of academic writing, whether it is a journal article on molecular biology or a conference paper on English literature. The main features of academic writing are:

Objectivity

Everyday language is subjective. It is used to express opinions based on personal preference or belief rather than evidence. For instance, we might say, “Doing coursework is easier than taking exams” or “You can easily forget how different life was 50 years ago”. Everyday language is also a vehicle for emotional expression; for example: “He was so mean to me”, or “You are amazing”, or “I was gutted”.

In contrast, the language of academic writing is objective. It is used as a vehicle for logical argumentation, not self-expression or emotional response. Objective language is measured, fair and accurate. It avoids exaggeration and bias, and shows respect for the views of others.

Although you may sometimes give your own opinions, excessive subjectivity is counter-productive. Opinions should not be confused with facts, but should follow logically front them. This means that the way you express opinions is important, e.g. “It can be concluded that …” is generally better than “In my opinion”, since the latter implies that it is only *your* opinion.

Formality

This goes hand in hand with objectivity. Although academic writing is not quite as formal as it used to be, you need to avoid slang and language which is too conversational. Formal language is more precise and stable, and therefore more suitable for the expression of complex ideas and the development of reasoned argumentation.

Written academic English is cautious

It is important that the language used in academic writing reflects the strength of evidence available to support an idea or claim. Whether you say “The working-age population *will* fall”, “The working-age population *will probably* fall” or “The working-age population *may* fall” will depend on the projections available to you at the time of writing, and your interpretation of those projections. The less certain you are about your claims, the more tentative the language should be. The use of cautious language in academic writing is known as ‘hedging’.

Clarity

Although unfortunately not all academic writers keep to this principle, it is best to keep your arguments as clear as possible; the reader should not have to work to understand what you are saying. A good argument needs precise *language*. Similarly, a good argument needs clear *organization*: the reader needs to know what each part of the text is about. Finally, the *presentation* of the paper needs to be clear, which is why there are conventions about spacing, margins, fonts and so on.

Academic writing is analytic

In your writing, you must acknowledge and deal with the complexity of the subject matter. In any given piece of writing, this will entail at least some of the following:

- Explaining; giving reasons; examining or anticipating consequences
- Comparing, contrasting and evaluating
- Considering both sides of an issue
- Taking a position
- Supporting your claims with credible evidence
- Investigating claims made by others and, if appropriate, questioning the evidence
- Drawing conclusions
- Making suggestions and recommendations

Explicitness

In academic writing, the author is responsible for ensuring that the meaning of the text is clear and free from ambiguity. In other words, there is an expectation that the writing will be explicit. This is best achieved by anticipating the reader's questions. When revising the work before submission, try to think of the questions the reader might want answers for if reading your assignment at this stage; for example:

- What does the author mean by this?
- What is the purpose of this work?
- How do these two ideas (or these two paragraphs) link together?

- Where is the evidence for this?
- What is the author's view about this issue?

If the answers to questions such as these cannot be found in the appropriate place in the text, the writing lacks explicitness.

ADVICE

Here are some tips to help you make the writing explicit:

- Define key concepts. If you find different definitions for the same term in the literature, explain which one will be adopted or what the word means to you.
- Explain what you intend to achieve/demonstrate.
- Make sure that links between ideas are clear. Use linking words and phrases if necessary.
- Ensure that every claim is supported by evidence.

Take a position in relation to the issues being discussed. In other words, make sure that your viewpoint is clear to the reader.

Acknowledgement of sources

You can write an original novel, but you cannot write a completely original academic paper, because most of the ideas and information in it come from earlier writers. For this reason, it is essential that you acknowledge all your sources by proper use of quotation, citation (references in the text) and bibliography.

All academic work builds on the work of others. In reporting, developing, applying, criticising or even rejecting the contributions made by others, you have to follow well-established conventions for citing and referencing reading sources.

Citing authorities in your own or related disciplines gives credibility to your work and provides the evidence you need to support your claims or criticise claims made by others. As this suggests, different reading sources may provide contradictory evidence. Reporting that this is the case is not enough. Eevaluate the evidence and decide how to use it to develop your argument.

Your position, or stance, about the sources you cite must be clear to the reader. In other words, your own ‘voice’ must be distinct from that of your sources. This is one of the features of academic writing that is most difficult to grasp. The extract below shows how this is achieved. The author's 'voice' is in bold.

Up to this point, it might be clear that through this study we attempted to understand the sense we gave to our teacher identity crisis in relation to our beliefs and feelings of self-efficacy as language teachers; in due course, the meaning we attributed to such an experience was central. Hence, this study about self-efficacy and language teacher identity crisis subscribed to qualitative research since this approach "is a means for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem" (Creswell, 2009, p. 23). **Furthermore, we selected this research design because the qualitative approach** "is used to understand people's beliefs, experiences, attitudes, behavior, and interactions" (Pathak et al., 2013).

Since the pioneering work of Swanson and McNeil (3), **a rather simple picture has prevailed in this regard. Major functions such as transcription and protein synthesis are shut down at the onset of mitosis. The nuclear envelope is disassembled and chromosomes are condensed. Chromatides are separated and cytokinesis is initiated. In the daughter cells, chromosomes are tightly engulfed by double membranes derived from the endoplasmic reticulum. NPCs with full, interphaselike functionality are inserted into the new nuclear envelope. Basic functions are resumed, the nucleus is enlarged, and the cell cycle continues. However, two articles** (4, 5) suggest thought-provoking modifications of this scheme.

Academic language is the language used in instruction, textbooks and exams. Academic language differs in structure and vocabulary from language used in daily social interactions. Academic language includes a (1) *common vocabulary* used in all disciplines, as well as a (2) *technical vocabulary* inherent to each individual discipline. Academic English is based more upon Latin and Greek roots than is common spoken English. In addition, academic language features more complex language and precise syntax than common English.

Lecture 3. ACADEMIC VOCABULARY

The choice of words you write is determined by rules of grammar, considerations of audience and matters of convention. For example, if you write *She did a crime* then the verb *did* is not grammatically wrong but it is conventionally inappropriate. The preferred verb would be *committed*. The following sections will help you to improve these aspects of your writing.

Academic language is the language used in textbooks, in classrooms, and on tests. It is different in structure and vocabulary from the everyday spoken English of social interactions. Many students who speak English well have trouble comprehending the academic language used in high school and college classrooms. Low academic language skills have been shown to be associated with low academic performance in a variety of educational settings.

The main barrier to student comprehension of texts and lectures is low academic vocabulary knowledge. Academic vocabulary is sub-technical vocabulary. In other words, it is not the technical vocabulary of a particular academic discipline. Academic vocabulary is used across all academic disciplines to teach about the content of the discipline. For example, before taking chemistry, no students know the technical words used in chemistry. But the underprepared students also do not know the vocabulary used to teach the chemistry concepts. Underprepared students are unfamiliar with words like evaluation, theory, hypothesis, assumption, capacity, validate. Professors assume students comprehend such academic vocabulary, but such vocabulary is not often used in the everyday spoken English of many students.

Academic vocabulary is based on more Latin and Greek roots than everyday spoken English vocabulary is. In addition, academic lectures and texts tend to use longer, more complex sentences than those used in spoken English.

There have been many attempts to define what exactly academic vocabulary is. Many people think that academic vocabulary is more “difficult” than general English vocabulary. However, academic vocabulary is not necessarily “difficult vocabulary” – using academic words is more a question of finding appropriate language, in a suitable style, than anything else.

Academic vocabulary can be difficult to define. One broad definition is the vocabulary which can be used in academic contexts. An important feature of English academic writing is a tendency to choose more formal alternative when selecting words of different parts of speech.

Verbs

English academic style makes use of formal verbs, often of Latin origin. In Ukrainian textbooks, such verbs are usually referred to as "general scientific verbs" (загальнонаукова лексика). Among the most frequently used verbs are as follows:

to apply – make practical use of
to affect – have an influence on, act on
to clarify – make clear
to complete – finish
to emerge – appear
to indicate – point
to neglect – pay no attention to
to obtain – get
to occur – happen
to perform – do
to produce – make
to require – demand
to suppose – guess, take as a fact

General academic vocabulary can also include general words which have special meaning in academic contexts. Below are examples of general academic vocabulary terms students may encounter when engaging in academic dialogue or reading informational text. Academic Vocabulary is defined as words that are traditionally used in academic communication, written or oral. Specifically, it

refers to words that are not necessarily common or frequently encountered in informal conversation. The following list may serve as an example:

achieve	corresponding	instance	relevant
acquisition	criteria	interpretation	required
alternative	data	journal	research
analysis	deduction	maintenance	resources
approach	demonstrate	method	response
area	derived	perceived	role
aspects	distribution	percent	section
assessment	dominant	period	select
assume	elements	positive	significant
authority	equation	potential	similar
available	estimate	previous	source
benefit	evaluation	primary	specific
circumstances	factors	principle	strategies
comments	features	procedure	structure
components	final	process	theory
concept	function	range	transfer
consistent	initial	region	variables

Terms

Academic writers define terms so that their readers understand exactly what is meant when certain key terms are used. When important words are not clearly understood misinterpretation may result. According to Merriam-Webster Dictionary, a term is a word or expression that has a precise meaning in some uses or is peculiar to a science, art, profession, or subject.

Knowing and understanding terms and concepts related to academic writing, and being able to apply them, will help to organize thoughts and ultimately produce a better essay or paper.

Terms are identified by their definitions. Scholarly definitions are typically found within scholarly, peer-reviewed articles. They may also be found in scholarly books.

Terms are introduced into an academic text with the help of such collocations:

The term 'X' was first used by …

The term 'X' can be traced back to …

Previous studies mostly defined X as … The term 'X' was introduced by Smith in her …

Historically, the term 'X' has been used to describe …

It is necessary here to clarify exactly what is meant by …

This shows a need to be explicit about exactly what is meant by the word 'X'.

Collocations

Collocation is the relationship between two words or groups of words that often go together and form a common expression. If the expression is heard often, the words become 'glued' together in our minds***. 'Crystal clear', 'middle management' 'nuclear family'*** and ***'cosmetic surgery***' are examples of collocated pairs of words. Some words are often found together because they make up a compound noun, for example ***'riding boots***' or ***'motor cyclist***'.

Examples of phrases: a person can be '***locked in mortal combat***', meaning involved in a serious fight, or ***'bright eyed and bushy tailed***', meaning fresh and ready to go; '***red in the face***', meaning 'embarrassed', or ***'blue in the face***' meaning 'angry'. It is not a common expression for someone to be 'yellow in the face' or 'green in the face' however. Therefore 'red' and 'blue' collocate with 'in the face', but 'yellow in the face' or 'green in the face' are probably mistakes.

English has many of these collocated expressions and some linguists argue that our mental lexicon is made up of many collocated words and phrases as well as individual items. Some words have different collocations which reflect their different meanings, e.g ***'bank***' collocates with ***'river***' and ***'investment***'.

Collocations are relatively stable word-combinations that occur regularly. Their knowledge and appropriate use is very important for successful academic writing in English:

to give rise to
burning issues
to take into account
to shed light
to submit the paper
preliminary results
integral part
hotly debated issue
theoretical framework
reliable sources and data

ADVICE

Try to keep good vocabulary records – your records should include, as a minimum, the word or phrase, a translation, information about how to pronounce the word (word stress, phonetics, etc.), an example of the word or phrase in a sentence, etc. decide whether you want to use the words actively (active vocabulary) or whether you just want to recognize them (passive vocabulary)

to raise (an) issue
fundamental principle

Collocation involves words that are frequently or conventionally combined to produce native speaker-like speech and writing. In English, these are usually fixed two-word combinations, for example, *'heavy rain'* or '*strong wind,*' or phrasal verbs such as '*to give up*,' or '*to put off*'. Using the correct collocations helps you to write more clearly and precisely. Collocations can be formed from various combinations of adjectives, nouns, prepositions and verbs. Some examples include:

- adverb + adjective:

*Are you **fully aware** of the implications of your action?*

- adjective + noun:

*A number of **fundamental issues** still remain to be addressed.*

- noun + noun:

*The **ceasefire agreement** came into effect at 11 am.*

- noun + verb+ preposition:

*The **bomb went off** when he started the car engine*.

- verb + verbal:

*The remainder of this paper **aims to evaluate**…*

Logical connectors

Logical connectors (transitional expressions) are linking words and phrases which establish the logical relationship between ideas within a sentence or between sentences. They also improve the flow of writing, that is a smooth movement from one idea or piece of information in a text to the text. Logical connectors are thus guideposts for readers that help them to better follow the text. As transitional expressions show various kinds of logical relations, they may be grouped according to their meaning and function. For example, they may perform functions of comparison, concession, conclusion, contrast, enumeration, illustration, intensification:

ADVICE

Whatever you do to learn vocabulary is better than doing nothing at all.

accordingly	consequently	hence	likewise	overall
although	conversely	however	meanwhile	regarding
as	despite	in addition	moreover	similarly
as a matter of fact	due to	in brief	nevertheless	since
as a result	even though	in conclusion	nonetheless	that is (i.e.)
as far as	finally	in contrast	notwithstanding	therefore
as long as	firstly	in fact	on the contrary	thus
as to	for example	in other words	on the other hand	whereas
at the same time	for instance	in spite of	on the whole	while
because of	furthermore	in this case	otherwise	yet

Linking words and phrases

To state personal opinion	In my opinion, In my view, Personally, I believe that, It seems to me that, I think that
To list points	First(ly), First of all, To start with, To begin with, Secondly, Thirdly, Finally
To add more points on the same topic	What is more, Furthermore, Moreover, In adding (to this), Besides (this), also, too, not only … but
To show sequence	BEGINNING: First, First of all, To start with CONTINUING: Secondly, After this/that, Then, Next CONCLUDING: Finally, Lastly, Last but not the least
To show cause	Because, due to the fact that, since, as
To show contrast	Yet, however, nevertheless, but, although, even though, is spite of the fact that, despite the fact that
To give examples	For instance, for example, such as, like, particularly, in particular, especially
To conclude	Finally, Lastly, Taking everything into account, On the whole, In conclusion, To sum up

Latin and Greek Elements

Scientific terms in English most often originate from the Greek and Latin languages, both the stem or root words and the accompanying prefixes or suffixes. For example, in Latin, *fluvius* means ‘river.’ When you combine it with the suffix ‘*i/al*’, we get the word *fluvial***,** an adjective meaning ‘pertaining to rivers; produced by the action of a stream or river.’

Stem or Root Words	***Prefixes***	***Suffixes***
anti-venom	*anti-*	
bi-cellular	*bi-*	*-ar*
endothermic	*endo-*	*-ic*
fluvial	–	*-ial, -al*
isobar	*iso-*	_
igneous	–	*-ous*

At the time of the Renaissance, Greek and Latin, the Classical languages, enriched the English vocabulary with hundreds of words with which to express the exciting developments of the era. Greek became a major source of specialist terms in the fields of medicine, anatomy, biology, astronomy, science, technology, grammar, literary criticism, and publishing. In some cases, Latin and French acted as "relay" languages for loanwords of Greek origin; in other cases, Greek roots and words were borrowed directly into English. Whichever the route, English would never be the same without words such as *photography, phenomenon, telephone, microscope, metaphor, critic, mathematics, hypothesis, pathology, crisis, phobia, lexicon, hierarchy, pentagon, colon, encyclopedia, academy, angel, category, pedagogical, astronaut, logistics, economize, ecology, pediatrician, nausea, patriotism, patriarch, syndrome, empathy, sympathy, dynamic, dogma, theology, nostalgia, didactic, apologize, criterion, zealot, technician, aristocratic, cyclamen, euphemism, zoo, planet, athlete* – to mention but a few examples of words of Greek origin.

The following list is a sampler of (more or less) commonly used Greek words and phrases in modern English:

agora (original meaning: "assembly"): place of assembly, market-place (in ancient Greece), open space (cf. *agoraphobia*); the Greek equivalent of the Roman *forum*;

eureka (literally "I have found": perfect tense of the ancient Greek verb *heuriskein*, to find, to discover): a cry of triumph at a discovery; first uttered by Greek mathematician Archimedes (the 3rd century BC) on discovering that the amount of displaced water in his bath would point to the purity of gold in his gold crown; the state motto of California;

gnothi seauton (Ancient Greek for "know thyself"): the precept of self-knowledge, carved in the stone of the *pronaos* (the entry porch) of the temple of Delphi; see also **meden agan;**

hapax legomenon (literally "(something) said only once"): a linguistic term of textual criticism that denotes a word that is attested only once in a corpus of texts; also abbreviated as **hapax**; plural form: **hapax legomena;**

hoi polloi (Greek for "the many"): used as a dismissive description of the common people, of the masses, although on occasion it is (wrongly) used in the opposite sense, i.e. to denote the rich and privileged;

logos (Greek for both "word" and "reason"): in the Greek New Testament, *logos* denotes Jesus Christ;

meden agan (literally "nothing in excess"): the precept of simplicity, carved in the stone of the *pronaos* (the entry porch) of the temple of Delphi; see also **gnothi seauton**.

Like other European languages, academic English makes use of Latin abbreviations and expressions. You must have also met some of them while reading Ukrainian academic texts, where such expressions are easy to notice, because they are often written in the Roman alphabet. In English texts, such expressions (rather than abbreviations) are sometimes given in italics.

Latin Abbreviations

Expression	Full form	Modern meaning
A.D.	*Anno Domini*	in the year of our Lord
a.m.	*ante meridiem*	before noon
cf.	*confer*	compare
e.g.	*exempli gratia*	for example
etc.	*et cetera*	and other things; and so on
i.e.	*id est*	that is to say
N.B.	*nota bene*	take note
p.m.	*post meridiem*	after noon

Latin Expressions

Expression	Meaning
a priori	reasoning that precedes the experience
a posteriori	reasoning based on past experience
ab ovo	from the beginning
ad infinitum	without limit; forever
errata	list of errors, misprints, etc. in a printed book
post factum	after something has happened
status quo	existing state of affairs

New Lexical Tendencies in English

There are some new tendencies in the use of English you need to be aware of even though they affect the language in general. Knowledge of them is especially important for those who perform research in humanities and social sciences.

The so-called **politically correct language**, characteristic mostly of American English, consists in the use of **euphemisms** (mild, vague, and indirect words or phrases) that soften accurate meanings in accordance with sociopolitical values. It results in a change of language norms and creation of certain restrictions or prohibition on the use of certain words and phrases in a particular situation. Some examples of "politically correct" American English are as follows:

Blacks, Negroes	Afro-Americans
Indians	Native Americans
foreign students	international students
poor	marginalized
handicapped or	differently abled
stupid	intellectually disadvantaged

Sexist language refers to words and phrases that demean, ignore, or stereotype members of either sex or that needlessly call attention to gender. Avoidance of sexism in language is a component of the previously mentioned political correctness. The proper understanding of this important for the Western societies tendency may not be easy for Ukrainians and other speakers of Slavic languages, in which grammar is strongly affected by the *category of gender*. Thus, to avoid sexist language masculine pronouns sentences are transformed into the plural. Occasionally, if all else fails, ***he/she*** or ***him/her*** are used. Careful writers also avoid designating sex with suffixes like ***–man*** and ***–ess*** and substitute nonsexist terms, e.g.:

Gendered	Gender-free
postman	postal agent
chairman	chairperson
landlord	landowner
manmade	synthetic
poetess	poet
air hostess	flight attendant
policeman	police officer

Excessive use of gender-neutral forms may result in unnecessary euphemistic expressions mutilating the meaning of the message. It may provide stuff for jokes, too. Examples of such substitutes are as follows:

woman	→	*person of gender*
alimony	→	*back salary*
bald	→	*comb-free*
closed	→	*somewhat unopen*
corpse	→	*nonliving person*
evil	→	*potentially good*
housewife	→	*domestic engineer*
I	→	*my humble self*
ignorance	→	*alternative wisdom*
liar	→	*creative with the facts*
mistake	→	*learning experience*
poor	→	*economically unprepared*
ugly	→	*cosmetically different*
worse	→	*somewhat less desirable*

Lecture 4. ACADEMIC GRAMMAR AND PUNCTUATION

Academic writing is a distinct genre of writing with its own rules and conventions. The areas widely covered in the textbooks available in Ukraine do not consider peculiarities of academic style of writing as far as there are no special rules lying outside English grammar in general.

Word order

While in Ukrainian there is no strict word order, a normal English declarative sentence has the following structure, with the subject preceding the predicate:

subject+predicate+object+adverbial modifiers

There are, however, additional rules. Most important of them are given below:

1. Adjectives are used before the noun that they modify in the following order: a) general description, opinion; b) size, shape, condition; c) colour; d) origin; e) purpose, type. For example:

A *nice small brown French writing* table.
Old red Spanish home-made wine.

2. Adverbs of manner (that answer the question "how") are usually placed after the verb in the final position. However, in academic style, the middle position is preferable.

GENERAL USE: He studied the problem *thoroughly*.

ACADEMIC USE: He *thoroughly* studied the problem.

3. Adverbs and conjunctions referring to the whole sentence are placed at the beginning:

Nevertheless, it turned out that the experiment failed.
Finally, I will consider the applicability of the obtained data.

The word order may be inverted (i.e. a word will be moved out of its usual position in a sentence) in the following cases:

1. In some negative sentences (clauses):

   We do not assume that the necessary data will be obtained *nor do* we assume a priori that the experiment will be successful.
   In no case does this offer imply any obligation.
2. In unreal conditionals:

   Were the truth known, public opinion would change.
   Had the data been thoroughly checked, the project would not have been declined.
3. For emphasis:

   Much more impressive are the obtained numeric data.

Verb tense and voice

Use of the wrong verb tense, at best, is irritating to read and reflects poorly on the student's writing skills. At worst, the reader can be confused as to what facts are already known and what was newly discovered in the actual study that is the subject of the paper. As a rule, use past tense to describe events that have happened. Such events include procedures that you have conducted and results that you observed. Use present tense to describe generally accepted facts.

*We **sought** to determine if mating behavior in Xiphophorus helleri **is** related to male tail length by placing combinations of two male fish with different length tails in the same tank with a female fish.*

*We **found** that protein synthesis in sea urchin embryos treated with actinomycin D **was** considerably less than in untreated embryos. This finding agrees with the model stating that protein synthesis in 24 hour sea urchin embryos **is** dependent on synthesis of new messenger RNA.*

Reference to results of a specific study should also be in past tense.

*Abercrombie and Fitch **reported** that 30% of the public is allergic to wool.*

Mixing tenses is even worse. Unfortunately, the people who read the news in television and radio broadcasts are frequently unaware of verb tense at all.

Academic writing usually focuses on ideas, not people. Therefore, it often uses the passive voice (which emphasizes the *object* of a verb) and not the active voice (which has a person as the subject). Compare:

We surveyed 100 people. (personal pronoun and active voice)
Larry Page and Sergey Brin founded Google in 1998. (Active voice – suitable if the topic of writing is Larry and Sergey.)

100 people were surveyed. (no personal pronoun, passive voice)
Google was founded in 1998 (by Larry Page and Sergey Brin.) (Passive voice – suitable if the topic of your writing is Google itself, not the founders.)

Capitals

Use capital letters in the following ways:

1. Proper nouns (the names of specific people, places, organizations, and sometimes things)

Worrill Fabrication Company
Golden Gate Bridge
Supreme Court
Livingston, Missouri
Atlantic Ocean
Mothers Against Drunk Driving

2. Family relationships (when used as proper names)

I sent a thank-you note to *Aunt Abigail*, but not to my other aunts.

Here is a present I bought for *Mother*.

Did you buy a present for your mother?

ADVICE

Proofread!

Incomplete sentences, redundant phrases, obvious misspellings, and other symptoms of a hurriedly-written paper can cost you. Please start your work early enough so that you can proofread it. Check spelling of scientific names, names of people, names of compounds, etc. Spelling and grammatical errors can be embarrassing. Since many very different terms have similar names, a spelling error can result in a completely incorrect statement.

When you print off your paper, please make sure that tables are not split over more than one page, that headings are not "orphaned," pages submitted out of sequence, etc. Remember, someone has to read this thing! If the reader is an editor or reviewer, you might get a rejection notice because you were too sloppy.

3. The names of God, specific deities, religious figures, and holy books

God the Father
the Virgin Mary
the Bible
the Greek gods
Moses
Shiva
Buddha
Zeus
Exception: Do not capitalize the non-specific use of the word "god."

4. Titles preceding names, but not titles that follow names

She worked as the assistant to *Mayor Hanolovi*.
I was able to interview *Miriam Moss, mayor of Littonville*.

5. Directions that are names (North, South, East, and West when used as sections of the country, but not as compass directions)

The Patels have moved to the *Southwest*.
Jim's house is two miles north of *Otterbein*.

6. The days of the week, the months of the year, and holidays

Halloween
October
Friday

7. The names of countries, nationalities, and specific languages

Costa Rica
Spanish
French
English

8. The first word in a sentence that is a direct quote

Emerson once said, "*A foolish consistency is the hobgoblin of little minds*."

9. The major words in the titles of books, articles, and songs (but not short prepositions or the articles "the," "a," or "an," if they are not the first word of the title)

One of Jerry's favorite books is *The Catcher in the Rye*.

10. Members of national, political, racial, social, civic, and athletic groups

Green Bay Packers
African-Americans
Anti-Semitic
Democrats
Friends of the Wilderness
Chinese

11. Periods and events (but not century numbers)

Victorian Era
Great Depression
Constitutional Convention
sixteenth century

12. Trademarks

Pepsi
Honda
IBM
Microsoft Word

13. Words and abbreviations of specific names (but not names of things that came from specific things but are now general types)

Freudian
NBC
UN

Hyphen Use

Two words brought together as a compound may be written separately, written as one word, or connected by hyphens. For example, three modern dictionaries all have the same listings for the following compounds:

hair stylist
hairsplitter
hair-raiser

Compounding is obviously in a state of flux, and authorities do not always agree in all cases, but the uses of the hyphen offered here are generally agreed upon.

1. Use a hyphen to join two or more words serving as a single adjective before a noun:

a one-way street
chocolate-covered peanuts
well-known author

However, when compound modifiers come after a noun, they are not hyphenated:

The peanuts were chocolate covered.
The author was well known.

2. Use a hyphen with compound numbers:

forty-six
sixty-three
Our much-loved teacher was sixty-three years old.

3. Use a hyphen to avoid confusion or an awkward combination of letters:

re-sign a petition (vs. resign from a job)
semi-independent (but semiconscious)
shell-like (but childlike)

4. Use a hyphen with the prefixes *ex-* (meaning former), *self-, all-*; with the suffix *-elect*; between a prefix and a capitalized word; and with figures or letters:

ex-husband
self-assured
all-inclusive
mayor-elect
anti-American
T-shirt
pre-Civil War
mid-1980s

Punctuation

When speaking, we can pause or change the tone of our voices to indicate emphasis. When writing, we use punctuation to indicate these places of emphasis.

The **comma** is a valuable, useful punctuation device because it separates the structural elements of sentences into manageable segments. The rules

provided here are those found in traditional handbooks; however, in certain rhetorical contexts and for specific purposes, these rules may be broken.

In English, commas are used much less frequently than in Ukrainian. The main rules of the use of commas that differ from the Ukrainian rules are as follows:

1. Do not separate with a comma (commas) identifying clauses (identify persons or things):

The water *that we are using now* is the very same water *that the dinosaurs used millions years ago.*

An online dictionary is useful for a student *who needs to quickly check the meaning of unfamiliar words*.

2. Separate with a comma (commas) non-identifying clauses:

The basic set of principles, *which this book presents*, allows the deviation of conclusions.

Dr. John Harris, *who came on a research visit to our University*, gave an interesting lecture.

3. Do not separate with a comma infinitival, participial, prepositional phrases, and adverbial clauses if they come at the end of the sentence:

You need the right kinds of food in the right amounts *to have a healthy life*.

The dominant culture sets the standards and norms for day-to-day living *in many countries around the world*.

4. Separate with a comma infinitival, participial, prepositional phrases, and adverbial clauses if they come at the beginning of the sentence.

To have a healthy life, you need the right kinds of food in the right amounts.

In many countries around the world, the dominant culture sets the standards and norms for day-to-day living.

5. Put a comma between two independent clauses if they are connected by *and, but, or, nor, for, yet, so*.

Lomonosov worked in many fields of science, *but* everywhere he brought something new and original leaving his century far behind.

6. Separate with a comma logical connectors at the beginning of the sentence:

For example, 148 million people worldwide are communicating across borders via Internet.

However, real language does not consist solely of questions from one party and answers from another.

7. Put a comma in case of enumeration in a series of 3 or more words and even if the last item is preceded by *and*:

Pollutants may be chemicals, industrial waste, *and* small particles of soil.

8. Put a comma after a person's family (last) name if it is written before the first name:

On a job application, one must write his/her last name first, e.g.: *Roberts*, David.

9. Put a comma in a direct quotation to separate the speaker's exact words from the rest of the sentence:

The widespread definition of clinical genetics is, "The science and practice of the diagnosis, prevention, and treatment of genetic disease."

10. Full stops (periods) and commas should always be put <u>inside</u> the close of quotation marks (sometimes called **inverted commas**):

"Students," he writes, "should not be forbidden to study literature."

11. Use a comma to separate nonessential elements from a sentence. More specifically, when a sentence includes information that is not crucial to the message or intent of the sentence, enclose it in or separate it by commas.

John's truck, a red Chevrolet, needs new tires.

12. Use a comma between coordinate adjectives (adjectives that are equal and reversible).

The irritable, fidgety crowd waited impatiently for the rally speeches to begin.

13. Use a comma after a transitional element (however, therefore, nonetheless, also, otherwise, finally, instead, thus, of course, above all, for example, in other words, as a result, on the other hand, in conclusion, in addition)

If you really want to get a good grade this semester, however, you must complete all assignments, attend class, and study your notes.

14. Use a comma with quoted words.

"Yes," she promised. Todd replied, saying, "I will be back this afternoon."

15. Use a comma in a date:

October 25, 2024
Monday, October 25, 2024

16. Use a comma in a personal title:

Pam Smith, PhD.

Mike Rose, Chief Financial Officer for Operations, reported the quarter's earnings

17. Use a comma to separate a city name from the state (writing an address):

West Lafayette, Indiana

Dallas, Texas

18. Avoid comma splices (two independent clauses joined only by a comma). Instead, separate the clauses with a period, with a comma followed by a coordinating conjunction, or with a semicolon.

Semicolon

1. Use a **semicolon** to join 2 independent clauses when the second clause restates the first or when the two clauses are of equal emphasis:

Road construction in Dallas has hindered travel around town; streets have become covered with bulldozers, trucks, and cones.

ADVICE

Remember:

Independent clause: a clause that has a subject and a verb and can stand alone; a complete sentence

Dependent clause: a clause that has a subject and a verb but cannot stand alone; an incomplete sentence

2. Use a semicolon to join elements of a series when individual items of the series already include commas:

Recent sites of the Olympic Games include Athens, Greece; Salt Lake City, Utah; Sydney, Australia; Nagano, Japan.

3. Use a semicolon to join 2 independent clauses when the second clause begins with a conjunctive adverb (however, therefore, moreover, furthermore, thus, meanwhile, nonetheless, otherwise) or a transition (in fact, for example, that is, for instance, in addition, in other words, on the other hand, even so).

Terrorism in the United States has become a recent concern; in fact, the concern for America's safety has led to an awareness of global terrorism.

Colon

1. Use a **colon** to join 2 independent clauses when you wish to emphasize the second clause, or to introduce a clarification, explanation, summary:

The commander was confident: Special Air Service Regiment had enough ammunition.

Use correct spelling: check a dictionary if you need to.

The rules are simple: be on time, complete your assignments and respect others.

2. Use a **colon** after an independent clause when it is followed by a list, appositive (an appositive is a word that adds explanatory or clarifying information to the noun that precedes it), or other idea directly related to the independent clause:

   I know a perfect job for her: a politician.

   We covered many of the fundamentals in our writing class: grammar, punctuation, style, and voice.

3. Use a **colon** to separate the hour, minute(s), and seconds in a time notation:

   12:00 p.m.

   *The r**ocket launched at 09:15:05.***

4. Use a colon at the end of a business letter greeting.

To Whom It May Concern:

Dear Mr. X:

5. Use a colon to separate the chapter and verse in a Biblical reference.

Matthew 1:6

"Isaiah 42:8"

Parenthesis

Parentheses are used to emphasize content. They place more emphasis on the enclosed content than commas. Use parentheses to set off nonessential material, such as dates, clarifying information, or sources, from a sentence.

Muhammed Ali (1942-present), arguably the greatest athlete of all time, claimed he would "float like a butterfly, sting like a bee."

Dash

Dashes are used to set off or emphasize the content enclosed within dashes or the content that follows a dash:

Perhaps one reason why the term has been so problematic – so resistant to definition, and yet so transitory in those definitions – is because of its multitude of applications.

To some of you, my proposals may seem radical – even revolutionary.

Use a dash to set off an appositive phrase that already includes commas. An appositive is a word that adds explanatory or clarifying information to the noun that precedes it.

China — the most densely populated nation on Earth — has only about two percent of the land suitable for agriculture in the world.

The question words—who, what, when, where, why, and how—are used to retrieve information in English.

How to Punctuate Quotations

When you use quotations, it is important to follow certain

ADVICE

Underlines or Quotation Marks?

Even the most experienced writers have a problem remembering the proper punctuation for certain types of titles. Books are italicized (or underlined) and articles are put in quotation marks. That's about as far as many people can remember.

There is a trick to remembering how to treat titles, and it works well enough that you can commit most types of titles to memory.

It's the big and little trick.

