TOMSK POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY

T.G. Petrashova, J.N. Shitz

WAYS IN TEACHING ESP WRITING AND SPEAKING

GENRE AND DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

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«ТОМСКИЙ ПОЛИТЕХНИЧЕСКИЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ»

Т.Г. Петрашова, Ю.Н. Шиц

ОБУЧЕНИЕ АКАДЕМИЧЕСКОЙ УСТНОЙ И ПИСЬМЕННОЙ РЕЧИ: ЖАНРОВЫЙ И ДИСКУРСНЫЙ АНАЛИЗ УСТНЫХ И ПИСЬМЕННЫХ ТЕКСТОВ НА ПРИМЕРЕ АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА

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Практическое руководство содержит материал по разработке и оформлению академических письменных и устных текстов на иностранном языке в сфере профессиональной коммуникации: аннотаций, обзоров литературы, статей, рефератов, тезисов докладов, мотивационных представлений, проектных работ, презентаций. В рамках конкретных жанров дается их описание, выявляются их существенные признаки, даются рекомендации по их оформлению, а также рассматриваются некоторые социокультурные особенности.

Издание может использоваться студентами старших курсов, обучающимися по технических и гуманитарных специальностям, также магистрантами, аспирантами в качестве информационного ресурса, преподавателями как методическая основа для обучения различным жанрам академической устной и письменной речи.

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Рецензент Кандидат педагогических наук, доцент, заведующий кафедрой немецкого языка ТПУ *Е.К. Прохорец*

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ПЕТРАШОВА Тамара Георгиевна
ШИЦ Юлия Николаевна

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The advice in this brochure is a general guide only. We strongly recommend that students also follow their assignment instructions and seek clarification from their lecturer/tutor if needed.

ACADEMIC WRITING

Academic disciplines have conventional forms that their authors must use if other scholars are to understand what they are saying. In addition, the disciplines often govern the kind of and the author must use if the article is to be acceptable to others in the same field.

For example, hard scientists are often required to emphasise the experiment and the results and downplay the contributions of the humans who conducted the experiment (i.e., "the experiment was conducted," and "the results suggest"). Social scientists may refer to those who conducted the experiments in some sections of their reports but not in others (i.e., "the data were collected," but "we note that"). Scholars in the humanities tend to avoid including themselves in their work but not always.

Academic writing also tends to have conventional forms that their authors must use if other scholars are to understand what they are saying. In addition, the disciplines often govern the kind of STYLE and VOICE the author must use if the article is to be acceptable to others in the same field. Scientific (social and hard) papers are generally presented with clearly labeled sections that contain a discussions of the problem, the existing literature (that means the articles and books people have already published on the subject), the experiment and its design, the results, and of how the results fill a gap or improve understanding.

Recognizing these conventions can also help when it comes to writing in the various disciplines. If you recognize that academic articles are written in a particular style, you will be able discover what the author is saying and perhaps find ways to use it in your own academic writing.

ANNOTATION

What is an annotation?

Assignments often call for an ***annotated bibliography.*** In the scholarly world an annotation is more than just a *blurb* from a book jacket. Annotation is a concise description of a particular work, including important aspects of content not evident in the title. It enables the researcher to establish the relevance of a specific work and to decide whether to read the full text of the work. Annotations describe (summarize important content) and evaluate (critically analyze) the resource based on standard criteria. An annotation differs from an abstract or summary, as

abstracts and summaries usually only describe or summarize the content and do not critically evaluate. Annotations may be written to describe books, Web sites, articles, government documents, videos, or other items.

When required to write an annotation, the annotation should:

1. explain why the source is relevant to your research; and
2. critically examine the source.

The questions that follow should guide your critical examination providing evaluativecomments

Author	Who is the author and what are his/her credentials (occupation, position, education, experience)? Is the author qualified to write on the subject?
Purpose	Does the author state a purpose for doing the research and/or writing the piece? If not, can the purpose be inferred? Does the author outline the major thesis, theories, and ideas?
Audience	Does the piece have an intended audience? If not explicit, can you draw a conclusion based on the language used, writing style or subject matter?
Research Methods	What method of obtaining data or conducting research was employed by the author?
Conclusion	What are the author's conclusions? Are they fairly supported by the research results presented? Are the conclusions in line with the original purpose of the research?
Bias	Are there any biases or assumptions evident in the piece? Does the author acknowledge the existence of differing positions as appropriate? Bias may be evident in the author's writing style, organization, use or interpretation of evidence, subject matter or language choices.
Relationship to Other Works	How does the research result compare with similar studies? Are all similar studies cited by the author?
Illustrations	Is the research supported by appropriate illustrations, graphs, charts, maps, documents, tests or questionnaires? If not, should such material have been included?
Other evaluative comments	What is useful? What is missing?

Grammar focus

The style of an annotation should be formal and impersonal. The third person should always be used *(The author states…, This article concerns…, This is a new contribution to…, The purpose of this report is…)*. Using both passive structures and inanimate subject plus an active verb (*this paper reports, argues…, the results indicate, demonstrate …)* as well as an 'empty' it (*It was found that…, It was reported that …It was suggested that …)* are the ways of complying with this requirements. Although there is no lower limit, annotations should not exceed 150 words.

You should use the terms of the author, as far as possible, to convey the ideas and conclusions of the author. In these cases where you decide to include a quotation taken from the work, set it within quotation marks. Avoid using in annotations superfluous and/or redundant amount of similar phrases. Also avoid the monotonous repetition of sentences starting with 'It was found that...'. Annotations in which most sentences end with 'are discussed' and 'are given' are similarly ineffective. The reader may find the document boring if similar wording is used throughout.

Annotations can be from one to three paragraphs long. The first paragraph should contain a statement of the work's major thesis, from which the rest of the sentences can develop. You can avoid writing a paragraph that is nothing more than a series of unconnected sentences summarizing separate ideas, arguments, and conclusions, by following the same order of information as the author and by intelligently using *transitional words* and phrases. *(See also: Appendix C, F)*

Annotation Writing Assessment

To assess an annotation and provide a student with comments, the following criteria could be recommended:

5	4	3	2	1
sharp, distinct focus; substantial, specific, and/or illustrative content; sophisticated ideas that are	adequate focus; sufficient content; appropriate organization; some precision and variety	vague focus; content limited to a listing, repetition, or mere sequence of ideas; inconsistent	confused focus; superficial content; confused organization; lack of sentence and word choice	absence of focus; absence of relevant content; absence of organization; no apparent control over

particularly well developed; obviously controlled and/or subtle, logical organization; writer's voice apparent in tone, sentence structure, and word choice; few mechanical and usage errors;	in sentence structure and word choice; mechanical and usage errors not severe enough to interfere significantly with the writer's purpose;	organization; limited sentence variety and word choice; repeated weaknesses in mechanics and usage;	variety; excessive copying of author's text; mechanical and usage errors that seriously interfere with the writer's purpose;	sentence structure and word choice; mechanical and usage errors so severe that writer's ideas are difficult if not impossible to understand;

Characteristics of Effective Writing				
Focus	**Content**	**Organization**	**Style**	**Conventions**
demonstrates an awareness of audience and task establishes and maintains a clear purpose sustains a single point of view, exhibits clarity of ideas	information and details are specific to topic information and details are relevant to focus ideas are fully developed	logical order or sequence is maintained paragraphs deal with one subject, logical transitions are made within sentences and between paragraphs introduction and conclusion	precise language effective word choice voice, tone, originality of language variety of sentence structures, types, and lengths	mechanics: spelling, capitalization, punctuation usage (e.g., pronoun references, subject-verb agreement) sentence completenes

		are evident		

ABSTRACTS

One of the genres typical for ESP is an abstract. It is used in scientific or academic writing to summarize the major content of a paper or a journal article.

An abstract communicates the scope of an academic paper, and, in doing so, it facilitates research. Abstracts help scientists to locate materials that are relevant to their research from among published papers, and many times scientists will only read a paper's abstract in order to determine whether the paper will be relevant to them. Considering your audience and their needs will help you to determine what should be included in your abstract.

The most common type of abstract is the informative abstract. An informative abstract summarizes the key information from every major section in the body of the report, and provides the key facts and conclusions from the body of the report. A good way to develop an informative abstract is to devote a sentence or two to each of the major parts of the report. If space permits, you can provide contextual information such as background of the problem and the significance of the research, but you can also omit contextual information because the abstract is not supposed to serve as an introduction to the subject matter of the report—your introduction will serve that role. You can also omit citations for your sources in the abstract. If you summarize information that you borrowed from other writers, you do not have to repeat the citation in the informative abstract. You should, however, include key numerical facts to make the informative abstract brief. Readers will not be surprised to see numerical data in an informative abstract.

Three types of this genre can be identified:

1. The conference paper abstract appears in conference programmes and provides on - the-spot information to conference participants.
2. The abstracting journal abstract is an independent text from the original and may not even be written by the same author as the original.
3. The research article abstract is a typical representative of the genre. *(See also: Abstract p. 19)*

The research article abstract

The main problem with abstracts is that they are often so vaguely written that they do not grab the reader's attention. One should always try to give the reader enough concrete information in an abstract to get them interested in your work.

An abstract of an academic article should include the following seven

elements:

- The abstract has to start with a brief theme sentence to orientate the reader about the overall issue addressed in the article. This sentence should grab the reader's attention.
- The abstract should then indicate the main aim or purpose of the study.
- Next, the academic and/or practical importance of the study should be explained.
- The methodology used in the study should also be briefly described.
- The main findings of the study should be summarised.
- A statement of conclusions should indicate the contribution made by the study in filling gaps in the literature.
- Finally, the practical or managerial implications of the study's findings should be highlighted where appropriate.

Also consider the following principles when writing the abstract:

- Since the abstract is a **summary** of the article, nothing should be in it that it not also included in the main text.
- An abstract is <u>not</u> an introduction. The article should be complete without the abstract. One way to ensure this is to write the abstract <u>after</u> you have completed the rest of the article.
- The abstract is normally written as a single paragraph. It is self-contained (i.e., it should be understandable without requiring the reader to read something else).
- The abstract should not contain any figures, tables or in-text references, just normal text. In-text references may, however, be included when one is replicating a previous study and this is specifically mentioned in the abstract.