Big things and things that can stand on their own, like books, are italicized. Little things that are dependent or that come as part of a group, like chapters, are put into quotation marks.

Underline any published collection, like a book of poetry. Put the individual entry, like a poem, in quotation marks. However: a long, epic poem that is often published on its own would be treated like a book. *The Odyssey* is one example.

Punctuating Titles of Works of Art

Creating a work of art is an enormous task, isn't it? For that reason, you can think of art as a *big* accomplishment. Individual works of art like paintings and sculptures are underlined or italicized:

- Michelangelo's *David*
- *Mona Lisa*
- *The Last Supper*
- *The Pieta*

Note: A photograph, which is much *smaller* than a work of art, is placed in quotation marks!

Titles and Names to Italicize

- A novel
- A ship
- A play
- A film
- A painting
- A sculpture or statue
- A drawing
- A CD
- A TV Series
- An encyclopedia
- A magazine
- A newspaper
- A pamphlet

Titles to Put Into Quotation Marks

- Poem
- Short story
- A skit
- A commercial
- An individual episode in a TV series (like "The Soup Nazi" on *Seinfeld)*
- A chapter
- An article
- A newspaper story

Some titles are merely capitalized and not given additional punctuation. These include:

- Religious works, like The Bible or The Koran
- Buildings
- Monuments

standards of punctuation. Ignoring these standards could make your quotation look like plagiarism, not to mention shoddy and amateurish.

Here is how:

1. Periods (.) and commas (,) should be placed inside the quotation marks.
2. Colons (:) and semicolons (;) should stay outside quotation marks.
3. If hyphens (-), question marks (?), or exclamation marks (!) are a part of the original quotation, use them inside the quotation marks. If they are your own, use them outside the quotation marks.
4. At the end of the quotation, cite the name of the author.
5. Reproduce all the punctuations used by the author of the quotation. Don't modify the original structure of the quotation.
6. If the quotation is more than three lines long, indent it about half an inch from the left margin. If you indent your quotation, do not use quotation marks.
7. A short quotation can be merged with your sentence. Use quotation marks to indicate that it is not your own writing.
8. Use parenthesis (round brackets) to provide information about the quotation. This could include the name of the author, the source of the quotation, the page number of the extract and the like.
9. If you skip parts of the quotation, indicate the missing part by using ellipses (...).
10. When you quote a stanza from poetry, indicate line breaks by using the slash marks (/).

Italics

1. Underlining and Italics are often used interchangeably. Before word-processing programs were widely available, writers would underline certain words to indicate to publishers to italicize whatever was underlined. Although the general trend has been moving toward italicizing instead of underlining, you should remain consistent with your choice throughout your paper. To be safe, you could check with your teacher to find out which he/she prefers. Italicize the titles of magazines, books, newspapers, academic journals, films, television shows, long poems, plays of three or more acts, operas, musical albums, works of art, websites, and individual trains, planes, or ships.

Time

Romeo and Juliet by William Shakespeare

The Metamorphosis of Narcissus by Salvador Dali
Amazon.com
Titanic

2. Italicize foreign words.

Semper fi, the motto of the U.S. Marine Corps, means "always faithful."

3. Italicize a word or phrase to add emphasis.

The *truth* is of utmost concern!

4. Italicize a word when referring to that word.

The word *justice* is often misunderstood and therefore misused.

Lecture 5. ELEMENTS OF ACADEMIC TEXTS

Paragraph

In many languages, the fundamental unit of composition is the paragraph. The division into paragraphs is an important feature of any type of writing. A **paragraph** is a collection of related sentences dealing with a single topic (Other definitions: a **paragraph** may be defined as a textual unit usually consisting of a number of sentences which deal with one main idea; a paragraph consists of several sentences grouped together which discuss one main subject). Skillful paragraph division greatly assists readers in following a piece of writing. The basic rule of thumb with paragraphing is to keep one idea to one paragraph. If you begin transition into a new idea, it belongs in a new paragraph. You can have one idea and several bits of supporting evidence within a single paragraph. In U.S. formal academic writing, for instance, paragraphs have three principal parts. These three parts are the topic sentence, body sentences, and the concluding sentence.

In writing, a paragraph is defined by

ADVICE

Some methods to make sure your paragraph is well-developed:

- Use examples and illustrations
- Cite data (facts, statistics, evidence, details, and others)
- Examine testimony (what people say such as quotes and paraphrases)
- Use an anecdote or story
- Define terms in the paragraph
- Compare and contrast
- Evaluate causes and reasons
- Examine effects and consequences
- Analyze the topic
- Describe the topic
- Offer a chronology of an event (time segment)

indentation. **Indentation** means starting a line (of print or writing) farther from the margin than the other lines. Indentation signals the beginning of some kind of a change. In English academic writing, all paragraphs with the exception of the first one should be indented.

The length of a paragraph is often between 75 to 125 words (although it can be much longer). In a short piece of academic writing (for example, the conference abstract or text summary), each major point may be developed into a separate paragraph. In longer types of papers (e.g., the journal paper), several paragraphs may be necessary to develop one point.

Paragraphs should be short enough for readability, but long enough to develop an idea. Overly long paragraphs should be split up, as long as the cousin paragraphs keep the idea in focus. One-sentence paragraphs are unusually emphatic, and should be used sparingly. Articles should rarely, if ever, consist solely of such paragraphs.

A paragraph is a group of closely related sentences dealing with a single topic or idea. Usually, one sentence called the **topic sentence** states the main idea of the paragraph. All the other sentences must be related to this topic sentence. These sentences further explain or support the main idea and give the paragraph a feeling of unity.

The **topic sentence** of a paragraph tells what the paragraph is about. It indicates in a general way what idea or thesis the paragraph is going to deal with. A topic

ADVICE

You should start a new paragraph when:

- When you begin a new idea or point. New ideas should always start in new paragraphs. If you have an extended idea that spans multiple paragraphs, each new point within that idea should have its own paragraph.
- To contrast information or ideas. Separate paragraphs can serve to contrast sides in a debate, different points in an argument, or any other difference.
- When your readers need a pause. Breaks in paragraphs function as a short “break” for your readers – adding these in will help your writing more readable. You would create a break if the paragraph becomes too long or the material is complex.
- When you are ending your introduction or starting your conclusion. Your introductory and concluding material should always be in a new paragraph. Many introductions and conclusions have multiple paragraphs depending on their content, length, and the writer’s purpose.

sentence can be put in any place in the paragraph, but putting it at the beginning guides paragraph development. Sometimes the main idea is implied rather than stated.

Ensure that paragraphs have clear topic sentences which state the key point of the section. In the writing process you will often find that the main idea does not appear until the end of a piece of writing. This is because we tend to write our way toward the main idea, clarifying our thoughts as we write up the data. The reader should not have to wait this long for the main point.

A topic sentence usually comes at the beginning of a paragraph; that is, it is usually the first sentence in a formal academic paragraph. Not only is a topic sentence the first sentence of a paragraph, but, more importantly, it is the most general sentence in a paragraph. What does "most general" mean? It means that there are not many details in the sentence, but that the sentence introduces an overall idea that you want to discuss later in the paragraph.

For example, suppose that you want to write a paragraph about the natural landmarks of your hometown. The first part of your paragraph might look like this:

> My hometown is famous for several amazing natural features. First, it is noted for the Wheaton River, which is very wide and beautiful. Also, on the other side of the town is Wheaton Hill, which is unusual because it is very steep.

Note how the first sentence, *My hometown, Wheaton, is famous for several amazing geographical features,* is the **most general** statement. This sentence is different from the two sentences that follow it, since the second and third sentences mention specific details about the town's geography, and are not general statements.

Here are some examples of sentences that cannot be used as topic sentences. Can you figure out why they are inappropriate?

1. My hometown is famous because it is located by Wheaton River, which is very wide, and because it is built near an unusually steep hill called Wheaton Hill.

2. There are two reasons why some people like to buy cars with automatic transmission and two reasons why others like cars with manual transmission.

3. Clouds are white.

The problem with sentence #1 is that it contains too many details. Topic sentences are general, and details should appear later in the paragraph. A better topic sentence would be like the one mentioned above, *My hometown is famous for several amazing geographical features.*

Sentence #2 is not appropriate as a topic sentence because it mentions two topics, not just one. Paragraphs are usually about one main thing and so their topic sentences should also be about only one main thing.

The problem with sentence #3 is that it is *too*general. It is also very boring! Would you like to read a paragraph with this topic sentence? Most people would not.

We can rewrite sentences #2 and #3 in the following ways to make it better:

> There are two reasons why some people like to buy cars with automatic transmission.
>
> *OR (in a different paragraph):*
>
> There are two reasons why some people like cars with manual transmission.
>
> The shapes of clouds are determined by various factors.

Supporting Sentences

Consider again the above-mentioned, short paragraph:

> My hometown, Wheaton, is famous for several amazing natural features. First, it is noted for the Wheaton River, which is very wide and beautiful. Also, on the other side of the town is Wheaton Hill, which is unusual because it is very steep.

When a reader reads a topic sentence, such as *My hometown, Wheaton, is famous for several amazing natural features,* a **question** should usually appear in the reader's mind. In this case, the question should be like, "What are the natural features that make Wheaton famous?" The reader should then expect that the rest of the paragraph will give an answer to this question.

Now look at the sentences after the topic sentence. We can see that the second sentence in the paragraph, *First, it is noted for the Wheaton River, which is very wide and beautiful,* indeed gives an answer to this question. That is, the second sentence gives some explanation for the fact that Wheaton is a famous town. Similarly, the third sentence also gives some explanation for the fact that Wheaton is famous by giving another example of an "amazing natural feature," in this case, Wheaton Hill.

The second and third sentences are called **supporting sentences**. They are called "supporting" because they "support," or explain, the idea expressed in the topic sentence. Of course, paragraphs in English often have more than two supporting ideas. The paragraph above is actually a very short paragraph. At minimum, you should have at least five to seven sentences in your paragraph. Here we can see our paragraph about Wheaton with a few more supporting sentences in **bold** font:

> My hometown is famous for several amazing natural features. First, it is noted for the Wheaton River, which is very wide and beautiful. Also, on the other side of the town is Wheaton Hill, which is unusual because it is very steep. **The third amazing feature is the Big Old Tree. This tree stands two hundred feet tall and is probably about six hundred years old.**

The Concluding Sentence

In formal paragraphs you will sometimes see a sentence at the end of the paragraph which summarizes the information that has been presented. This is the concluding sentence. You can think of a concluding sentence as a sort of topic sentence in reverse.

You can understand concluding sentences with this example. Consider a hamburger that you can buy at a fast-food restaurant. A hamburger has a top bun (a kind of bread), meat, cheese, lettuce, and other elements in the middle of the hamburger, and a bottom bun. Note how the top bun and the bottom bun are very similar. The top bun, in a way, is like a topic sentence, and the bottom bun is like the concluding sentence. Both buns "hold" the meat, onions, and so on. Similarly, the topic sentence and concluding sentence "hold" the supporting sentences in the paragraph. Let's see how a concluding sentence (in **bold** font) might look in our sample paragraph about Wheaton:

My hometown is famous for several amazing natural features. First, it is noted for the Wheaton River, which is very wide and beautiful. Also, on the other side of the town is Wheaton Hill, which is unusual because it is very steep. The third amazing feature is the Big Old Tree. This tree stands two hundred feet tall and is probably about six hundred years old. **These three landmarks are truly amazing and make my hometown a famous place.**

Notice how the concluding sentence, *These three landmarks are truly amazing and make my hometown a famous place,* summarizes the information in the paragraph. Notice also how the concluding sentence is similar to, but not exactly the same as, the topic sentence.

Not all academic paragraphs contain concluding sentences, especially if the paragraph is very short. However, if your paragraph is very long, it is a good idea to use a concluding sentence.

Details in Paragraphs

Whenever possible, include enough details in your paragraphs to help your reader understand exactly what you are writing about. In the paragraph about Wheaton, three natural landmarks are mentioned, but we do not know very much about them. For example, we could add a sentence or two about the Wheaton River concerning HOW wide it is or WHY it is beautiful. Consider this revision (and note the additional details in **bold**):

My hometown is famous for several amazing natural features. First, it is noted for the Wheaton River, which is very wide and beautiful. **On either side of this river, which is 175 feet wide, are many willow trees which have long branches that can move gracefully in the wind. In autumn the leaves of these trees fall and cover the riverbanks like golden snow.** Also, on the other side of the town is Wheaton Hill, which is unusual because it is very steep. **Even though it is steep, climbing this hill is not dangerous, because there are some firm rocks along the sides that can be used as stairs. There are no trees around this hill, so it stands clearly**

against the sky and can be seen from many miles away. The third amazing feature is the Big Old Tree. This tree stands two hundred feet tall and is probably about six hundred years old. These three landmarks are truly amazing and make my hometown a famous place.

If we wished, we could also add more details to the paragraph to describe the third natural feature of the area, the Big Old Tree.

Why are details important? Consider the example of the hamburger, mentioned above. If the hamburger buns are the topic and concluding sentences, then the meat, the cheese, the lettuce, and so on are the supporting details. Without the food between the hamburger buns, your hamburger would not be very delicious! Similarly, without supporting details, your paragraph would not be very interesting.

Academic Names

The names of English academic authors normally consist of the first (given) and last (family) names, the given name always being placed before the last name (but, certainly, not in bibliographies), for example, *"Richard Winkler."* Sometimes a middle initial is added, e.g. *"Dwight K. Stevenson*." Academic names are considered to be formal, although shortened versions of the first names may sometimes be met, e.g. *"Bob Jordan"* (instead of *"Robert Jordan"*) or *"Liz Hamp-Lyons"* (instead of *"Elizabeth Hamp-Lyons"*). Such a naming practice may not be acceptable for Ukrainian academics accustomed to a more formal style of self-presentation. On the other hand, the Slavic tradition of using patronymics is not generally known to English and international audiences. Ukrainian authors writing in English

ADVICE

Dr. and Professor: Don't use these in writing before people's names, as a rule. Not all faculty members hold a doctoral degree, and not all hold the rank of full professor. Instead, use the styles below:

Jane Smith, Ph.D., biology, Jane Smith, biology faculty

Jane Smith (biology)

When a formal title precedes a proper name, capitalize: *Professor of Physics Jane Smith*. When a title follows a proper name, do not capitalize: *Jane Smith, professor of physics*

If the individual is widely known by a shortened name or nickname, include it in parentheses.

may be advised, therefore, to use their full first and family names with the observation of appropriate rules of transliteration.

Titles

Titles are important components of academic and research writing, "responsible" for gaining readers' attention and facilitating positive perceptions of any kind of written research.

Titles may have quite different syntactic structures. The main structural types of English titles are as follows:

1. Nominative constructions, that is titles with one or more nouns as principal elements. E.g.:

Non-verbal Communication and Language Teaching

A Script of Today's Russian Feminist Biography

2. "Colon"-titles consisting of two parts separated by a colon. E.g.:

Gossip and Insecure Workplace: Look before You Speak

Academic Writing for Graduate Students: What Do They Really Need?

ADVICE

1. Make your title specific enough to describe the contents of the paper, but not so technical that only specialists will understand. The title should be appropriate for the intended audience.

2. The title usually describes the subject matter of the article: Effect of Smoking on Academic Performance" Sometimes a title that summarizes the results is more effective: Students Who Smoke Get Lower Grades"

3. Verbal constructions, that is titles containing a non-finite form of a verb as a principal element. E.g.:

Analyzing and Teaching Research Genres

4. Titles in the form of complete sentences. E.g.:

Language is not a Physical Object

Proxemics is Relevant in Foreign Language Teaching

Can You Really Trust your Lawyer?

5. Proverbs can be turned around:

The Mossy Rolling Stone.

6. Alliteration:

Switzerland's Super Skiers.

Titles should not (if possible):

a) be unnecessarily long;
b) use the passive voice;
c) include negative or controversial terms;
d) contain complicated phrases;
e) be so brief as to limit the specificity of the paper;
f) use abbreviations or acronyms unless they are commonly known.

Sometimes, articles in the titles may be omitted, e.g.:

Clinical Aspects of Modeling Cancer Growth

Titles of books, plays, movies, music should be capitalized. But do not capitalize articles, conjunctions, or prepositions unless they are the first word of the title, e.g.:

How English Works (a book)
The New Yorker (a magazine)
The Marriage of Figaro (an opera)
My Fair Lady (a movie)

References

In academic literature, a reference is a previously published written work within academic publishing which has been used as a source for theory or claims referred to which are used in the text. References contain complete bibliographic information so the interested reader can find them in a library. References can be added either at the end of the publication or as footnotes.

In publishing, a reference is *citation* of a work, in a footnote, from which an idea was taken.

A research paper summarizes a study. It does not identify who did what. Reference to instructors,

ADVICE

Quotes

When you write a paper related to literature, history, current events, and many other fields, direct quotes may be essential to a full discussion of the subject. In science, there is very rarely any call for a direct quote. On student papers, there is no reason at all to include direct quotes, except in the case when the student doesn't understand the concept and uses the quote to avoid having to explain it his/herself. Obviously, this does not go over too well with the grader. As a rule, do not use direct quotes in a scholarly technical paper. Your own thoughts must be expressed, not those of someone else.

fellow students, teams, partners, etc. are not appropriate, nor is it appropriate to refer to "the lab."

Acknowledgements

In the creative arts and scientific literature, an **acknowledgment** (also spelled **acknowledgement**) is an expression of gratitude for assistance in creating a literary or artistic work.

Receiving credit by way of acknowledgment rather than authorship indicates that the person or organization did not have a direct hand in producing the work in question, but may have contributed funding, criticism, or encouragement to the author(s). Various schemes exist for classifying acknowledgments; Giles & Councill (2004) give the following six categories:

moral support
financial support
editorial support
presentational support
instrumental/technical support
conceptual support, or peer interactive communication. Apart from citation, which is not usually considered to be an acknowledgment, acknowledgment of conceptual support is widely considered to be the most important for identifying intellectual debt. Some acknowledgments of financial support, on the other hand, may simply be legal formalities imposed by the granting institution.

Acknowledgements, i.e. expressions of gratitude to colleagues, sponsors, supervisors, etc., have become a standard part of English academic papers and research publications. They are usually placed at the end of the paper, or, in case of books, at the beginning before the main text. Acknowledgements also allow the author to demonstrate that he/she is a member of a certain academic community. They are usually written in the first person – ***I*** for a single author and ***we*** for co-authors.

ADVICE

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS ***:)***

This section is optional. You can thank those who either helped with the experiments, or made other important contributions, such as discussing the protocol, commenting on the manuscript, or buying you pizza.

Below are several patterns of the most widespread elements of acknowledgements:

1. Financial support. E.g.:

   This research was supported by a grant from … (e.g., International Fund…)
   The work of … was supported by …

2. Thanks to colleagues. E.g.:

   I would like to thank Prof. X for his invaluable commentary and guidance.

3. Thanks to editors and reviewers. E.g.:

   I wish to thank the anonymous reviewers for their helpful suggestions.
   We are grateful to the (…) publishers for the permission to use copyright material

The writing process

The assignment writing process consists of several stages. The process is usually described in a linear fashion, proceeding from the first stage to the last in an orderly sequence. In a real writing situation, however, the process is more complex and more 'messy' than this linear representation suggests.

As you write, you may develop new ideas or realise that you need more information. This may cause you to change the original plan or consult new reading sources. Some students find this frightening: they feel they are losing control over their writing. If you accept that this 'messiness' is an integral part of the writing process, you will manage the situation better as long as you allow enough time for any necessary revisions to the plan or draft.

Stages in the writing process

Understanding the question

The first stage in the process is extremely important because your interpretation of the question has a direct impact on the remaining stages and on the quality and relevance of you answer.

Gathering information

Decide what information you need to tackle the assignment. Your lecture notes and reading list will help you to identify key sources. Other sources of information include: journals (many of which you can access online), electronic databases, statistical information, reports and theses.

It is important to be selective. Bear in mind your deadline for submission and word limit when deciding how much to read. Evaluate sources so that you do not

waste time reading materials that are out of date, of poor quality or irrelevant to your question.

Recording information

Take notes as you read, making sure that you record all the information you need to reference your sources properly. Over time, you will develop a note-taking style to suit your preferences, but remember to use your own words if writing full sentences. This will help you to avoid plagiarism. If you think it is important to copy an extract word for word, indicate this clearly in your notes so that you remember to change the words in the assignment.

Planning and structuring the content

First of all, formulate the central idea and write it down in a single sentence or a small number of sentences. Then make an outline of the assignment, clearly showing how you will develop the central idea. The outline must include the different sections and the main points in each section. Next, add the supporting points for each main idea and briefly indicate which sources of information you intend to use. Take a break and then reread your plan to decide whether you need to change or add anything.

Writing the first draft

At the first draft stage, it is advisable to concentrate on the content and structure rather than language and style. Focusing on language and style at this early stage will interrupt the flow of ideas and delay progress. Once you have completed the first draft, put it aside and take a break. Then evaluate your draft and decide what improvements you need to make. Is the argument clear? Have you provided enough evidence to support your claims? Are ideas linked together logically?

Redrafting

This stage involves improving and refining early drafts. When redrafting, you may have to move sentences or paragraphs, delete repeated or unnecessary information, clarify the relationship between main and subsidiary ideas, use linking words to make the connection between ideas more explicit, rewrite ambiguous or unclear sentences, and select more appropriate language.

Editing and proofreading

Allow enough time to check your assignment thoroughly before submission. If possible, leave it for a day or two. This will enable you to examine it with some

detachment and make any changes that are still needed to ensure that it is clearly and accurately written. Check paragraphing, grammar, word choice, spelling and punctuation, and make sure that all sources are correctly cited in the text and included in the list of references.

Strategies to improve foreign text reading

Are you a good reader in your first language? You might be frustrated because reading ability in English does not match that of your first language. The following ideas could give you some transferable reading strategies that you might have already used when you read in your first language.

The structure of writing

The structure used to present and explain ideas could be different from what you are familiar with in your first language.

You need to be aware of the overall structure of an English language academic text. For example:

- The introduction tells readers what to expect.
- The body presents a number of ideas which support or are directly related to the introduction.
- These ideas are then supported by explanations and/or evidence.
- The conclusion reminds readers of what to expect.

Efficient reading

Have a purpose for reading.

Seek answers to questions.

Don't panic if the answers are wrong – look for other likelihoods and adapt to new perceptions.

Don't waste time. Try reading the conclusion first, look for summaries and abstracts. Scan the text to see if you can find and understand main ideas.

Take risks

Being correct is not always important: understanding the message is what counts.

Before you read make predictions. If the predictions are wrong you will need to make new predictions.

Take control

Some ideas are difficult to understand. Don't be alarmed if you don't understand some of the new concepts in the university texts.

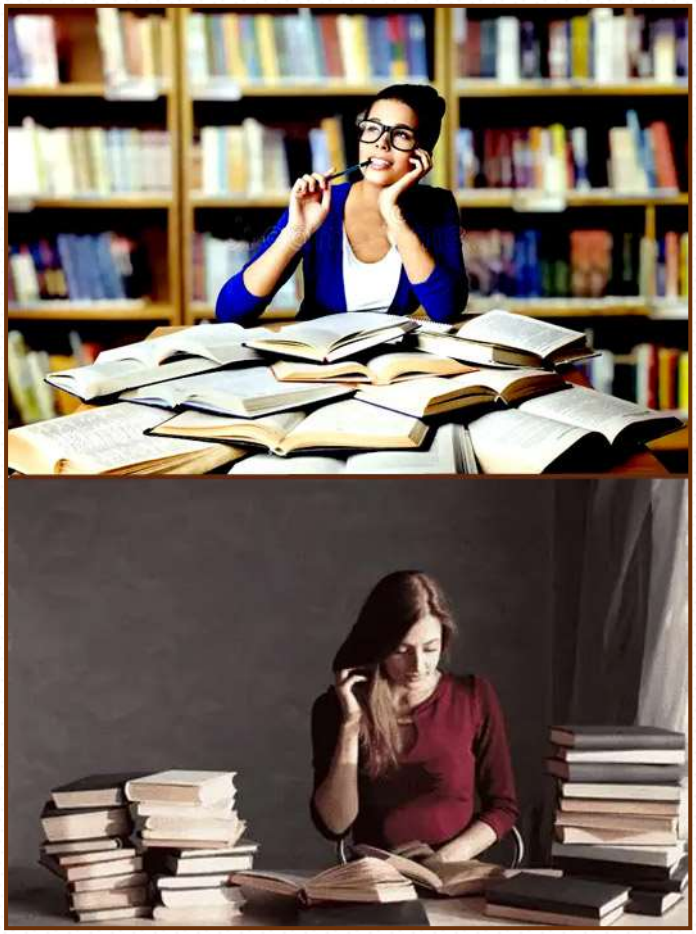
Decide what you MUST read. You can't read everything on the reading list. The reality is that not even texts expect you to read everything.

Be discriminating about what you read and know your own style.

- Do you like knowledge to be presented with a minimum of words?
- Do graphics help you to follow the written information?
- Some students need to read many words in order to process information and absorb ideas.
- Do you know what your style is?

Adjust the attention you give to the words you are reading. Some words need to be understood. Some words reveal the connections between ideas and so can be important in a certain context. At the same time, there are words whose presence adds little to the message. Active readers decide not to give much attention to these words.

Reading every word slowly and carefully is exhausting. Don't tax your short term memory by reading too slowly; sometimes reading quickly helps to maintain concentration. Good readers are confident about their own judgment and decide when to read quickly and when to read carefully and slowly.



Lecture 6. ENGLISH ACADEMIC GENRES. SUMMARY

The reading of original and unabridged articles in newspapers and magazines is advantageous as it both gives the precious opportunity to learn new and handy vocabulary, and stimulates a lot of discussion if students are persistently challenged to speak on a topic. The ultimate aim of such work can be a well-developed summary that helps effectively deal with new information and supplies numerous themes for oral tasks that are necessary for producing fluent speakers.

A dictionary definition of a summary is “a presentation of the substance of a body of material in a condensed form or by reducing it to its main points”. In terms of academic writing a **summary** (Ukr. *розширена анотація*, sometimes *реферат*) is a shortened version of a text aimed at giving the most important information or ideas of the text. Summarizing is an important part of writing academic papers, which usually include extensive references to the work of others. At Ukrainian universities, writing summaries of professional and scientific texts in English is often an examination assignment.

The right choice of articles is important for the students’ ability to cope with them, and it is evident that the most acceptable will be the most newsworthy stories.

The reason for the article is another step: it’s important to pay attention to what triggered the writing. This can be done while answering questions like ***What*** has happened? ***Who*** participated? ***When*** and ***Where?*** The results or consequences of the occasion also can be discussed and noted. Thus we formulate another line of the summary, giving information about the event that caused the feature.

The next part in this routine is to make a summary of every paragraph in a few words and verify you can discern between fact, opinion, or the author’s attitude towards the event described. The writer’s view is usually shown in the choice of stylistically coloured words, especially attributes, and is clearly understood from the context. It is not that easy to separate plain facts from opinions, but such analysis is usually not relevant.

Types of Summaries

A summary should be accurate and while 100% objectivity is not possible, the summary writer should strive to stay as close as possible to this position. Most importantly, the summary writer should fairly represent the author's ideas. Writers of summaries should save their own ideas and interpretations for the response, rather than including these things in the summary.

The purpose for the summary can alter how it is written. Also, the reader's needs and interests must be considered when crafting a summary. A key skill to develop for use in written summary is the ability to paraphrase (to express the author's ideas using the summarizer's own words).

There are three types of summary:

- Main Point Summary
- Key Points Summary
- Outline Summary

Main Point Summary

A main point summary reads much like an article abstract, giving the most important "facts" of the text. It should identify the title, author, and main point or argument. When relevant, it can also include the text's source (book, essay, periodical, journal, etc.). As in all types of summary, a main point summary uses author tags, such as "In her article, Salahub states," or "Ms. Salahub argues/explains/says/asks/suggests." These tags will make it clear which ideas are those of the author and the text being summarized, not the summarizer. This type of summary might also use a quote from the text, but the quote should be representative of the text's main idea or point. A main point summary is often used when writing academic papers as a way to introduce the reader to a source and to place the main point of that source into the context of an argument or discussion of an issue. The samples below are summaries of the essay given in the Supplement (See Supplement D).

"In his essay Dropping the Sat? which is posted on the Affirmative Action and Diversity Project's Website, George Will considers the proposal by some that schools stop using student's SAT scores when choosing which students to admit. Mr. Will explains that at most prominent schools in America, the SAT is a key factor in determining college admissions. Mr. Will argues that the SAT is an important tool in predicting the ability of prospective students to perform in college and therefore, should continue to be a factor in college admissions."

Key Point Summary

This type of summary will have all the same features as a main point summary, but also include the reasons and evidence (key points) the author uses to support the text's main idea. This type of summary would also use direct quotes of key words, phrases, or sentences from the text. This summary is used when it is necessary for the summary writer to fully explain an author's idea to the reader. The key point summary involves a full accounting and complete representation of the author's entire set of ideas. One reason to use this sort of summary would be if the writer intended to respond to the author's argument using an agree/disagree response model. In such a case, there may be some of the author's ideas that the writer agrees with, but others with which the writer disagrees.

In his essay Dropping the Sat? which is posted on the Affirmative Action and Diversity Project's Website, George Will considers the proposal by some that schools stop using student's SAT scores when choosing which students to admit. Mr. Will explains that at most prominent schools in America, the SAT is a key factor in determining college admissions. Will argues that the SAT is an important tool in predicting the ability of prospective students to perform in college and therefore, should continue to be a factor in college admissions.

As part of his argument, Mr. Will discusses the origins of the SAT, considers the SAT's effect on campus diversity, challenges the validity of some of the common arguments against using the SAT test, and explains why he believes the SAT to be a necessary tool in determining college admissions. Mr. Will concludes that the SAT is still necessary because we need "some generally accepted means of making millions of annual assessments…roughly predictive of ability to perform well in particular colleges".

Outline Summary

This type of summary mimics the structure of the text being summarized. It includes the main points and argument in the same order they appear in the original text. This is an especially effective technique to use when the accompanying response will be analytic, such as an evaluation of the logic or evidence used in a text.

In his essay 'Dropping the Sat?' which is posted on the Affirmative Action and Diversity Project's Website, George Will argues for the continued use of the SAT in determining college admissions. He mentions Richard Atkinson, president of the University of California, as a specific example of those who want to stop using SAT scores in their admissions process. Part of Atkinson's reasoning is that without the SAT, his school would be better able to create a more racially and ethnically diverse campus. However, George Will argues, "something must perform the predictive function assigned to the SAT".

George Will goes on to discuss that the SAT was created in order to make an education at a prestigious school available not just to those who could afford it, but also to those with sufficient intellectual merit. However, he states, " by purporting to measure intellectual merit, the SAT served equality of opportunity-but the result was opportunity from which not all racial and ethnic groups benefited equally".

Mr. Will says that while some of the original goals of the SAT have been accomplished, it is not yet time to abandon its use. He challenges the validity of some of the most common arguments against the SAT. He suggests that there is currently no better alternative to the SAT, that we can not judge students equally according to grades alone, especially when there is no national standard or curriculum. Mr. Will concludes that the SAT is still necessary because we need "some generally accepted means of making millions of annual assessments…roughly predictive of ability to perform well in particular colleges".

Requirements for Summaries

A good summary satisfies the following requirements:

1. It condenses the source text and offers a balanced coverage of the original. Avoid concentration upon information from the first paragraph of the original text or exclusively focusing on interesting details.

2. It does not evaluate the source text and is written in a generally neutral manner.

3. The first sentence of the summary contains the name of the author of a summarized text, its title, and the main idea.

4. In the summary the logical relationship of the ideas is shown.

5. It satisfies the requirements set to its length (which may be quite different; however, for a rather short text, the summary is usually between one-third and one-fourth of its length).

ADVICE

Try to convert a large number of words into very few, so look for the main points

In short, summary making takes 5 stages:

1. Vocabulary study
2. Source identifying
3. Event defining
4. Paragraph summarizing
5. Message discussion

The main body of the summary consists of the key points you have identified while summarizing each paragraph of the article. Any discrepancies in their statements serve as a basis for discussion and reasoning. While doing that, speak about the people, places, and countries mentioned in the story. For example, those who have been to the cities/countries can tell something interesting about them or share their experiences.

As a result of this task you should first visualize and understand the most precise layout of the summary and, second, be able to agree upon the message. The aims of the article can be to inform the reader; to influence his opinion; to convince or persuade him of something; to provide a lingering influence on his mind and feelings; or to entertain. The special vocabulary may be defined: **features** are special stories or articles; **editorials** are articles expressing opinion; the detailed examination of an idea or event is **analysis**; while the feature story of the day or the most newsworthy is the **lead story**, etc. Whether the author has achieved his aim should be discussed, and some points in what students agree or disagree with regarding the message of the feature.

Steps in Summarizing

1. Skim the original text and think about the author's purpose and main idea of the text.

2. Try to divide the text into sections, or, if it has subheadings, think about the idea and important information that each section contains.

3. Try to write a one-sentence summary of each section/part of the outline in your own words; avoid any evaluation or comments. Use the words and expressions synonymous to those used by the author of a summarized text.

4. Write the first sentence of the summary with the name of the author of a summarized text, its title, and the main idea.

5. Add logical connectors to show the logical relationship of the ideas and to improve the flow of the summary.

ADVICE

It is important to pay attention to what trigged the writing of the original text. This can be done while answering questions like *What has happened? Who participated? When and where?* The results or consequences of the occasion also can be noted.

Useful Phrases: Beginning a Summary

The purpose of the first sentence in a summary is to acquaint the reader with the summarized text. The first sentence, therefore, includes the name of the author of a summarized text, its title, and the main idea. It uses the present tense. Below are some possible patterns that you may use in your summaries:

According to Charles G. Morris in his book *Psychology*, … (main idea)

Charles G. Morris in *Psychology* discusses… (main topic)

Charles G. Morris in his book *Psychology* states/describes/explains/ claims/argues that … (main idea)

In Charles Morris' discussion of firstborns in *Psychology*, …(main idea)

In his book *Psychology*, author Charles G. Morris states/describes/explains/ claims/argues that … (main idea)

Thus, at the very beginning of a summary the reader gets to know the name of the author, the field of his/her scientific interest, methods of investigation. It's the direct reference to the name itself. But of great interest for the reader may be the (scientific) degree of the author as well which is traditionally mentioned in (round/square) brackets after the citation, e.g.:

"Refinements of this technique have been summarized by… Rudis" [S.Rudis, Ph.D., thesis (in progress), University of Iowa]

Though the indication of a degree represents objective information it possesses evaluative meaning as well.

The next part of this routine is to make a summary of every paragraph in a few words and verify the fact, opinion, or the author’s attitude towards the event

described. The main body of the summary consists of the key points which can be identified while summarizing each paragraph of the article (book).

Useful Phrases for Longer Summaries

In longer summaries, it is advisable to remind a reader that you are summarizing. For this purpose, you may use the following patterns also adding some logical connectors (such as *further, also, in addition, furthermore, moreover*, etc.) and using, if necessary, reporting verbs. E.g.:

In the third chapter of the book, the author (*or his name*) presents…

The author (*or his name*) (also) argues/believes/claims/describes/ claims/states that…

The author continues/goes on to say…

The author (further) states that…

The author (*or his name*) concludes that…

In longer summaries, the author's name is usually mentioned at least 3 times – at the beginning, in the middle, and at the end. Although some reporting verbs have an evaluative meaning, they are used in summaries.

If we divide the story into much longer parts, it may become evident that some parts of the summary text are irrelevant. So, in the end, while going through the summary again, it is advisable to see if there are any statements which go together, or if there are some ways of combining the points into one statement, or the order of statements should be changed.

Writing an effective summary requires that you

- read with the writer's purpose in mind
- underline with summarizing in mind
- write, revise, and edit to ensure the accuracy and correctness of your summary

Read with the Writer's Purpose in Mind

- Read the article carefully, making **no** notes or marks and looking only for what the writer is saying.
- After you're finished reading, write down in one sentence the point that is made about the subject. Then look for the writer's thesis and underline it.
    - Does this thesis correspond with the sentence you wrote down? If not, adjust your sentence or reconsider the thesis you selected.

- Look at the article again and ask yourself if your view is slanted toward one of the essay's minor points. If it is, adjust the sentence so that it is slanted toward the writer's major point.

Underline with Summarizing in Mind

- Once you clearly understand the writer's major point (or purpose) for writing, read the article again. This time underline the major points supporting the thesis; these should be words or phrases here and there rather than complete sentences.
- In addition, underline key transitional elements which show how parts are connected. Omit specific details, examples, description, and unnecessary explanations. **Note:** you may need to go through the article twice in order to pick up everything you need.

ADVICE

A native Englishman speakes quickly, pronouncing 220 words per minute on the average, compared with the 180 words of a Ukrainian. So it requires special training for a Ukrainian-speaker to learn to discern such fast speech, and to achieve almost the same speed while speaking. The demands on the fluency of Ukrainian students depend on the level of the class, but what should be borne in mind is that a radio announcer would present the summary (10–12 long sentences, ~ 220 words) in a minute, not more, and this could be taken as a desirable standard.

Write, Revise, and Edit to Ensure the Accuracy and Correctness of Your Summary

Writing Your Summary

- Now begin writing your summary. Start with a sentence naming the writer and article title and stating the essay's main idea. Then write your summary, omitting nothing important and striving for overall coherence through appropriate transitions.
- Be concise, using coordination and subordination to compress ideas.
- Conclude with a final statement reflecting the significance of the article – not from your own point of view but from the writer's.
- Throughout the summary, do **not** insert your own opinions or thoughts; instead summarize what the writer has to say about the subject.

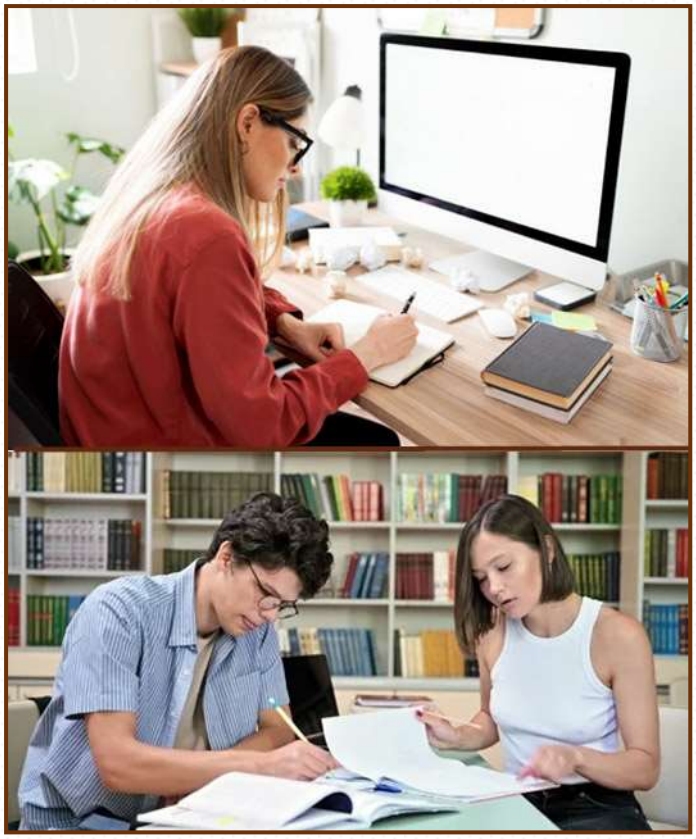
Revising Your Summary

- After you've completed a draft, read your summary and check for accuracy.
    - Does your summary make the same point as the article?
    - Have you omitted anything important?
    - Does your summary read smoothly with all parts clearly related?
- Keep in mind that a summary should generally be no more than one-fourth the length of the original. If your summary is too long, cut out words rather than ideas. Then look for non-essential information and delete it.
- Write another draft – still a draft for revision – and ask someone to read it critically.
    - Can that person understand the sense of the article by reading your summary?
    - Ask for criticism; then weigh these criticisms and make valid changes.

Editing Your Summary

- Correct grammar, spelling, and punctuation errors, looking particularly for those common in your writing.
- Write a clean draft and proofread for copying errors.

An **annotation** is a summary made to information in a book, document, online record, video, software code or other information. Commonly this is used, for example, in draft documents, where another reader has written notes about the quality of a document at a certain point, "in the margin", or perhaps just underlined or highlighted passages. Annotated bibliographies, give descriptions about how each source is useful to an author in constructing a paper or argument. Creating these comments, usually a few sentences long, establishes a summary for and expresses the relevance of each source prior to writing.



Lecture 7. RESEARCH PAPER

Scientific research articles provide a method for scientists to communicate with other scientists about the results of their research.

A **research paper** (**articl**e) (Ukr. *наукова стаття*) may be defined as a relatively short piece of research usually published in a journal or a volume. It is a paper to reflect a search that will present information to support a point of view on a particular topic. The features of research papers considerably vary across disciplines: for example, an essay in literary criticism would essentially differ from a paper, say, in mathematics. Also, theoretically oriented articles are different from those reporting the results and findings of a concrete investigation. We will consider the organizational pattern of a paper of the latter type. Such popular kinds of papers usually have a format comprising Introduction, Methods, Results, and Discussion or some variant of it. Typically, the structure of such paper would be as follows:

1. Author's name
2. Title
3. Abstract
4. Key words
5. Introduction
6. Methods
7. Results
8. Discussion
9. Conclusions
10. Acknowledgements
11. References
12. Appendix/ices

Traditionally, a research opens with an unresolved problem or paradox, or an explanation of something important that we need to know. This is done in order to grab the reader's attention, establish the significance of the research, and signal the literature/s that the research will contribute to. This is usually accomplished in a few sentences or paragraphs.

The **abstract** is designed to give the reader an indication of what the paper is about. Abstracts are commonly used in academic and scientific journals, where they serve the same purpose: giving busy readers a taste before they chew. A handy way of compiling it is to include a sentence about its aim, the questions that have been pursued and the results that have emerged from the project.

- A good abstract explains in one line why the paper is important. It then goes on to give a summary of your major results, preferably couched in numbers with error limits. The final sentences explain the major implications of your work. A good abstract is concise, readable, and quantitative.
- Length should be ~ 1-2 paragraphs, approx. 400 words.
- Absrtracts generally do not have citations.
- Information in title should not be repeated.
- Be explicit.
- Use numbers where appropriate.
- Answers to these questions should be found in the abstract:

1. What did you do?
2. Why did you do it? What question were you trying to answer?
3. How did you do it? State methods.
4. What did you learn? State major results.
5. Why does it matter? Point out at least one significant implication.

Key words (Keywords) are significant words (or word-combinations consisting of more than one word) from a paper or document used as an index to the contents. When listed in the databases, they help to provide efficient indexing, search and retrieval mechanisms thus enabling the reader to quickly find texts on the topic of interest. Key words are usually placed after the abstract before the main body of a text. The number of key words to be provided is in most cases determined by particular editorial requirements.

Keywords are the words that are used to reveal the internal structure of an author's reasoning. While they are used primarily for rhetoric, they are also used

in a strictly grammatical sense for structural composition, reasoning, and comprehension.

The purpose of the **Introduction** is to acquaint the reader with the topic of the paper and to attract interest to it. The Introduction is an important section of the paper insofar as it is responsible for the first impression the paper produces. Introductions in English papers tend to follow a certain pattern of organization of their content. It usually consists of such steps (obligatory and optional):

ADVICE

Common introductory strategies that establish a relationship with the reader:

- a quotation (appropriate and explained in text);
- a concession (recognise an opinion/approach different to your own);
- a paradox;
- a short anecdote or narrative;
- an interesting fact or statistic;
- a question or several questions (that you will proceed to answer);
- relevant background material;
- an analogy;
- an important definition (examine its complexities).

1. Showing that the general research area is important, interesting, problematic or relevant in some way (*optional*).
2. Reviewing previous research in the area.
3. Indicating a gap in the previous research, or counterclaiming, or raising a question, or continuing a tradition.
4. Outlining purposes or nature of the present research.
5. Announcing principal findings (*optional*).
6. Outlining the structure of the research paper (*optional*).

Nevertheless, there can be much variation in introducing research, and it is not always easy to draw distinct boundaries between the enumerated steps. The structure and features of Introductions (as well as other parts of research papers) may be influenced by the following factors: the disciplinary area itself; the nature of the research described in a paper; the type and editorial requirements of a particular journal; the individual rhetorical and stylistic preferences of a writer. Also, the length of the steps may be different, ranging from one sentence to several paragraphs.

There exist useful phrases to begin the Introduction with which you may learn and use in your writing. They include evaluative language that emphasizes the interesting, important character of the research area. Below is a list of the most widespread phrases.

Useful Phrases for Steps 1-2 (Establishing a Research Territory):

It is now generally accepted/recognized that …
In recent years, researches have become increasingly interested in …
Recently, there has been an increase of interest in …
Many recent studies have focused on …
Recently, a great deal of emphasis has been placed on …
Over the last decade, research on … has increasingly demonstrated that …
The development of … has led to …
The relationship between … has been investigated/explored by many researches.
The … has been extensively studied in recent years.

The statement of the problem is followed by a statement of the 'gap' in the field/s of literature that the research aims to address. The 'gap' could refer to an unresolved question, a paradox, a missing piece of information, a theoretical inconsistency or to some other weakness within existing understandings of the phenomenon under study. The research paper makes a substantial contribution to the field by addressing a research gap, challenging existing assumptions, or proposing new insights. It adds value to the academic discourse. Step 3 justifies the research by pointing at the gaps/weaknesses/unsolved issues of the previous research and thus preparing a space for a new investigation. The following standard phrases may be recommended here.

Useful phrases for Step 3 (Establishing a Niche):

Although considerable amount of research has been devoted to …, few attempts have been made to investigate …
Despite the importance/significance of …, little attention has been paid to …
However, few investigations have been focused on …
However, little is known about the …
However, little research has been undertaken to study the problem of …
Further investigations are needed to …
It remains unclear whether …

In the majority of cases filling the gap specified in the previous investigations is done by outlining the purpose or nature of the present research. The typical phrases include reference to the paper itself (in other words, text about one's own text) and, quite often, personal pronouns (*I, we*). Another typical linguistic feature of this part is the use of the present tense which helps to emphasize a novel character of the research. Below are some useful phrases, which you may find useful for your writing.

Useful Phrases for Step 4 (occupying the Niche):

In this paper, I discuss …
In this study, we present the preliminary results of …
In this paper, we report on …
The major task of this study is to provide …
The paper examines …
The present study analyzes …
The purpose of this paper is to give …
This paper focuses on …
This paper addresses the above questions from the perspective of …
The study seeks to understand …

Introduction may include **literature review**. The literature review explores the research context and background of the study in some detail. It focuses on the findings of previous research and may also examine theoretical issues and research methodology. Depending on its scope, it may occupy one or more chapters of the thesis or dissertation.

The literature review is a collection of citations, but this does not mean that it is a descriptive or chronological

ADVICE

The task of the literature review within research writing is to:

- take the reader from the broad topic to the research questions;
- define the field/s of the research;
- introduce and explain findings and theories that support the research;
- draw together main conclusions of literature relevant to the topic;
- highlight gaps or unresolved issues within the literature;
- establish what is original, new or 'significant' about the research.

account of the existing research. A good literature review is a coherent argument organised around key contributions, themes, trends and controversies. The literature review summarises, synthesises and critically evaluates research, and identifies gaps and inconsistencies which provide the justification for further research.

It is important that you avoid presenting citations as a simple list, as in this example:

X found that ….
Y identified ….
Z reported that ….

Since a literature review is a critical evaluation of existing research, **it is important that you take a position towards the sources you cite**. Use phrases that indicate whether your stance is positive, negative or neutral. For example:

In a landmark study, X argued that …. (positive)

This study made a major contribution to …. (positive)

As X states, …. (positive – indicates agreement with X's position)

X found …. (neutral)

X overlooks …. (negative)

The main limitation of this approach is …. (negative)

X offers no explanation for …. (negative)

ADVICE

In a research thesis, every chapter refers to the work of other scholars, although for different purposes. As a simple rule of thumb, decisions about where to discuss literature should be made on the basis of the function of the chapter or section.

In the literature review chapter/s or section/s, discuss literature that demonstrates what is known about the problem area, the relevant fields of knowledge that pertain to it, the significance of your research, and what it will contribute to the field – the 'gap' in the literature.

In the methods and methodology chapter/s or section/s, discuss literature about methods and the methodological approach in order to justify the appropriateness and effectiveness of the research design for your research question.

In the results chapter/s or section/s, discuss literature in order to compare and contrast your results with past findings, or to highlight the significance or limitations of the results.

In the discussion or conclusion chapter/s or section/s, discuss literature that shows the broader significance of the results, or to signal further questions or issues raised by the results.

Introductions of theses and journal articles also provide **definitions** for unclear or contested terms. In general, we assume that the meaning of words

complies with their dictionary definitions. Sometimes however words are not in the dictionary, or their use within a particular context is different from the dictionary usage, or the word can be used in a number of different ways. When the meaning of a term is unclear or contested, it must be defined the first time it is used. This often occurs in the introduction of the thesis, though other terms can be defined as they arise in the flow of the writing. Technical, theoretical or other terms can be defined by referring to a previously published definition. Alternatively, aim to provide a precise, unambiguous definition, and to use the term in this sense throughout the main body of the writing. Try to avoid unnecessarily long definitions that break the flow of the story line.

After reading an introduction, the reader should know:

- what problem, issue or controversy the research relates to;
- what bodies of literature and fields of practice the research relates to;
- why the research is significant;
- for question/answer theses, the central question, hypothesis or research objective;
- the definitions of any key terms;
- how the answer or evidence was attained (research methods);
- the rationale underpinning the method (methodology);
- the chapter contents, and how each chapter supports the thesis objective or argument.

ADVICE

The task of writing an academic essay requires you to take a position. You are expected to make an *intellectual judgements based on credible academic research*. It is important to distinguish between *your opinion* based on personal experience, background knowledge or media coverage **and** *your intellectual judgement* based on your evaluation of academically credible sources.

Please try to avoid using phrases like 'I think…' or 'I believe…' as these suggest unsupported *opinion* rather than an *intellectual judgement* based on the literature. These phrases undermine the strength of the position you are taking even if you do then provide supporting evidence and illustration. You may use phrases like 'I will argue…' but of course the argument then needs to be illustrated and supported by academically credible evidence.

Methods

The Methods section provides description of methods, procedures, materials, and subjects used in a study. It describes the steps undertaken to address the research questions. It is important that you describe these steps clearly and accurately to enable others to determine the

extent to which your methodology may have affected your results, and to replicate your study if necessary.

In specific scientific meaning *methods* are ways of finding, collecting, describing new language facts. *Method*, in its turn, is a system of approaches used to study phenomena and regularities of nature, society, and thinking, to reach any definite results in practice, to organize and systematize theoretical and practical results obtained in investigation.

The method and methodology is an essential part of the story line. It explains how you will answer the question, or how you arrived at your conclusions. Regardless of the style and structure of the research, you must explain:

1) what you did to achieve the research aims, or reach your conclusions,
2) why this approach was appropriate for your research.

The characteristics of this part of a research paper vary across fields.

In some disciplines, the methods section is fairly brief and simple in structure, consisting of a description of procedures and materials only. This approach is appropriate when the methodology is well established and is not the subject of controversy. On the other hand, if the methodology is new, or if it is a source of debate and intellectual inquiry, the level of detail of the methods section needs to be higher.

A methods section may include an overview of the research design, details of the sample and the sampling technique used, and a description of procedures, materials and statistical tools. Ethical considerations must be included if appropriate.

There exist 2 groups of methods usually applied to linguistic research. These are general scientific methods and specific ones. The former are used in any sphere of human knowledge. The latter play an extraordinary important role in the development of a certain branch of science.

Among *general scientific methods* we distinguish between induction, deduction, analysis, synthesis etc.

Induction is a means of investigation with the help of which a general conclusion about the whole class of phenomena is made on the basis of conclusions about separate phenomena of the class. It is the generalization of results of a separate investigation.

Deduction is a means of investigation when a general idea makes it possible to give conclusions about separate members of the class. It is based on the

following axiom: everything which is true about the whole class is true about the separate phenomena of the class. With deduction the notion of *hypothesis* is connected. Hypothesis is the method of investigation when one of the possible answers to the question is formed before the research is carried out.

Analysis is a theoretical or practical division of the whole entity into parts and the research of each element separately. The reverse process is called *synthesis*. It is a process of joining the parts together and the investigation of the whole entity.

Empirical method is generally taken to mean the collection of data on which to base a theory or derive a conclusion in science. It is part of the scientific method, but is often mistakenly assumed to be synonymous with the experimental method.

ADVICE

Once you have described the method, the next task is to explain what you expect your method will show or reveal. What kind of knowledge do you expect your research design to produce? This is often referred to as the research methodology or the 'theoretical framework' of the thesis. You are effectively telling your reader how you wish them to read your findings. Within what methodological or theoretical frame, or set of limits do you wish your findings to be read?

The empirical method is not sharply defined and is often contrasted with the precision of the experimental method, where data are derived from the systematic manipulation of variables in an experiment. Some of the difficulty in discussing the empirical method is from the ambiguity of the meaning of its linguist root: *empiric*.

In scientific research, an *experiment* (Latin: *ex- periri*, "to try out") is a method of investigating causal relationships among variables, or to test a hypothesis. An experiment is a cornerstone of the empirical approach to acquiring data about the world and is used in both natural sciences and social sciences. An experiment can be used to help solve practical problems and to support or negate theoretical assumptions.

The *historical method* comprises the techniques and guidelines by which historians use primary sources and other evidence to research and then to write histories in form of accounts of the past. The question of the nature, and indeed the possibility, of sound historical method is raised in the philosophy of history, as a question of epistemology. The following summarizes the history guidelines commonly used by historians in their work, under the headings of external criticism, internal criticism, and synthesis.

Specifically linguistic methods of language investigation comprise descriptive, comparative, structural, etc.

Descriptive method is the investigation of the language units and the explanation of their building and function on the definite stage of language development that is synchronically.

Comparative method is the number of methods of language research and description through its systematic comparison with other languages with the aim to reveal its specificities. It deals with modern languages. The method researches the structure of the languages on the plane of their similarity or difference, independently of their genetic nature.

Structural method analyses the language phenomena taking into consideration only relations and connections between the language elements. This method appeared in the 20s of the 20th century. It is aimed to study language as the whole structure, the elements and parts of which are interrelated and are connected with the system of linguistic relations.

Distributive analysis is the methodology of investigating language by studying the surrounding of a particular unit in the text.

Componential analysis is the system of techniques of linguistic study of the meaning of the words. It is aimed at dividing the meaning into elementary components, which are called semes or markers.

The fundamental aim of *immediate constituents analysis* is to segment a set of lexical units into two maximally independent sequences and these maximally independent sequences are called immediate constituents. The further segmentation of immediate constituents results in ultimate constituents, which means that further segmentation is impossible.

Content analysis – a kind of the document analysis, a strict enough scientific method, which undermines systematic and reliable fixation of certain content elements of some document whole with subsequent quantification (quantitative processing) of the received data. This analysis is used for studying files of similar documents, more often – mass communications texts, including press, radio, television and film materials. It is also used as a method of the analysis of the answers to open questions of the questionnaire, interview, personal documents and etc. Using content analysis the researcher is not only establishing the characteristics of the documentary sources, but also establishes peculiarities of the whole communication process: social orientations and installations of the

communicator (the creator of the text); values and norms, replicated in the documents, efficiency of their perception with various audiences.

Discourse analysis, or *discourse studies*, is a general term for a number of approaches to analyzing written, spoken or signed language use.

The objects of discourse analysis — discourse, writing, talk, conversation, communicative event, etc. — are variously defined in terms of coherent sequences of sentences, propositions, speech acts or turns-at-talk. Contrary to much of traditional linguistics, discourse analysts not only study language use 'beyond the sentence boundary', but also prefer to analyze 'naturally occurring' language use, and not invented examples. This is known as corpus linguistics; text linguistics is related.

The usage of *mathematic methods* in the linguistics has been known for a long period of time. The active usage of the mathematic methods began in the middle of the 20th century. The *quantitative methods* sum up usage frequency of the language units. *Statistic methods* presuppose the usage of different formulae in studying the rules of the language unit division.

Methodology of dissertational research

The methodology of a dissertational research may be considered as follows:

- General philosophic methodology;
- General scientific methodology;
- Methodology of a concrete branch of science.

The general philosophic methodology of a scientific research should be treated as a system of general conditions and reference points of a cognitive activity.

The general scientific methodology may be shown by directions, concepts and systems of scientific knowledge, which by virtue of a universality of their nature are used as a means of cognitive activity in a variety of different branches of science.

It is possible to emphasize the following most essential application zones of a general scientific methodology in scientific (dissertational) research:

- Problem setting;
- Formation of a subject of research;
- Creation of a scientific theory;
- Check of the theory verity by the reference to practice;

- Usage of the theory for creation of other theories;
- Interpretation of the obtained results.

Thus, the general scientific methodology of a scientific research is a general form of organization of scientific knowledge (scientific and cognitive activity), containing principles of construction of scientific knowledge, ensuring conformity of its structure and contents to the research problems including research methods, check of the verity of the obtained results and their interpretation.

Alongside with the general philosophic and general scientific methodologies it is necessary to mention a methodology of a concrete branch of science as the third type of a methodology.

Each branch of knowledge stores its own arsenal of means of scientific cognition of its scientific objects, which as a whole makes a methodology of concrete branch of science.

Let's consider technical disciplines. Different methods are used in the methodology of engineering science; they take account of specificity of a subject and object of analysis. The major methods are as follows:

- A system approach, permitting to show a diversity of developments of the object of interest, to find a place of the subject of the thesis research in a developed branch of science;
- A design method, determining integrity of research, steps and order of the research development;
- An abstract and logical method used for construction of a theory and including diversiform methods and operations: an analysis and synthesis, deduction and induction, ascension from concrete to abstract and and vice versa, analogy, formal logic, hypothetical supposition etc;
- Simulation as a method of research of a structure, basic properties, laws of development and interaction with outward things of the object of simulation;
- The empirical method, bound with an organization of the experimental examination of both the theory and observation results of the natural and technical processes evolution;
- Statistical and probabilistic methods enabling to realise the quantitative approach to analysis of the scientific data presented in unity with a qualitative analysis;
- A monographics method, which is for the most part of a descriptive nature, but valuable at comprehensive, profound and detailed analysis of an object or phenomenon.

Speaking about the methodological consistency of a thesis, we mean effectiveness of methodological principles with the purposes of obtaining a complete scientific work of a competitor.

The dissertational research consistent with methodological principles is characterized by the following aspects:

- The correct, scientifically reasonable setting of the research problem which not only exists in theory but can be developed practically with obtaining scientific results having signs of novelty, usefulness and veracity. In particular, a setting of pseudo-problems is possible, for example, when the problem is formulated very widely or indefinitely;
- The construction of a subject of research as a set of interdependent subprograms, which provides their study not only in statics (contents and form), but also in dynamics (laws and mechanisms of development); it is necessary to take into account that the construction of a thesis subject serves as a further development of setting of a problem, its detailed investigation and concretization with separation of the informal and formal parts, which is provided by usage of different research methods;
- The construction of a theory, which would help to describe, explain and reveal the inherent nature of phenomena and its contradictionaries, to forecast development of some process, to give recommendations on their perfection. It provides a proper theoretical level of a thesis as its major principle of methodological consistency;
- Provision of a theory and practice unity perceived in terms that a theoretical concept created by a competitor is used in full measure to analize practice and experimental data and to formulate new recommendations; and vice versa the obtained practical results allow to supplement and advance the theory. One may call the formulated position as a key moment of the thesis characteristic from the methodological point of view. In this case we have really scientific research in which the theory plays a dominant role indicating a progressive development trend to practice and means for achievement of its advance;
- The completeness and integrity of research gaining properties of the system in which each separate part can be understood and explained from the position of the whole, and the whole is able to exist and function only on the basis of its components;

- Veracity of the obtained scientific results proved and checked in each concrete case by all possible theoretical methods, experimental investigations and practice.

One more important methodological aspect is an interpretation of the research reasons and obtained scientific results. The interpretation of the research reasons (the problem, object and subject of the research, information collection, research methods, purposes and tasks), conclusions and positions of a thesis constitutes, first of all, a philosophical nature and is based on the objective dialectics of development, its laws and categories.

Results

The Results section reports on data or information obtained in the course of a study. In this part of the research paper, writers put forward their new knowledge claims through the demonstration, explanation, and interpretation of their findings.

The task of this section is to provide the results or discuss the evidence that will answer the question or support the argument. Here you are telling the reader what you found that led you to your conclusions. Evidence might be organised around elements of the method, central themes, theories, ideas, case studies, historical periods, policies, bodies of literature, context, geographical area or other grouping. The important thing is that the discussion is clearly tied to the object of the thesis.

The presentation of results is typically followed by the Discussion section, although the division between these two sections is not rigid, and they may appear together as one structural part of a research paper. Even if the Results section is formally separated from the Discussion, it often contains some comments on the data. The purpose of such comments is to provide a timely response to the critical remarks or questions about results or methods that the author of a paper is likely to anticipate.

ADVICE

One way to ensure you are summarising, synthesising and interpreting data within the main body of the chapter, rather than simply reporting it, is to provide the result first followed with a description of the data that supports it. This will avoid a results section that reads like a long list of figures and tables, or quotes from research subjects with little story line to explain them.

The possible model for the Results section may consist of three steps, or elements of information:

1. Indicating the location of the data to be discussed. Useful phrases: *The major results are given in Table 1; As can be seen from the data, …; As can be seen in/from Table 1; As it has been proved in Chapter 1, …; For more explanations, see Chapter 1…; Table (figure, graph) 1 demonstrates/indicates/ shows/suggests (that)…* The present tense is preferable.
2. Stating the most important findings. Useful phrases: *According to the results of the survey, 70 per cent of the students experienced serious problems with listening comprehension in English; The main difference between X and Y is that …; Both X and Y are/have… .* The past tense is preferable.
3. Commenting on the results. Useful phrases: *The results of the experiment question/undermine the previous research; The results have failed to explain…; This particular result may be attributed to the influence of …; The errors may be due to …; The findings of the study need to be treated with certain caution, since …; The quantitative data support the initial hypothesis…* Instances of cautious style of writing should be observed.

ADVICE

The results section normally contains tables and figures accompanied by text. Here is some advice on how to present the results in this way:

- Decide which results need to be presented in tables or figures. For example, a table showing the gender distribution of the participants (male or female) is normally not necessary: this information can be presented clearly and succinctly in words only. However, results presenting more complex data or a larger number of variables should be presented numerically as well as in words.
- Decide how the results should be organised. In some cases, it may be more appropriate to present the most important findings first.
- Number all tables and figures and give each a title.
- When describing the content of a table or figure in the text, refer to the number of the table or figure. For example, 'Figure 1 shows….', or 'The results of … are given in Table 2.'
- Do not attempt to describe all the numeric information in a table or figure. The written text should highlight significant or interesting findings. However, in some cases it may be appropriate to state that certain findings are not significant; for example, if the findings do not support one of your hypotheses, you need to indicate this in the text.

This is, however, an ideal model, which is not very frequently found in its pure form. In fact, stating the most important findings is the only obligatory element in the Results section.

The results section presents the findings of your study. It is important to plan this section carefully as it may contain a large amount of material which needs to be presented in an accessible, reader-friendly manner. This is a predominantly descriptive section, although in certain circumstances some commentary on the results may be appropriate. For example, it may be useful to indicate whether your results confirm your hypothesis, or whether they are similar to or significantly different from those of existing studies.

Be extremely precise and detailed about your argument and analysis. Never simply say "Results of the study will be discussed" or the equivalent; state what the results are and why they matter.

Discussion Sections

The Discussion section interprets the results and their relationship to the research problem and hypothesis. As mentioned above, division between the Discussion and the Results sections is not rigid; furthermore, it is not always easy to distinguish between the Discussion and the Conclusions sections.

The discussion is arguably the most difficult section to write. The reason for this is that it is predominantly interpretative and discursive. In this section, you will examine your results in relation to your research questions or hypotheses and, more broadly, in relation to existing research. This will

ADVICE

Common to all research papers is an elaboration of questions such as the following:

What do I know about my topic?

Can I answer the questions who, what, when, where, why, how?

What do I know about the context of my topic?

What historical or cultural influences do I know about that might be important to my topic?

What seems important to me about this topic?

If I were to summarize what I know about this topic, what points would I focus on?

What points seem less important?

Why do I think so?

How does this topic relate to other things that I know?

What do I know about the topic that might help my reader to understand it in new ways?

enable you to assess the contribution of your research to the field, and to make suggestions for further research where appropriate.

To ensure that you adopt the right approach to the writing of the discussion section, you need to remember that you are constructing an argument. The structure and development of your argument will be driven by the points you wish to make, so it is not possible to provide a template for your argument. However, it is possible to identify certain elements of the discussion section. Please note that this is not an obligatory list: you do not need to include all of these elements and you may present them in a different order.

- A reminder of the purpose or focus of the study
- A summary of the results
- An examination of the results in relation to existing research
- An indication of the importance of the findings
- An explanation of the results, particularly those that do not support, or only partially support, your hypotheses (if any)
- Limitations of the study, particularly those that restrict the generalisability of the results
- Generalisations that can be made from the results
- Implications or practical applications of the study
- Recommendations for further research

Examples

A reminder of the purpose or focus of the study

The present study investigates ….
The aim of this dissertation was to ….
This study set out to assess the impact of ….

A summary of the results

This study has shown that …
The main finding of this thesis is that ….
This study demonstrates that ….

An examination of the results in relation to existing research

The data is broadly consistent with the major trends in the literature as to ….
These results concur with other studies that show ….
Our observations that … are not new.
In contrast to some reports in the literature, there were few differences between…

An indication of the importance of the findings

This is the first study, to our knowledge, to examine ….

These results describe for the first time ….

Only one other study, to our knowledge, has examined ….

An explanation of the results, particularly those that do not support, or only partially support, your hypotheses

Unexpectedly, X and Y were shown to be ….

This finding was unexpected and suggests ….

The most likely explanation of the negative finding is ….

Limitations of the study, particularly those that restrict the generalisability of the results

The study has a number of possible limitations.

The significance of this finding is unclear.

The main limitation of this study is that ….

The above analysis does not enable us to determine ….

Generalisations that can be made from the results

Although this study was conducted in one region, the results should be generalisable to other areas.

The findings suggest that this approach would also be beneficial in other sectors.

Implications or practical applications of the study

This study reinforces the recommendation for the introduction of preventative programmes ….

These findings can contribute considerably to the development and evaluation of detection techniques ….

The results are of direct practical relevance.

An implication of these findings is that ….

ADVICE

Use past tense verb to report methods because these were conducted in the past (for example: 'interviews were conducted', 'surveys were distributed').
Use present tense verb to describe how data are presented in the chapter because this information is still true ('Results show that …').

Recommendations for further research

Future larger studies with statistical analyses … would be of interest.