Four main functions of an abstract can be recognized, three before reading and one after you have read it.

Before reading:

1. To summarize and highlight the main points so that the potential reader can decide whether to read the entire article or not.
2. It serves as a short version of the article for those who do not have time to read the whole text. It should, therefore, contain key facts, key phrases and conclusions.
3. To prepare the reader for reading the full text, to focus his/her attention on the direction of the argument and so give him/her an idea of what to expect.

After reading:

4 It is an aid to the reader's memory after he has read the article. It is also serves as a reference.

Content and Organization Focus

Abstracts from almost all fields of study are written in a similar way. The types of information included and their order are very conventional. According to Swales (1990) five 'moves' can be identified:

1 Topic/background – what was the topic of the research and what has been done in that area so far?
2 Purpose-why was the research done?
3 Methods –how was it done?
4 Results – what was found?
5 Conclusion – what does it imply, what are the recommendations?

The above structure is an ideal one. If we, however, analyze authentic examples, we may find many abstracts that do not fit the picture.

Grammar Focus

In this part we will focus on tenses characteristic for the single moves.

1. Topic/background – present simple passive (*little is known about ....),* the present perfect (*Species diversity has declined in ecosystems*…).
2. Purpose –the present simple (*here we investigate ...),* the infinitive of purpose (*…to assess the effect of ...).*
3. Methods – the past simple passive *(Hydroponically grown seedlings were expose to…).*
4. Results – the past simple if the results are restricted to your study *(…richness declined).* – The present simple if the findings are general facts *(...region shows activity…).*
5. Conclusions – the present simple to make some general statements *(…results indicate…),* tentative verbs and modal auxiliaries to state conclusions in a more cautious way (known as hedging) *(this suggests…, … pain can cause…).*

The style of an abstract should be formal and impersonal. Using passive structures and inanimate subject plus an active verb (*this paper reports, argues…, the results indicate, demonstrate ...)* as well as an 'empty' it (*It was found ...)* are the ways of complying with this requirements.

An abstract is usually written to be as brief and concise as possible, a word limit is often established (150-400 words). In order to satisfy such limitations and to condense the text, the following means are employed: reduced relative clauses, appositional clauses, nominalization, compound nouns, gerunds and participles. Any redundancy as well as anything that might lead to confusion should be avoided. It is interesting to note that very few, if any, negative sentences occur in abstracts.

REVIEW

A critical review of a journal article evaluates the strengths and weaknesses of an article's ideas and content. It provides description, analysis and interpretation that allow readers to assess the article's value.

When writing a critical review of an article, you will need to summarize, evaluate, and offer critical comment on the ideas and information that the author(s) presents in the article.

Your objective is to demonstrate your intellectual ability to **recognize relevant information**, and to **synthesize and evaluate it according to the guiding concept** you have determined for yourself such as your research objective, thesis, or the problem/issue you wish to address.

Research / scientific articles are highly structured to make information easy to find. The research article usually has the following sections: Title Page, Abstract, Introduction, Method, Results, Discussion, References, and Tables / Figures.

Your goal should be to read and understand the article, analyze the findings or arguments, and evaluate and comment on the article.

When required to write a review, you should:

1. identify:
- the research question (usually stated in the Abstract and Introduction);
- the hypothesis(es) (usually in the Introduction);
- the test of the hypothesis (in the Methods);
- the findings (in the Results, including tables and figures);
- how the findings were interpreted (in the Discussion);

2. read the article again analytically and make notes of main ideas and main topic; highlight important ideas and make brief notes;

3. read the article in depth again.

Content and Organization Focus

A review is usually of three paragraphs, and consists of an introduction, body and conclusion.

Organize your review into useful, informative sections that present themes or identify trends. A review is NOT just a summary, but a conceptually organized synthesis of the results of your search. It must

- **organize information** and relate it to the thesis or research question you are developing;
- **synthesize results** into a summary of what is and isn't known;
- **identify controversy** when it appears in the text;
- **develop questions** for further research.

Introduction

- Give the title of the article and name of the author(s) and provide a full citation of the article. Identify the writer by profession *(Platt, Kevin M. F. "History and Despotism, or: Hayden White vs. Ivan the Terrible and Peter the Great."Rethinking History 3:3 (1999): 247-269).*

Be sure to ask your instructor which citation style to use.

- Identify the purpose of the article.
- Tell what the research question is and explain why it is interesting and important. Give your overall impression.
- It is important that the introductory paragraph include a thesis statement which identifies the main points you will be discussing in the body (analysis) of the review.

Thus, the first paragraph may contain: a statement of your thesis, the author's purpose in writing the article, comments on how the article relates to other work on the same subject, information about the author's reputation or authority in the field.

Body (Analysis)

- Briefly describe the methods, design of the study, how many subjects were involved, what they did, the variables, what was measured, and where the research was conducted.
- Describe the results / what was found.
- Write an analytical summary of the main findings, arguments, or conclusions of the article / study.
- Discuss the strengths and usefulness of the article / study.
- Discuss the weaknesses, limitations, or problems of the article / study.
- Discuss what you learned from the article and if you recommend it to other students.
- Support your analysis with quotations and/or specific examples throughout.

In other words, the body of the review should state your arguments in support of your thesis, follow the logical development of ideas that you mapped out in your outline, include quotations from the article which illustrate your main ideas.

Conclusion

- Summarize the previous discussion.
- Make a final judgment on the value of the article.
- State what you learned from the article.
- Comment on the future or implications of the research.

So, the concluding paragraph may summarize your review, restate your thesis.

Questions to Ask

Some questions to ask yourself about a book or article you're reviewing:

1. *Has the author formulated a problem/issue? Is the problem/issue ambiguous or clearly articulated? Is its significance (scope, severity, relevance) discussed? What are the strengths and limitations of the way the author has formulated the problem or issue? Could the problem have been approached*

more effectively from another perspective? Is the article timely? What is the main aim of the article?

2. *Has the author evaluated the literature relevant to the problem/issue? Does the author include literature taking positions s/he does not agree with?*
3. *In a research study, how good are the three basic components of the study design (i.e. population, intervention, and outcome)? How accurate and valid are the measurements? Is the analysis of the data accurate and relevant to the research question? Are the conclusions validly based upon the data and analysis?*
4. *How does the author structure his or her argument? Can you 'deconstruct' the flow of the argument to analyze if/where it breaks down? Is the argument / thesis convincing? Is the evidence valid?*
5. *Is this a book or article that contributes to our understanding of the problem under study, and in what ways is it useful for practice? What are the strengths and limitations?*
6. *How does this book or article fit into the thesis or question I am developing?*
7. *What is interesting about this information?*
8. *How does the author(s) support the hypothesis?*
9. *How does the study design address the thesis?*
10. *Is the methodology appropriate? Any weaknesses?*
11. *Are the results convincing? Is it comprehensive and through?*
12. *What questions remain unanswered? Anything omitted?*
13. *Are the findings presented and described clearly and fully?*
14. *How does the article contribute to the field? Does it make an original contribution to the field?*

Summarizing and Paraphrasing for a Critical Review

Summarizing and paraphrasing are essential skills for academic writing and in particular, the critical review.

To summarize means to reduce a text to its main points and its most important ideas. The length of your summary for a critical review should only be about one quarter to one third of the whole critical review. The best way to summarise is to:

1. Scan the text. Look for information that can be deduced from the introduction, conclusion and the title and headings. What do these tell you about the main points of the article?
2. Locate the topic sentences and highlight the main points as you read.
3. Reread the text and make separate notes of the main points. Examples and evidence do not need to be included at this stage. Usually they are used selectively in your critique.

Paraphrasing means putting it into your own words. Paraphrasing offers an alternative to using direct quotations in your summary (and the

critique) and can be an efficient way to integrate your summary notes. The best way to paraphrase is to:

1. Review your summary notes.
2. Rewrite them in your own words and in complete sentences.
3. Use reporting verbs and phrases (*eg; The author describes…, Smith argues that …).*
4. If you include unique or specialist phrases from the text, use quotation marks.

Texts Evaluation

The following list of criteria and focus questions may be useful for reading the text and for preparing the critical review. Remember to check your assignment instructions for more specific criteria and focus questions that should form the basis of your review. The length of the review/ assignment will determine how many criteria you will address in your critique *(See also: Annotation p.7)*

Criteria	**Possible focus question**
Significance and contribution to the field	What is the author's aim? To what extent has this aim been achieved? What does this text add to the body of knowledge? (This could be in terms of theory, data and/or practical application). What relationship does it bear to other works in the field? What is missing/not stated? Is this a problem?
Methodology or approach (This usually applies to more formal, research- based texts)	What approach was used for the research? (e.g.: quantitative or qualitative, analysis/review of theory or current practice, comparative, case study, personal reflection etc…). How objective/biased is the approach? Are the results valid and reliable? What analytical framework is used to discuss the results?
Argument and use of evidence	Is there a clear problem, statement or hypothesis? What claims are made? Is the argument consistent? What kinds of evidence does the text rely on? How valid and reliable is the evidence? How effective is the evidence in supporting the argument? What conclusions are drawn? Are these conclusions justified?
Writing style and text structure	Does the writing style suit the intended audience? (e.g.: expert/non-expert, academic/non-

	academic). What is the organising principle of the text? Could it be better organised?

Grammar Focus

Language features of a critical review:

1. Reporting verbs and phrases

These are used to tell the reader what the author thinks or does in their text *(Komisar begins his article claiming that the new teaching machines represent a new kind of encounter).*

2. Modality

Modal verbs and other expressions are used to express degrees of certainty and probability (from high to low). Writers use modality to present ideas as opinions rather than facts (*The word 'theory' has an honorific status. ... The same could probably be said for 'practice').*

3. Conceding (Concessive clauses)

Here an adverbial clause can be used to describe a circumstance that is in contrast or unfavourable to another circumstance. In academic writing, concessive clauses are one way (there are others!) to acknowledge the strength/ validity of an idea before presenting an alternate view. This does not weaken your critique; rather it can show balance and fairness in your analysis *(Though by no means the first empiricist among the Greek philosophers, Aristotle stood out among his contemporaries for the meticulous care with which he worked).*

ACADEMIC ARTICLE

There is no single correct way to write an academic article. The success or failure of an academic article is determined long before the first word is written or the first letters are typed. It all begins with the initial conceptualisation and design of a study.