Several questions remain to be resolved; in particular ….
More research in this area is necessary before ….
Further studies are required to establish ….

Usually, Discussion sections contain some of the above steps (not necessarily all). The number and place of steps in a sequence depends on how neatly the discussed results fit those expected.

Conclusions

The difference between Discussion and Conclusion sections is largely conventional depending on traditions in particular fields and journals. Quite often, Discussions and Conclusions appear as one (and the final) part of a research paper.

If the Conclusion section appears as a separate part, it usually consists of the following steps:

- summary of the results;
- implications (theoretical and/or practical);
- plans for future research or possible further research in the area.

Useful phrases which may be used when writing the Discussion and Conclusion sections of your papers:

In general, this research/analysis/investigation/description shows …
This paper showed/explored/investigated …
These results are consistent with …
With one exception, the experimental data confirm …
However, the results/findings described are fairly general …
The appearance of errors in our study could be explained by …
We are not yet in a position to offer explanations for …
Further research is needed to verify …
Further research is suggested to determine …
We advocate further research on …

This section presents the key points emerging from the investigation. All conclusions must be drawn from the findings, so it is extremely important not to include comments or opinions which are not supported by the evidence presented in the previous sections.

We have seen that the discussion section will not necessarily include all the elements listed. It may be appropriate in certain circumstances to present some of these elements in the conclusions.

Do remember that some readers will not read your work in full. Some will read only the abstract and the conclusions. Make sure that your conclusions capture the main points clearly, accurately and concisely.

The conclusion is a crucial chapter of the thesis and needs to be written to complement your introduction. This means it should restate the research questions, summarise your arguments, and state your conclusions and recommendations. It is the place to argue for the significance and originality of your work.

Citations

Citations play an important role in academic texts. They are used to demonstrate the familiarity of the citing author with the field of investigation, to provide support for his/her research claims or criticism. Giving credit to cited sources is called **documentation**. There are two main methods of documenting. The first one, numeric, involves putting a number near the reference (usually in square brackets), e.g.:

On the whole, understanding text as a polyfunctional sign allows plurality of meaning-projections of its contents [4].

In [5] the authors give an interesting numerical account of the advantages and disadvantages of the BV-formulation for the image restoration problem.

The full reference is given then in the bibliography at the end of the text – in numerical sequence, or as a footnote at the bottom of the page.

The second procedure of documenting, which is probably more popular, consists in putting a short reference in the text itself. Normally, it includes the author's (authors') last name(s) and the year of publication and page numbers in parentheses (separated/not separated by a comma or a colon, rather often depending on the journal requirements to the authors), e.g.: (*Crystal 1995, 29*), or (*Crystal 1995: 29*). If a reference is made to the whole work, the page numbers are usually not given: (*Drakeford, 1998*).

Failure to provide the appropriate documentation may lead to the accusation of **plagiarism**. Plagiarism is conscious copying from the work of others. In Anglo-American academic culture, plagiarism is treated as a serious offense.

Need to Document	No Need to Document
When you are using or referring to somebody else's words or ideas from a magazine, book, newspaper, song, TV program, movie, Web page, computer program, letter, advertisement, or any other medium	When you are using "**common knowledge**" — folklore, common sense observations, shared information within your field of study or cultural group When you are compiling generally accepted facts When you are writing up your own experimental results

The words or phrases of other authors used (quoted) in academic writing are called **quotations**. Quotations may be direct or indirect. Quotations are **direct** if the author's words in quotation marks (double in American and Ukrainian usage and single as in British) are incorporated into the text and separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma (or, if necessary, by a question mark, or an exclamation point):

It can be argued that "the acquisition of phonological competence and discourse competence go hand-in-hand" (Pennington, 1990, p. 549).

As Morley (1979) has noted, "Sentence stresses are the strong parts in the rhythm of the sentence" (p. 38).

Quotations may be indirect, that is integrated into the text as **paraphrase** (meaning restatement of the meaning in other words):

In a more recent article, Pennington (1995:706) says that …

In a recent state-of-the-art discussion, Morley (1991, pp. 492-495) reviewed some of the major shifts in instructional focus in the pronunciation component.

ADVICE

You must include a reference whether you put the writer's ideas in your own words (paraphrase) or quote the writer's exact words. Lecturers value use of paraphrase more than direct quotes because it indicates that you have understood the material and have been able to integrate it into your own work in your own words.

Making Sure You Are Safe

	Action during the writing process	Appearance on the finished product
When paraphrasing and summarizing	• First, write your paraphrase and summary without looking at the original text, so you rely only on your memory. • Next, check your version with the original for content, accuracy, and mistakenly borrowed phrases	• Begin your summary with a statement giving credit to the source: *According to Noam Chomsky, ...* • Put any **unique words or phrases** that you cannot change, or do not want to change, in quotation marks: *... "savage inequalities" exist throughout our educational system (Chomsky).*
When quoting directly	• Keep the person's name near the quote in your notes, and in your paper • Select those direct quotes that make the most impact in your paper – too many direct quotes may lessen your credibility and interfere with your style	• Mention the person's name either at the beginning of the quote, in the middle, or at the end • Put quotation marks around the text that you are quoting • Indicate added phrases in brackets (**[ ]**) and omitted text with ellipses (**. . .**)
When quoting indirectly	• Keep the person's name near the text in your notes, and in your paper • Rewrite the key ideas using different words and sentence structures than the original text	• Mention the person's name either at the beginning of the information, or in the middle, or at that end • Double check to make sure that your words and sentence structures are different than the original text

You do not need to document in case you refer to the material known as "common knowledge". Material in probably common knowledge if:

- you find the same information undocumented in at least five other sources;
- you think it is information that your readers will already know;
- you think a person could easily find the information with general reference sources.

Bibliography

This is a complete list of every item you have read in the preparation of your thesis. Items are listed alphabetically by the author's family name.

This is often divided into sections such as manuscript sources, primary sources, secondary sources, or monographs, journal articles, reports and so on. The bibliography should be consistent with the system of referencing used in your thesis.

Appendices

Appendices are a useful tool for providing additional information or clarification in a research paper, dissertation, or thesis without making the final product too long. For example, an appendix might be a list of the questions that were asked of interviewees for your project. Appendices should be numbered and you should refer to them in the body of your thesis.

Here are a few tips to keep in mind:

- Always start each appendix on a new page.
- Assign it both a number (or letter) and a clear title, such as “Appendix A. Interview transcripts.”
- Number and title the individual elements within each appendix (e.g., “Transcripts”) to make it clear what is being referred to. Restart the numbering in each appendix at 1.

Common Errors in Student Research Papers

Unnecessary background

If you state facts or describe mechanisms, do so in order to make a point or to help interpret results, and do refer to the present study. If you find yourself writing everything you know about the subject, you are wasting your time (and that of your reader). Stick to the appropriate point, and include a reference to your source of background information if you feel that it is important.

Including material that is inappropriate for the readership

It is not necessary to tell fellow scientists that your study is pertinent to the field of biochemistry. Your readers can figure out to what field(s) your work applies. You need not define terms that are well known to the intended readership. For example, do you really think it is necessary to define systolic

blood pressure if your readership consists of physicians or cardiovascular physiologists?

Subjectivity and use of superlatives

Academic writing differs from the writing of fiction, opinion pieces, scholarly English papers, etc. in many ways. One way is in the use of superlatives and subjective statements in order to emphasize a point. We simply do not use such writing styles in science. Objectivity is absolutely essential.

Subjectivity refers to feelings, opinions, etc. It is much better to use an objective expression. Similarly, we don't write that we believe something. We present the evidence, and perhaps suggest strong support for a position, but beliefs don't come into play. In particular, we do not "expect" a particular set of results, or "wire" a hypothesis so that it appears that we correctly predicted the results. That sort of practice is another example of lack of objectivity.

Anthropomorphism

Sometimes you cannot easily find the right wording in order to explain a cause and effect relationship, or you may not understand the concept well enough in order to write an explanation. Anthropomorphism is a type of oversimplification that helps the writer avoid a real explanation of a mechanism. A couple of examples should make the point for you.

Sodium wants to move down the chemical gradient toward the compartment with the lower concentration.

The thought behind the statement is correct, but the statement does not represent the correct mechanism. Sodium has no free will. It tends to move toward the compartment with lower concentration because the probability of a sodium ion moving through a channel on the more concentrated side of the membrane exceeds the probability that an ion will move through a channel on the less concentrated side. If you do not want to explain the principle behind osmosis, you can simply state that osmotic pressure tends to drive sodium from the more highly to less highly concentrated side of a membrane.

The ETS works furiously in a vain attempt to restore the chemiosmotic gradient

The adverb "furiously" is not only subjective, but it normally applies to a deliberate action. We know that the ETS (electron transport system) is a set of carrier complexes embedded in a membrane, and that it cannot be capable of a

deliberate action. Something that cannot act deliberately cannot think, either. There is a physical cause and effect relationship between the ETS and the chemiosmotic gradient that does not require attributing a free will to any part of the system.

Common mistakes in reporting results

Converted data are data that have been analyzed, usually summarized, and presented in such a way that only the information pertinent to the objectives of the study is presented. *Raw data* refer to results of individual replicate trials, individual observations, chart records, and other information that comes directly from the laboratory.

Once you have presented converted data, do not present the same data in a different way. For example, if the data are plotted, then don't include a table of data as well. Present a figure (such as a graph) if appropriate. If the data are better represented by a table, then use a table. The caption with any figure or table should include all pertinent information. One should not have to go into the body of the paper to find out the results of statistical tests on the data, or the rationale behind a curve fit.

Raw data are not usually included in your results. Raw data include lists of observations, meaurements taken in order to obtain a final result (e.g., absorbance, relative mobility, tick marks on a microscope reticule).

Use an appropriate number of decimal places (if you need decimal places at all) to report means and other measured or calculated values. The number of decimal places and/or significant figures must reflect the degree of precision of the original measurement. See our analytical resources for information on uncertain quantities and significant figures. Since the number of significant figures used reflects the level of precision of the measurement or calculation, there is never any need to qualify a measurement or calculation as 'about' or 'approximate.'

Graphs and other pictures that represent data are called figures, and are numbered consecutively. Tables are distinguished from figures, and are numbered consecutively as well. Not everything with gridlines is a graph. Graphs are analytical tools. Chart records are raw data (which may be presented in results as an example, if appropriate).

The significance of 'significance'

Lack of a significant difference does not mean that the result itself is insignificant. A finding, for example, that there are no intrinsic differences in fundamental mathematical ability among racial groups would be a very significant finding. Significance in this study refers to the importance of the result. "It is significant that we found no significant differences among the groups studied" is a valid, though perhaps confusing, statement.

There is a tendency among students to reject a study as inconclusive just because no statistically significant differences were found. Such rejection suggests a misunderstanding of the scientific method itself. You can conclude something from even the most poorly designed experiments. In fact, most well-designed experiments result in support for the null hypothesis. Be prepared to interpret whatever you find, regardless of what you think you should find. The purpose of experimental science is to discover the truth – not to make the data conform to one's expectations.

Lecture 8. RESEARCH PAPER ABSTRACT

Most articles start with a paragraph called the “abstract”, which very briefly summarizes the whole article. The abstract provides an overview of what the article discusses or reveals and frequently is useful in identifying articles that report the results of scientific studies.

A **research paper (or journal) abstract** (Ukr. *анотація*) is a short account of a research paper placed before it. The research article abstract is written by the author of a paper. The "relatives" of the journal abstract are: the *summary*, the *conference abstract*, and the *synopsis* – a shorter version of a document that usually mirrors the organization of the full text. (Greek συνοψις, *synopsis*, "a seeing-together" is a brief summary or overview.)

Academic journals are periodicals in which researchers publish articles on their work. Most often these articles discuss recent research. Journals also publish theoretical discussions and articles that critically review already published work.

The journal abstract performs a number of important functions:

- it serves as a short version of the paper, which provides the most important information;
- it helps, therefore, the potential audience to decide whether to read the whole article or not;
- prepares the reader for reading a full text by giving an idea of what to expect;
- serves as a reference after the paper has been read.

Nowadays, abstracts are widely used in electronic storage and retrieval systems and by on-line information services.

The journal abstract has certain textual and linguistic characteristics:

- it consists of a single paragraph;
- it contains 4-10 full sentences;
- it tends to avoid the first person and to use impersonal active constructions (e.g., *"This research shows …"*) or passive voice (e.g., *"The data were analyzed …");*
- it rarely uses negative sentences;
- it uses meta-text (reference to the text, e.g*., "This paper investigates…"; "This paper reports…"*);
- it avoids using acronyms, abbreviations, and symbols (unless they are defined in the abstract itself);
- it does not cite by number or refer by number to anything from the text of the paper.

The most frequent tense used in abstracts is the present tense. It is used to state facts, describe methods, make comparisons, and give results. The past tense is preferred when reference is made to the author's own experiments, calculations, observations, etc.

An abstract is a concise single paragraph summary of completed work or work in progress. In a minute or less a reader can learn the rationale behind the study, general approach to the problem, pertinent results, and important conclusions or new questions.

An **abstract** is a brief summary of a research article, thesis, review, conference proceeding or any in-depth analysis of a particular subject or discipline, and is often used to help the reader quickly ascertain the paper's purpose. When used, an abstract always appears at the beginning of a manuscript, acting as the point-of-entry for any given scientific paper or patent application. Abstraction and indexing services are available for a number of academic disciplines, aimed at compiling a body of literature for that particular subject.

Purpose and limitations

Academic literature uses the abstract to succinctly communicate complex research. An abstract may act as a stand-alone entity instead of a full paper. As such, an abstract is used by many organizations as the basis for selecting research that is proposed for presentation in the form of a poster, platform/oral

presentation or workshop presentation at an academic conference. Most literature database search engines index only abstracts rather than providing the entire text of the paper. Full texts of scientific papers must often be purchased because of copyright and/or publisher fees and therefore the abstract is a significant selling point for the reprint or electronic of the full-text.

Writing an abstract

Write your abstract after the rest of the paper is completed. After all, how can you summarize something that is not yet written? Economy of words is important throughout any paper, but especially in an abstract. However, use complete sentences and do not sacrifice readability for brevity. You can keep it concise by wording sentences so that they serve more than one purpose. For example, "In order to learn the role of protein synthesis in early development of the sea urchin, newly fertilized embryos were pulse-labeled with tritiated leucine, to provide a time course of changes in synthetic rate, as measured by total counts per minute (cpm)." This sentence provides the overall question, methods, and type of analysis, all in one sentence. The writer can now go directly to summarizing the results.

Style:

- Single paragraph, and concise
- An abstract should stand on its own, and not refer to any other part of the paper such as a figure or table
- Focus on summarizing results - limit background information to a sentence or two, if absolutely necessary
- What you report in an abstract must be consistent with what you reported in the paper
- Corrrect spelling, clarity of sentences and phrases, and proper reporting of quantities (proper units, significant figures) are just as important in an abstract as they are anywhere else

Abstract Format

1. An abstract, or summary, is published together with a research article, giving the reader a "preview" of what's to come. Such abstracts may also be published separately in bibliographical sources. They allow other scientists to quickly scan the large scientific literature, and decide which articles they want to

read in depth. The abstract should be a little less technical than the article itself; you don't want to dissuade your potential audience from reading your paper.

2. Your abstract should be one paragraph, of 100-250 words, which summarizes the purpose, methods, results and conclusions of the paper.

3. It is not easy to include all this information in just a few words. Start by writing a summary that includes whatever you think is important, and then gradually prune it down to size by removing unnecessary words, while still retaining the necessary concepts.

3. Do not use abbreviations or citations in the abstract. It should be able to stand alone without any footnotes.

Journal abstracts are often divided into **informative** and **indicative** abstracts.

The **informative** abstract includes main findings and various specifics such as measurements or quantities. This type of abstract often accompanies research reports and looks itself like a report in miniature.

Indicative abstracts indicate the subject of a paper. They provide a brief description without going into a detailed account. The abstracts of this type accompany lengthy texts or theoretical papers. The combination of both types of journal abstracts, however, also exists.

ADVICE

The abstract should be one paragraph and should not exceed the word limit. Edit it closely to be sure it meets the Four C's of abstract writing:

- Complete — it covers the major parts of the project.
- Concise — it contains no excess wordiness or unnecessary information.
- Clear — it is readable, well organized, and not too jargon-laden.
- Cohesive — it flows smoothly between the parts.

There is a conventional distinction between *informative* and *indicative* abstracts. Although a diversity of definitions can be found in the literature on abstracting and summarisation, the leading criterion used for this distinction is in the perspective. An *informative* abstract conveys in a reduced form the same message as the source text, as if it were a direct report of the research; an *indicative* abstract is an external account of what the source text is about. *Informative* abstracts are usually longer and may (for particular readers) serve as

a substitute for the source text; *indicative* abstracts have a primary selection function.

Both types of abstracts are in some respect also suitable for the fulfillment of an orientation function. *Indicative* abstracts, describing the main steps in the source text, can serve as an orientation tool to gain insight into the global organisational coherence of the article. *Informative* abstracts lend themselves more easily to a more profound, content-oriented orientation.

The **informative abstract**, as its name implies, provides information from the body of the report—specifically, the key facts and conclusions. To put it another way, this type of abstract summarizes the key information from every major section in the body of the report.

It is as if someone had taken a yellow marker and highlighted all the key points in the body of the report then vacuumed them up into a one- or two-page document. Specifically, the requirements for the informative abstract are as follows:

ADVICE

The straightforward approach towards abstract structure:
1 sentence introducing the problem
1 sentence naming your method
1 sentence stating the main result
1 sentence giving a nearer explanation concerning the result or naming further results
1 sentence discussing the result(s) under consideration of previous ideas and/or introducing a new model as a generalization of your results
1 sentence putting the implications of your research in a larger context.

- Summarizes the key facts, conclusions, and other important information in the body of the report.
- Usually about 10 percent of the length of the full report: for example, an informative abstract for a 10-page report would be 1 page. This ratio stops after about 30 pages, however. For 50- or 60-page reports, the abstract should not go over 3 to 4 pages.
- Summarizes the key information from each of the main sections of the report, and proportionately so (a 3-page section of a 10-page report ought to take up about 30 percent of the informative abstract).
- Phrases information in a very dense, compact way. Sentences are longer than normal and are crammed with information. The abstract tries to

compact information down to that 10-percent level. It's expected that the writing in an informative abstract will be dense and heavily worded. (However, do not omit normal words such as *the*, *a*, and *an*.

- Omits introductory explanation, unless that is the focus of the main body of the report. Definitions and other background information are omitted if they are not the major focus of the report. The informative abstract is *not* an introduction to the subject matter of the report—and it is *not* an introduction!
- Omits citations for source borrowings. If you summarize information that you borrowed from other writers, you do *not* have to repeat the citation in the informative abstract (in other words, no brackets with source numbers and page numbers).
- Includes key statistical detail. Don't sacrifice key numerical facts to make the informative abstract brief. One expects to see numerical data in an informative abstract.

All journals have their own specific guidelines for writing abstracts. These include word limit, recommended fonts, margins and text indentations, section headers, key words etc. and are presented in authors' guidelines. Special instructions for writing abstracts should be followed strictly to avoid rejections. The better and more complete the abstract the more are the chances of the paper being read and cited.

Lecture 9. CONFERENCE ABSTRACT

A **conference abstract** (Ukr. *тези доповіді*) is a short account of an oral presentation proposed to the organizers of a conference. It is a widespread and important genre that plays a significant role in promoting new knowledge within scientific communities, both national and international.

Nowadays, Ukrainian scholars often try to submit abstracts to international conferences. For many of our academics, the conference abstract is a kind of a "pass" to the world research communities that provides, if accepted, various opportunities for professional contacts and communication.

Writing abstracts for conferences is an important art for academic linguists to master. It is not only a key job skill for the professional, but a knowledge of how they are written and read can help in your reading of the literature as a student. The job of conference abstracts is to inform organizers of your work that is either completed or currently developing, so that they can judge its intrinsic interest and likely quality against the others submitted. It is a competitive process, but one to be undertaken seriously. It projects the future (your ultimate findings; the full conference paper), and must do so convincingly and responsibly.

An abstract is a very concise statement of the major elements of your research project. It states the purpose, methods, and findings of your research project. The abstract allows readers to make decisions about your project. Your sponsoring professor can use the abstract to decide if your research is proceeding smoothly. The conference organizer uses it to decide if your project fits the conference criteria. The conference audience (faculty, administrators, peers, and presenters' families) uses your abstract to decide whether or not to attend your presentation. Your

abstract needs to take all these readers into consideration. The audience for this abstract covers the broadest possible scope – from expert to lay person. You need to find a comfortable balance between writing an abstract that both shows your knowledge and yet is still comprehensible – with some effort – by lay members of the audience. Limit the amount of technical language you use and explain it where possible. Always use the full term before you refer to it by acronym [for example, portal venous transfusions (PVT)]. Remember that you are yourself an expert in the field that you are writing about – don't take for granted that the reader will share your insider knowledge.

What should the abstract include?

Think of your abstract as a condensed version of your whole essay. By reading it, the reader should understand the nature of your research question.

Abstracts for experimental research projects should include:

- A specific and detailed title.
- A brief introduction to the topic-providing context or background.
- A statement of the study's objectives – what is the research question?
- A summary of results.
- A statement of conclusions (or hypothesized conclusions).
- Possibly some discussion of the relevance of the conclusions.
- Possibly some call for future research.

Abstracts for research projects that are primarily text-based should include:

- A specific and detailed title.
- A brief introduction to the topic-providing context or background.
- A statement of the study's objectives – what is the research question?
- A summary of the key subtopics explored—what argument are you proposing about the topic?
- A brief reference to the nature of the source material and methodology (if relevant)—library research? analysis of fictional texts? interviews or observations?
- A statement of conclusions (or hypothesized conclusions).
- Possibly some discussion of the implications of the conclusions.

Whatever kind of research you are doing, your abstract should provide the reader with the answers to the following questions: What are you asking? Why is it important? How will you study it? What will you use to demonstrate your conclusions? What are those conclusions? What do they mean?

Conference abstracts are different in nature from several related forms: summary abstracts of completed work for publication (e.g. of dissertations, or of published articles); and projections of research to be done (often required in applications for funds, permission or resources). The different audiences and purposes must be kept in mind. In most cases, all such descriptions of research must be very short, kept to a strict length limit, and must represent the final product fairly and attractively.

The abstracts submitted for international and major national conferences are usually reviewed (sometimes blind-reviewed, i.e. considered without seeing the names of the authors) by conference committees. Conference abstracts, therefore, participate in the competition for acceptance and need to impress reviewing committees; that is why they may be written in a somewhat promotional, self-advertising manner. A dominant feature of conference abstracts is so-called "interestingness" created by the novelty of a topic and its presentation in an interesting for the potential audience way.

Conference abstracts have certain textual characteristics. They are usually of one-page length (200-300 words) and consist of three paragraphs on average. Sometimes there may be 2-5 pages depending on the requirements suggested by the conference committee, the journal traditions, the topic itself, the price for publication etc.

Abstract Contents

Many abstracts are rejected because they omit crucial information rather than because of errors in what they include. A suggested outline for abstracts is as follows:

1. Choose a title that clearly indicates the topic of the paper and is not more than one 7-inch typed line.
2. State the problem or research question raised by prior work, with specific reference to relevant prior research.
3. State the main point or argument of the proposed presentation.
4. Regardless of the subfield, cite sufficient data, and explain why and how they support the main point or argument. When examples are in languages other than English, provide word by word glosses and underline the portions of the examples which are critical to the argument. Explain abbreviations at their first occurrence.

5. If your paper presents the results of experiments, but collection of results is not yet complete, then report what results you've already obtained in sufficient detail that your abstract may be evaluated. Also indicate explicitly the nature of the experimental design and the specific hypothesis tested.

6. State the relevance of your ideas to past work or to the future development of the field. Describe analyses in as much detail as possible. Avoid saying in effect "a solution to this problem will be presented." If you are taking a stand on a controversial issue, summarize the arguments that lead you to your position.

7. State the contribution to linguistic research made by the analysis.

8. While citation in the text of the relevant literature is essential, a separate list of references at the end of the abstract is generally unnecessary.

The conference abstract tends to have such basic steps (although certain deviations from this structure are quite possible). These steps, which may be realized by certain strategies (given below in parenthesis), are as follows:

ADVICE

1. Assess your writing task. Figure out the basics – Deadline, Length (… words, maximum), Purpose (to communicate clearly to your various audiences what you have researched), and Audience (faculty, students, etc).

2. Write a draft and get feedback from your sponsoring professor, from peers, from TA's, etc.

3. Revise the abstract based on feedback you receive. Plan on several revisions with time away from the draft.

Be sure your abstract is grammatically sound.

1. Outlining the research field (by reference to established knowledge/importance claim/previous research).

2. Justifying a particular research/study (by indicating a gap in the previous research/by counter-claiming/by question-posing/by continuing a tradition).

3. Introducing the paper to be presented at the conference.

4. Summarizing the paper (by giving its brief overview).

5. Highlighting its outcome/results (by indicating the most important results or their possible applications and/or implications).

The first, the second, and the third steps of the conference abstract are, in fact, identical to the three initial steps of the research paper Introduction. The fourth step is a brief overview of the conference paper structured with the help of meta-textual phrases. The final step – Highlighting the outcome – often only indicates the most important results and their possible applications and

implications. Most typically, the first and the second steps are realized in the initial paragraph of a text, while the following introduces and summarizes the paper, and the concluding one highlights the outcome.

As the fist three parts of the conference abstract are similar to the first three steps of the research paper *Introductions*, you may use the appropriate useful phrases given in the previous lectures for writing your conference abstracts. Also, meta-textual patterns, which realize Step 3 in the research paper Introduction, can be used in the *Summarizing the paper* part of the conference abstract. Below are useful phrases which realize Step 5 of the conference abstract:

Finally, … implications will be drawn from the results obtained.
The paper closes with several suggestions on …
The paper implies a number of practical recommendations to …
The paper will conclude by …
As a final point, a conclusion involving … will be offered.

When to submit an abstract

You should submit an abstract to a conference when you have (1) data and (2) an analysis of your data. You should not submit an abstract in the early stages of your data collection, and you should never submit an abstract if you have not started your study! However, you do not need to have your study fully completed by the time you submit the abstract; a solid preliminary analysis can benefit from conference presentation. Your analysis should be as polished as you can make it, but probably the feedback you receive at the conference will lead to some revision. Typically, the conference paper is the first step to publication. It is not expected that you will have written anything up related to your study by the time you submit the abstract, although the more you have written the easier it will be to write the abstract. In some cases, you may want to submit an abstract for work you have already written up and submitted for publication. As long as the paper has not been published by the time you submit the abstract, it is acceptable to do so, and it will provide some publicity for your forthcoming publication (which you should mention in your presentation so those who are interested will know where to look for it).

Where to submit an abstract

Contrary to what many students think, it is perfectly acceptable to present the same research at more than one conference. Different audiences will give

you different kinds of feedback. It is recommended, however, that you frame each paper a bit differently to match the focus of each conference and change the title to reflect this reframing.

How to select a topic

Conference talks are usually 10 to 20 minutes in length. You cannot present your entire dissertation or even an entire research article. You should select a small sample of data that makes a single point; for discourse data choose either one long stretch of data or several smaller excerpts that offer interestingly different perspectives on your argument.

Title

Select a clear, informative title that contains all the key elements of your presentation (e.g., a key concept, the language or group under study, a general sense of your argument). Very short and very long titles are not recommended. Using a title and a subtitle separated by a colon is often a good way to maximize informativeness in a short space. It's easiest to choose a title after writing the abstract.

General format and style

Try to come as close as possible to the word limit without going over. In writing the abstract, do not use the future tense, even to say "In my presentation, I will...." It sounds unnatural to use the present tense in this context, but if you use the future some abstract reviewers may think you have not completed the research.

Be extremely precise and detailed about your argument and analysis. Never simply say "Results of the study will be discussed" or the equivalent; state what the results are and why they matter.

How to structure the abstract

Abstracts are quite formulaic in structure, although there is a lot of variation. Here is one tried-and-true structure. Each of the sections may include one or more paragraphs.

Section 1

The main focus of the first paragraph or two should be a general statement about some issue in the field that your study contributes to. At this point you typically do not mention your study yet but stake out the part of the field that you

are speaking to, and raise the issue that you will be addressing (this sets the stage for you to present your research as the solution to a problem, or as a challenge to a claim made by another scholar). Do not just present a topic; frame the issue as a puzzle or problem or gap or weakness in the literature. This shows why your work is important. Also do not just say you are applying someone else's ideas; make clear what this application adds to knowledge. Alternatively, you can open with one sentence stating what the paper is about and then contextualize it with a general statement about how it connects to an issue in the field, but the first way is a bit more elegant.

Section 2

This should be the heart of the abstract. State here that your study offers a solution to the problem described in section 1 and how. Briefly give details about the study – where it was conducted and with whom (number and background of participants, sources of data), how long the study lasted and/or how much data was collected. Then summarize your research findings. You should typically include a brief example to illustrate your argument (this usually is not possible if you are allotted less than 500 words for the abstract). Be sure to specify precisely how the example demonstrates your point. You should in any event include a detailed description of the results: specify your findings in detail (perhaps introduce key terms you use in the analysis).

NOTE: If your data are in a language other than English, use only the Roman alphabet or the International Phonetic Alphabet to represent them; do not use other writing systems. Be sure to provide translations (and morpheme-by-morpheme glosses, if relevant to the analysis).

Section 3

You now need to return the big picture: How do these findings address the issue raised in Section 1? What does this imply for the field? This discussion need not be lengthy, but it should convincingly convey that your research has significant implications.

References

Citation of references anywhere within an abstract is almost invariably inappropriate. However, if it is necessary to include this section you should cite a few references in the text (no more than 5 or so in a 500-word abstract) to show you know the field. Do not waste space with a long list; select the key references

only. (Deciding who is key may partly depend on who is hosting the conference, the theme, the theoretical position of the conference, etc.) It is often best to cite at least one "classic" (i.e., canonical but not antique) reference and one "cutting-edge" recent reference. You should also cite anyone who centrally represents the issue you're discussing. If you cite yourself, do so in the third person so your anonymity is preserved. You should NOT include a bibliography; save the space for describing your study.

What happens next?

The abstract review process varies greatly by conference; some solicit outside reviews from special committees, smaller conferences use local graduate students and faculty. Often the abstract review committee is anonymous. A few conferences will send comments from reviewers about your abstract; this is very valuable information and you should request it if available.

You should receive notification of the acceptance or rejection of your abstract in a timely fashion; if the conference organizers do not announce a notification date, you should contact them to find out when to expect a reply. If you do not receive notification by the specified date, follow up right away! Your abstract may have fallen through the cracks, and it may not be too late for it to be reviewed.

When mailing abstracts, allow sufficient time for delivery delays. All abstracts must arrive by the deadline. Usually, late abstracts will not be considered, whatever the reason for the delay.

Sample of Abstract Format Guidelines:

1. An abstract, including a bibliography, if needed, and examples, must be no more than 500 words and on one side of a single page. ... Abstracts longer than 500 words or more than one side of a single page will be rejected without being evaluated. Please note the word count at the bottom of the abstract.

2. At the top of the abstract, outside the typing area, put the title and designated research area(s).

3. Do not put your name on the abstract. Your name should be only on the abstract submittal form. If you identify yourself in any way on the abstract (e.g. "In Smith (1992)...I"), it will be rejected without being evaluated.

4. *Abstracts which do not conform to the format guidelines will not be considered.*

Some practical advice on how to write a scientific conference abstract

First of all, make sure you are going to go to the meeting. In many cases places are limited and it is frustrating for others if slots to speak or even just attend are taken up by people who don't show up.

Next up, find out when the deadline end for the abstract submission, there's no point in submitting a late one, or leaving yourself only a day to do it. Make sure you know what the word limit is and the format for submissions. Are you allowed figures? Are you allowed references? Some meetings allow for some extended abstracts that can be several pages long and act as a miniature paper so if you want to write one you might have to ask the meeting organiser, and again these take much longer to write so leave yourself sufficient time.

Read through several existing abstracts for previous meetings before you start. This should give you an idea of the style of abstract, what kinds of things the meeting is likely to be interested in (you will not get a paper on turtle evolution into a dinosaur meeting without a very large dinosaurian twist) and how you should approach writing the piece.

Do not write about something you have not done yet, but for a project you have largely completed (or at least know what the results are and mean). If not, you have to guess what your results will show and you run a real risk of having to present results the opposite of what you announced in your abstract, or have none at all. This might not be so bad for the presentation, but many abstracts are recorded and are cited in publications, so if you abstract says 'X correlated positively with Y' then while those at the meeting might learn from you that it negatively correlates instead, plenty of other people will not and until the paper is published (assuming it ever is, not all abstracts become papers) the wrong information is stuck in the literature.

Do make your abstract interesting and informative. That can be incredibly hard when you have only a couple of hundred words to play with, but it's worth doing right. Take your time and do a good job, so that you are more likely to have your abstract accepted, and more likely to get the audience interested in attending your talk or reading your poster. Try to give the basic outlines of what you did and why: hypothesis, methods, results, conclusions. This can be done in very little space with practice. Once you have done this, it's often a good idea to get a colleague to check what you have written, both to look for mistakes and to make sure it makes sense.

Like many things (making posters, giving lectures, anatomical drawing) it takes practice, so take your opportunities to submit abstracts and practice writing them. Reading others is a great exercise and seeing what is good and bad about each one will give you excellent guidelines.