The structure of an academic journal article

The success or failure of an academic article is determined long before the first word is written or the first letters are typed. It all begins with the initial conceptualisation and design of a study.

These are four main reasons why articles are rejected by leading academic journals:

- The research does not make a sufficiently large contribution to the "body of knowledge" (i.e., to the literature) in a specific discipline. The study is purely descriptive or merely replicates previous research without adding anything new.
- The conceptual framework (i.e., the literature review) is not well developed.

It lacks precise definitions of the core constructs and compelling theoretical motivation for the stated hypotheses.

- The methodology used in the study is seriously flawed (e.g., the sample is too small or the reliability and validity of the measures used are questionable).
- The author's writing style is disorganised and the article is not structured properly.

Articles in most academic journals are roughly 4000 to 7000 words in length. Most academic articles will typically have the structure outlined in *Table 1*.

Table 1: Typical structure of an academic article reporting the findings of a quantitative study

Title	8 – 15 words
Abstract	200 – 250 words
Keywords	6 – 8 keywords
Introduction	500 – 1 000 words
Literature review (Alternatively: Background, conceptual development or conceptual framework)	1 000 – 2 000 words
Methods (Alternatively: Methodology) • Sampling 1. Target population and research context 2. Sampling 3. Respondent profile • Data collection 1. Data collection methods • Measures (Alternatively: Measurement)	500 – 1 000 words
Results (Alternatively: Findings)	1 000 – 1 500 words
• Descriptive statistics (Alternatively: Preliminary analysis) • Hypothesis testing (Alternatively: Inferential statistics)	
Discussion • Summary of findings • Managerial implications • Limitations • Recommendations for future research	1 000 – 1 500 words
Total	4 000 – 7 000 words

Of the aforementioned elements, the title, keywords, abstract, introduction and discussion are perhaps the most important as these are the

"doors and windows" through which a reader are most likely to access the article. It is, therefore, extremely important to use effective keywords, a title that grabs the attention and an engaging abstract in order to lure the reader to delve deeper into the introduction and discussion. The introduction and discussion should then entice the reader to read the rest of the article.

The title, with a maximum of 8-15 words, is the first piece of bait that could lure a potential reader to notice and explore your research. There are following general recommendations regarding the title:

- A title should attract the reader's attention.
- Journal editors prefer formal titles that are not too "clever" or "cute". Although it grabs the attention, the title "*More than a one night stand*" would, for example, not be appropriate for a journal article on relationship marketing.
- The title should clearly reflect the main theme, issue or position discussed in the article. Because it creates expectations about the contents of the article, the title should accurately reflect the nature and focus of the study and not create false expectations.
- The title should be as specific as possible given the restrictions on length.
- Some of the keywords listed after the abstract should appear in the title.
- A title should preferably answer the following questions:
    - **What** will be researched?
    - **How** will the topic be researched?
    - **With whom?** – Describes the research population and units of measurement.
    - **Where / in what context** will the study be conducted?

The following basic structure for a title is preferable:

Main theme or research topic: Research design + population + geographical area

Consider the following examples based on Grobler's (2003) suggestion:

Example:

Value profiles and susceptibility to interpersonal influence: A survey of student smokers at the University of Pretoria

Abstract

The abstract is a short **summary** of an article with a maximum length of 200 – 250 words. Most readers first scan the abstract in order to decide whether reading the rest of the article would be worthwhile. The abstract, therefore, serves as an important "window display" or "advertisement" for your work and provides an opportunity to impress the reader. *(See also p.10)*

Keywords

A maximum of 6-8 keywords should be included in the article directly after the abstract. The keywords serve as hooks that draw the attention of potential readers and are also used to locate articles in an electronic database.

The keywords should preferably reflect the discipline, sub-discipline, theme, research design and context (industry and/or country) of the study. Where appropriate, frequently used synonyms may be used as separate keywords.

The keywords should be typed in sentence case and in italics. Sentence case means that only the first letter of the first keyword and the first letter of all proper nouns are written in capital letters.

Introduction

The introduction (recommended length: 500-1000 words) can be described as a summary that gives the reader and enticing glimpse of what is to come. Unfortunately, the introduction is often the most difficult part of an article to write

An introduction generally consists of six elements:

- The writer first has to state the broad theme or topic of the study.
- Once the broad theme/topic has been introduced, its academic and practical importance (if applicable) has to be explained. In short, you should provide a convincing answer to the question: "Why should anyone give a damn about this article?".
- The author next summarises the available literature and cites the most important previous studies that are relevant to the current research. If an existing study were replicated, this should be clearly stated here. One should also include an in-text reference to the study that was replicated.
- Next, the author indicates the most important gaps, inconsistencies and/or controversies in the literature that the current study will address. The author also explains the study's *main contribution* in such a way that the benefits to the reader are accentuated.
- Element 5 of the introduction must always provide a clear indication of the following:
  - 5.1 the *core research problem/question* to be addressed in the study,
  - 5.2 the *specific research objectives* that will guide your research,
  - 5.3 the *context* in which the study will be conducted, and
  - 5.4 the *units of analysis* of the study.
- Finally, one has to provide the reader with an outline of the structure of the rest of the article.

Literature review

The literature review (recommended length: 1000-1500 words) represents the theoretical core of an article. The purpose of a literature review

is to "look again" (re + view) at what other researchers have done regarding a specific topic. **A good literature review does not merely summarise relevant previous research**. In the literature review, the researcher critically evaluates, re-organises and synthesises the work of others. The key to a successful literature review lies in your ability to "**digest**" information from different sources, critically evaluate it and present your conclusions in a concise, logical and "reader-friendly" manner. First-time researchers often naively believe everything they read or are scared to criticise the work of others. However, academic research is all about critical enquiry! It is, therefore, extremely important that you critically evaluate the material that you read. Do you agree with the arguments and conclusions of other researchers? If you disagree, why? Can you identify contradictory arguments or findings? How could one explain these contradictions? Do the findings of previous studies apply in all contexts or are the findings context-specific? What are the criticisms against the conceptual models or measurement approaches discussed in the literature? Which limitations should be considered when interpreting the results of previous research?

You have to carefully read the most recent available literature with a view to identify specific gaps, inconsistencies and/or controversies that may form the basis of your own research. Always show that you have considered an issue from a number of angles and that you are aware of the arguments for and against a specific point of view. Many researchers in services marketing, for example, use the SERVQUAL measurement scale without considering existing criticisms against it.

To compile a proper literature review, one has to overcome three specific challenges, namely:

- Finding appropriate literature on a specific topic,
- Managing the information, and
- Presenting a logical, synthesised and reader-friendly review of the current knowledge relating to a specific topic.

Managing information

It can become quite a challenge to manage the information gathered for a literature review. Consider the following tips:

- Initially limit the time period of your searches. Increase the time period incrementally if you cannot find any relevant articles.
- Keep a record of the complete reference to a book, journal article or web page. This will save you the trouble of having to find the source again when you have to compile the list of references of your final proposal or research article.
- Because the contents of the web can change from one day to the next, it is best to print copies of any web pages from which you have taken

information. This will ensure that you have a permanent record of the information which you have consulted. These printouts will also contain the relevant URL and the date on which the information was accessed.

- Diarise the due dates of all library books and inter-library loan items. You will be fined if you return books late and may even be "blacklisted", which means that you will be prevented from borrowing books in future.
- Place all your printed articles together in a box or file so that you do not have to search for a particular article, as this can waste a lot of time. Where possible, save electronic copies to a dedicated folder on your PC using the following file naming convention:
  2002 - Window displays and consumer shopping decisions.pdf
  (Date of publication - Title of the article)
  (This saves a lot of time when one has to find a particular article again.)

How to read an academic journal article:

- First read the abstract, then the introduction and then the conclusion to determine whether the article will be of value to you.
- Article titles are sometimes very misleading. Always read the abstract and introduction to determine whether a specific article is relevant to your study.

Compiling a literature review

A literature review is not merely a chronological summary of what different authors have said about a specific topic. To compile a good literature review, you have to "**digest**" the available literature and then provide a critical evaluation and synthesised summary of the current knowledge related to your chosen topic.

Which aspects should I include in a literature review?

A good literature review should always include a discussion of the following aspects:

- A brief discussion of where the specific topic under consideration fits into the "**bigger picture**" of the overall academic discipline (e.g., where does nudity appeals fit into the "bigger picture" of advertising appeals).
- **Conceptual definitions** all the key concepts/constructs included in the study.
- A focused and synthesized **discussion of relevant previous research findings.**
- The constructs/concepts relevant to your study.
- A **summary of existing approaches to the measurement of the relevant constructs**. In other words, you must explain how other researchers have measured the constructs that you intend to measure.

- Finally, a literature review must provide sufficient **theoretical support for the hypotheses to be tested** in a research project.

One should NOT use the aforementioned five points as main headings in a literature review. Your study leader will, however, look for all five these elements when evaluating the literature review section of your final article.

A literature review is NOT a chronological summary of what other people have said or found. In other words, it should not be written in the form: "Author A said this, author B said that …" The most difficult challenge in compiling a literature review is to digest or synthesise, not merely summarise, existing knowledge. Novice researchers often copy and paste information without "digesting" the information at all. This is totally unacceptable!

You have to clearly define all the constructs/concepts and discipline-specific technical terms used in your study. It is best to define a construct/concept or technical term immediately after it is introduced for the first time in your writing.

Defining constructs/concepts and other technical terms generally means borrowing definitions from the literature. Unfortunately, different authors often provide different definitions for the same construct. One should NEVER merely list these different definitions one after the other in a literature review. Once you have analysed existing definitions or listed existing definitions in a table, you should clearly indicate how a particular construct/concept is defined in your study.