Here are three successful sample abstracts—for an experimental research project, for a cultural studies project that combines field research with library research, and for a literary research project:

Estimating Gas Transfer Rates in Bag Cultivation of Shiitake Mushrooms

Previous studies have shown that growth rate and fruiting quality of Letinula edodes may be affected by levels of O2, CO2, and H2O. By knowing the gas exchanges rates within the growth substrate and across the filter patch on cultivation bags, growth and quality of shiitake mushrooms may be maximized. This study was performed in an effort to develop a simple, non-invasive method for measuring the rate of gas exchange within the substrate and across the filter patch. The mushroom growth substrate consisted of sawdust supplemented with rice bran and millet at an initial moisture content of 65%. Air was supplied to cultivation bags continuously at various constant airflow rates. Patch permeability was also tested using Trichoderma harzianum. Both experiments showed that for identical aeration rates, patch permeability varied considerably. Patch permeability did not seem to be affected by autoclaving time. Another set of experiments was conducted to measure the rate of water exchange across the patches. Patch permeability to water vapor was approximately the same, regardless of aeration rate or autoclaving time.

(172 words – Biological & Agricultural Engineering)

A Bit Bright: The Rise and Fall of Neon Signs in Las Vegas

Paris may be the city of light, but Las Vegas is the city of neon. People associate Las Vegas not only with gambling, but also with the glittering neon signs that cover the city. My area of research is the rise and fall of neon signs as an architectural presence. Using a mixture of field work, interviews, and library research, I have traced neon signs from their earliest days as roadside signs, to their incorporation into buildings, to the Golden Age of the 1970s when signs became separate structures independent of the casinos they were advertising. I would argue that in the past fifteen years, with the rise of the mega-resort in Las Vegas, signs are falling in importance. Now the architecture of the casinos

themselves are the primary advertisements for resorts like the Venetian and New York, New York. However, the reality is more complicated than just saying "casino architecture has risen at the expense of neon signs": up and down the Strip, many buildings still have large signs in front to advertise to the drivers and pedestrians who cannot see the buildings. I hypothesize that, now, a casino's position on the Strip and its architectural style influence the type of sign it has in this, the most complex era of signage.

(213 words — American Studies)

There's Something About Harry: Representation of Females in J. K. Rowling's "Harry Potter" Series

The "Harry Potter" series — like all children's literature — reflects the ideologies of the society of its time, including attitudes about women's roles. The object of my research is to examine (1) the evolution of the traditional female characters Rowling draws from; (2) the ways in which Rowling's use of female archetypes in her works acts as a retrograding agent; and (3) the reasons why traditional representations of women continue to appeal to the general audience. Even though late 20th – early 21st-century society encourages female empowerment and gender equality (as demonstrated in recent movements in children's literature which have attempted to construct bolder, more contemporary female figures, such as the "Girl Power" and "Feminist Fairy Tale" movements of the late 1990s), Rowling has met critical, popular, and commercial success by reverting to traditional, stereotypical characterizations of women. Thus far, I have traced the origin of many of Rowling's female characters and have done preliminary research into the psychology of children's reading habits. Through a close analysis of popular children's literature, I have discovered ways in which female characters have evolved over time to suit the ideas of society in and for which they were written. Through further research, I hope to discover how authors of children's literature can create modern female characters that appeal to the young reader with equal success as traditional representations.

(223 words — English)

Some things you have to avoid:

Including too much introductory material:

The Black-Capped Chickadee (Poecile atricapillus) is a species of North American songbird inhabiting the United States and Canada. Unlike many other

songbirds whose songs vary geographically, previous studies done on chickadee populations from Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, New York, Ontario, Missouri, Wisconsin, Alberta, Utah, British Columbia, Washington, and California have shown that males sing a typical two-tone song, "fee-bee-ee," with little variation between populations. Researchers have also shown that an isolated population from Martha's Vineyard, an island offshore of Massachusetts, demonstrates singing patterns different from the usual two note songs. I am studying a second isolated population of chickadees in Alaska, which has not been systematically investigated previously. There is one anecdotal report that suggested the males from the Alaskan population have unusual singing patterns. For example, the males sing songs with multiple notes accompanied with frequency shifts. The goal of my research...

Using too much jargon:

Within the historiography of North American studies, my research attempts to combine criticisms of Them vs. Us historical paradigms with recent psychological findings on stereotype formation, self-esteem and implicit self-theories.

Not using complete sentences:

To determine and describe the ancient Mayan calendar system. To ascertain how they tracked time for their civilization. Included is...

Not giving the reader sufficient context and completeness:

We have used infrared reflectance to study the effects of melt recrystallization on the structure of thin polymer films. We hypothesized that slowly melting and then resolidifying the thin polymer films will lead to higher levels of crystallinity and orientational order in very thin polymer films. (46 words for the whole abstract)

The abstract is the only part of the paper that the vast majority of readers see. Most journals provide clear instructions to authors on the formatting and contents of different parts of the manuscript. These instructions often include details on what the sections of an abstract should contain. Authors should tailor their abstracts to the specific requirements of the journal to which they plan to submit their manuscript.

Lecture 10. LETTERS. TYPES AND TECHNIQUES OF WRITING

In the age of various technical contact forms, writing a letter may seem like an ancient ritual that is practiced only by those of earlier generations, but there are many rewards to sitting down and expressing yourself on paper. Whether you are sending a quick note to a friend to say hello or composing a business letter to an authority figure, writing a letter shows effort, respect and care for others.

Academic communication is impossible without letters. They function either in the traditional “paper” form or are sent via e-mail. Official letters have elements common to all types of such documents. They may be observed in the following example:

(Put return address
here or use
letterhead stationery)

Date

Name of Contact organization
Street Address
City, State, Zip Code
Country

Dear Mr./Ms./Dr./Prof.+Last Name *(if you have a contact name)*:
To Whom It May Concern *(if there is no contact name)*:

XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX

XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX.

Sincerely/Sincerely yours,

(Your signature)

Your Name

Enc. *(number/brief description of documents enclosed)*

Cc: *(name/s)*

Here:

Enc. (**enclosures**) means that something besides the letter is included and is in the same envelope.

C or **Cc** means that a copy or copies of this letter are being sent to another person or persons who are named.

Types of letters used in academic communication are rather numerous: requests, submission letters, e-mail messages, letters of reference (recommendation) etc.

If you are interested in obtaining information on graduate study/grants/fellowships opportunities abroad **request letters** are of great help here.

Writing request letters can be challenging and getting started is often the hardest part. We'll provide the words for you to sound your best.

Request letters can be a very effective way of accomplishing what you need. It is not what you request, but how.

ADVICE

Create cordial, tactful request letters to help you get what you want.

Sample Request Letter for Prospective Graduate Students

5 Matematychna, Apt. 6
Kyiv, 25006
Ukraine

October 15, 2021

Dr. John Smith
Department of Mathematics and Computer Science
School of Arts and Sciences
Northwestern Technological University
420 Campus Drive
Fairtown, MI 12345
USA

Dear Dr. Smith:
or
To Whom It May Concern (*if there is no contact name*):

I am writing to request information on graduate programs in applied mathematics at your Department. I graduated from the Department of Applied Mathematics and Computer Science, Kirovograd State Pedagogical Volodymyr Vynnychenko University, in June 2009. I completed all the required courses with the highest grades. I will take the TOEFL in January 2009. I plan to start graduate school in September 2009.
Please, include information about the possibilities of financial aid at your Department. I will be applying for an application fee waiver and full financial support from the University to cover tuition and living expenses.

I would greatly appreciate your sending me the application materials and any special information for international students.

Sincerely yours,
(Signature)
Ivan Petrenko

How to write a request letter:

- Be particularly courteous and tactful when writing this letter, as requests are generally an imposition on another's time and/or resources or talents. Put the reader at ease, and help her or him feel that responding will not be burdensome.
- Be brief.
- Be confident and persuasive. Be assertive but not overbearing.

- Do not hem and haw around the issue—be straightforward, and include as much detail as necessary to clearly convey your request.
- Do not be manipulative.
- Avoid the temptation to apologize for your request. Strive to make the person feel complimented that you would ask the favor of him or her.
- Make only reasonable requests.
- Express your willingness to reciprocate the kindness or favor.
- Invite the person to contact you if he or she has any questions or concerns, and thank him or her for taking the time to consider your request.
- Make it easy for the person to respond — tell him or her exactly what can be done to accommodate your request, and do everything within your power so that the request can be granted (e.g., if you are asking for a letter of recommendation, include your résumé or a list of accomplishments and a stamped, addressed envelope).

With letters of request you can:

- Introduce yourself and remind the reader of your connection (if necessary) before making your request.
- Clearly make your request to the person(s) involved.
- State plainly and directly your reason(s) for making the request.
- Mention the special contributions the reader can make – how he or she can be of help, why you chose him or her, any benefits of fulfilling the request, and so forth.
- Promote goodwill and trust.

Sample: Request material for college entrance

From:
Richard Brown,
Student,
Department of Economics,
Delhi University.
To:
The Dean of Admissions,
College of Business Administration,
Manchester.
16th July,'17.

Dear Sir/Madam,

This is with reference to the (MBA) course being offered in your college. I am a graduate in (Economics) and would like to pursue my (Masters) in your college. I request you to kindly send me the application material for the college entrance exam.

I am herewith enclosing a cheque for (25 Pounds Sterling) for the application form and postal charges.

Thanking You,

Yours Sincerely,

(_____Richard Brown)

Request letters can be of different types, they could be as mundane as **Change of Address _____ Request letter** or as delicate as a **Promotion _____ Request Letter**.

The important thing to remember while writing a _____ request letter is to keep the tone polite and courteous.

At the outset mention the purpose of your writing the letter. Be clear and concise.

If you are writing a **Community Help _____ Request letter** it would be good to mention how much voluntary work of any kind is appreciated and encouraged.

It is also polite to express a wish to reciprocate the kindness or favor in some letters where applicable.

It is also a good idea to give a contact number and address for the reader to contact you in case of any clarifications or doubts.

Always remember to thank the person for the time and effort he/she has spared to consider your _____request.

Do not thank the person in advance for what you have requested of him/her. It can appear very presumptuous in the first place and can put off the reader that you are not giving him/her a choice to say no to your _____ request. It may also seem as if you do not wish to write to them again once the _____ request is granted. You can always write a **thank you letter** later.

Submission Letters

Submission letters accompany papers submitted for consideration to an editor of a research journal. They are written in various ways. The body of this type of a letter is represented in the following sample:

Dear …

I would like to submit to your journal for possible publication the enclosed paper entitled _____. The specific subject of this paper has not been submitted for publication elsewhere; it is based upon research … (*e.g., "performed for the completion of my Ph.D. dissertation"*).

As per your journal's instructions, I am enclosing three copies of my paper and also include a 50-word biographical statement.
I would be pleased to give you any further information that you might request.

Sincerely yours,
…….

How to Write a Submission Letter

A business submission letter is a written request for funding. The text must contain the latest, most accurate information and follow guidelines, which vary from agency to agency. The ultimate goal of the submission letter writer is to craft a document which is clear, concise and direct so the message produces the desired effect.

ADVICE

Keep the language of the submission letter simple. Not everyone is an expert. It is okay to use conversational language, provided you can support your points with relevant research. Revise, revise, revise. Once it is written, enlist the help of an artistic friend to make it look good. Consider including models, maps or posters with your submission.

Instructions

1. Step 1

Do your research. Gather as much relevant data from verifiable and reliable sources as possible.

2. Step 2

Draft a basic outline of your letter. In the opening, include the name of the office or business you're requesting funding from and your name and

organization. The body of the letter should contain a summary of the key issues contained in the submission, the most relevant facts you are going to present, what the problem is, why the journal or company should be interested and your recommended solution. You should also reference anyone who supports your efforts, an estimated timeframe for project completion and cost estimates. In the closing, thank the editorial board or company for taking the time to read your submission.

3. Step 3

Write the letter. Use an inverted pyramid style, in which you state your position in the beginning and then provide supporting information for your point of view. Make one point per paragraph. You may use headings to break up the text so important points stand out.

4. Step 4

Create visual interest. Appeal to those who utilize a visual learning style by adding tables, graphs, pie charts or pictures where you can. Draw the eye to the main points by underlining or altering the fonts with bold or italics to grab the reader's attention. This way, even if the reader only skims the letter, he will still grasp the fundamentals of the submission.

5. Step 5

Format the letter. Do not use right justification. It reduces reader efficiency because readers get distracted by the unbalanced spacing between words. Also, breaking up the text with white space can make a lengthy document seem easier to read. Choose an easy-to-read font, such as Courier or Arial, and use the same font throughout the letter.

6. Step 6

Write in clear, easily understood language using only as many words as necessary to adequately explain yourself.

7. Step 7

Be succinct. To keep your letter short, add your supporting documents as appendices. If your letter turns out to be a bit on the lengthy side, you should include a summary in the beginning.

Letters of Recommendation

Letters of recommendation (of reference) play an important role in academic communication. They usually accompany various kinds of applications (e.g., job, fellowship, or grant applications) and are written by the teachers or collegues of an applicant.

One of the primary purposes of the recommendation letter is to share one's evaluation of the professional abilities and personal qualities of the applicant. The evaluation is usually based on the interpretation of accomplishments of a recommended person.

The letter of recommendation has a format of a letter with the introduction, body, and conclusion:

- the introduction states the purpose of writing and serves as a frame for the letter;
- the body contains the main evaluation of the applicant;
- the conclusion contains predictions of the applicant's success.

ADVICE

Who To Ask For References

Who should you ask to provide references? On the average, employers check three references for each candidate, so have at least that many ready to vouch for you. It is important to know your references, to select the right people, and to get their permission to use them. You need responsive people that can confirm that you worked there, your title, your reason for leaving, and other details. It is also very important to have a good idea of what they are going to say about your background and your performance. It's perfectly acceptable to use references other than your employer. Business acquaintances, professors/academic advisors, customers, and vendors can all make good references. If you volunteer consider using leaders or other members of the organization as personal references.

When leaving a position you should ask for a letter of recommendation from your manager. As time passes and people move on, it's easy to lose track of previous employers, so with letters in hand, in advance, you'll have written documentation of your credentials to give to prospective employers. If you haven't done so already, it's never to late to go back and ask for letters from previous employers to include in your personal files.

The letter of recommendation should also include name, position, and address of the referee (a person who provides a letter of reference). It is also recommended to describe the context in which the

writer has known the applicant. Often, the applicant's personal qualities (such as intelligence or industriousness) are described at the end of the body of the letter. If someone asks you in advance whether she can use you as a reference or have you write a referral letter, and you cannot in good conscience recommend her, say so. People who ask you to be a referee or write referral letters assume you will say positive things; after all, they are trying to get a job. Intending to write a less-than-glowing letter and not informing the person who asked you of your intention is like an ambush. If you cannot write a good letter of recommendation, decline.

There are two specific types of letters of recommendation. In the first type, a friend or colleague asks you to write a "generic" letter of recommendation. It is not for a specific job or employer, but meant to be a general reference she can show to interviewers if asked for such a letter. In the second type, the employer asks the candidate for references, and the candidate gives your name. The employer then asks you whether you recommend the person, and why.

GENERIC LETTERS OF RECOMMENDATION

If you have agreed to serve as a reference for a friend or acquaintance seeking a job, you may not want to write a separate letter for each position your friend is applying for. You can solve this problem by writing a blanket recommendation that the job seeker can show all potential employers.

Sample Generic Letter of Recommendation

Prospective Employer:

I am the Partner-In-Charge of Zephyr Industries, and am writing to recommend Tracy Graduate. I have

ADVICE

How To Ask For a Letter of Recommendation

Don't ask "Could you write a letter of reference for me?" Just about anyone can write a letter. The problem can be what they are going to write about. Rather, ask "Do you feel you know my work well enough to write me a good recommendation letter?" or "Do you feel you could give me a good reference?" That way, your reference writer has an easy out if they are not comfortable writing a letter and you can be assured that those who say "yes" will be enthusiastic about your performance and will write a positive letter. Offer to provide an updated copy of your resume and information on your skills and experiences so the reference writer has current information to work with.

In addition to references, you may be asked for contact information concerning your supervisor. However, prospective employers should get your permission before contacting your current supervisor to avoid jeopardizing your current position.

known Tracy Graduate through her work experience with our firm during the past summer, when she served as an Auditor Intern in our New York office.

Tracy became immediately involved in the annual audit of Zephyr Industries, conducting much of the historical accounting research required for the audit. In addition to gathering the financial information, Tracy was instrumental in the development of the final certification report. Tracy also participated in several other smaller audits, including her instrumental role in the quarterly audit of ABC Bank, where she developed several Excel macros to audit the inputs at the PC level. She later further developed these macros for use in future audits, which we have integrated into our Auditors Toolkit.

Tracy has shown the kind of initiative that is necessary to be successful over the long term in the public accounting field. She has excellent forensic skills, yet remains focused on the overall needs of the client. I believe she will be a strong Auditor and has an excellent future in the public accounting field. She is a conscientious worker and has an excellent work ethic. We would gladly have hired Tracy upon graduation if she were open to the New York City area.

I recommend Tracy to you without reservation. If you have any further questions with regard to her background or qualifications, please do not hesitate to call me.

Sincerely,
Terry Thompson
Partner-in-Charge

SPECIFIC LETTERS OF RECOMMENDATION

Here is another common situation: You agree to let someone use you as a reference, and when she does, the organization to which she is applying for a job contacts you for verification. To maximize the person's chance of getting the job, you want to write a letter of recommendation that is specific, positive, and concise.

ADVICE

- Say how you know the person. Are you a former boss, colleague, or employee?
- Base your letter on first-hand knowledge and personal observation (e.g., the employer already knows from the résumé that the candidate can use Word, but you can say how fast he got your correspondence done).
- Cover both technical skills and people skills. The potential employer wants to know: Is she good at her job? Will she get along with the people I already have?

Sample Generic Letter of Recommendation

Dear Mr. Villas:

This is in response to your recent request for a letter of recommendation for Maria Ramírez who worked for me up until two years ago.

Maria Ramírez worked under my direct supervision at Extension Technologies for a period of six years ending in October 2020. During that period, I had the great pleasure of seeing her blossom from a junior marketing trainee at the beginning, into a fully functioning Marketing Program Co-Coordinator in her final two years with the company. That was the last position she held before moving on to a better career opportunity elsewhere.

Ms. Ramírez is a hard-working self-starter who invariably understands exactly what a project is all about from the outset, and how to get it done quickly and effectively. During her two years in the Marketing Co-Coordinator position, I cannot remember an instance in which she missed a major deadline. She often brought projects in below budget, and a few were even completed ahead of schedule.

Ms. Ramírez is a resourceful, creative, and solution-oriented person who was frequently able to come up with new and innovative approaches to her assigned projects. She functioned well as a team leader when required, and she also worked effectively as a team member under the direction of other team leaders.

On the interpersonal side, Ms. Ramírez has superior written and verbal communication skills. She gets along extremely well with staff under her supervision, as well as colleagues at her own level. She is highly respected, as both a person and a professional, by colleagues, employees, suppliers, and customers alike.

In closing, as detailed above, based on my experience working with her, I can unreservedly recommend Maria Ramírez to you for any intermediate or senior marketing position. If you would like further elaboration, feel free to call me at (555) 555-4293.

Sincerely,

Georgette Christenson

Director, Marketing and Sales

What is the state of **letter writing** in the age of the Internet? Is the ability to write clear, concise letters no longer important? Has e-mail rendered paper

letters obsolete? Is there a completely different style for writing e-mail versus on paper? The answer is a resounding ‘No!’ The Internet has revolutionized the speed at which we communicate, and the ease of getting your message into the hands of other people. But it has not — at least not yet — dramatically altered the English language. With the advent of e-mail, people probably write more than they used to. If anything, the Internet has increased our preference for written communication versus verbal (e .g., sending e-mails instead of making phone calls). That would seem to call for more of an emphasis on writing skills, not less. In fact, recent research says that written communications are one of the ten most important traits of leaders and successful people.

Professionals today definitely type more than they used to. As recently as a decade or so ago, most managers dictated or wrote by hand. Secretaries typed their letters. No self-respecting manager had a keyboard on his or her desk. Now, computer literacy — including a working knowledge of Word and Excel — is a basic requisite for managers, so is English literacy: being able to express oneself clearly in simple, direct language.

There have been three important changes in written communication within the last few years affecting the art of letter writing:

First. Because of time pressures and information overload, you have to work harder than ever to get and keep the reader’s attention. Online marketers know that simply changing the subject line can double response to an e-mail marketing message. How many e-mails do you delete each day without even opening them? How many letters do you open, read, but not respond or react to — because you are too busy? The second major change in writing is also related to information overload and time pressures: the shrinking of letter size. Not the size of the paper, but the size of the message, the key being: The shorter, the better. If you read books that reprint historically important letters (e.g., those of Lincoln), or books that collect the correspondence of nineteenth-century writers, you may be struck by how incredibly elegant, detailed, and long these letters are. The modern reader, however, has neither the time nor the patience for long letters.

Conciseness has always been a virtue in writing — and an enviable skill to be acquired. Philosopher and mathematician Blaise Pascal is often quoted as saying to a correspondent: “Forgive me for the long letter; I did not have time to write a short one.” But in the twenty-first century, being concise has graduated from being a virtue to a necessity: if you don’t get to the point quickly, and get your message across in the fewest possible words, you’ll turn off your reader.

The third major change in letter writing is that correspondence has become less formal and increasingly conversational in style. Conversational style, like conciseness, has also long been a virtue in writing. But the advent of e-mail has accelerated the acceptance of conversational style and the banishment of “corporatese.” We don’t get buzzword laden messages about “thinking outside the box” or “shifting our paradigms” when we zing off our e-mails — we get right to the point: “Marketing plans are due today at 3:00 p.m., please add information focusing on new product development.” The modern style of letter writing is like this: to the point, concise, and conversational. After all, why reinvent the wheel when the tires have already been perfected in the laboratory, thoroughly inspected for quality control, and field tested in thousand of situations?

How to Write a Letter

Steps

1. *Provide the context of the letter.* Put all the information that the reader will want to know at the beginning of the letter, before you even begin to write the body. If you're writing to a close friend, you won't need much except the date, which will help your friend remember when it was received. If you are writing a business letter, on the other hand, the reader may not even know who wrote the letter (if an assistant threw the envelopes away before passing along the letters). The arrangement of this information depends on the type of letter you are writing, but as long as you provide it neatly and completely, you should be fine:

   - Your address, sometimes including contact information; some people prefer to write this out at the

ADVICE

- Use an appropriate register (level of formality). If it is a formal letter, such as an official complaint, use formal and polite language. If you are just writing to a friend, feel free to be informal or use abbreviations and slang.
- If you have illegible handwriting (or think that you might), save the recipient the trouble of decoding it and type it. You may want to type it regardless, considering that the recipient may appreciate it. If you find that you write better by hand, you can type it after you are finished.
- Be especially cautious in what you say in a formal letter, and try to be as diplomatic as possible. This is especially true in complaint letters, where you do not want to anger the reader as it may result in unsavory consequences. If you are especially nice, you may trigger more generosity, but if you go overboard, you may trigger awkwardness.

bottom of the letter, under the signature and printed name. This can also go at the top as a letterhead.

- The recipient's name, address, contact information; in business letters, this can be referred to as the "inside address"; if you do not know the recipient's title (Ms., Mrs., Mr., or Dr.) on the side of caution – use Ms. or Dr. if you think it might apply; use your country's address format; if the inside address is in another country, write that country's name in capital letters as the last line.
- The date
- A subject line, usually beginning with "Re:" (e.g. Re: Graduation application #4487)

2. **Start with a proper greeting.** The opening should begin at the left side of the page, not the middle or up against the right side of the sheet. The most common opening is "Dear" followed by the person's first name and a comma. For a more casual greeting, you can write "Hello (name)," or "Hey (name)," but if the letter is formal, use the recipient's last name and a colon instead of a comma (e.g. "Dear Mr. Johnson:". Sometimes, if you don't know the recipient's name, you can write "To Whom It May Concern:" If you don't know the person's gender, write out his or her full name to avoid using “Mr.” or “Ms.” (e.g. Dear Ashley Johnson:).

3. **Write an opening paragraph.** Tailor your opening to the recipient. For example, if the letter is casual, you can begin with, "What's up?" or "How's it going?" Otherwise, a simple "How are you?" is fine. If it is a business letter, be direct about why you are writing the letter. Summarize your intentions and be sure to write clearly so that the reader will understand you.

4. **Construct the body of the letter.** This is the part that will really be unique to each letter. Most business letters should be no more than two pages long, but casual letters can be as long or as short as you want them to be. No matter who the recipient is, try not to ramble. Keep each paragraph engaging.

5. **Use the closing paragraph to indicate the type of response you are seeking.** If you would like a letter in return, you can write, "Please write when you have a chance" or, if you prefer a phone call/email, write "Call me soon." or "Email me some time".

6. **Include a closing** such as "Love always" ,"Cheers", "Sincerely", "Talk soon", or "Look forward to seeing you soon". Again, choose your closing based on the recipient and the level of formality. The closing can be aligned on the left or the right side of the page. In business letters, stick with "Regards," or

"Respectfully," and sign your name underneath. Then print your name under the signature.

7. **Address your envelope.** Your address should be written on the front of the envelope in the upper left hand corner or on the back. The recipient's address must be on the front of the envelope, right in the middle. Fold your letter in any way you would like, but just be sure that it will fit into the envelope. Put your letter in the envelope, seal it, stamp it, and send it off.

Example

November 2018
Umberto DiGeno
Piazza San Marco
Venezia, Italia

Dear Mr. Umberto DiGeno,

You were very wonderful in showing me around your "big city". It was very beautiful. Your family is wonderful and very welcoming. Thank you also for teaching me some Italian so I could speak a little while I finished my business trip around Italy. My time in Venice was amazing and just about the only time I could actually get a little rest. The rest of my trip was busy, but I still enjoyed it immensely just because I was in Italy.

I would like to propose to you a trip for you and your family to my home in London, England. I know London very well and can show you the best places to eat, visit, and sleep, although you are very welcome at my house. I am sure you would like a break from your hard work. I could show you sights like Big Ben and Parliament, and Buckingham Palace. I could also show you, your wife, and your children what my law office looks like and we could perhaps meet someone special... but I won't say who.

I do hope you are able to attend. Don't worry about the cost. I will pay for the entire trip. It's the least I could do for your amazing hospitality towards me. Please write back if you would like to visit.

Yours truly,
James Ellis

The general rule of thumb is that writing a letter, try to imagine the dialogue (or conversation) you are having with the person(s) addressed, especially the questions you want to be answered. Be polite and follow the rules of formal academic writing.

Lecture 11. DISSERTATION (THESIS)

The thesis (dissertation), or rather a good thesis, is not simply a description of the research process or the events under scrutiny but a highly structured and coherent body of prose which systematically relates theory and evidence. When writing a dissertation or thesis, it is essential to produce a work that is well-structured and well-presented.

Selection of a thesis title

After the subject of a thesis has been chosen, the competitor should think over the thesis title. The final formulation of the title may be defined much later. Before formulation of the thesis title one should first define such concepts as an object and a subject of dissertational research. It is important not only for formulation of a thesis title but also for providing methodological consistency of a thesis.

The **object** of dissertational research or a thesis presents knowledge generating a problematic situation, integrated in a defined concept or system of concepts; it is determined as an area of scientific research of the dissertation work. The Universal Decimal classification (UDK) index should be chosen to define the dissertational research object.

The **subject** of the dissertational research can be defined as a new scientific knowledge of the research object obtained by the competitor as a result of his scientific investigation. A structure of the research subject may include some means of obtaining this new scientific knowledge about an object of research, if it has essential elements of novelty. As a first approximation, the object and subject of research correlate with each other as common and particular notions. The subject of research, as a rule, is within the borders of the research object.

The **thesis title** should be brief and should really correspond to the dissertation content i.e. to the dissertational research, which was carried out on

the research object. In other words, the competitor must define the subject of research from the research object examination, choosing its distinctive aspects. On should note that the thesis title, as a rule, arouses much criticism on the part of all possible opponents.

The definition of a subject of the thesis research practically represents development and concrete definition of a scientific problem based upon the research problems, branch of scientific knowledge (scientific speciality, interface of scientific specialities) and the research object. It is desirable in the very beginning to define in the thesis title what nature of results will be received in the dissertational work. It is this nature of results that determines the formulation of a thesis title. In practice, the competitors, attaching great importance to creation of a subject of research, notably gain time and quality of their work.

Let us make an attempt to define a technique concerning a dissertational research subject. Suppose that there are the following conditions to begin the research.

The first variant. The dissertational research is for the most part theoretical, for example, an investigation of mathematical relations, hypothesis proof, generalization of some representations of a thesis object, creation of a new approach, determination of some elements of theory and so forth. There is every reason to believe that the work result will be of vital importance for a certain branch of knowledge. Therefore, in definition of a subject of research there can be such words and expressions as “solution”, “task”, “goal-setting”, “target setting” and “problem”. The first two words should directly indicate what results features are to be defended. The definition may then include a wording of the distinctive feature of the proposed solution.

The second version. The competitor disposes the results and materials, which can be submitted to the scientific community. Most of them fall into one scientific trend; they are of practical significance, can be introduced and successfully used in practice. In this case it is necessary to make an attempt to formulate the name of the relevant applied problem, the solution of which can be easier performed with these results and materials. The approach to a subject of dissertational research obeys to the second version which determines the nature of the thesis results. It is recommended to use in the thesis title such words as “development”, “methods”, and “facilities”. The ways, facilities, techniques, and approaches can be rendered concrete in the title with the indication as what important applied problem is being solved.

The simplest way of definition of the research subject is when the competitor makes up the list of problems to be considered and disposes them in the sequence according to the time of their consideration. So the scheme of a thesis is performed where all the items are supplemented with the characteristic of novelty, usefulness, veracity.

Some competitors introduce a subject of research by the way of models of applied or theoretical nature which are analyzed, investigated, and adapted to concrete applied problems.

The thesis title usually includes the following:

- Trends of the work, that is the problem solution, development, substantiation, increase of efficiency, perfection, optimization, decrease of costs etc;
- Object of research;
- Subject of research.

Below is a generalized structure of a thesis title which may be a help to a competitor.

DIRECTION	*SUBJECT OF WORK*	*OBJECT OF RESEARCH*
Task solution…	Technologies…	
Development…	Theories…	At the expense (of)…
Optimization…	Practice…	With use of…
Grounds…	Designing…	Under conditions…
Improvement…	Methods…	Taking into account…
Increase...	Facilities…	

Sometimes a successful formulation of a thesis title can be obtained if the object and the subject of research are swapped.

In some cases the object of research may be seemed as dissolved in the subject, but for all that, the object of research should necessarily be present in the thesis title.

Most of thesis titles, but certainly not all, may be created according to the given scheme, however, as a rule, the above listed items should be present in the title.

The thesis title should not begin with such words as “questions”, “problems”, “research”, “analysis”, “scientific foundations”, etc. because of uncertainty of a final outcome, and because it is not known to what degree the problems have been solved or what will be the final result of an analysis or research. Finally, it

should be noted what unscientific fundamentals are stated in the thesis, why they are considered not so scientific, how they appeared and why they were successfully used.

Table of contents

List chapters, sections and subheadings with their corresponding page numbers. It may present a numbered list for figures, tables and illustrations.

Proposing a Topic

Although every thesis is unique, they all aim to persuade the reader of one 'big idea'. This central claim is otherwise referred to as the ‘thesis’; hence a research thesis is the development of one central claim. This is reflected in research degree requirements that ask candidates to demonstrate a ‘significant original contribution to knowledge, and/or to the application of knowledge within the field of study’.

ADVICE

To make a paper readable

- Number pages consecutively
- Start each new section on a new page
- Adhere to recommended page limits

Your choice of topic for research is likely to be influenced by such factors as:

- *relevance*: its perceived relevance to the academic department(s) in which you are studying;
- *supervision*: the availability of tutors/supervisors who are interested in the topic and their willingness to supervise such a dissertation;
- *interest*: your existing knowledge of that topic and the strength of your desire to learn more about it;
- *competence*: your likely ability to employ the proposed methods of data gathering and data analysis;
- *scale*: the feasibility of completing the study within the time and resources available.

You may be required to demonstrate that your proposed topic is viable in the light of such factors. In particular, try to choose a topic in which you are genuinely interested.

For a research degree as such (MPhil, PhD) you are usually expected to provide a formal research proposal. Indeed, your acceptance for a research degree may depend on the submission and approval of such a formal proposal

as part of your application. Such a proposal needs to include the title (even if that might change over time), a clear explanation of the academic (rather than personal) importance of the topic with reference to some existing published research in the field, an outline of a proposed methodology for data-gathering and also for analysis, and a provisional schedule for key stages in the work tied to dates in the calendar.

One of the most important steps of the research story line is to persuade the reader that the question or argument posed in the thesis is justified and ‘significant’. This is typically accomplished in the following ways:

1) outline an unresolved issue or problem to be addressed in the research;
2) describe the field/s of literature that address the problem;
3) establish a ‘gap’ in the field/s of literature;
4) pose a research question, aim or objective, or an 'argument'.

The thesis introduction also includes:

- a summary of the research design;
- definitions of key terms used throughout the thesis;
- an outline of the main points within the middle chapters of the thesis.

Introduction

You can't write a good introduction until you know what the body of the paper says. Consider writing the introductory section(s) after you have completed the rest of the paper, rather than before.

Be sure to include a hook at the beginning of the introduction. This is a statement of something sufficiently interesting to motivate your reader to read the rest of the paper, it is an important/interesting scientific problem that your paper either solves or addresses. You should draw the reader in and make them want to read the rest of the paper.

The next paragraphs in the introduction should cite previous research in this area. It should cite those who had the idea or ideas first, and should also cite those who have done the most recent and relevant work. You should then go on to explain why more work was necessary (your work, of course).

What else belongs in the introductory section(s) of the paper?

1. A statement of the goal of the paper: why the study was undertaken, or why the paper was written.

2. Sufficient background information to allow the reader to understand the context and significance of the question you are trying to address.

3. Proper acknowledgement of the previous work on which you are building. Sufficient references such that a reader could, by going to the library, achieve a sophisticated understanding of the context and significance of the question.

4. The introduction should be focused on the thesis question(s). All cited work should be directly relevant to the goals of the thesis. This is not a place to summarize everything you have ever read on a subject.

5. Explain the scope of your work, what will and will not be included.

6. A verbal "road map" or verbal "table of contents" guiding the reader to what lies ahead.

7. Is it obvious where introductory material ("old stuff") ends and your contribution ("new stuff") begins?

Remember that this is not a review paper. We are looking for original work and interpretation/analysis by you. Break up the introduction section into logical segments by using subheads.

Rationale and theoretical framework

You must include a *rationale*: an explanation of *why* you are studying the topic and of *why it is important*. You will need to show evidence that specialists in the field *do* find it important. It is not good enough to say that you find it personally interesting (you should not be studying it otherwise!). Think of your reader(s). In justifying your study it can be useful to imagine a cynical critic who cannot imagine why anyone would waste their time on such a study! If you can address their concerns you will be doing well. You could ask one of your friends to play 'Devil's Advocate' for you to check how persuasive you are being. On the other hand, bear your specialist readers in mind and do not try to explain terms that should already be familiar to them: just demonstrate that you understand such terms by the way in which you apply them throughout your study.

A *theoretical framework* often features as an early section in a dissertation. In a theoretical framework you would include an outline of existing theories which are closely related to your research topic. Make clear how your research relates to existing theories. Who are regarded as the key theorists in the field on the central issues involved? You should find some names coming up repeatedly. Justify the choices. If you cannot identify key theorists this suggests that the topic lacks theoretical interest. What are the key debates and what arguments and

evidence have the key theorists put forward? What questions remain unresolved? How are 'research questions' in the field framed? How does your own research relate to such framings? Make your own theoretical assumptions and allegiances as explicit as possible. Later, your discussion of methodology should be linked to this theoretical framework.

Your research should be guided by a central *research question* (or a series of closely-connected questions). This needs to be made explicit early on (although you may refine your question(s) as your understanding deepens). Your research questions will help you to stay on target and to avoid being distracted by interesting (but irrelevant) digressions.

Reviewing the literature

A thesis should include a discussion of the current knowledge in the field. Academic dissertations at all levels in the humanities typically include some kind of 'literature review'. It is probably more useful for students to think of this, as examiners usually do, as a 'critical review of the literature', for reasons which will be made clear shortly. The literature review is normally an early section in the dissertation.

It should help explain how your research adds to, contradicts, or augments this existing knowledge. A separate chapter may be devoted to the literature review or it can be placed at the beginning. Alternatively, the review of the literature may take place progressively throughout the thesis.

The broader survey

Students are normally expected to begin working on a *general survey* of the related research literature at the earliest possible stage of their research. This in itself is not what is normally meant in formal references to the 'review of the literature', but is rather a preparatory stage. This survey stage ranges far wider in scope and quantity than the final review, typically including more general works. Your survey (which exists in writing only in your notes) should help you in several ways, such as:

- to decide on the issues you will address;
- to become aware of appropriate research methodologies;
- to see how research on your specific topic fits into a broader framework;
- to help you not to 'reinvent the wheel';
- to help you to avoid any well-known theoretical and methodological pitfalls;
- to prepare you for approaching the critical review.

The 'critical' review

Clearly, if you are new to research in the field you are not in a position to 'criticise' the work of experienced researchers on the basis of your own knowledge of the topic or of research methodology. Where you are reporting on well-known research studies closely related to your topic, however, some critical comments may well be available from other established researchers (often in textbooks on the topic). These criticisms of methodology, conclusions and so on can and should be reported in your review (together with any published reactions to these criticisms!).

However, the use of the term *critical* is not usually meant to suggest that you should focus on criticising the work of established researchers. It is primarily meant to indicate that:

- the review should not be merely a *descriptive* list of a number of research projects related to the topic;
- you are capable of thinking critically and with insight about the issues raised by previous research.

What is a literature review for?

The review can serve many functions, some of which are as follows:

- to indicate what researchers in the field already know about the topic;
- to indicate what those in the field do not yet know about the topic – the 'gaps';
- to indicate major questions in the topic area;
- to provide background information for the non-specialist reader seeking to gain an overview of the field;
- to ensure that new research (including yours) avoids the errors of some earlier research;
- to demonstrate your grasp of the topic.

What should be included in a literature review?

In the formal review of the literature you should refer only to research projects which are *closely related* to your own topic. The formal review is not a record of 'what I have read'. If your problem is how to choose what to leave out, one way might be to focus on the *most recent* papers. One should normally aim to include key studies which are widely cited by others in the field, however old

they may be. Where there are several similar studies with similar findings, you should review a representative study which was well designed.

Some tutors encourage their students to refer to a range of relevant projects representing various research methodologies; others may prefer you to concentrate on those employing the methodology which you intend to use (e.g. experiments or field studies). Where you have been advised to review studies representing different methodologies, do not over-represent any single methodology unless it represents that which you intend to use.

If you find that very little seems to exist which is closely related to your topic you should discuss this with your supervisor. In such a case the most obvious options would be either to widen the net to include less closely-related studies or to reduce the length of the review. However, you should make quite sure that your search for relevant papers and books has been adequate.

How long should a literature review be?

This varies and the attitudes of your supervisor and examiners must be taken into account: some supervisors allow undergraduate students to devote the bulk of a mini-dissertation to a literature review; others insist on some element of original research. As to how many research studies you should review, this varies too. You should not review so many that you can devote little space to each.

Depending on how much writing is required to establish the 'gap' in the field, the literature review can be included in the introduction, or be given a separate chapter of its own. Or you might include parts of the literature review within each of the middle chapters of the thesis.

For longer literature review chapters:

- Remind the reader of the problem in the opening sentences of the introductory paragraph.
- Introduce what will be discussed.
- Divide the literature into chronological, conceptual, thematic or other groupings.
- Introduce these groupings in the opening paragraphs.
- Give reasons for choice of themes (unless obvious).

ADVICE

Mistakes to avoid

- Placing a heading at the bottom of a page with the following text on the next page (insert a page break!)
- Dividing a table or figure – confine each figure/table to a single page
- Submitting a paper with pages out of order

Methodology

What belongs in the "methods" section of a scientific paper?

1. Information to allow the reader to assess the believability of your results.
2. Information needed by another researcher to replicate your experiment.
3. Description of your materials, procedure, theory.
4. Calculations, technique, procedure, equipment, and calibration plots.
5. Limitations, assumptions, and range of validity.
6. Desciption of your analystical methods, including reference to any specialized statistical software.

A section on methodology is a key element in a social science dissertation. Methodology refers to the choice and use of particular strategies and tools for data gathering and analysis. Some methodologies embrace both data gathering and analysis, such as content analysis, ethnography and semiotic analysis. Others apply *either* to gathering *or* analysing data (though the distinction is often not clearcut):

- *data-gathering* methodologies include interviews, questionnaires and observation;
- *data analysis* methodologies include content analysis, discourse analysis, semiotic analysis and statistical analysis.

There are many varieties of each methodology and the specific methodological tools you are adopting must be made explicit. You should mention which other related studies (cited in your literature review) have employed the same methodology.

A key practical consideration when deciding on your methodology is your own competence and confidence in using the selected methods. For instance, do not attempt a psychoanalytical approach to textual analysis unless you and your supervisor are confident that you can handle this (and that this is appropriate and acceptable). Ideally you should use a method you have successfully employed before. If you need further training or advice in using your chosen method, seek out local academic advice from someone who regularly uses that method. Always consult methodological handbooks in your topic area for guidance on issues and pitfalls. It is a good practice to consult several of these when you prepare your methodological section. In addition, you should read several published academic papers in related topic areas which employ a similar methodology to the one you are planning to use.

The section on methodology should include a *rationale* for the choice of methodology for data gathering and for data analysis. In the rationale you should consider what alternative methodological tools might have been employed (particularly those which related studies have employed), together with their advantages and limitations for the present purpose.

ADVICE

What to avoid

- Materials and methods are not a set of instructions.
- Omit all explanatory information and background – save it for the discussion.
- Omit information that is irrelevant to a third party, such as what color ice bucket you used, or which individual logged in the data.

Your choice of methodologies should be related to the theoretical framework outlined earlier. Citations in this section should be limited to data sources and references of where to find more complete descriptions of procedures. Do not include descriptions of results.

Data Gathering and Analysis

Data should be presented as clearly as possible for the reader. Wherever possible you should present your readers with sufficient data in an appendix for them to test your approach and to draw their own conclusions. There is no data without a theory, so underline the theoretical basis for the selection of relevant data. Data does not ‘speak for itself’: it requires interpretation. Methods of interpretation vary widely but note that you must adopt some recognised method and definitely not appear to 'make it up as you go along'! Try to follow the practices employed in some relevant and reputable published study.

ADVICE

Use appropriate methods of showing data. Don't try to manipulate the data to make it look like you did more than you actually did:
"The drug cured 1/3 of the infected mice, another 1/3 were not affected, and the third mouse got away."

Extensive tabular data is usually best confined to appendices: select only the most important tabular data for inclusion in the main body of your text. Where you refer to total numbers it is often useful to include percentages. Avoid any reference to 'significant' findings unless you can specify their *statistical* significance. Consider where it would be most useful to employ graphical displays such as bar-charts or pie-charts rather than tables. Label tables as

'Table 1' [or whatever] and all other forms as 'Figure 1' [etc.]. Remember to list these at the beginning of the dissertation. Whilst every table or figure requires comment in the main body of the text do not simply repeat the data: help the reader to notice and make sense of *patterns* in the data.

Some notes on textual analysis. If your data is some kind of, be clear about your methodology for textual analysis and follow a specific published model. The main options are semiotic analysis, content analysis and discourse analysis. Beware of assuming that the meaning lies *within* the text rather than in its interpretation. You can avoid privileging yourself as an 'elite interpreter' by seeking the responses of other viewers/readers/listeners.

Whatever kind of data you are dealing with, try to be *reflexive* in dealing with it: reflect on the constructedness of your data and on your role in constructing it.

Results

- The results are actual statements of observations, including statistics, tables and graphs.
- Indicate information on range of variation.
- Mention negative results as well as positive. Do not interpret results – save that for the discussion.

Findings and Discussion

The ways in which you report your 'findings' depend heavily on the methodologies employed so it is difficult to provide general guidelines here. However, it is important to ensure that you go beyond basic *description* of your data. There must be a substantial element of formal analysis.

Refer back to your research question(s). Relate your own findings to those in any related published studies outlined in your literature review. Where your findings differ you should offer a suggested explanation. What new research questions are raised by your study?

Make clear what the *limitations* of your own study are. What are the limitations of your 'sample'? To what extent are your findings specific to a particular socio-cultural context? In what ways is your interpretation of your findings related to your own theoretical assumptions (outlined earlier)? What insights into the phenomenon does your study seem to offer? What could others learn from your study?

Discuss any broader *implications* in relation to your theoretical framework. This is important because many people discuss 'implications' as if these were simply logical consequences and leave implicit the model within which the findings might have such implications. Your theoretical model must be explicit.

Quarantine your observations from your interpretations. The writer must make it crystal clear to the reader which statements are observation and which are interpretation. In most circumstances, this is best accomplished by physically separating statements about new observations from statements about the meaning or significance of those observations.

ADVICE

Questions to guide writing the discussion and conclusion

Processing findings (Discussion)

1. What do I consider most important about my findings in general and why?

2. Which findings seem to be of greater or lesser significance and why?

3. Are there any specific findings to which I want to draw particular attention and why?

4. Is there anything unusual about any of my findings needing special mention and why?

5. Has my methodology or anything else affected my interpretation of findings and is this something that needs to be discussed (for example biases inbuilt into the research design)?

Drawing out implications (Conclusion)

1. To what extent do my findings align with those of other scholars, in what precise ways, and if not why not?

2. If certain findings suggest a need for further research, what might this consist in and how might such research extend or improve the current state of knowledge in my field?

Discussion and conclusion

The final step in the story line of the research thesis or article is to provide the answer to the question, or, in the descriptive style, to summarise the argument and the main evidence used to support it. This is followed by a discussion of the significance of the research and the implications arising from the research.

This section should be rich in references to similar work and background needed to interpret results. Break up the section into logical segments.

The goal of the conclusion is to highlight the importance of the thesis statement, to draw together the discussion into a final point, and to leave a

lasting impression on the reader. In the same way that the thesis or paper opens with a statement of a problem that is of broad concern, it should close with commentary that highlights the take home message. The aim in the conclusion is to make this message as clear and accessible as possible.

Although, from the writer's point of view the conclusion can seem like an afterthought, for the reader it is critical. Many examiners read the introduction and conclusion before venturing into the main body of the thesis. By this time they may have already formed an impression of the quality of the thesis.

One way to ensure you don't run out of steam at the end of the thesis and neglect the conclusion is to note down concluding thoughts as you write the literature review, results and methodology. This is because your best thoughts will often occur during the conceptual phases of the research, at the beginning and middle of the research process, and not at the end when you are tired and possibly bored with the topic. As you write and edit the other chapters in the thesis write down or save any concluding thoughts that occur to you as you go and file these in the concluding chapter. These comments can then form useful prompts when you come to write the concluding chapter.

Some theses have separate discussion and conclusion chapters or sections. In these theses, the difference between the discussion and conclusion is one of inference. The discussion chapter or section discusses actual results. Conclusions are more speculative in tone, exploring the possible implications of the results. In many qualitative theses, results or findings are difficult to disentangle from the discussion and are combined within the main body of the thesis.

The conclusion includes:

- summative statement of the major argument or findings (and whether they are definitive or tentative);
- brief explanation of why the research was conducted (optional);
- brief explanation of how the research was conducted (optional);
- synthesis of the main results or evidence that support the thesis;
- the wider implications and significance of the research;

ADVICE

Link the introduction and conclusion

Try reading the introduction and the conclusion one after another. They should flow. If you have used examples, metaphors or other illustration to highlight the problem or significance of the research, you might return to the same device in the final chapter to draw out the conclusions.

- plan of action or proposal arising from the research (optional)
- research directions suggested by the findings (optional).

The significance of the research and the proposals flowing from the research might be discussed in relation to one or more of the following:

- the community in the ‘real world’;
- policy development (government, organisational, business etc);
- professional practice (as an academic or other profession – teacher, pharmacist, artist, nurse, engineer, manager etc);
- contribution to academic debates;
- income generating capacity;
- social or political action and research.

A discussion of implications in the conclusion might include:

- proposing further research (PROPOSING);
- assessments of present or past approaches to the subject (REVALUING);
- issues arising from your more narrow, more empirical work for more general, more theoretical, or different work (GENERALISING, EXTRAPOLATING);
- illuminations arising from your general or more theoretical work for particular, empirical questions (CONTEXTUALISING);
- solutions to practical or applied problems (RECOMMENDING, APPLYING);
- predictions about what might happen in the future given your analysis of some present or contemporary issue (PREDICTING);
- anticipating events outside the immediate focus of the thesis given your analysis of some past event or situation (ANTICIPATING).

Conclusions offer solutions to issues and suggest courses of action flowing from the research.

ADVICE

Synthesise, don't repeat

You can avoid repeating information that has already been provided by drawing the findings together into an overall point that has not been made yet. The sum may be a more powerful conveyor of meaning than the parts.

You can avoid writing a conclusion that reads like a menu of chapters (‘chapter 3 showed ...', 'Chapter 4 showed ...') by opening with a statement of the evidence and providing the chapter in a bracket at the end of the sentence.

Use the last paragraph or sentence of the thesis to provide closure to its overall questions. Pay attention to this paragraph and sentence; draft with care.

However, the aim of research is primarily to produce knowledge, not law, policy or a set of recommendations. We cannot ultimately control how our ideas are interpreted or implemented in the world.

If you are worried that the research will not be powerful enough without a specific set of recommendations, it might be helpful to remember the old adage, 'the pen is mightier than the sword'. All change starts with an idea.

Conclusion

- Use power positions at the beginning and ending of chapters, sections, paragraphs, and sentences to provide critical information.
- Foreground the conceptual steps in the story line.
- Foreground the central 'thesis'.
- Keep the focus on the research story at all times.
- Do not describe literature, methods or theory in a general way.
- Do not report irrelevant twists and turns of the research process. You are addressing a question, not relating an experience.
- Do not report what you have learned unless it is part of your research design or supports the thesis in some other way.
- Do not write about standardised procedures or tangential information.
- What is the strongest and most important statement that you can make from your observations?
- If you met the reader at a meeting six months from now, what do you want them to remember about your paper?
- Refer back to problem posed, and describe the conclusions that you reached from carrying out this investigation, summarize new observations, new interpretations, and new insights that have resulted from the present work.
- Include the broader implications of your results.
- Do not repeat word for word the abstract, introduction or discussion.

Illustrations

Your argument may be considerably strengthened by your inclusion of appropriate diagrams. Ask yourself how you could usefully visualise some of the key concepts which you are exploring. *These should never be purely decorative*: they should be discussed in appropriate detail in the text. Indeed, doing so is often a very productive way to anchor your argument in concrete details. Consider where carefully thought-out diagrams or tables might help to make a point clearer.

Note that you should at the very least record sources and include full details of these in your text.

Illustrations should be labelled as either Figures or Tables. Each should have a short and appropriate descriptive caption.

Figures, tables, and graphs:

- are necessary only when they provide information that expands upon, or cannot be explained in the text;
- should contain sufficient information to enable them to stand alone;
- are always discussed in the text;
- use titles to describe core content, (name of variables, type of analysis);
- are clearly and consistently labelled and numbered;
- are listed at the beginning of the thesis;
- list one column of data per heading;
- should be uncluttered.

Refer to figures and tables in the flow of the discussion. Avoid using a figure or table title as a topic sentence. Instead, cite tables and figures in brackets after relevant results statements.

Tying the Text to the Data

"Show them, don't just tell them…" Ideally, every result claimed in the text should be documented with data, usually data presented in tables or figures. If there are no data provided to support a given statement of result or observation, consider adding more data, or deleting the unsupported "observation."

Examine figure(s) or table(s) pertaining to the result(s).

Reference Format

Universities, faculties and departments differ in the referencing formats required. For instance, the *Harvard referencing system* requires that *in-text* references to sources should be at the end of sentences in this form: (Smith 2020: 25-9), omitting page numbers when the reference is to on-line sources. Note the avoidance of 'page', 'p.' or 'pp.' here.

On the *APA* (see *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 7th ed.*) *reference* page, you list all the sources that you've cited in your paper. The list starts on a new page right after the body text. APA in-text citations consist of the author's last name and publication year. When citing a

specific part of a source, also include a page number or range, for example (Parker, 2020, p. 67) or (Johnson, 2017, pp. 39–41).

The *list of references* should should follow such requirements:

- All references cited in the text must be listed
- Order all works alphabetically by the first word of the reference entry. This is usually author surname or group author name, but maybe the title if the work has no named author.
- All authors' names should be inverted (i.e., last names should be provided first).
- For works with the same first author surname, arrange alphabetically by first author initials. If these are identical, arrange next by second author surname, etc.
- For works with all identical author names, arrange works by year, oldest to newest.
- For works with identical author/s and date, arrange in in alphabetical order of title. Include a letter after the year: (2023a), (2023b), etc.
- Link co-authors with an ampersand (&) rather than 'and'.
- Italicize *et al.*
- Always provide both volume number and part number for journal articles.

Appendices

- Include all your data in the appendix.
- Reference data/materials not easily available (theses are used as a resource by the department and other students).
- Tables (where more than 1-2 pages).
- Calculations (where more than 1-2 pages).
- You may include a key article as appendix.
- Figures and tables, including captions, should be embedded in the text and not in an appendix, unless they are more than 1-2 pages and are not critical to your argument.

Glossary

A glossary is a list of technical terms, special names and abbreviations used throughout the thesis. Inclusion of a glossary is optional.

Readability

It is important to make the text easily 'navigable' for the reader, providing 'signposts' to help them to find their way about. If you have been writing primarily to clarify your own thoughts (as many people do) then as you get closer to presenting your writing to others you must switch your focus to the convenience of the reader. It can help to ask a friend to comment on a late draft because it is not always easy for the writer to spot the problems which readers may have. If you know who the reader(s) will be, then try to consider the ways in which they are likely to react to the text. Can you anticipate any objections which they might have? If so, then you need to revise your text to address these.

ADVICE

In all sections of your paper

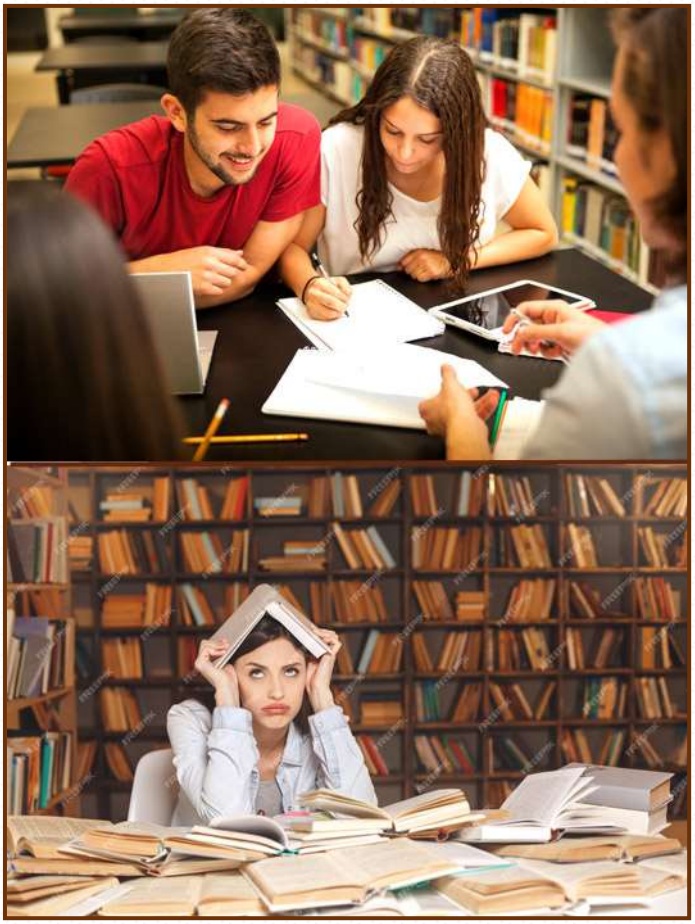
- Use normal prose including articles ("a", "the," etc.)
- Stay focused on the research topic of the paper
- Use paragraphs to separate each important point (except for the abstract)
- Indent the first line of each paragraph
- Present your points in logical order
- Use present tense to report well accepted facts – for example, 'the grass is green'
- Use past tense to describe specific results – for example, 'When weed killer was applied, the grass was brown'
- Avoid informal wording, don't address the reader directly, and don't use jargon, slang terms, or superlatives
- Avoid use of superfluous pictures – include only those figures necessary to presenting results

Your dissertation should ‘tell a story’ in the sense that you should ‘set the scene’ (and grab the reader’s attention) at the start, then try to lead the reader as smoothly as possible from point to point, working up to some genuine conclusions at the end. Not many of us can write like this at the first attempt, but a dissertation can be gradually edited into this form. Check in particular that there are no sudden jumps from one point to another.

Include a contents page (some universities have specific guidelines for the way in which this should be done). Use subsections within each chapter (these can usually be included in the contents page). After the contents page include a list of figures and a list of tables. Most universities, faculties or departments have a preferred order in which introductory sections should appear: check the conventions.

Check whether you are required to use a 'report style' format (with numbered sections, sub-sections and paragraphs) or more continuous prose. Occasional lists of short items can help to break up the text: use plain ‘bullets’ for such lists unless there is a good reason to number them. Do not forget to number your pages! It may also help to have 'running heads' which indicate which chapter each page belongs to. And check that you have included your alphabetical list of references, in the preferred form, at the end.

If you include a long quotation (of four lines or more) you should indent it from the left-hand margin. Avoid using *too many* quotations, however: it may give the impression that you have no ideas of your own and that you accept too uncritically what others have said on the topic. If you are discussing, for instance, *how people feel* about something, direct quotations may be appropriate in social science. But someone else’s bald *assertion* is certainly not to be taken as adequate evidence of the truth of what they are saying: just because the statement appears in print doesn’t of itself make it any more reliable than remarks in the pub! Consider the adequacy of your source as *evidence*. Normally, you should use a direct quotation only when the writer has put the point particularly well, and generally a paraphrase is preferable. However, note that the source of any original ideas expressed in this way must still be given. The cardinal sin in academia is *plagiarism*, which may be defined as the presentation *as one’s own* of ideas or phraseology *knowingly derived from* other writers. For students, there are very serious penalties for this: it may be treated as an act of fraud. One may, of course, make use of the ideas of others, since as one wit has observed, ‘when you take stuff from one writer, it’s plagiarism; but when you take it from many writers, it’s research’! However, academic writing does require such ‘borrowed’ ideas to be formally acknowledged.



Lecture 12. ESSAY. REPORT. LITERATURE REVIEW. REVIEW ARTICLE

Writing essays

The essay is the most common type of assignment in many subjects, particularly in the humanities and social sciences. Writing an essay enables you to explore a topic in detail and demonstrate your knowledge and understanding in a piece of analytic writing.

Though the word ‘essay’ has come to be understood as a type of writing in Modern English, its origins provide us with some useful insights. The word comes into the English language through the French influence on Middle English; tracing it back further, we find that the French form of the word comes from the Latin verb exigere, which means ‘to examine, test, or (literally) to drive out’. Through the excavation of this ancient word, we are able to unearth the essence of the academic essay: to encourage students to test or examine their ideas concerning a particular topic.

Essays are shorter pieces of writing that often require the student to hone a number of skills such as close reading, analysis, comparison and contrast, persuasion, conciseness, clarity, and exposition. As is evidenced by this list of attributes, there is much to be gained by the student who strives to succeed at essay writing.

The purpose of an essay is to encourage students to develop ideas and concepts in their writing with the direction of little more than their own thoughts (it may be helpful to view the essay as the converse of a research paper). Therefore, essays are (by nature) concise, and require clarity in purpose and direction.

There are such genres of essay writing:

- The Expository Essay
- The Descriptive Essay
- The Narrative Essay
- The Argumentative (Persuasive) Essay

A good essay demonstrates an ability to:

- understand the question
- select appropriate reading sources
- develop a central idea, sustaining the argument from beginning to end
- use evidence and examples to support your arguments
- synthesise and critically evaluate material from different sources
- explain issues, theories and debates
- use sources appropriately in the text and construct a list of references
- write clearly, accurately and effectively, using a good range of grammatical structures and vocabulary
- write in an academic style

Writing the introduction

When writing the introduction to your essay, it is important to keep your reader in mind. A good introduction will engage the reader's interest and provide initial orientation. You need to decide what the reader needs to know at this stage to make sense of the rest of the essay.

Below are some guidelines on writing the introduction:

- Identify the topic and set it in context
- Present your central idea clearly and precisely. This may involve stating your position towards the topic or issue under investigation.
- Briefly outline the structure of the essay
- Define key concepts and any important terms that may be subject to different interpretation

Writing the main body

In the body of the essay, develop the central idea that you formulated in the introduction. You should do this step by step, presenting one main point at a time and providing evidence and examples in support of each main point.

You must ensure that each main point is related to the central idea. This will give unity and coherence to the text, and enable you to develop a convincing argument.

It is important that the argument flows smoothly and logically towards the conclusion. To achieve this, you should:

- Construct a well-structured essay
- Consider how each point relates to the previous one and the next, as well as to the central idea
- Select relevant evidence and/or examples to support each point
- Use signposting to make the relationship between ideas clear (meta-text reference)
- Write analytically

Writing the conclusion

A good conclusion will:

- Remind the reader of the central idea of the essay, thus linking the conclusion to the introduction
- Restate the author's position (where appropriate)
- Summarise the main points in the essay
- If appropriate, make suggestions or recommendations for further work

A common mistake in conclusions is to repeat material from the main body in detail. Remember that what you need to do in the conclusion is to summarise and synthesise, to bring key points together.

Another common mistake is to introduce new arguments or evidence. Remember that the right place for this is the main body of the essay.

Writing Reports

Like essays, reports are widely used for assessment purposes at university.

You may be asked to write a report on a piece of research (a scientific experiment or a case study, for instance) or on project work involving fact-finding and/or evaluation. Examples of this include reports on visits to schools, companies or manufacturing plants; evaluations of teaching and learning programmes or IT systems; and progress reports on work or study. Developing good report writing skills will help you to produce assignments of a high standard. It will also be useful in your professional life after university, as report writing is an important aspect of many graduate jobs.

A good report has four main characteristics:

- clear aims and objectives
- a specific target audience
- clear structure and layout, with headings at the beginning of each section
- simple, clear, concise writing

Like other types of assignments, reports need careful planning and information gathering. After completing these two stages, you can write the first draft, and then make changes and corrections to improve it. Finally, edit and proofread the report before submission.

Structure

When planning and writing your report, you need to bear in mind that readers may not read it in full: some may only read the summary while others may scan the text for the information they need, relying on headings and a familiar structure to locate it quickly. Thus, the needs of the reader are paramount in deciding how to structure and present the report.

At the most basic level, a report consists of an introduction, main sections and conclusion. The number of sections and their headings will vary depending on the information presented. All sections should have clear headings.

The structure below is used widely to report research. As stated above, variations on this are possible; indeed, your school may suggest a different structure, or you may find that the topic and content of your report require different headings. Nevertheless, you will probably find it useful to familiarise yourself with this commonly used structure.

Title page

The title of the report should be in the middle of the title page. The title should give a clear indication of the subject matter of the report. The date, your name and/or student number, module, stage and year should also be included.

Contents

List the sections of the report, with the relevant page numbers.

Summary or abstract

This is an overview of the report containing key information from the main sections. You should include brief statements about objectives, methodology, findings, and conclusions and recommendations. Remember that the summary or

abstract is the first section readers will look at, and that many of them will not read beyond this section. The summary or abstract should therefore be a self-contained piece of text, normally written in one paragraph. Write this section after completing the main sections of the report.

Introduction/terms of reference

In this section you should present the subject matter of the report, setting it in context and indicating the scope of the project or investigation. If appropriate, state your terms of reference (i.e. what you were asked to find out, and by whom). You should give the aims and objectives of the project or investigation, and provide any other information readers need to understand the sections that follow.

Methodology

Explain the methods you used to gather the information and describe the procedure you followed. You should give details of any materials or equipment used, and describe how you selected your sample (i.e. participants or specimens). The methodology should be clearly written and all the necessary information should be included.

Findings or results

Present your results simply and clearly, using tables and figures if appropriate. The written text should highlight the most important or interesting findings rather than describe everything.

Discussion

In this section, analyse and explain your findings, and comment on their significance. If appropriate, explain whether your findings confirm or contradict your hypothesis and/or previous research on the subject. You should also comment on any limitations of your investigation and consider the implications and practical applications of your findings.

Conclusions and recommendations

In the conclusion, you should bring all the main points together, presenting them clearly and succinctly. List recommendations clearly, preferably using bullet points.

References

You should list all the sources you referred to in the report.

Appendices

Use appendices to present additional information which the reader may wish to consult when reading the report.

Literature Reviews

Most students write a literature review as part of their thesis or dissertation, but in some degree programmes, coursework assessment of a module may involve writing a literature review.

A literature review is a comprehensive survey of published research on a particular topic. It summarises, synthesises and critically evaluates relevant research. It reveals trends and controversies, and identifies areas where further research is needed.

Writing a good literature review requires:

- the ability to locate, understand, record and categorise complex information from multiple sources
- good critical thinking and critical reading skills
- the ability to evaluate other people's findings and conclusions
- the ability to identify key contributions, trends and controversies, and gaps in current knowledge

As you can see from the above list, writing a literature review is a cognitively-demanding task. This is why only students on postgraduate degrees or in the final stages of an undergraduate programme are normally expected to write literature reviews. One effective way of learning to write a literature review is to look at good models in the subject. You can find excellent models in review articles published in academic journals. Note, in particular, how the review is structured and how language is used to report and critically evaluate research.

Review Article

Not to be confused with a "peer reviewed journal," review articles are an attempt by one or more writers to sum up the current state of the research on a particular topic. Ideally, the writer searches for *everything* relevant to the topic,

and then sorts it all out into a coherent view of the “state of the art” as it now stands. Review Articles will teach you about:

- the main people working in a field
- recent major advances and discoveries
- significant gaps in the research
- current debates
- ideas of where research might go next

Review Articles are virtual gold mines if you want to find out what the key articles are for a given topic. If you read and thoroughly digest a good review article, you should be able to “talk the talk” about a given topic. Unlike research articles, review articles *are* good places to get a basic idea about a topic.

Lecture 13. ACADEMIC CONDUCT. PLAGIARISM

The academic community has certain standards of conduct that all its members are expected to uphold. These standards require you to approach your academic work with integrity and follow good academic practice. This means that you must:

- Be honest in your use of data, avoiding fabrication and falsification.
- Acknowledge all the sources you use in your work.
- Follow the citation and referencing conventions approved by your school
- Never give or receive unauthorised help with academic work.