Synthesising opposing viewpoints on a specific issue.

Different authors often have conflicting points of view on the same issue. These opposing perspectives can be compared as a point of discussion in a literature review. When comparing opposing points of view, it is important to clearly explain the nature of and differences between the opposing perspectives. Where appropriate, one should also indicate which specific perspective you support and motivate why.

A good literature review will always have a logical structure. This means that the different sections and sub-sections of the literature review are logically linked to one another. In other words, the one section naturally flows into the next.

Providing motivation for hypotheses

A hypothesis is a **theory-based** expectation about some characteristic of a target population (or of population sub-groups) that may or may not be true and that has been formulated for statistical testing. As the word *"theory-based"* indicates, a hypothesis must be grounded in existing theory, previous research findings or the results of exploratory research.

One, therefore, has to present adequate theory or previous research

findings to motivate each hypothesis that you intend to test in a study. Such theory or research findings are provided **inside the literature review** section of an academic article and precede the wording of each **alternative hypothesis** that you intend to test in your study. It is extremely important that an alternative hypothesis should logically and directly follow from the motivation provided. In other words, the reader should be able to clearly see how the hypothesis follows from the preceding theory.

- First, discuss appropriate theory, previous research findings or the results of exploratory research that will serve as motivation for the hypothesis to follow. Make sure that there is a direct and logical link between the motivation provided and the wording of the hypothesis that you intend to test.
- Next, build a bridge to the hypothesis by using phrases such as: *"Based on the aforementioned discussion, it is hypothesised that:…","This leads to the following hypothesis:…","It is, therefore, hypothesised that:…","It is, therefore, posited that:…","The following hypothesis is thus stated:…"*
- Finally, state the wording of the **alternative** hypothesis.

Hypotheses should be stated directly after the paragraph(s) that justify them, rather than in a separate section at the end of the literature review**.** Make sure that the wording of the alternative hypotheses included in the literature review correspond 100% to the wording of the same hypotheses used elsewhere in the article.

General principles on writing style

An academic article should be written in such a way that it is accessible to an intelligent layperson (i.e., a non-academic person with no expertise in the particular discipline of field of study). In this regard, good writing is good teaching. No matter how technical your article is, an intelligent layperson with no expertise in the specific discipline and with no knowledge of statistics should be able to follow the broad outlines of what you did and why.

Do not try to impress the reader by using difficult and unfamiliar words. Remember that you are conversing with the reader. Use familiar terms and always define unfamiliar constructs/constructs or technical terms clearly when they are introduced for the first time.

While an academic article should be written in clear, accessible language, one should also bear in mind that many readers - especially your study leader and the external examiner - will be sceptical about what you write. Your study leader and the external examiner will continuously be asking the following questions as they read your work:

- What evidence do you have for this claim or factual statement?

- On which arguments do you base this conclusion?
- How do you know that this choice or decision is appropriate and scientifically sound?

You need to provide the necessary "evidence" in your arguments to answer the aforementioned questions. In academic writing, the "evidence" usually comes in the form of in-text references to sources that support your statements, conclusions or methodological choices.

- Use full sentences when writing. A sentence must always contain a verb!
- You should, as far as possible, paraphrase and explain things in your own words (but remember to acknowledge the source!). Use direct quotations very sparingly. Frequent direct quotations indicate that the writer is too lazy to understand the underlying ideas and integrate them into his/her own writing.
- Be careful not to repeat the same information or arguments in different paragraphs or sections of the article.

A concise writing style is especially important in the case of an academic article. Therefore, once you have written a first draft of your article, you need to work through it again … and again … and again to clear away the underbrush that clutters your discussion. This presents a very difficult challenge. Consider the following guidelines:

- Keep your sentences short. Sentences longer than three lines are often difficult to read and understand.
- Beware of sentences containing the word "and". Such sentences can often be split into shorter ones.
- Practice weeding out unnecessary words by editing other people's work. Hone your skills in this way, as it will assist you to shorten your own writing.
- After you have written your first draft, put the article aside for a day or two. You will be surprised at the errors and unnecessary words you discover once you have given yourself a "writer's break".
- Read your article aloud! If you have to gasp for air while reading, the sentence or paragraph is definitely too long.
- While reading, constantly ask yourself the following:
    - *Have I clearly defined this concept/construct?*
    - *Am I making logical sense here?*
    - *Am I repeating myself?*
    - *How can I shorten this?*
- Ask your research partner and an intelligent layperson (a parent, friend or family member who is not a subject-specialist) to read the article. Have them point out errors and, especially, aspects that are unclear. Do not argue

with them if they point out things that are confusing. If they don't understand you, your study leader will most probably also be confused.

Methodology

The methodology or methods section (recommended length: 500-1000 words) describes the steps followed in the execution of the study and also provides a brief justification for the research methods used. It should contain enough detail to enable the reader to evaluate the appropriateness of your methods and the reliability and validity of your findings. Furthermore, the information should enable experienced researchers to replicate your study.

The methodology section typically has the following sub-sections:

- Sampling
  - *Description of target population, research context and units of analysis*
  - *Sampling*
  - *Respondent profile*
- Data collection
  - *Data collection methods*
- Measures (Alternatively: Measurement). The sub-section on measures describes the measurement scales and questions used in the questionnaire.

It is extremely important that you describe your methodological choices in all the subsections in enough detail so that a reader who is not involved in your study will know exactly what you did and why. You should also motivate and justify ("regverdig") your methodological choices so that the reader can see that your choices are appropriate and scientifically sound.

Results

The results section (recommended length: 1000 - 1500 words) summarises the data collected for a study in the form of descriptive statistics and also reports the results of relevant inferential statistical analyses (e.g., hypothesis tests) conducted on the data. In short articles or reports of single empirical studies, the results and discussion sections are sometimes combined.

You need to report the results in sufficient detail so that the reader can see which statistical analyses were conducted and why, and to justify your conclusions. Mention all relevant results, including those that are at odds with the stated hypotheses. You should present your findings as **concisely** as possible and still provide enough detail to properly justify your conclusions, as well as enable the reader to understand exactly what you did in terms of data analysis and why.

Figures and tables often allow one to present findings in a clear and concise manner. However, consider the following:

- If you can say the information in a sentence or paragraph, do so. Use tables to present detailed findings. Reserve figures for the really important stuff that has to be portrayed visually. **DO NOT repeat the same information in a table and a figure**.
- You should ideally not have more than 3 - 5 tables and 1 - 2 figures in the body text of your article.
- Figures take up valuable space in a research article and should only be used when it is essential to report the most important findings in a graphical format.
- A reader should not have to look at a table or figure to follow the discussion of the results in the text. The information in a table or figure merely corroborates or supplements the discussion. Information presented in a table of figure should, therefore, always be summarised and discussed in the text.
- Always provide clear cross-references to tables and figures in the text. These cross-references should always precede the specific table or figure.
- You should, in the text, guide the reader through a figure or table by pointing out the results of interest: "As shown in the first column of Table 2, men produced more tears (2.33 cc) than women (1.89 cc). Of particular interest is the volume of tears produced when both a mother and father watched the same scene (rows 3 and 4) …".
- While it is important to walk the reader through a table or figure in the text in order to point out important results, a table/figure should also stand on its own with a caption at the top and notes at the bottom to allow the reader to understand its purpose and contents without having to read the text.

You should always interpret all research findings for the reader.

Reporting descriptive statistics

The descriptive statistics that you have to report will, primarily, be determined by your research objectives, the level of measurement of the variables involved and by the requirements of your study leader. Consider the following guidelines:

- You have to report and interpret appropriate univariate descriptive statistics for **all** the questions, scales and scale items, as well as for all composite (total) scale scores used in your study.
- Univariate descriptive statistics should be presented in the same order as that of the questions in your data collection instrument on which they are based.
- Make sure that the specific univariate descriptive statistics you report are appropriate given your research objectives and the nature (i.e., level of measurement) of your data.

- You have to be selective when choosing which specific univariate descriptive statistics to report for data at a given level of measurement.
- Whenever you report a mean (average), it should be accompanied by the associated standard deviation.
- If the focus of your research objectives is on the composite (total) scale scores derived from multiple item measures, then you should first report relevant univariate descriptive statistics for the composite scores before reporting univariate descriptive statistics for the individual scale items involved. In other words, first describe the forest before you describe the individual trees. You may decide to only show univariate descriptive statistics for the composite (total) scores in the body text of your article and report univariate descriptive statistics for the individual items in an appendix.
- If the focus of your research objectives is on comparing the scores of different sample sub-groups (e.g., the mean scores of males compared to the mean score of females), then you may show univariate descriptive statistics for each of the subgroups along with the descriptive statistics for the overall sample in a single table.
- You do not have to report univariate descriptive statistics for screening questions (i.e., questions used to determine whether a respondent qualifies for participation in a study) if the responses to such questions were not used in any subsequent analyses.
- Where appropriate, relate mean (average) scores back to the original rating scale. For example, remind us that a mean score of 3.41 on a five-point rating scale of verbal aggression lies between "slightly aggressive" and "moderately aggressive".
- Where appropriate, comment on the managerial implications of your descriptive findings. However, when doing so, you should use a speculative tone as you can only make definitive pronouncements if you have tested for statistical significance. For example:

Wrong: Descriptive statistics indicate that restaurant patrons prefer pecan pie (M = 3.45, SD = 1.11) over cherry pie (M = 3.00, SD = 0.80). The implication for management is …

Correct: Descriptive statistics suggest that restaurant patrons prefer pecan pie (M = 3.45, SD = 1.11) over cherry pie (M = 3.00, SD = 0.80). The implication for management is …

- In cases where scale items were reverse-scored, the univariate descriptive statistics should be based on the reverse-scored data, not on the original data.
- Items that were deleted during reliability analyses should be excluded from all descriptive statistics.

Discussion

In many ways, the discussion section (recommended length: 1000 – 1500 words) is the most important section in an article. Because it is the last thing a reader sees, it can have a major impact on the reader's perceptions of the article and of the research conducted.

Different authors take different approaches when writing the discussion section. The discussion section should:

- restate the study's main purpose;
- reaffirm the importance of the study by restating its main contributions;
- summarise the results in relation to each stated research objective or hypothesis without introducing new material;
- relate the findings back to the literature and to the results reported by other researchers;
- provide possible explanations for unexpected or non-significant findings
- discuss the managerial implications of the study;
- highlight the main limitations of the study that could influence its internal and external validity;
- discuss insightful (i.e., non-obvious) directions or opportunities for future research on the topic.

The list of references of an article

The list of references must comply with ALL the general requirements. *(See also Citation p.56)*

Writing the article

An article is usually written in the form of multiple drafts that are refined after each round of writing. Up two four drafts may be necessary to produce a *polished* article:

- The first draft should ideally be written quickly without worrying too much about the details of referencing and style. The idea is to get your ideas down on paper.
- The second draft is about structure or getting the flow right. During this stage, sections and sub-sections are moved around to ensure a logical flow of ideas. The focus is also on linking the different sections; in other words, on providing overviews.
- The focus of the third draft is on style. This may require intensive editing to shorten the article and improve its readability.
- The fourth and final draft is the most detailed and focuses on technical issues such as referencing, headings, the numbering of tables and figures, ensuring that all the references listed in the text are included in the list of references and a final check of spelling and grammar. It is often helpful to ask a colleague who was not involved in the study to proofread the final draft before it is submitted.

Writing an academic article is a challenging, but very fulfilling, endeavour. Students, however, often underestimate the time required to produce a "polished" first effort. You cannot write a proper research article in a weekend or even in a week. It is, therefore, extremely important to allow yourself enough time – at least three to four weeks – to work on the successive drafts.

SYNOPSES

Engineers, scientists, and managers write research reports to communicate the results of research, field work, and other activities. Often, a research report is the only concrete evidence of your research, and the quality of the research may be judged directly by the quality of the writing and how well you convey the importance of your findings. Even if you don't consider yourself a writer, then, it is still important to consider clarity, organization, and content when you are presenting your research in a research report or synopses.

Fortunately, research reports, which are similar to research articles, technical reports, lab reports, formal reports, synopses or scientific papers (to name a few), have a fairly consistent format that will help you to organize your information clearly. Most research reports contain the same major sections, although the names of the sections vary widely, and sometimes it is appropriate to omit sections or add others. If you are submitting a research report for a class or to an organization, check for specific requirements and guidelines before beginning to write your research report.

Since a research report is the vehicle through which you will share your research with others, you should have completed most of your research before beginning to work on the report. When your research is completed, and you have gathered all the necessary data and interpreted it, you are ready to begin thinking about the content of your research report. It is a good idea to start by conducting a literature search in your area of research. This will help you to see what has been published on your topic in the past and will give you sources to use in writing your own report. You can conduct a literature search by browsing through journals important in your field or by conducting a key word search through library databases.

Depending on the application of your report, these questions may be useful in crafting a first draft:

1) *Describe the purpose of your research. Are you presenting the results of research, outlining a new theory or method, and/or offering a new interpretation of old data?*
2) *Describe the most important feature of your research.*

3) Make a list of anyone who contributed to your research and who could be involved in writing the research report. Describe the contribution they might make to your research report.
4) Compile a list of works by other researchers that you used in your own research or that is related to your research.
5) Describe the ways in which your research proves or disproves other researchers' work.
6) Describe the background of this subject.
7) Describe what you expected to find before you began your research. How did your project change over time? How did your results differ from your expectations?
8) Describe your results. How did you check your results? How can you best represent them: with text, in a table, with a figure, etc?
9) Describe the consequences of your research. What does it mean for the subject? How will it affect future research on this subject?
10) Describe the ideal audience for your report. Who would be most impacted by your research? Who would best understand the consequences of your research?
11) If you are seeking to publish your report, describe the journals in which you would like to see your research appear. What are the specific requirements for these journals? Additionally, what type of language should you use in writing your report? Look carefully at journals to which you are interested in submitting; how do writers describe their experimental data?
12) Consider the specific guidelines under which you are working. If relevant, make a list of the sections you are required to include in your report. If you have freedom in choosing sections to include, make a list of the sections you think will be necessary to include.

Reports are generally divided up into sections. Each section has a specific purpose, and often there are specific guidelines for formatting each section. It's always best to consult a style manual for your discipline, to talk to other people in your discipline who have written reports, and to look at similar reports that have been published in order to more fully understand the expectations for reports in your field.

Generally, a report will include the following sections: ***title page***, ***abstract***, ***table of contents***, ***introduction***, ***body***, ***recommendations***, ***references***, ***appendices***.

Title page

The title page of the research report normally contains four main pieces of information: the report title; the name of the person, company, or organization for whom the report has been prepared; the name of the author

and the company or university which originated the report; and the date the report was completed. You might also include other information on the title page such as contract number, a security classification such as CONFIDENTIAL, or a copy number depending on the nature of the report you are writing.

It is important to take your audience into account when developing a title for your research report. It is a good idea to develop a "working title" for your project as you draft your report initially, but be open to changing your title after you are finished writing to accurately reflect your project. Be sure that your title is accurate; it needs to reflect the major emphasis of your paper. Try to imagine what you would want to see in the title if you were searching for your paper by keyword; include keywords in the title when possible and when they are relevant.

There are four common approaches that writers often take to writing their titles. Notice how these approaches help to convey the nature of the research and introduce the topic.

1. *Include the name of the problem, hypothesis, or theory that was tested or is discussed.*
   Example: Connectionism and Determinism in a Syntactic Parser
2. *Include the name of the phenomenon or subject investigated.*
   Example: The Human Brain: Conservation of the Subcortical Auditory System
3. *Name the method used to investigate a phenomenon or method developed for application.*
   Example: A Practical EMG-Based Human-Computer Interface for Users with Motor Disabilities
4. *Provide a brief description of the results obtained.*
   Example: The Drimolen Skull: The Most Complete Australopithecine Cranium and Mandible to Date

Omit obvious words and phrases such as *"A study on . . ."* and "An investigation of . . ." whenever you can as well. These make your title unnecessarily wordy.

Abstract

An abstract can be the most difficult part of the research report to write because in it you must introduce your subject matter, tell what was done, and present selected results, all in one short (about 150 words) paragraph. As a result, you should usually write the abstract last. (*See also Abstract p. 10)*

Table of Contents

Most reports will contain a Table of Contents that lists the report's contents and demonstrates how the report has been organized. You should list each major section in your Table of Contents. Sometimes you may want to

use additional descriptive headings throughout your report and for your Table of Contents. Using descriptive headings can help readers to see how your report is organized if the section headings are not clear enough. This is likely to be true especially if most of your report is contained in one long section called Body or Discussion that includes everything from the materials and methods you used to the results you found and the conclusions you draw. In this case, it might be best to include additional headings to indicate where readers can look specifically to read about your materials and methods or conclusions.

Contents	i
Abstract	ii
Contents	1
Introduction	2
Materials and Methods	3
Results and Discussion	5
Soil Properties	5
Surface Water Runoff and Soil Loss	6
Dry Versus Wet Run	6
Initiation and Cessation of Runoff	7
Physical Aspects of Runoff and Erosion	8
Conclusion	9
References	10
Appendix	13

Introduction

You should begin your introduction at the top of a new page, preceded on the page only by the report's full title. The title is followed by the word Introduction, which can be either a center or side heading. Most introductions contain three parts to provide context for the research: purpose, scope, and background information. These parts often overlap one another, and sometimes one of them may be omitted simply because there is no reason for it to be included.

It is very important to consider the **purpose** of your research and your report in the introduction.

Scope refers to the ground covered by the report and will outline the method of investigation used in the project. For example, "if 18 methods for improving packaging are investigated in a project but only 4 are discussed in the report, the scope indicates what factors (such as cost, delivery time, and availability of space) limited the selection" (Blicq and Moretto 165). Scope may also include defining important terms.

Background Information includes facts that the reader must know in order to understand the discussion that follows. These facts may include descriptions of conditions or events that caused the project to be authorized or assigned and details of previous work and reports on the problem or closely related problems. You might also want to review theories that have a bearing on the project and references to other documents although if you need to include a lengthy review of other theories or documents, these should be placed in an appendix.

The body

The body is usually the longest part of the research report, and it includes all of the evidence that readers need to have in order to understand the subject. This evidence includes details, data, results of tests, facts, and conclusions. Exactly what you include in the body and how it is organized will be determined by the context in which you are writing.

In general, the body of the research report will include three distinct sections:

- *a section on theories, models, and your own hypothesis*
- *a section in which you discuss the materials and methods you used in your research*
- *a section in which you present and interpret the results of your research.*

You will usually use a heading to identify the beginning of each of these sections.

You may or may not need to include a section in which you discuss the theories and models upon which your research project is based. This section can be very important, especially for research articles, formal reports, or scientific papers, but sometimes it will not be required for lab reports and other homework assignments. If you do not have to include a section on theories and models, it will usually be because you are not positing an original hypothesis. This is likely to happen in a course for which you write lab reports. You may be required to conduct research to practice applying the theories and models you are learning about, but you will probably be given your hypothesis and won't need to explain in your lab report where and how the hypothesis was developed since you did not actually develop it yourself. Regardless of whether you include a section on theories and models, your research will be informed by models and theories that other researchers have developed. Models generally grow out of theories. In most cases, you will need to include information about the theories and models that inform your research because these theories and models will directly affect the hypothesis that you propose and on which you base your research. When you develop hypotheses, you predict what you will find after you conduct your research. This prediction is based on existing theories, models, evidence, and logic. It's

always best to talk with your professor, your adviser, or people in your workplace about what the best ways are to write reports in your field, or to consult other reports and use them as models or guides for your writing.

In your section, you may need to:

- define and explain your hypothesis and the theories and models you used to develop it
- define and explain competing hypotheses, theories, and models, including their strengths and weaknesses
- compare and contrast the specific points where they agree or disagree.