Good academic conduct reflects the values which underpin academic life, such as honesty, integrity, a shared community of ideas and respect for others' work. When you write at university, you will be expected to draw on the work of others and you will gain higher marks for doing so. You must be scrupulously honest about where the ideas have come from. Imagine how annoyed you might feel if someone stole your best ideas and presented them as their own. We need to respect other people's ideas in the same way we respect their possessions. Following the rules of proper academic conduct is often referred to as ***academic integrity***. It describes the values held to be essential in university study. Academic integrity is the commitment to and demonstration of honest and moral behavior in an academic setting.

The University is also assessing your work and at the end of your studies awarding you a degree on the basis of your work. It is only fair to other students that this work is your own and properly acknowledges the use made of the work of others. How are employers to assess applicants for jobs, if they cannot rely on

the marks and degree class as being a fair reflection of a student's achievement? Everyone's marks and awards are threatened by poor academic conduct.

Honesty about research findings is also vital. We rely every day on the honesty of researchers whose work affects our daily lives. We expect the same of those carrying out research at an earlier stage in their careers.

Good academic conduct may seem initially like a set of rules designed to catch you out and which you just have to navigate your way through. It does however reflect a set of important underlying values, to which we would all want to subscribe. It is also important to get into good habits and practices at university because the correct use of evidence and data will also be important in most jobs.

ADVICE

You practise academic integrity in your academic writing by working with the six values in mind, and particularly by using correct and accurate referencing. This shows that you can:

- be **honest** about which ideas were derived from others;
- act **fairly** by not taking credit for others' work;
- take **responsibility** by finding out what is required of you and how you should carry it out;
- show **respect** for others by acknowledging the part they have played in building your knowledge and understanding.
- produce work that can be **trusted**.

Taking unfair advantage is a very serious issue which undermines the basis of university study or work. It happens when a candidate uses improper means to try and improve their result. This can be in a number of ways, for example: plagiarism, falsifying or making up experimental or other results, getting someone to write assessed work etc.

You may share authorship with someone else involved in the problem. The term **collaborative writing** refers to projects where written works are created by multiple people together (*collaboratively*) rather than individually. Some projects are overseen by an editor or editorial team, but many grow without any of this top-down oversight.

In a true collaborative environment, each contributor has an almost equal ability to add, edit, and remove text. The writing process becomes a recursive task, where each change prompts others to make more changes. It is easier to do if the group has a specific end goal in mind, and harder if a goal is absent or vague.

Taking a collaborative approach to writing takes different forms. One of the most widely spread is co-authorship. A **co-author** is a full partner in both content and writing. Coauthors contribute ideas for the book and help write the book. Co-authors work in any number of ways — from writing alternate chapters on their own, according to their expertise, to brainstorming all chapter content together.

Successful collaboration occurs when each participant [or stakeholder] is able to make a unique contribution toward achieving a common vision or goal statement. Supporting this common goal are objectives that have been generated by each of the participants. It is important for each participant to "feel" as though he or she has a significant contribution to make to the achievement of goals. It is also important that each participant be held accountable for contributing to the writing project.

Plagiarism is the act of using someone else's work with an intent to deceive. In academic contexts, the point of the deception is normally to obtain higher marks than you think you would get for your own unaided efforts. There are several ways of going about this. You might decorate your essay with some choice expressions from some other source(s), without making it clear that you have done this. You might take substantial chunks. You might copy from notes or essays written by fellow students or even taken from the Internet. In more extreme cases, students might actually submit work to which they have contributed nothing at all, something that is entirely the work of another mind.

People who do this do it for various motives. A good and ambitious student might do it because s/he desperately wants a very good degree result, and is doubtful if s/he can achieve that on his/her own; or because there is a course in which s/he is relatively weak. A poor student might do it because s/he has been in the pub when s/he ought to have been working and has no work to submit. Sometimes the motives can be very complex. Whatever they are, plagiarism is intellectual dishonesty.

There is of course a very real risk of plagiarism being detected. A student may feel that s/he will get away with downloading material from the Internet and presenting as his/her own work. But it is probably worth noting that if you find it there then the lecturer setting the topic in the first place is also aware of it.

Similarly if you copy a fellow student's work, the chances of it being spotted are very high indeed.

Plagiarism involves the use of ideas, methods or written words of another person or group without acknowledgement of the source, and with the intention of

portraying the work as your own. If you summarise another person's work without acknowledgement, or make minor alterations to a piece of text without quoting the source, you are plagiarising. In the course of academic life plagiarism appears both in the taking of the work of acknowledged scholars as well as the taking of the work of peers, including that of other students. Plagiarism is regarded as a form of theft and fraud and constitutes an academic offence.

No intellectual endeavour is ever absolutely original. Even the most original minds depend on the thoughts and discoveries of their predecessors. And in most intellectual disciplines, students are expected to demonstrate familiarity with the established literature in their field: indeed, this is one of the key competences that you need to demonstrate in most academic fields. Most of the time, you will be citing articles and books that are especially relevant to your enquiry, and making your own contribution to it. That contribution might not be a great one, especially in the early years of a degree programme; but it will, or should, be your own.

Sometimes students can be so weak or under-confident in a subject, again especially early on in their studies, that they really find it difficult to tell what is acceptable borrowing from other sources and what is not. Sometimes, unacceptable degrees of borrowing can occur when a student has not actually intended to engage in unfair practice. For this reason, when a member of the academic staff reads work that s/he suspects is not the unaided work of its supposed author, s/he may not at once notify this to the Chairman of the relevant Examining Board but may discuss it first with the student. University staff will exercise proper academic judgement.

This, they may then think, is not **unfair**, but **bad** practice. They will probably assign an appropriately low mark to the examined element. The most significant part of this is reproduced in the **Students' Examination Handbook**, which you should possess. If a case of plagiarism is established, the penalties can be very severe indeed and can result in your permanent exclusion from the University.

Clearly, however, the most sensible course for a student to pursue, and the course that most students do pursue, is to develop enough academic judgement and self-confidence for them not to be in any danger of such an accusation being made against them. Most students have no wish to gain credit for what they have not themselves contributed, or to gain a qualification that is, even in part, a bogus achievement.

Lecture 14. ACADEMIC PUBLISHING AND ASSEMBLY

Academic publishing describes the subfield of publishing which distributes academic research and scholarship. Most academic work is published in journal article, book or thesis form. The non-commercial part of academic publishing is called grey literature. Much, though not all, academic publishing relies on some form of peer review or editorial refereeing to qualify texts for publication.

Most established academic disciplines have their own journals and other outlets for publication, though many academic journals are somewhat interdisciplinary, and publish work from several distinct fields or subfields. The kinds of publications that are accepted as contributions of knowledge or research vary greatly between fields, as do review and publication processes.

Academic publishing is undergoing major changes, emerging from the transition from the print to the electronic format. Business models are different in the electronic environment. Since the early 1990s, licensing of electronic resources, particularly journals, has been very common. Currently, a major trend, particularly with respect to scholarly journals, is open access via the Internet. There are two main forms of open access: open access publishing, in which the articles or the whole journal is freely available from the time of publication; and self-archiving, where authors make a copy of their own work freely available on the web.

In academic publishing, a **paper** is an academic work that is usually published in an academic journal. It contains original research results or reviews existing results. Such a paper, also called an article, will only be considered valid if it undergoes a process of peer review by one or more *referees* (who are academics in the same field) in order to check that the content of the paper is

suitable for publication in the journal. A paper may undergo a series of reviews, edits and re-submissions before finally being accepted or rejected for publication. Next there is often a delay of many months (or in some subjects, over a year) before publication, particularly for the most popular journals where the number of acceptable articles outnumbers the space for printing. Due to this, many academics offer a 'pre-print' copy of their paper for free download from their personal or institutional website.

Some journals, particularly newer ones, are now published in electronic form only. Paper journals are now generally made available in electronic form as well, both to individual subscribers, and to libraries. Almost always these electronic versions are available to subscribers immediately upon publication of the paper version, or even before.

In academic publishing, a **scientific journal** is a periodical publication intended to further the progress of science, usually by reporting new research. There are thousands of scientific journals in publication, and many more have been published at various points in the past. Most journals are highly specialized, although some of the oldest journals such as *Nature* publish articles and scientific papers across a wide range of scientific fields. Scientific journals contain articles that have been peer reviewed, in an attempt to ensure that articles meet the journal's standards of quality, and scientific validity. Although scientific journals are superficially similar to professional magazines, they are actually quite different. Issues of a scientific journal are rarely read casually, as one would read a magazine. The publication of the results of research is an essential part of the scientific method. If they are describing experiments or calculations, they must supply enough details that an independent researcher could repeat the experiment or calculation to verify the results. Each such journal article becomes part of the permanent scientific record.

An **academic journal** is a peer-reviewed periodical in which scholarship relating to a particular academic discipline is published. Academic journals serve as forums for the introduction and presentation for scrutiny of new research, and the critique of existing research. Content typically takes the form of articles presenting original research, review articles, and book reviews. Academic or professional publications that are not peer-reviewed are usually called *professional magazines*.

The term "academic journal" applies to scholarly publications in all fields; this article discusses the aspects common to all academic field journals. Scientific

journals and journals of the quantitative social sciences vary in form and function from journals of the humanities and qualitative social sciences; their specific aspects are separately discussed. The similar American and British journal publication systems are primarily discussed here; practices differ in other regions of the world.

Peer review (also known as **refereeing**) is the process of subjecting an author's scholarly work, research, or ideas to the scrutiny of others who are experts in the same field. Peer review requires a community of experts in a given (and often narrowly defined) field, who are qualified and able to perform impartial review. Impartial review, especially of work in less narrowly defined or inter-disciplinary fields, may be difficult to accomplish; and the significance (good or bad) of an idea may never be widely appreciated among its contemporaries. Pragmatically, peer review refers to the work done during the screening of submitted manuscripts and funding applications. This process encourages authors to meet the accepted standards of their discipline and prevents the dissemination of irrelevant findings, unwarranted claims, unacceptable interpretations, and personal views. Publications that have not undergone peer review are likely to be regarded with suspicion by scholars and professionals.

Reviewers play an essential part in science and in scholarly publishing. For more than **300 years** , scientists and scholars have relied upon peer review to validate research, engage other specialists in the support of submitted work, and increase networking possibilities within specific specialist communities.

Although in recent years the peer review process has attracted some criticism, it remains the only widely accepted method for research validation and a cornerstone of the scientific publishing process.

Peer review is the process of engaging substantive experts to read and comment on new research in the fields in which they study in order to validate and certify that research.

Peer review is an essential dividing line for judging what is scientific and what is speculation. The process screens article submissions and requires that authors meet the standards of their discipline and achieve scientific objectivity. This means that science is more than just another opinion.

Seminar is, generally, a form of academic instruction, either at a university or offered by a commercial or professional organization. It has the function of bringing together small groups for recurring meetings, focusing each time on some particular subject, in which everyone present is requested to actively

participate. This is often accomplished through an ongoing Socratic dialogue with a seminar leader or instructor, or through a more formal presentation of research. Normally, participants must not be beginners in the field under discussion (at US universities, seminar classes are generally reserved for upper-class students, although at UK and Australian universities seminars are often used for all years). The idea behind the seminar system is to familiarize students more extensively with the methodology of their chosen subject and also to allow them to interact with examples of the practical problems that always occur during research work. It is essentially a place where assigned readings are discussed, questions can be raised and debates can be conducted. It is relatively informal, at least compared to the lecture system of academic instruction.

In some European universities, a *seminar* may be a large lecture course, especially when conducted by a renowned thinker (regardless of the size of the audience or the scope of student participation in discussion). Some non-English speaking countries in Europe use the word *seminar* (e.g., German *Seminar*, Slovenian *seminar*, etc.) to refer to a university class that includes a term paper or project, as opposed to a lecture class (i.e., German *Vorlesung*, Slovenian *predavanje*, etc.). This does not correspond to English use of the term.

Increasingly, the term "seminar" is used to describe a commercial event (though sometimes free to attend) where delegates are given information and instruction in a subject such as property investing, other types of investing, Internet marketing, self-improvement or a wide range of topics, by experts in that field.

An **academic conference** is a conference for researchers (not always academics) to present and discuss their work. Together with academic or scientific journals, conferences provide an important channel for exchange of information between researchers.

A **professional conference** is a meeting of professionals in a given subject or profession, dealing with organizational matters, matters concerning the status of the profession, and scientific or technical developments. It differs from an academic conference in having broader goals, and usually a much broader attendance. they are normally sponsored by the professional society in the field, and usually are organized on a national basis.

Some are international, usually organized by federations or groups of the national societies in a subject, such as the conferences held by the International Federation of Library Associations (IFLA).

Some are local, normally by state, province, or other local sections of a national body.

They are often held annually, or on some other recurring basis. Some of the largest societies hold more than one a year.

Others are held as a one time event, and are usually devoted to a specific topic.

A **congress** is a formal meeting of representatives from different countries (or by extension constituent states), or independent organizations (such as different trade unions).

Congress is an alternative name for a large national or international academic conference.

Such as ***World Congress on Men's Health and Gender*** * *WCMH*, a biennial meeting for Men's Health with a multidisciplinary approach from urology, oncology, cardiology, endocrinology, occupational medicine to psychiatry and beyond.

Symposium originally referred to a drinking party (the Greek verb *sympotein* means "to drink together") but has since come to refer to any academic conference, or a style of university class characterized by an openly discursive format, rather than a lecture and question–answer format. The sympotic elegies of Theognis of Megara and two Socratic dialogues, Plato's *Symposium* and Xenophon's *Symposium* all describe symposia in the original sense.

SEMINARS

Seminar 1

English Academic Style and Language

Plan

1. Academic writing as a special skill.
2. Strategies of English academic writing for non-native speakers.
3. Features of formal academic writing.
4. Cautious manner of writing.

Exercise 1.

Rewrite the following texts to make them more cautious:

1. Numerically, there are more private limited companies in the UK than there are public ones.
2. Such developments and their effects become important for social work, within the values and ethics which qualified and registered social workers now have to adhere to, as set out in the Social Care Council's Code of Practice.
3. One of the most salient perceptual features of infant development is the gradual shift in preference from simple stimuli to patterned ones.
4. The marketing information system serves the company's marketing and other managers.

Exercise 2

Rewrite the following paragraphs in a more academic style.

I would call Wagner a subjective artist. What I mean is that his art had its source in his personality; his work was virtually independent, I always feel, of the epoch in which he lived.

On the other hand, I always consider Bach an objective artist. You can see that he worked only with the forms and ideas that his time proffered him. I do not think he felt any inner compulsion to open out new paths.

Exercise 3

Identify the hedging expressions in the following sentences:

1. There is no difficulty in explaining how a structure such as an eye or a feather contributes to survival and reproduction; the difficulty is in thinking of a series of steps by which it could have arisen.
2. For example, it is possible to see that in January this person weighed 60.8 kg for eight days.
3. For example, it may be necessary for the spider to leave the branch on which it is standing, climb up the stem, and walk out along another branch.
4. Escherichia coli, when found in conjunction with urethritis, often indicate infection higher in the uro-genital tract.
5. There is experimental work to show that a week or ten days may not be long enough and a fortnight to three weeks is probably the best theoretical period.
6. Conceivably, different forms, changing at different rates and showing contrasting combinations of characteristics, were present in different areas.
7. One possibility is that generalized latent inhibition is likely to be weaker than that produced by pre-exposure to the CS itself and thus is more likely to be susceptible to the effect of the long interval.
8. For our present purpose, it is useful to distinguish two kinds of chemical reaction, according to whether the reaction releases energy or requires it.
9. It appears to establish three categories: the first contains wordings generally agreed to be acceptable, the second wordings which appear to have been at some time problematic but are now acceptable, and the third wordings which remain inadmissible.

Seminars 2-3

English Academic Vocabulary, Grammar, and Punctuation

1. Peculiarities of academic vocabulary. Verbs.
2. Terms, collocations, logical connectors.
3. Words of Latin and Greek origin.
4. New lexical tendencies in English.
5. Peculiarities of academic grammar.
6. Rules of punctuation. The use of comma.
7. Colon and semicolon. Dash.

Exercise 1.

Choose the most suitable logical connector out of the two given in each sentence.

Writing is a difficult skill for native speakers and nonnative speakers (*alike/accordingly*), (*thus/because*) writers balance multiple issues such as content, organization, purpose, audience, vocabulary, punctuation, spelling, and mechanics such as capitalization. Writing is especially difficult for nonnative speakers (*because/even though*) they are expected to create written products that demonstrate mastery of all the above elements in a new language. (*In contrast/in addition*), writing has been taught for many years as a product rather than a process. (*Therefore/moreover*), teachers emphasize grammar and punctuation rather than decisions about the content and organization of ideas.

Exercise 2.

Use a more formal word or phrase to replace those in bold.

1. The reaction of the officials was **sort of** negative.
2. The economic outlook is **nice**.
3. Car manufacturers are planning a **get together** to discuss their strategy.
4. The resulting competition between countries is **good**.
5. The economy is affected by **things** that happen outside the country.
6. She was **given the sack** because of her poor record.
7. The examination results were **super**.

Exercise 3.

Replace the following phrasal verbs with a more formal single word.

1. The locals could not **put up with** the visitors from the city.
2. The decline was **brought about** by cheap imports.
3. The university is **thinking about** installing CCTV.
4. Sales are likely to **drop off** in the third quarter.
5. He **went on** speaking for over an hour.
6. The meeting was **put off** until December.
7. The cinema was **pulled down** ten years ago.
8. People have **cut down** on their consumption of beef

Exercise 4.

Identify the sentences with a mistake and correct it:

1. A number of U.S. lecturers comes to our University next week.
2. Critically he studied the article on transgenic food products.
3. As the annual report of the Mesa Garden states, these cactuses grow exclusively in the northern parts of Mexico.
4. Either the journalist of the witness know the truth about this mysterious event.
5. Elaborated will be in this paper the model of corrosive destruction of metals under paint coatings.
6. The premises of the library is cleaned every day.
7. Bile acids contains significant amounts of cholesterol.
8. In no case the work on the project will be terminated.
9. Neither the doctor nor the patient wants to continue treatment.
10. Nuclear arms is extremely dangerous

Exercise 5.

Use the verbs below instead of the phrasal verbs in the sentences.
Remember to change the verb into the correct tense.

postpone establish raise fluctuate investigate reduce deceive intervene maintain acquire

1. The research team tried to find out the truth.
2. The project managed to get hold of a new scanner.
3. His discovery enabled school heads to cut down on the time lost between classes.

4. When the team looked looking into the problem, they found that it was much more complex than they had first thought.
5. The levels go up and down as a result of the pressure changes.
6. The government put off a decision until they had heard the report.
7. The inspector was taken in by the apparent calm in the building.
8. The solicitor made out that his client was unfairly accused.
9. This issue was brought up during the seminar.
10. It is assumed that the management knows what is happening and will therefore step in if there is a problem

Exercise 6.

Which of the two alternatives in bold do you think is more appropriate in academic writing?

1. The government has made **considerable/great** progress in solving the problem.
2. We **got/obtained** excellent results in the experiment.
3. The results of **lots of/numerous** tests have been pretty good/encouraging.
4. A loss of jobs is one of the **consequences/things that will happen** if the process is automated.
5. The relationship between the management and workers is **extremely/really** important.
6. Some suggestions **springing up from/arising from** the study will be presented.

Exercise 7.

***Find alternatives for the sexist expressions in these sentences*:**

1. A researcher in this area is likely to experience difficulties and he may meet resistance.
2. It is clear that businessmen have to address the issue of computer crime far more seriously.
3. The authoress arrived on time for the presentation.
4. There is no doubt that men and women, as well as boys and girls, found the experience of travelling in Japan to be highly educational.
5. I now pronounce you man and wife!
6. The woman told the researcher that she had five girls working in the typing pool and three men in the store-room.

7. As Tickling (2008) has shown, Man was far better equipped to cope with the extremes of temperature than was first thought.
8. A recent economic survey (Openheimer, 2020) indicated that housewives responded far more rapidly than expected to price changes.
9. With the recent fall in prices and the rapid technological developments, a consumer is more likely to change his computer within three years.
10. The Kariba Dam is one of the largest man-made structures in Africa.

Exercise 8.

Insert commas where necessary*:*

1. A machine which is used to record seismic waves is a seismometer.
2. An online dictionary is useful for a student who needs to quickly check the meaning of unfamiliar words.
3. In many countries around the world the dominant culture sets the standards and norms for day-to-day living.
4. The dominant culture sets the standards and norms for day-to-day living in many countries around the world.
5. He returned to the laboratory and started the experiment again.
6. For example 148 million people worldwide are communicating across borders via the Internet.
7. The most common subjects related to diversity center around race colour gender religion and economic status.
8. On a job application one must write his/her last name first, e.g.: Roberts David.
9. However real language does not consist solely of questions from one party and answers from another.
10. According to Young (2006) depression can be thought of as a “natural” response to stress.

Seminar 4

Elements of Academic Texts

Plan

1. Paragraph division. Indentation. Topic sentence.
2. Academic names.
3. Titles structuring.
4. References.
5. Acknowledgements.

Exercise 1.

Underline the topic sentence.

1. My mother is neither tall nor heavy, but she's the biggest person in my life. There has been no other person with a greater influence on me. Most mothers feed, wash, and clothe their children, and my mother is no exception. But more than this, she made sure that I received the finest education possible. This education was not at expensive schools or famous universities, but at home, by her knee, patiently. My mother explained to me the difference between right and wrong; the virtues of generosity, honesty, and hard work; and the importance of family and social ties. From her I understood who I was, where I belonged, and how I should spend my energies. No matter how big I might grow to be, I hope to be as great as my mother.

2. The process of creating the barbecue is even more fun and important than the result. First, the family has to decide on matters such as exactly what kinds of food and in what quantities. Next, shopping is often done by two or more family members, while the others stay at home to prepare the grill, the table, and the tableware. When everyone is ready to start grilling, the smells from the roasting food and the sound of the crackling coals make everyone super hungry. A constant stream of people and dishes floods out from the kitchen onto the backyard table, just like ants finding and saving their food. Finally, when all the food is ready and the cold drinks have been poured, a barbecue symbolizes summer itself.

3. In this modern world with faster means of transportation available to more people, the train nevertheless continues to be popular. In most countries, train tickets are often sold out. Why do so many people want to take the train?

Perhaps it is because they are reasonably priced – cheaper than an airplane – and have large windows from which we can comfortably view the passing world. Maybe trains are popular because they never get stuck in traffic jams, as cars and buses often do. Another reason may be that trains are older and sometimes seem a little romantic. For whatever reason, do not be surprised to see people preferring trains to other modes of transportation far into the future.

Exercise 2.

Use the supporting ideas to create topic sentence:

1. .....

One reason is that it can help you get into college. Another reason is that it can help you get a job. Finally, graduating from high school can help you earn more money.

2. .....

To get the best deal on a new smart phone, it is important to compare prices from different retailers. Another factor to consider is the phone's features and how they fit your needs. Finally, think about convenience factors like the phone's size or battery life.

3. .....

First, you need to come up with an idea for a product. Second, you need to research your idea to make sure it is feasible. Third, you need to create a prototype of your product.

4. …….

The market is full of vibrant colors, delicious smells, and interesting people. It's the perfect place to find unique gifts and try new foods. The market is always bustling with energy and life.

5. ……

It could help me feel more confident in my appearance. It could help me look more like how I feel on the inside. It could help me to correct a physical feature that I have always been self-conscious about.

6. ……

I was on vacation with my family in Thailand when the tsunami hit. We were all caught in the water and swept away by the current. Somehow, I managed to grab onto a tree and hold on until the water receded.

Exercise 3.

Suggest all possible types of titles to the given texts:

A. Like so many materials in Japan, paper too has come in for many hundreds of years of artistic consideration. At one period of the country's history, the paper on which a poem was written was as important as the poem itself. A thousand years ago there were whole towns actively engaged in making paper. Such towns still exist, but there were also farming villages which then, as they do today, made paper to earn extra income during the winter. At present, about half of Japan's farmers must add to their incomes with winter jobs. Although a large amount of winter employment is provided by construction companies, some farmers continue to work at such cottage industries as paper-making.

The farmer who makes paper may interrupt his work at any point to perform other jobs in the home and the fields. For both farmer and professional, sun, wind, and running water are necessary. And because nature is not always reliable, it too may interrupt the process of paper-making. These factors cause, day by day, month by month, and year by year, the small variations in colour and quality of handmade paper. A keen sensitivity to the small differences of weather, growing cycles, purity of water, quality of plants, duration of a snowfall, and temperature is required. This is learnt over many years of living close to nature.

The romantic ideas associated with paper become less when one realizes the amount of demanding physical work that goes into its making. Much of the paper-maker's time is spent outdoors in the snow. Putting up with the cold is the most difficult but not the only cause of suffering. The paper-maker works long hours, about ten a day, with hands in icy water, taking no vacations, and making just enough money to exist on. Constant reminders of the results of this work are sore hands, painful wounds, and stiffness and swelling that lasts all year round. The paper-maker who continues to work under these circumstances may be likened to an artist who in search of art doesn't pay any attention to hard conditions. It takes ten years to learn this art, and today it is largely practised by women, for the men of the paper-making family handle the business matters.

B. Jack, an old sailor who had spent many years in the Navy, was walking along a country road when he came to farm-house. The farmer was standing at the door and Jack said, “I have been walking all day looking for work. Will you give me a job?”

“Have you ever done any farm-work?” said the farmer.

“No,” said Jack. “I have been a sailor all my life, but I will do any job you like to give me.”

“All right,” said the farmer. “I’ll give you a chance. Do you see that flock of sheep scattered over the hillside?”

“Yes,” answered Jack.

“Well,” said the farmer. “Get them all through that gate and into the yard.”

“Right,” said Jack. “I’ll do that.”

About an hour later the farmer went to the yard. Jack was leaning on the gate wiping his forehead.

“Did you get them all in?” said the farmer.

“Yes,” said Jack. The farmer looked and sure enough all the sheep were gathered in the yard and the gate was shut. And then the farmer saw a hare running round among the sheep. The sailor saw what he was looking at.

“Yes,” he said, “that little fellow there gave me more trouble than all the rest put together.”

Exercise 4.

Can you find the fragments in these examples? Correct the fragments either by adding to the sentence it is linked with or by making the fragment into an independent clause:

1. A Black Widow spider is one of the most venomous creatures in the world and one bite can kill a child. Or even a large adult.
2. A larger percentage of the population is now following a first-degree course than ever before. Despite the cost.
3. Today many people are returning to education after some years of working. Many of them find it difficult. Because they have been away from an educational environment for some years.
4. The invaders regarded themselves as superior. While other groups were seen as inferior. The invaders maintained their power by their cruelty and repressive laws.

5. This paper will consider two groups. The Arakaw Indians and the African slaves. The former were the original inhabitants while the latter were brought in by the plantation owners.
6. The essay will examine why slaves were introduced into the islands. Firstly, by the Spanish later by the British.

Seminar 5

English Academic Genres. Summary

Plan

1. Summary definitions.
2. Summary requirements.
3. Summary structuring.

Exercise 1.

Look at the following extracts from reading texts. Match them to paraphrased sentences which have the same meaning.

1. Keeping your house cool or warm, driving cars and making things in factories all pollute the atmosphere.	a. When the weather changes, animals can't find water & food easily.
1. This affects the world weather and makes it difficult for animals to find food and fresh water.	b. Pollution comes from cars, factories, heating & air conditioning.
2. Humans take away animal's homes and their food by farming, when they cut down trees for wood, and when they look for oil.	c. Cutting down trees and looking for oil damages animals' homes & takes away their food.

Paraphrasing can be done in different ways. Find examples of the following in sentences a – c

- *Using a synonym or a word with a similar meaning*
- *Using different grammar*
- *Changing around the order of the sentence*

Exercise 2.

***Write a summary to one of the texts* (See Supplement C).**

Seminars 6-7

Research Paper

Plan

1. Research paper as an academic genre.
2. Introduction of the research paper.
3. Methods section.
4. Results and discussion.
5. Conclusions. References.

Exercise 1.

Make the sentence below more readable by dividing it up into shorter sentences.

Using four different methodologies, previously used in the literature in separate contexts (i.e. anthropology, biology, physics and soil sciences), each of which gave contradictory results, in this study, the meaning of life, as seen through the perspective of a typical inhabitant of western Europe, was investigated, confirming previous research (Smith et al, 2013) indicating that, as a general rule, we understand absolutely nothing.

Exercise 2.

Find the redundant word and delete it, as in first sentence.

1. One suitable **method** is to separate the men from the women.
2. Dynamism and velocity are typical characteristics of this species.
3. Their head office is located in London.
4. If there is water present in the system, this may cause rust.
5. The results obtained highlight that x = y.
6. We have made an advance plan for the project.
7. As we have already noted in Section 4.2.1, the presence of x can influence y.
8. However, we have to make use of other techniques.
9. Paint samples, as described previously, normally contain mixtures of different substances.
10. In comparative terms, there is no real difference between x and y.
11. Also, we present simulation results that will provide a two-fold contribution: (i) confirm the effectiveness of ..., and (ii) highlight the importance of ...
12. The document was written in the English language and the contents represent a new innovation in the sector of telecommunications.

Exercise 3.

Arrange the tips of the writing process in the right order. Explain your reasoning.

1. Write the experimental section first.
2. Critical editing.
3. Work from an outline.
4. Get started and avoid procrastination.
5. Add references.
6. Write the conclusions.
7. Write the results and discussions.
8. Write the introduction.
9. Revise and proofread.
10. Choose a topic, select a title.

Exercise 4.

***Contradict the common myths about a research paper anf the process of writing it. Express your idea about the statements*:**

1. A research paper must be perfect, the first time.
2. A research paper requires me to know exactly what I think before I even start writing.
3. A text of a research paper emerges spontaneously because of inspiration.
4. The process of writing a research paper should proceed quickly and effortlessly.
5. A research paper comes from extensive training or an innate “gift”.
6. Writing a research paper requires large blocks of time.
7. The process of writing a research paper must be all consuming – you should devote all your time and attention to your writing.

Exercise 5.

Analyze sections of a research paper (Supplement E) and compare the two samples.

Seminars 8-9

Research Paper Abstract. Conference Abstract

Plan

1. Research paper abstract.
2. Informative, indicative abstracts.
3. Conference abstract. Definitions and structuring.
4. Abstracts submitting.

Exercise 1.

Read this abstract about batteries in cell phones. Why is it a bad Abstract?	***Read this revised abstract. Why is it better?***
In the last few years 4G cellular batteries have become increasingly popular in the telecommunications and computer industries. Many authors have studied the various features of such batteries and noted that the lifetime of a 4G cellular battery, in particular those used in the most recent generations of mobile phones, may be subject to the number of times the battery is recharged and how long it is charged for. In addition, it has been found that there is no adequate analytical model to predict this lifetime. Such an accurate model is necessary in order for producers and consumers alike to be able to predict how long the batteries will last and also, in some cases, how they can be recycled. In this work, an analytical model is developed which describes the relationship between the number of times a battery is recharged, the length of time of each individual recharge, and the duration of the battery.	The lifetime of a 4G cellular phone battery may be subject to the number of times the battery is recharged and how long it is charged for. To date, there has not been an adequate analytical model to predict this lifetime. In this work, an analytical model is developed which describes the relationship between the number of times a battery is recharged, the length of time of each individual recharge, and the duration of the battery. This model has been validated by comparison with both experimental measurements and finite element analyses, and shows strong agreement for all three parameters. The results for the proposed model are more accurate than results for previous analytical models reported in the literature for 4G cell phones. The new model can be used to design longer lasting batteries. It can also lead towards further models that can predict battery failure. (145 words)/

Exercise 2.

Read these opening sentences. What discipline/s do these abstracts 'belong' to?

Remember, some papers are written by multidisciplinary teams.

Abstract opening sentence	Discipline / field
1. This paper compares operational efficiency of major cargo airports in the Asia Pacific region.	
2. Physical unclonable functions (PUFs) are increasingly used for authentication and identification applications as well as the cryptographic key generation.	
3. This paper documents the behaviour of corporate treasurers who are involved in the decision-making process in the areas of cash, inventory, accounts receivable…	
4. In Australia, laments for the dearth of Australian literature in secondary school and university contexts have frequently surfaced in public debate, yet there has been less attention paid to student perspectives.	

Exercise 3.

Read the abstract below. Suggest key words for the abstract (7-8):

The present study experimentally investigated the effect of Facebook usage on women's mood and body image, whether these effects differ from an online fashion magazine, and whether appearance comparison tendency moderates any of these effects. Female participants (N = 112) were randomly assigned to spend 10 min browsing their Facebook account, a magazine website, or an appearance-neutral control website before completing state measures of mood, body dissatisfaction, and appearance discrepancies (weight-related, and face, hair, and skin-related). Participants also completed a trait measure of appearance comparison tendency. Participants who spent time on Facebook reported being in a more negative mood than those who spent time on the control website. Furthermore, women high in appearance comparison tendency reported more facial, hair, and skin-related discrepancies after Facebook exposure than exposure to the control website. Given its popularity, more research is needed to better understand the impact that Facebook has on appearance concerns.

Exercise 4.

The essay below has a number of problems with academic style. Identify and underline the errors. Then, compare the issues you underlined with a partner.

The world is currently facing a terrible and growing problem with wealth inequality. Over the past 40 years, the gap between the earnings for the bottom twenty per cent of the American population and the top one per cent jumped up by more than 10 times. This has in, recent years, contributed to social and political instability, and one frequently talked about fix is to bring in a basic universal income. In my opinion, there are two convincing arguments for launching basic universal income programs.