Prewriting on this section can also help you feel more comfortable including this information in your report and will help you to decide what needs to be included. The following questions are good ones to work through:

- *What do I expect this experiment to reveal? Why?*
- *How does my hypothesis directly answer the question posed by the problem?*
- *How does the hypothesis fit in with other hypotheses or more general theory? How will my work challenge or support the work of others?*
- *What is the current theory to which it relates?*
- *What are alternative views to this theory? What are the strengths and weakness of those views?*
- *On what literature did I or can I base my explanation?*

Materials and Methods

The materials and methods section should describe the apparatus and the procedure that you used in your experiment.

All materials and methods sections should address the following questions:

- *How was the experiment designed?*
- *On what subjects or materials was the experiment performed?*
- *How were the subjects/materials prepared?*
- *What machinery and equipment was used in the experiment?*
- *What sequence of events did you follow as you handled the subjects/materials or as you recorded data?*

Results: Presenting data

In the results section of your report, you will finally get to talk about what you discovered, invented, or confirmed through your research, and you will present your experimental data, observations, and outcome. Because this section focuses on your specific research project, the results section is the most straightforward of the sections to write, and it may be the simplest and most enjoyable section you will write. Regardless of what other sections you need to include, you will always write a section in which you present results,

although it might be called discussion rather than "results," All preceding sections of the report (Introduction, Materials and Methods, etc.) lead in to the Results section of the report and all subsequent sections will consider what the results mean (conclusion, recommendations, etc.).

Focus on the facts of your research in the Results section and present them in a straightforward way. Consider how best to organize your results section in the clearest and most logical way. The most common way to organize information in a research report is chronologically. This method of organization allows you to present information in the sequence that events occurred. Organizing information chronologically can be very simple and will not require much preplanning. It does tend to give emphasis to each event regardless of its relative importance, however and, as a result, can be difficult for readers to understand which event or what information is most important, and it can also be difficult for the writer to keep their reader's attention.

How should I incorporate figures and tables into my report?

Most scientific reports will use some type of figure and/or table to convey information to readers. Figures visually represent data and include graphs, charts, photographs, and illustrations. Tables organize data into groups. You will most likely use figures and tables in your report to represent numerical data from measurements taken during your experiment. Figures and tables should help to simplify information, so you should consider using them when words are not able to convey information as efficiently as a visual aid would be able to.

- *Tables* or lists are simple ways to organize the precise data points themselves in one-on-one relationships.
- *A graph* is best at showing the trend or relationship between two dimensions, or the distribution of data points in a certain dimension (i.e., time, space, across studies, statistically).
- *A pie chart* is best at showing the relative areas, volumes, or amounts into which a whole (100%) has been divided.
- *Flow charts* show the organization or relationships between discrete parts of a system. For that reason they are often used in computer programming.
- *Photographs* are not very good at calling attention to a particular part within a larger structure. They are best at presenting overall shapes, shades, and relative positionings, or when a 'real-life' picture is necessary, as in the picture of a medical condition or an electron micrograph of a particular microscopic structure.
- *Illustrations* are best when they are simple, unshaded line drawings. Remove all but the essential details in order to keep your line drawing as

uncluttered as possible. They suit most purposes for representing real objects or the relationship of parts in a larger object. (Porush 141).

Additionally, all tables and figures should:

- *be self-contained*—they should make complete sense on their own without reference to the text
- *be cited in the text*—it will be very confusing to your audience to suddenly come upon a table or figure that is not introduced somewhere in the text. They will not have a context for understanding its relevance to your report
- *include a number such as Table 1 or Figure 10*—this will help you to distinguish multiple tables and figures from each other
- *include a concise title*—it is a good idea to make the most important feature of the data the title of the figure
- *include clear and proportionate labels* so that readers will understand your table or figure.

Results: Interpretation of Data

It is unlikely that you will title a separate section of your report "Interpretation of Data." Usually, this section, combined with your presentation of data, will be called "Results".

This section of the report is important because it demonstrates the meaning of your research. In this section you will interpret your results and your research as a whole and discuss the relationship of your findings to earlier research. This section of the paper draws upon writing skills that other sections do not because you need to write persuasively in this section as you convince readers that your interpretation of data is logical and correct.

One basic way to organize your information logically is to move from what you are most certain about to what you are least certain about. For most research reports, the most certain part of your case will be your data, and many research reports will develop along this outline:

- *begin with a discussion of the data*
- *move on to generalize about or analyze the data*
- *consider how the data addresses the research problem or hypothesis outlined in the Introduction*
- *discuss what can be inferred from the data as they relate to other research and scientific concepts*

Conclusions

The Conclusion of a research report is usually a very short section that introduces no new ideas. The conclusion is important because it is your last chance to convey the significance and meaning of your research to your reader by concisely summarizing your findings and generalizing their importance. It is also a place to raise questions that remain unanswered and to discuss ambiguous data. The conclusions you draw are opinions, based on the

evidence presented in the body of your report, but because they are opinions you should not tell the reader what to do or what action they should take. Save discussion of future action for your section on Recommendations. The most important thing to remember in writing your conclusion is to state your conclusions clearly.

Once you have stated your conclusions clearly, you can move on to discuss the implications of your conclusions. Be sure that you use language that distinguishes conclusions from inferences. Use phrases like *"This research demonstrates . . ." to present your conclusions and phrases like "This research suggests . . ." or "This research implies . . ."* to discuss implications. Make sure that readers can tell your conclusions from the implications of those conclusions, and do not claim too much for your research in discussing implications. You can use phrases such as *"Under the following circumstances," "In most instances," or "In these specific cases"* to warn readers that they should not generalize your conclusions. *(See also Appendix E)*

Recommendations

You may or may not need to include a section titled "Recommendations." This section appears in a report when the results and conclusions indicate that further work needs to be done or when you have considered several ways to resolve a problem or improve a situation and want to determine which one is best. If you find that you need to include a recommendations section you have another opportunity to demonstrate how your research fits within the larger project of science, and the section can serve as a starting point for future dialogue on the subject. It demonstrates that you fully understand the importance and implications of your research, as you suggest ways that it could continue to be developed. Do not include a recommendations section simply for the sake of including one.

References

It is important to include a References section at the end of a report in which you used other sources. Reference styles vary greatly from one instructor to another, one journal to another. You should always format your references according to the guidelines provided by the journal or teacher to whom you are submitting your report. One of the most common reference styles used for research reports in the social sciences and some other disciplines is that outlined by the American Psychological Association (APA).

Information to include on your reference list:

- *Author's name or authors' names*
- *Title of the document*
- *Identification information:*

- *Books:* city, state, or country of publication, publisher's name, and year of publication. Editor's name, chapter title and author, and page numbers of chapter, if applicable.
- *Journal articles or technical papers:* journal's name, volume and issue number, date of issue, page numbers of referenced articles.
- *Reports:* report number, name and location of issuing organization, date of issue.
- *Correspondence:* name and location of issuing organization; name and location of receiving organization, letter's date.
- *Conversation, conference presentation, or Speech:* name and location of speaker's organization; name, identification, and location of listener; date.

The sample reference list below demonstrates the type of information you should include when taking notes on your references.

David Porush. *A Short Guide to Writing About Science*. New York Harper Collins 1995.

Anders M. Dale, Bruce Fischl, and Martin I. Sereno. "Cortical Surface-Based Analysis." pages 179-194 *NeuroImage* Ed. Arthur W. Toga Volume 9 Number 2 February 1999.

Appendices

You should place information in an Appendix that is relevant to your subject but needs to be kept separate from the main body of the report to avoid interrupting the line of development of the report. Anything can be placed in an appendix as long as it is relevant and as long as you made reference to it in the body of your report. You should not include an appendix simply for the sake of including one, though.

An appendix should include only one set of data, but additional appendices are acceptable if you need to include several sets of data that do not belong in the same appendix. Label each appendix with a letter, A, B, C, and so on. Do not place the appendices in order of their importance to you, but rather in the order in which you referred to them in your report. You should also paginate each appendix separately so that the first page of each appendix you include begins with 1.

ADMISSIONS ESSAY

Here are some tips for writing an admissions essay.

Writing a winning personal statement requires more than the mere ability to write clearly and concisely. These are basic threshold skills, which are required for any type of writing. An effective personal statement, however, requires the applicant to ably communicate his/her unique characteristics and

experiences in a way that will distinguish himself/herself from the rest of the applicant pool. This is a very demanding, often onerous, task because it compels the applicant to

a) analyze his/her personality and personal history,
b) prioritize and organize personal traits, experiences and accomplishments tailored to the structure of school admission criteria/requirements,
c) fit all this prioritized information into a narrative structure, and
d) craft an organized essay into a convincing composition. All of this must be done under the added constraint of being bound by how narrow or specific the particular personal statement question is framed.

Above all, the successful applicant must focus on substantive strategies and concerns in order to stand apart from others who have approximately the same grades, comparable accomplishments, awards and/or life experiences. While the rest of the candidate pool may be able to write clearly and competently, the smart candidate writes with the intent to beat the competition by differentiating him/herself from others. This is where creative, innovative, and engaging writing comes into play.

Before writing your essay:

1. Set a timetable for yourself.
2. Identify your purpose.
3. Focus on what makes you different.
4. Make a list of your activities, jobs and experiences.
5. List your strengths and weaknesses.
6. To think of ideas, write without stopping for 30 minutes.
7. Think about how you will structure your essay.
8. Outline your essay informally.

When you write your essay:

1. Show - don't tell; use examples instead of stating things explicitly.
2. Write in the active voice.
3. Sound like yourself; use words you use normally.
4. Be clear, concise and direct.
5. Be careful not to repeat an idea too many times.
6. Each word should be meaningful.
7. Link your paragraphs with transitions.
8. Don't have too many different ideas in your essay.

PROJECT WORK

True that project work is based on innovation and a straight jacketed approach is not desirable. But it is desirable to at least prepare some guidelines so that there is better understanding of project work amongst the

academic community.