Universal basic income will certainly mitigate the disruption that's predicted to result from increased automation in the economy. How will this be so? By some estimates, the number of job losses caused by artificial intelligence could be in the hundreds of millions globally. Although we also expect that artificial intelligence will create demand for new jobs, many workers don't have the required skills that'll be needed. Universal basic income will not only support people financially in the wake of mass firings, but it'll also allow them to invest time in retraining to get the skills that will be valued in the new economy. I

In addition to softening the move toward more automation, universal basic income can be good for the economy. A significant increase in unemployment has a bad effect on the demand for goods and services, which would put many current businesses at risk and lead to further job losses. Universal basic income could help keep enough demand in the economy to protect businesses and jobs. Moreover, with no income, people are often forced to borrow money to make ends meet, which results in an increase in private debt. As we all know, rising private debt has been an important factor in many financial crises of the past century. At the end of the day, introducing universal basic income will be great. It may help us minimize or avoid some of the consequences of future technological disruption and protect the economy.

Universal basic income may also change the way countries deal with social welfare.

Exercise 5.

Translate one of the abstracts into English. Follow the strategies of English academic writing **(See Supplement J).**

Seminar 10

Letters. Types and Techniques of Writing

Plan

1. Request letters.
2. Submission letters.
3. Letters of recommendation (generic, specific).
4. Structure and linguistic peruliarities of letters in academic communication.

Exercise 1.

Underline in the letter more formal ways of saying:

1) to ask about
2) mum and dad
3) we don't want to
4) it would be good if
5) tell me about
6) make clear
7) getting your answer
8) soon

Dear Sir,

I am writing to enquire about the possibility of renting Hillside Cottage for three weeks in the summer.

I will be travelling to the Lake District with parents and brother. We plan to arrive in London on 14 July, but do not wish to hire a car. I would be grateful if you could inform me of the best way to reach the cottage by public transport.

Although the advertisement states that the cottage has two bedrooms, it is not clear whether the second room is large enough for two people to share. I wonder if you could clarify this point.

Finally, I would like to know what leisure activities are available in the area surrounding the cottage. We are particularly interested in house riding.

I look forward to receiving your reply in due course.

Yours sincerely,

Tom Baker

Exercise 2.

You are helping to organise a charity week for your college. You want to invite someone who will give an inspiring talk to the students. Write a letter to the president of a local charity organisation, and suggest what topics the talk should over.

Dear Sir or Madam,

I am writing to invite you or one of your members to speak to students during our college charity week.

Our college is organising a week next term when all the students will do something for charity. We would like to raise as much money as possible. In wonder whether someone from your organisation would ***1*** *consider making a speech to the college on this topic?* ***2*** *In my view, it would really* ***3*** *benefit us all to have someone inspire us before we take on this challenge.*

I am sure you have your own thoughts on what it would be useful to cover. However, in addition to your own ideas, I would ***4*** *recommend including some advice on how to organise ourselves efficiently. In addition, it would be interesting to know which particular activities and events might be the most successful for raising money. Furthermore, we would appreciate some information on the best ways to advertise what we are doing. Finally, perhaps you could talk to us about the work of your charity. It would be inspiring to hear about how your organisation has* ***5*** *contributed to society and made a difference to people's lives.*

I hope you will consider my request to talk at our college about raising money for charity. ***6*** *I look forward to hearing from you* ***7*** *at your earliest convenience.*

Yours faithfully,

Chris Adams

Match the underlined formal expressions in the letter with the informal ones below:

as soon as possible be good for I can't wait to hear
given suggest I think think about talking

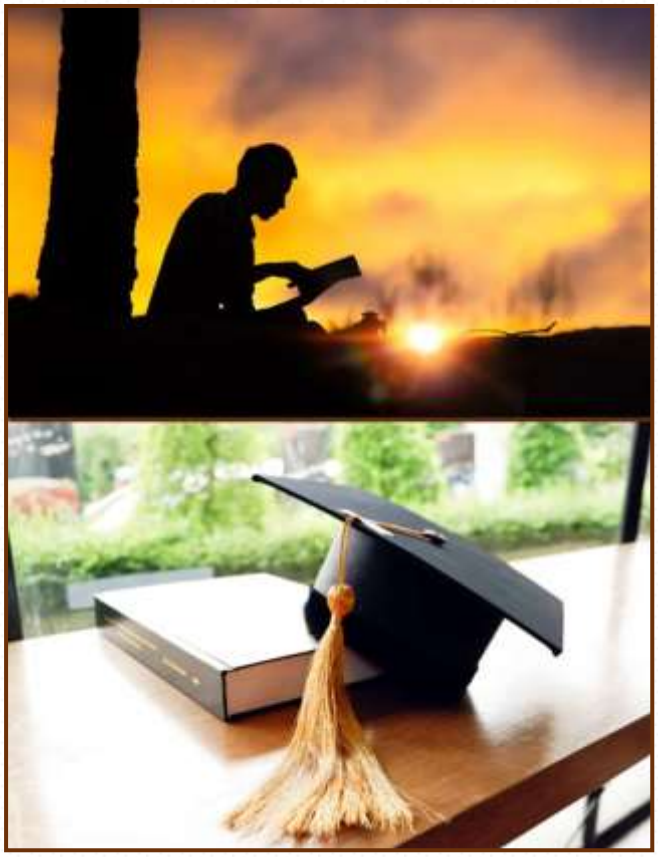
Match the underlined informal parts of sentences 1-8 with formal phrases a-h

1 I am writing to give you my ideas on our project. **2** Our college recycling week is happening next month. **3** I want to tell you which topics should be covered. **4** My reason are these. **5** I hope you like my ideas. **6** I think a talk from you would be very motivating. **7** I'd like it if you would consider my request. **8** Please write back soon.	**a** as follows **b** consider my recommendations favourably **c** takes place **d** put forward **e** I look forward to hearing from you **f** would like to suggest **g** I would be grateful **h** In my view

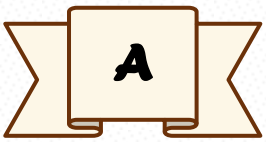
Exercise 3.

1. Write a recommendation letter to a client (clients) recommending a summer language school for non-native English-speaking teenagers. Describe the courses available and benefits of receiving a certificate. Include other details the applicants may look out for.

2. Write a letter 1) requesting a copy of an official document or 2) requesting assistance or cooperation in some educational program.



SUPPLEMENT



Lakoff, George and Johnson, Mark

Metaphors We Live By

Summary

In this book written for the layman, linguist George Lakoff and philosopher Mark Johnson cogently argue that metaphor is integral, not peripheral to language and understanding. Furthermore, “metaphor is pervasive in everyday life, not just in language but in thought and action. Our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature” (p. 3).

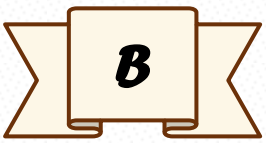
The authors adopt a broad definition of metaphor, examine common phrases for metaphorical interpretation, and offer a classification system of metaphor. For example, orientational metaphors are found in our ordinary language and are part of the spatial organization of our lives. When one says, “He dropped dead” or “He’s at the peak of health”, one is using the orientational metaphor that we live by: “Health and life are up; sickness and death are down”. This orientation is not arbitrary; the authors point out that one lies down when one is ill.

Other types of metaphors categorized by the authors are structural and ontological (e.g., making a non-entity into an entity: “We need to combat inflation”, or setting a boundary on a non-entity: “He’s coming out of the coma”). The authors also differentiate metaphor from other figures of speech, such as metonymy, which relies more completely on substitution: “The ham sandwich wants his check”.

The second half of the book addresses issues more philosophical in nature, such as theories of truth and how we understand the world, including the “myths” of “objectivism”, “subjectivism”, and “experientialism”. These theories are

reviewed with metaphor in mind. For example, objectivism relies on the separation of man from the environment and the subsequent mastery over the environment. Hence objectivism is rife with metaphors which confirm such ideas as “knowledge is power”.

The authors conclude by stating that metaphors provide “the only ways to perceive and experience much of the world. Metaphor is as much a part of out functioning as our sense of touch, and as precious”.



Dropping The Sat?

By George Will

WASHINGTON – God, it has been said, is less exacting than General Motors because He floods the world with factory rejects. Because mankind is flawed, and because the United States has decided that as many people as possible – an extremely elastic concept, “possible'”– should go to college, the Scholastic Aptitude Test, now known as the SAT, has been central to the college admissions process at the most prestigious schools.

Richard Atkinson, president of the University of California, wants his university to drop the SAT, partly to improve the student body's racial and ethnic diversity. However, in any society, be it Periclean Athens or Elizabethan England or modern America, the question is not whether elites shall prevail, but which elites shall prevail. So something must perform the predictive function assigned to the SAT.

The modern, democratic ideal was pithily expressed by the modern but undemocratic Napoleon – ``careers open to talents.'' In the 1950s that ideal led two unlikely subversives, Harvard's President James B.Conant and a Harvard administrator, Henry Chauncy, to seek an aptitude test of verbal and quantitative reasoning to shatter the grip that an elite of inherited wealth had on elite institutions. In 1946 there were 2.4 million students on four-year campuses.

That number grew slowly through 1960, when there were 3.2 million. Then came the explosion: by 1970 there were 7.5 million. Today there are 9.3 million.

The problem of sorting through such numbers, and connecting colleges with suitable talents, is complicated because America does not have, and probably should not have, a uniform national achievement test for high school seniors. That would require something else America does not have, and probably should not have, a national curriculum.

The vast majority of America's 2,300 four-year post-secondary schools have, in effect, open admissions: If you have a pulse and a high school diploma, you can attend. So the SAT controversy is primarily important only to the minority of high-school high achievers seeking admission to the small minority of highly selective institutions.

The problem around which educators tip-toe is that the SAT, which became a mass experience during the civil rights revolution of the 1960s, quickly made affirmative action in college admissions simultaneously "necessary" and embarrassing. By purporting to measure intellectual merit, the SAT served equality of opportunity – but the result was opportunity from which not all racial and ethnic groups benefited equally. The idea that the SAT, or aptitude tests generally, injure the economically or culturally marginal is refuted by the success of poor Asian immigrants using the SAT to scale the ramparts of Atkinson's university.

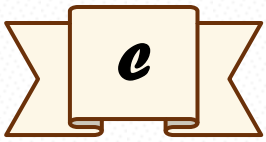
Of course, today most Asian-Americans are neither immigrants nor poor. Indeed, they rank above the California average in income, partly because they are also above average in education, which is partly because careers were opened to them by the SAT. They are 12 percent of California's population, but 45 percent of Berkeley's and 41 percent of UCLA's student bodies, so, in the ugly language of "ace-conscious" government, they are "overrepresented".

Abandoning the SAT at the University of California would injure Asian-Americans. Given the political dissatisfaction with the "diversity" results of current admissions procedures, perhaps one desires to do just that. Colleges can say they will focus on achievement rather than aptitude by treating alike all students graduating in, say, the top 10 percent of their high school classes. But this route to diversity requires colleges to embrace the obvious fiction that all high schools are equally demanding.

The SAT is faulted for increasing high school students' "stress". But that means the SAT is an effective incentive for diligence in high school – an invaluable incentive, given that the undemanding nature of most college admissions policies encourages high schoolers' sloth. The SAT is faulted for

injuring some students' “self-esteem”. But if the SAT does not deliver sobering news, reality eventually will. And dispelling ``self-esteem'' is often a prerequisite for self-improvement.

A meritocratic society, especially one committed to mass access to higher education, needs – if higher education really is going to be significantly higher than secondary education – some generally accepted means of making millions of annual assessments more objective than those of the family pet, and roughly predictive of ability to perform well in particular colleges. Asked to share the best prayer he had ever heard, a parishioner recited this: “Dear God, please help me be the person my dog thinks I am”. The SAT, or the next permutation of it, must perform the thankless task of telling people how far short of that they fall.



Write a summary to the text:

I. Metaphor and War: The Metaphor System Used to Justify War in the Gulf (Part 1 of 2)

George Lakoff, Linguistics Department, UC Berkeley

Metaphors can kill. The discourse over whether to go to war in the gulf was a panorama of metaphor. Secretary of State Baker saw Saddam Hussein as "sitting on our economic lifeline." President Bush portrayed him as having a "stranglehold" on our economy. General Schwarzkopf characterized the occupation of Kuwait as a "rape" that was ongoing. The President said that the US was in the gulf to "protect freedom, protect our future, and protect the innocent", and that we had to "push Saddam Hussein back." Saddam Hussein was painted as a Hitler. It is vital, literally vital, to understand just what role metaphorical thought played in bringing us in this war.

Metaphorical thought, in itself, is neither good nor bad; it is simply commonplace and inescapable. Abstractions and enormously complex situations are routinely understood via metaphor. Indeed, there is an extensive, and mostly unconscious, system of metaphor that we use automatically and unreflectively to understand complexities and abstractions. Part of this system is devoted to understanding international relations and war. We now know enough about this system to have an idea of how it functions.

The metaphorical understanding of a situation functions in two parts. First, there is a widespread, relatively fixed set of metaphors that structure how we think. For example, a decision to go to war might be seen as a form of cost-benefit analysis, where war is justified when the costs of going to war are less than the costs of not going to war. Second, there is a set of metaphorical definitions that allow one to apply such a metaphor to a particular situation. In this case, there must be a definition of "cost", including a means of comparing relative "costs". The use of a metaphor with a set of definitions becomes pernicious when it hides realities in a harmful way.

It is important to distinguish what is metaphorical from what is not. Pain, dismemberment, death, starvation, and the death and injury of loved ones are not metaphorical. They are real and in this war, they could afflict hundreds of thousands of real human beings, whether Iraqi, Kuwaiti, or American.

II. Politically Correct Language and the Power of Rhetoric

Lonny Harisson

It is difficult to understand the concept of political correctness if you do not live in a country where it is a primary concern. In those places where the democratizing – or tyrannizing, depending on your point of view – influence of political correctness has taken hold, its effects on language and everyday life are profound.

It is important for any student of English – the language which has proved to be the most fertile ground for the growth of linguistic political correctness – to understand this critically important yet sometimes frustratingly confusing phenomenon**.**

The impetus behind political correctness (PC) is, in truth, very humanitarian and democratic. In any social organization, there are dominant groups and minority groups. Existing power structures usually strive to keep the dominant groups in power and subordinate minority groups. The means of coercion used are subtle – they are embedded in the very fiber of society, woven into the fabric of cultural tradition. The systems which keep power structures intact are therefore often very hard to see, and harder still to change.

From a historical perspective, PC is only a very recent phenomenon – but it is one that challenges the very foundations of Western Civilisation. In simple terms, PC aims to challenge those traditional structures which tend to distribute wealth and power unjustly.

To disclose the full implications of such a radical thing as PC would be impossible in a brief introduction to the topic. The battlegrounds of PC are very wide-ranging: they cover government policy, gender relations, worker-employer relations, racial discrimination, the interpretation and writing of history, and many, many more fundamental aspects of modern society. Rather than make a superficial overview of this entire spectrum, let us take a closer look at one of the areas in which PC has arguably made its most important inroads: language.

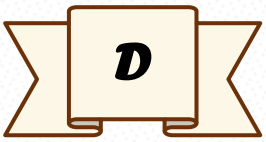
One of those mentioned above means by which dominant groups preserve their positions of power is rhetoric. Rhetoric is the use of language as an instrument of persuasion. Although we do not usually realize it in our day-to-day interactions, the very names we assign to things, people, activities, etc, are sometimes charged with rhetorical force. In other words, language is seldom neutral, and its impact is most often underestimated. The point is that, historically speaking, words and language play a primary role in the construction and deconstruction of social hierarchies. They define the dynamics of power relations and their legitimacy simply through the labels they give to them.

PC as it is manifest in language has the aim of changing these labels to achieve a more democratic – or, because that word has taken on some very negative connotations, we might rather say egalitarian – balance in the organization of society. Thus, PC language is language that does not unjustly place any group above another, or in short, does not discriminate against any group of people.

Let us take some examples. We no longer say "policeman" because it is a gender-specific word. As we know, there are not only men, but also many women

in the police force. The appropriate PC word, therefore, is "police officer". Another example: it is considered politically incorrect to say "Indian" to describe the native peoples of North America because this name was given to them erroneously. When Christopher Columbus discovered the North American continent, he thought he had reached the West Indies and therefore called the inhabitants of the land "Indians". Because of the gruesome treatment these people faced at the lands of the conquering Europeans and the discrimination endured in subsequent years, it is understandable that the label "Indians" is offensive. Thus, it is now considered more proper to say "Native Americans" or "First Nations" people.

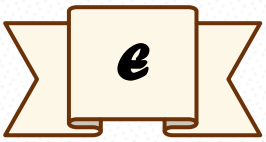
Essentially, we see that PC changes to language have very positive and humanitarian motivations. In practice, however, PC language sometimes goes too far. It might even seem to some like a stifling language tyranny that limits freedom of expression. Take, for instance, the euphemistic term "metabolically challenged" to replace the matter-of-fact descriptor "dead", or consider "esthetically challenged" instead of "ugly". Such examples are, of course, merely humorous parodies of PC language and are not to be taken seriously. They do have an important significance, though: they indicate the ridiculous extremes to which PC can sometimes take language.



QUESTIONS: HOW TO WRITE A SUMMARY?

WRITING THE CRITICAL SUMMARY	*WRITING THE OBJECTIVE SUMMARY*
Purpose Did the author make the purpose of the article clear? If the author tried to prove something, did he or she fulfill your expectations? If the author intended to analyze something, did you feel he or she lived up to the commitment? Did you feel satisfied or disappointed or puzzled by the article?	**Purpose** Have you captured the essence of the article or chapter in an objective way without commenting on or interpreting on the material? Have you reported the information as accurately and economically as possible? Have you avoided evaluating, disputing, or agreeing with the facts and ideas in the selection
Audience What is the author's attitude toward the reader? From the evidence in the article, what is the author's opinion of the reader? Is the author concerned about the reader's needs or is the author writing to no one in. particular? Is the writing aimed at the right audience?	**Audience** Have you given your readers what they need in order to understand the gist of the article or chapter you have summarized? On the basis of your summary, will your readers have an accurate and complete idea of what the author was trying to communicate?
Code Is the summary readable? Are there unnecessary big words, too many long sentences, too many abstract concepts not explained in concrete terms? Has the author chosen vocabulary that is accurate, colorful, and effective? Is the language appropriate? Does the author treat dignified subjects lightheartedly? Are there any surprises in the language? An unusually good word or phrase? A well-crafted sentence or chunk? Is there appropriate variety in the sentences? Or is there evidence that the writer was having a hard time writing: labored, sentences, fuzzy language, humdrum words	**Code** Have you used your own words in summarizing the original source? And have you clearly indicated what material, if any, is quoted directly from the original source? Is your objective summary short enough, about a third the length of the original piece? Have you condensed material for your summary by combining related ideas? Have you re-created the author's ideas and arguments accurately and clearly and in the order in which she or he presented them?

Experience	**Experience**
Is the subject interesting? Does the material raise your curiosity about the subject? Does the subject hold your interest? Is it interesting only to you personally, or do you think it is likely to appeal to the general reader? Is there enough information? Is this a thorough treatment or a sketchy overview? Is the author treating the subject with sufficient depth? Has the author supplied the reader with enough facts or enough details to achieve his or her overall purpose? Is the material worthwhile? Does it treat a subject that most readers would agree is worth treating? Does the material seem trivial or light? Did the author, intend it to be that way? Are the facts accurate? Does the author distort, exaggerate, or diminish the facts? Has the author supplied the reader with new facts, new information, or new interpretation of the facts? How newsworthy is this subject? Can the educated general reader understand the ideas without difficulty?	Have you captured all of the author's main points in order to maintain the usefulness of your objective summary? Have you located the key sentences and words in each paragraph of the original piece and used these as the basis of your summary? Have you avoided the urge to highlight all the supportive ideas used by the author of the article or chapter?
Self	**Self**
What is the author's attitude toward the subject? Does the author like the subject? Does the author think the subject is important? More important than you do? Did you come away feeling the author knew the subject and did a good job of presenting it to the reader? Is the author fair? Is the overall interpretation biased, subjective, slanted, or objective? Does the author present material to justify his or her stance? Does the author try to look at both sides of tile issue? Do you trust this author? Can you find any faults in the author's logic? Is the author friendly? Indifferent? Sarcastic? Patronizing? Too technical? Who does the author think he or she is? Is the author's view of self, **(**author's voice) appropriate for this article? Is the author expressing a lively point	Have you maintained an informed but objective stance throughout your summary? Have you convinced your readers that you are reliable and dependable as a reader and a writer?

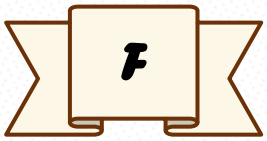


SECTIONS OF A RESEARCH PAPER

Sample 1	Sample 2
Title. The title should be informative, specific and short (13 words max., usually) and should include the species studied, what was measured and the location of the study, if it is important. (i.e. the key words that someone else would use to search for your article).	**Title**. This tiny section is critical, for it determines whether a reader scanning the table of contents or a list of articles will bother to look at the abstract or paper. The idea is to convince someone who *should* be interested in your paper that it really *is* relevant to their interests. This can be accomplished by a specific title that accurately conveys the gist of your study. Include key words that describe the topic of your study.
Abstract. Although it should be short (100-150 words) this should outline the study's objectives, methods, results, conclusions and relevance. It is the first thing someone will read, and it must be descriptive and interesting! The abstract demands clear, direct writing. When readers finish the abstract, they should be so intrigued by the experiment that they decide to read the entire paper.	**Abstract.** This section is a one-paragraph summary of your paper. Think of the abstract as a miniature paper incorporating elements from each of the four major sections. From the Introduction, state the purpose of your study or its questions, perhaps with a sentence providing essential background. From the Material and Methods, describe in one or two sentences what you did (treatments, measurements taken, techniques). From the results, distill your findings into one or two sentences describing the effects of treatments, relationships between variables, or means and standard deviations. From the Discussion, state your main conclusion and its implications. The title and abstract are the most important part of the paper and deserve your most finely polished prose. Most authors find it easiest to write this section after all the others are finished.
Introduction. The introduction should provide the background information about your experiment. It should also outline the objectives of your study. After reading it a reader should understand why your question is significant. Try to maintain the flow from broad to specific. Don't use the introduction as an information dump to	**Introduction**. The key feature of the introduction is a clear statement of the questions and hypotheses that motivated your study. How does your work fit into the larger body of study in your topic? Why are your questions interesting and novel? What work have others done that is relevant to your questions? Cite the primary literature to summarize what was known about your topic before your investigation,

show the reader how much you found on a topic. Show the reader you understand the relevant issues in a field and know how your study complements this information. In both this section and the discussion be careful with citations. It should be always clear which ideas are yours and which ideas (and words) are cited from other papers.	but save in-depth analyses of specific papers for the discussion. The introduction should begin with general statements about your topic and conclude with your specific hypotheses and how (in a general way) you set out to test them.
Materials and methods. This section is often a good place to start writing, as you can write it up as you are doing the experiments. It is written in the past tense as a description of the experiments you carried out. It should include your experimental design and describe the variables measured. If there is a simple well-known procedure it's OK just to name the technique. If it's new or you did something different, you should spend time describing the protocol used. You should also justify why you chose the variables to measure and the methods you used.	**Material and Methods.** Describe what you did and how you did it. The key here is deciding how much detail to include. Examine published papers that describe experiments similar to your own to get a feel for what level of detail is appropriate. You can save space by referencing a published source of a technique when available. Remember to use the past tense.
Results. The results section is where you 'present your case'. The logical flow is critical; you must convince your reader that your argument is sound. If the readers are confused by your results, or do not follow your interpretation, they may not accept that your conclusions are correct or recognize the relevance of your findings. Avoid writing a long list of results with no interpretation.	**Results.** To communicate your results clearly and succinctly, organize your data into tables and graphs. Once you've prepared your tables and figures, summarize your results in the text, making reference to the table or figure you are discussing. Make sure that you describe and cite *every* table and figure in the text of the results section. While it is important to summarize the major trends and relationships in this section, you should leave interpretation and conclusions for the discussion. Statements like "These data suggest that ..." or "It is surprising that ..." belong in the discussion.
Discussion. The discussion is where you explain your results and interpret them in light of other work in the field. Start by presenting the essential conclusions of your specific study. Then, apply your conclusions to the	**Discussion.** In the discussion, you interpret your results in light of your hypotheses and of previous studies by other investigators. The discussion should address the following questions. • Do your results support or refute your hypotheses?

background information you described in your introduction. Discuss how your new findings relate to that background information. Are the major hypotheses in the field supported by your research, or contradicted? At the end of the discussion you may also choose to include suggestions for future research.	• What general principles or specific mechanisms might account for your results? • How do your results compare with those of other investigators doing similar studies, and specifically how are their studies similar to and different from yours? What are the theoretical and practical implications of your results?
Acknowledgments. This section is used to thank people who provided significant help to you at any point in your research (e.g. helped with field work, reviewed early drafts of the paper, but (except theses) not usually your parents or the person who answers phones in your department!). This is also where you should acknowledge any agency that provided you or your study with funding support (check a few acknowledgement sections for examples).	**Acknowlegments.** If your study benefited from someone's technical help, ideas, special equipment or materials, or financial assistance, it is a simple courtesy to thank them in print. In the case of grants, many granting agencies require an acknowlegment in any paper resulting from the work they funded. As strange as it may seem to thank someone unknown to you, authors often thank anonymous outside reviewers who made useful suggestions. This section may be omitted if there is no one you feel needs to be thanked publicly.
Literature Cited. This section lists references cited in the body of your paper. It is not a bibliography, so it should list only references actually cited in the paper, not everything you read while writing. Formatting how you cite your references in the text and in this section varies in style between journals. Consequently, the only way to ensure that you cite literature in a correct format is to obtain a list of "instructions to authors" (usually included somewhere in each issue of a journal) and/or use the format used in a recent paper published in that journal.	**Literature Cited.** List in this section all (and only) the references you have cited in the text of your paper. Use the exact format of the literature cited section in the instructions to authors.
Appendix	



Thesis structures

1. Traditional: Simple

- Introduction
- Literature Review
- Materials and Methods
- Results
- Discussion
- Conclusions

2. Traditional: Complex

- Introduction
- Review of the literature
- Background theory
- General Methods
- Study 1
  - Introduction
  - Methods
  - Results
  - Discussion and conclusion
- Study 2
  - Introduction
  - Methods
  - Results
  - Discussion and conclusion
- Study 3 etc
  - Introduction
  - Methods
  - Results
  - Discussion and conclusion
- Conclusions

3. Topic-based (for literature/theory research)

- Introduction
- Topic 1
- Topic 2
- Topic 3 etc
- Conclusions

4. Compilation of Research Articles

- Introduction
- Background to the Study
- Research Article 1
  - Introduction
  - Literature review
  - Materials and methods
  - Results
  - Discussion and conclusion
- Research article 2
  - Introduction
  - Literature review
  - Materials and methods
  - Results
  - Discussion and conclusion
- Research article 3 etc
  - Introduction
  - Literature review
  - Materials and methods
  - Results
  - Discussion and conclusion
- Discussion and Conclusions

(From Paltridge, B. 'Thesis and dissertation writing: An examination of published articles and actual practice').

Indicative Abstract

The story of three little pigs

The various techniques used by three little pigs for constructing shelters from a dangerous wolf in the locality are described. The different materials used and their performance under stress are considered. Only the house made of bricks proved satisfactory.

(39 words, 3 sentences)

Informative Abstract

The story of three little pigs

Topic:

Three little pigs, threatened by a dangerous wolf in the area, decide to build shelters to resist possible attack.

Methodology:

Three houses were built, the particular raw material and style being selected by each little pig individually. The materials used were straw, twigs and bricks respectively.

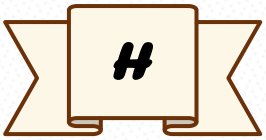
Results:

Only the LP in the brick house survived the wolf's blasting attack. A further attack, attempted later, by infiltration, was halted by a boiling-water trap.

Conclusion:

The house built of bricks was the only one to provide safety in terms of stability and material strength. The third little pig proved to be the most intelligent of the three.

(101 words)



Examples of manuscript submission guidelines:

I. Arrange the parts of the article in the following order:

1. Title of the article
2. Running head
3. Author(s) of the article
4. Full address of the author(s)
5. Sending (submitting) date
6. Abstract
7. Keywords
8. Main text
9. References
10. Figure captions
11. Tables

Abstract

An abstract not exceeding 200 words should be informative rather than indicative and given on a separate page. All relevant key words should be included in the abstract.

Manuscripts and all the materials are not normally returned to the author.

II. After the submission of your paper, we check the iThenticate similarity test for a plagiarism detection. The overall similarity (Similarity Index) must not exceed the limit 25%, and the single paper similarity must not exceed the limit 5%. Otherwise, the paper will be directly rejected by the editor and no other chance will be given to the author(s) to re-submit it.

The Content of the Article

The paper should be prepared according to the following order:

- Title
- Full author name (Name and Surname, not initials)
- Affiliation (full institutional mailing address – eg. Department, University, Street, Postal Code, City, Country and Email)

- Abstract
- Keywords
- The main text
- Acknowledgements
- References

The volume of the article (including tables and illustrations) should not exceed 20 pages of A4 format (included in the fee). Placing longer publication requires approval by the Editor-in-Chief.

Title should be informative, but concise, and do not contain abbreviations or unknown characters.

Nomenclature is not needed – all explanations should be placed in the text.

The text body should not be formatted, for example, splitting in columns, adding headers and footers is forbidden.

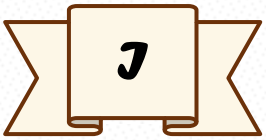
Peer Review
All manuscripts are subject to double anonymous peer review and are expected to meet standards of academic excellence. Submissions will be considered by an editor and “if not rejected right away” by peer-reviewers, whose identities will remain anonymous to the authors.

Units of Measurement
Units of measurement should be presented simply and concisely using System International (SI) units.

Abstract
The manuscript should contain an abstract. The abstract should be self-contained and citation-free.
Abstract posted on the website as a separate work and should contain all the essential information about paper: goals, the material and methodology, main results and conclusions.

Acknowledgments
All acknowledgments (if any) should be included at the very end of the paper before the references and may include supporting grants, presentations, and so forth.

References
Please prepare your References according to the **APA 7th edition** bibliographic style guidelines



Translate one of the abstracts into English. Follow the strategies of English academic writing:

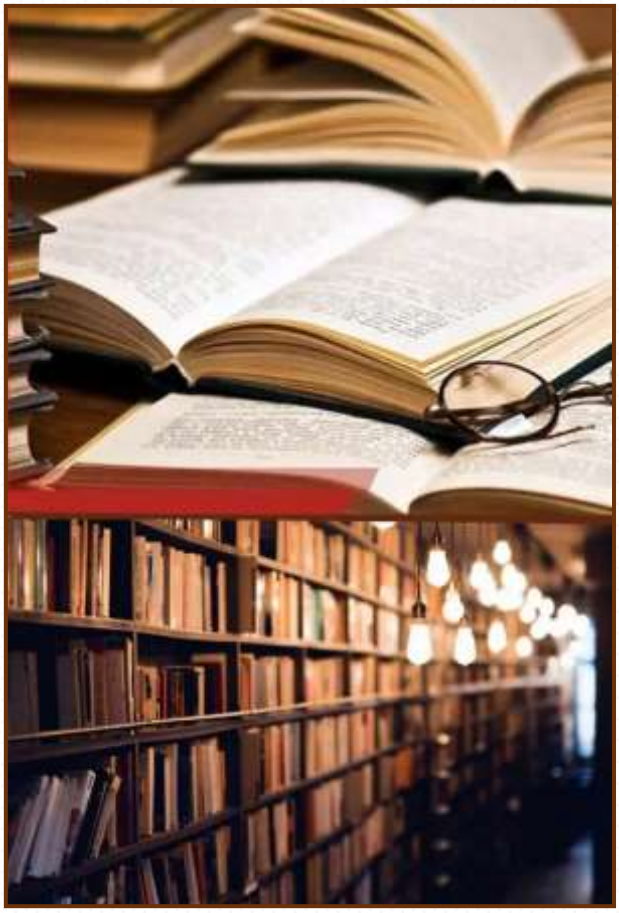
A. Автор розглядає поняття політичної реклами в засобах масової інформації як одну з основних форм впливу на електорат. Зазначається, що мета політичного рекламного тексту – переконати електорат у правоті рекламованого. Увага зосереджується на мовних особливостях рекламного тексту.

B. У статті розглядається роль аналогії в процесі словотвору. Робиться висновок про те, що аналогія сприяє не лише поповненню словникового складу новими одиницями, а й виникненню та формуванню нових словотворчих елементів і моделей. Механізм дії аналогії висвітлюється на прикладі неологізмів у галузі екології.

C. Статтю присвячено питанням дослідження системної організації семантичного поля (на матеріалі прикметників української мови зі значенням місця). На основі моделі семантичних відношень та ієрархії сем визначено місце об’єднання прикметників зі значенням місця в межах семантичного поля „простір” та його внутрішню структуру.

D. У статті розглянуто категорію оцінності, охарактеризовано типові компоненти оцінної ситуації, проаналізовано основні види оцінки, подано опис прикметників як показників оцінки у прислів’ях на означення рис характеру людини.

E. У статті розглянуто основні дефініції лексем семантичної опозиції: свобода – рабство, воля – неволя, зроблено спробу аналізу досліджуваних компонентів, встановлено частотність вживаності зазначених слів у сучасній українській літературній мові.



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Міністерство освіти і науки України
Кам’янець-Подільський національний університет імені Івана Огієнка

Навчальне електронне видання

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BASICS OF ACADEMIC WRITING

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