Project-based learning is a popular and effective approach to learning and instruction in basic education. Project-based learning and similar approaches (known collectively as PBL) engage students in authentic, problem-solving activities. Many students' educators have found that PBL is an excellent way to give students solid experience in the use of new information and communications technologies.

There are some differences between project-based learning and problem-based learning. Project-based learning is the term most often used where the process typically begins with an end product or "artifact" in mind, the production of which requires specific content knowledge or skills. In adult basic education, the term project-based learning is generally used to describe an instructional approach that combines both the production and the inquiry aspects of PBL. Project-based learning engages learners in systematic and in-depth inquiry.

Problem-based learning is the preferred term for applications of PBL in higher education, where, as the name implies, the learning process begins with a problem to be solved.

Making plans and doing research are key features of PBL.

The project-work instructional approach is a student-centered rather than teacher-directed teaching method. It is particularly effective in the ESP teaching settings, because it easily lends itself to (1) learner centeredness (2) authentic language use, (3) authentic tasks, and (4) a focus on language at the discourse rather than the sentence level. From the beginning of the project, learners themselves have to decide what they will do and how they will do it. They also conclude that though project work may not be the easiest instructional approach to implement, the potential pay-offs are many.

One of the main goals of using project work in the foreign/second language classroom is for language learners to use language in an integrated rather than isolated fashion. A key feature of project work requires that teachers "make language visible" in project work, not only so that learners can successfully complete the project, but also so that they can become aware of how the language they are learning and using works in meaningful and relevant activities.

Project work provides several opportunities to students to learn several aspects of importance to an engineer that cannot be taught in a class room or laboratory. To become a full fledged engineer one should have, in addition to subject knowledge, analytical skills and graphics capabilities, the following experiences:

- Capability to work independently - to think, to conceptualize, to design, to operationalize, to diagnose on failures and to innovate.

- Learn to work as a team - sharing work amongst a group, learning human behaviour, etc.
- Learn leadership qualities.
- Learn to solve a problem through all its stages by understanding and applying project management skills.
- Learn to do various implementations, and learn problems of system integration, fabrication, testing and trouble shooting.
- Learn about some specific technology that is under development (like mobile communications, blue tooth, etc).
- Learn about issues and problems in prototyping and applications of technologies.
- Learn communication skills.
- Learn report writing skills.

We can define several steps in a project work activity. Many stages are listed. Some may not be needed for some types of project work:

- Project topic selection.
- Literature survey and analysis.
- Problem definition, including inputs, analysis, hardware / software / testing components required, functions, requirements, responses, outputs and deliverables, diagnostics, constraints, scope limitations, types of users, etc.
- Project report preparation. Reviews, discussions.

Here are some important steps to ensure smooth and efficient projects:

- introduce your rationale for using project work;
- justify the use of small groups for project work methodology;
- model the technique;
- give explicit and detailed instructions see below;
- give examples of the language, which might be necessary;
- divide the class into groups with clear roles (leader, secretary);
- check for understanding of task with concept questions;
- allocate an agreed amount of time for the project;
- set the task in motion;
- monitor the task using a well thought-out observation grid;
- debrief the class;
- presentation of the final products.

A production-oriented version of PBL may include the following steps:

1. Students define the purpose for creating the end product and identify their audience.
2. They research their topic, design their product, and create a plan for project management.

3. Students then begin the project, resolve problems and issues that arise in production, and finish their product.
4. Students may use or present the product they have created, and ideally are given time to reflect on and evaluate their work.

Projects, as any forms of organizing, are shaped by the institutional and cultural environment in which they are embedded.

Specific Types of Project Work

Different types of project work are suitable for answering different types of engineering questions:

1.	Questionnaire study	What do experts feel or know about….?
2.	Literature review	What is the evidence for…?
3.	Case study	How can I learn from this case…?
4.	Research Project	
5.	Plan for a new service/object	What can we do about…?
6.	Discussion paper	Why do we practice in this way?

1. Questionnaire study

Questionnaires are useful when you need to find out information from more people than you can easily interview. They can yield information about people's opinions, attitudes, and knowledge. There are several published guides to carrying out questionnaires. You may want to use a questionnaire that has already been validated. If you are designing your own questionnaire, take care to keep it clear, simple, and short. It is also wise to pilot the questionnaire. Please attach a copy of your questionnaire as an appendix to your project.

Literature

Include references on your subject matter, and any that have helped you to develop your questionnaire and to increase your response rate. As an introduction, explain why you are interested in this area of work. The title of the project should be closely related to the aim.

Method

Say how you developed your questionnaire, or identified an existing one to use. Describe how you chose your population, how you chose your sample size, and how the questionnaire was administered. Consider deadlines for replies, and the use of reminders to non-responders. Describe your method of piloting if you did this. How did you analyse the results?

Results/findings

Response rates should be clearly stated. The results you get from your questionnaire will depend on the types of questions you ask. Answers to

closed questions may be presented as tables or graphs, answers to open questions may need to be reported differently.

2. Literature review

The purpose of a literature review is to find and evaluate existing research evidence on a topic. It can be described as 'secondary research', and as such should set out to answer a clear question. Your objective is not to list as many articles as possible but to demonstrate your ability to recognise relevant information, and to evaluate it according to the question you have posed in your aim.

References

You can include references chosen for your review and also those that have helped you with your method e.g. a paper on how to do a literature review or on critical appraisal of the literature. The references that you get from your literature search are really part of the results for this type of project. You should also provide references in the aims section when you describe the background to your project.

Method

Which databases did you search? What keywords did you use? How did you select the papers to read? How did you judge a paper to be worth including? What criteria did you use to evaluate the papers?

Results/Findings

Describe the range of literature you identified, and critically appraise the most relevant and important papers. These papers may themselves be reviews or meta-analyses. You need to provide more than just a descriptive list of articles and books. One important aspect of the results is how many papers, and of what type, your search yielded. How many of these were selected for analysis and inclusion in the write up of the project?

3. Case Study (includes significant event review)

You might choose to study a particular case or a series of cases. A significant event may form the basis of a case study. You may wish to focus on engineering aspects, management problems or other non- engineering aspects.

Literature

You may quote other case reports, as well as literature about the case. You may want to refer to literature on qualitative methods or significant event analysis. References that helped you develop your aim are always interesting.

Method

There are various ways you could gather information about a case or series of cases: from the case notes, interviewing, documents etc. Your method section should describe how you did this, e.g. tape recording of

interviews, keeping 'field' notes. If you use transcriptions of interviews, say how you analysed them to extract relevant themes. You may find that references on qualitative or narrative methods are useful here.

Results/findings

This section will consist of your narrative about the case(s). Your statements, e.g. about the experiences, may be supported with quotes from interviews or from documentary evidence. In this sort of work it is often difficult to separate presentation of results from discussion of them.

4. Research Project

Research is an organized and systematic way of finding answers to questions. There are different types of research, and there is likely to be overlap between this category of project and others e.g. questionnaire studies, notes reviews. It is important to keep your project well-contained so that it is realistic to complete during your training.

Literature

Refer to papers that resulted in you formulating an aim. You could also refer to papers that contributed to the development of your method.

Method

This should be closely related to the aim. Describe what you have done in a way that would enable the reader to repeat your work.

Results/findings

Try to present results neatly and use graphs and charts only if this clarifies. Organise your results in a way that makes it clear that you have answered your research question or more generally achieved your aims.

5. Plan for a new service/object

Establishing a new department, shop, company structure, etc. are examples. Creating a web site is another.

Literature

You may want to refer to papers on managing change as well as those related to the service being created. What evidence is there in the literature that such a service will improve the situation?

Method

How did you establish the need for this service? How did you go about planning and implementing this change? What method do you recommend for evaluating the service? You may wish to seek patient's views on a new service, interviewing or administering a questionnaire.

Results/findings

This section can include a description of the service and any evaluation if you have reached that stage. There could be a presentation of the evidence for the service here.

6. Discussion Paper

A discussion paper gives you the opportunity to collect evidence from sources other than peer-reviewed literature. You must not just state your own prejudices but develop a logical argument.

Literature

Peer reviewed literature can be used as well as other sources. When referencing web sites, add a date when last accessed.

Method

You should describe how you gathered your information and this can be from the media, communicating personally with someone or by email with experts, web-sites, describing what happens in your practice as well as searching the literature. With a discussion paper, you have the opportunity to be creative with your method.

Results/findings

This section should be a logical presentation of your findings. You may wish to attach letters or other 'grey' material as appendices.

How to structure your project

1. Aim

The background and reason for doing the project should be stated. The project is more manageable if it has one aim rather than several.

2. Literature

The references used should be listed in a consistent style at the end of the project. Normally there would be 6 or more relevant references. They should be referred to clearly in the text.

3. Method

The reader should have enough information to be able to repeat what was done. It is helpful to include a short statement of why you think the method you have chosen is appropriate to the aims of your project and how it helps you answer your question. If there are ethical or good practice issues relating to your project, you should describe how they have been dealt with.

4. Results of findings

This should be clearly related to the aims of the project, and the method. Consider different ways of presenting numerical data.

5. Discussion

Summarise the main findings of your project. Evaluate your project by describing its strengths and weaknesses. Say how your findings relate to other people's published work. What are the implications of your work for your practice and/or primary care generally? What changes would you recommend? If possible relate the suggested changes to the practice you are working in.

6. Conclusion

Sum up the main points to your project. What further work would you suggest in the light of your findings?

Make constant reference to the marking schedule throughout the planning and writing stages and aim for high marks for each criterion. Use the headings: aim, method, results, discussion, conclusion and literature.

Project Work Assessment

If only one assessment item (the project report or the project product) is used, it is important that students receive meaningful feedback during the progress of the project. Such feedback ought to assist the learning process and provide students with an approximate idea of their chances of passing the subject. If this is not done, students will concentrate their main efforts on the final product and not on the work preceding it.

Group work in projects

A proportion of project work is conducted by students in groups. Some of the advantages of group work include the enhanced learning resulting from combining the knowledge and experiences of several students, the fact that this type of work is more closely allied to the type of work many students will experience in their careers, and that the quantity of marking can be reduced. One of the major disadvantages felt by many staff (and students) is the injustice of awarding one mark to a group in which the contributions from individual students have not been equivalent.

It can be suggested that in group projects or assignments that have an overall assessment weighting of over 20%, students should be given the option of an individual mark.

One way of achieving this is to award the group one mark, but allow them to decide how that mark should be distributed among them. Students will have to agree on the criteria being used to make this decision, and may learn some negotiating skills in the process. They can be asked to prepare for this negotiation by keeping minutes of meeting, diaries of events, drafts of contributions, etc.

Assessment criteria

(a) Assessing the way the project is conducted

A number of factors are considered when assessing how well a project is carried out. It is worth emphasising that the list of criteria given below is not meant to be exhaustive. All projects are unique and any particular project may possess features not included in the list below. Alternatively, some of the items listed may be irrelevant. The assessment criteria therefore, must be tailored to the project.

Criteria include:

- Ability to work independently and adapt to changing circumstances.
- Ability to cope with, solve or avoid problems whichever is appropriate.

- Experimental skills: apparatus design, effective use of equipment, technical skills, log book.
- Design and execution of investigations, initiative and originality of approach.
- Setting objectives, organization of time and meeting deadlines.
- Library skills and using literature effectively.

(b) Assessing the written report

It should again be emphasized that there is no universal set of assessment guidelines; these have to be tailored according to the type of project undertaken.

The report criteria may include:

- Style expression, logical development and structure of report.
- Difficulty of project.
- Continuity of chapters and sections.
- Quality of diagrams, tables etc.
- Care and attention paid to general presentation, layout and spelling, transition.
- Balance amongst chapters.

Introduction criteria may include:

- Statement of problem.
- Clarity and accuracy of explanations.
- Justification of project.
- Awareness of reader's level of knowledge.
- Appropriate subject matter and references.
- Logical development and continuity of presentation of subject matter.

Method criteria may include:

- Clarity and thoroughness of presenting experimental aspects of problem.
- Description and discussion of all relevant aspects of data collection.
- Critical appraisal of data analysis and reduction techniques.
- Logical approach to describing and discussing each aspect of the "method".

Results criteria may include:

- Efficient and clear presentation.
- Validation of results.
- Analysis and use of appropriate techniques.
- Critical interpretation of results.
- Justifying conclusions.

Conclusion criteria may include:

- Goals achieved.
- Realistic evaluation of future developments.

PRESENTATIONS

Spoken monologue, that is oral presentations, can be a feature of ESP work. Presentations are a great way to have students practise all language systems areas (vocabulary, grammar, discourse and phonology) and skills (speaking, reading, writing and listening). They also build confidence, and presenting is a skill that most people will need in the world of work. Students who are good presenters are better communicators all round, since they are able to structure and express their ideas clearly.

Presentation skills are extremely useful both in and outside the classroom. After completing a project, a presentation is a channel for students to share with others what they have learned. It is also a chance to challenge and expand on their understanding of the topic by having others ask questions. And in the world of work, a confident presenter is able to inform and persuade colleagues effectively.

Presentations can also form a natural part of task based learning. By focusing on a particular language point or skill, the presentation is a very practical way to revise and extend book, pair and group work. The audience can also be set a task, for example, a set of questions to answer on the presentation, which is a way of getting students to listen to each other.

Normally the presentation will come towards the end of a lesson or series of lessons that focus on a particular language or skill area. It is a type of free practice.

Presentations normally have one or more of the following aims:

- To inform/ raise awareness of an important issue.
- To persuade people to do something.
- To form part of an exam, demonstrating public speaking/presentation skills in a first or second language.

Key features of oral presentations

An effective oral presentation is built on language and skills and requires confidence. ESP courses are likely to look at: structuring, visuals, voice, and advance signalling as well as language.

Structuring a presentation has much in common with structuring written communication in as much as listeners want a clear *map* to follow; there should be a start, a middle and an end. The adage, “tell 'em what you're going to say, say it, tell 'em what you've said” still works well for the broad structure.

Genre analysis of written articles shows a limited range of moves in introductions and a more complex situation in discussions. Likewise, in oral presentations, the moves in the introduction and conclusion include:

Introduction	*Conclusion*
establish credentials state purpose and topic indicate time	summarise make recommendations call for action outline what is to come

The middle is more complex, but a good start gets listeners on board. A good end is essential; it is what remains with listeners. If only one stage is planned and practised it should be the ending. The moves in the middle section will depend on the type and purpose of the presentation. It seems likely that the natural and logical orders used to structure written information are valid. Thus the patterns of situation - problem - solution(s) - evaluation, general to specific, and most to least significant occur in oral presentations.

It is often said, "*Visuals* are worth a thousand words". Yes, if they are good and used well, otherwise . . .! Visuals can include a few written words but are hardly visual if they are primarily text and then get read aloud! However, there is specific spoken language associated with visual aids which will:

- signal that a visual aid is coming
- say what the visual represents
- explain why the visual is being used
- highlight what is most significant.

Voice work may include pronunciation but intonation usually hinders comprehension more. Phrasing, pausing, speed of delivery, volume and tone variation all play an important role and may need as much attention as the actual words. Pausing is silence and often feels uncomfortable to a less confident speaker. It is though essential processing time for listeners. Silence is also a part of the language of visuals; the silent time when the visual makes its impact and the audience absorbs and processes the information.

Advance signalling or signposts help listeners follow both the structure of the information and argument, and recognise the significance of visuals. For instance through enumeration as in "*I've divided my talk into three parts*" or advance labelling as in "*The next table helps us understand why…"*

Teaching oral presentations

For practical reasons, oral presentation work is often only a component on courses with restricted numbers. However, it is possible, with ingenuity, to include such work in class situations: oral presentations can be built into the outcomes of reading-and writing-based projects; the presentations can be prepared and given by groups. Such a component has motivational value where learners want to improve their spoken English even though their main

immediate needs are with the written word.

Oral presentation work often concentrates on the stand-up, prepared talk accompanied by visuals. However, for many business people the short, fairly *impromptu* presentation in a meeting is a more common event; they may be asked to state the current position of a project, to fill in details, to explain the need for extra resources. Most of the principles and language of a longer prepared presentation apply in these situations and fillers such as "well, that's an interesting point" or "thank you for asking about that" are useful devices as they give a second or two of thinking time. *(See also Appendix A)*

Assessment

The teacher needs to carefully consider the assessment criteria, so that s/he can give meaningful feedback.

There can be suggested a list of language related that the teacher should look for. This covers:

- range / accuracy of vocabulary
- range / accuracy of grammar
- presentation / discourse management- is it well structured? What linking words are used and how?
- use of visuals- Do they help or hinder the presentation?
- paralinguistic features.

"Paralinguistics" refers to non-verbal communication. This is important in a presentation because eye contact, directing your voice to all parts of the room, using pitch and tone to keep attention and so on are all part of engaging an audience. *(see also Appendix B)*

Feedback

As with spoken interactions, the confidence factor must influence how feedback is handled. Strengths need highlighting and building on, positive features discussing first. Areas for improvement need concrete suggestions of ways and means of achieving it. The numerical rating of different features may be suitable in ESP situations where grades are an accepted part of life.

Presentation Tips for Students

Making effective classroom presentations takes practice, but with a few tips up your sleeve, you are ready to take on the challenge. These presentation tips refer to PowerPoint slides (all versions), but all of these tips in general, can be applied to any presentation.

1. Know Your Topic

Students usually want to charge right in and start using the presentation software immediately. Do the research first and know your material. Think through what you will present before beginning the project on the computer. Creating the slide show is the easy part. The best classroom presentations are

created by people who are comfortable with what they are going to talk about.

2. Use Key Phrases about Your Topic

Good presenters use key phrases and include only the most important information. Your topic may be vast, but choose only the top three or four points and make them several times throughout the presentation in the classroom.

3. Avoid Using Too Much Text on the Slide

One of the biggest mistakes students make in classroom presentations, is in writing their whole speech on the slides. The slide show is meant to **accompany** your oral presentation. Write in the form of jot notes, called bullet points, on slides. Use simple language and limit the number of bullets to three or four per slide. The surrounding space will make it easier to read.

4. Limit the Number of Slides

Too many slides in a presentation will cause you to be rushing to get through them, and your audience might end up paying more attention to the changing slide than to what you are saying. On average, one slide per minute is about right in a classroom presentation.

5. Layout of Your Slide is Important

Make your slides easy to follow. Put the title at the top where your audience expects to find it. Phrases should read left to right and top to bottom. Keep important information near the top of the slide. Often the bottom portions of slides cannot be seen from the back rows because heads are in the way.

6. Avoid Fancy Fonts

Choose a font that is simple and easy to read such as Arial, Times New Roman or Verdana. You may have a really cool font on your computer, but save it for other uses. Don't use more than two different fonts – one for headings and another for content. Keep all fonts large enough (at least 18 pt and preferably 24 pt) so that people at the back of the room will be able to read them easily.

7. Try a Slide Design Template to Keep the Look Consistent

When you use a design template, choose one that will not detract from your classroom presentation. Test it ahead of time to make sure that the text will be readable and the graphics won't get lost in the background.

8. Use Animations and Transitions Sparingly in Classroom Presentations

Let's face it. Students love to apply animations and transitions every place they can. This will certainly be entertaining, but rarely will the audience be paying attention to the message of the presentation.

Apply animations to graphics to make a point, not to entertain. Using

preset animation schemes will apply action to titles and bullet points, keeping the slide show consistent and interesting. Remember, the slide show is a visual aid and not the objective of the classroom presentation.

STUDENT PORTFOLIO

Portfolios are collections of student work representing a selection of products that represent specific student performance. Portfolios in classrooms today are derived from the visual and performing arts tradition in which they serve to showcase artists' accomplishments and personally favored works. A portfolio may be a folder containing a student's pieces and the student's evaluation of the strengths and weaknesses of the pieces. It may also contain a collection of student papers that illustrate the creation of a product, such as essays, reports, descriptions of project works, annotations, abstracts, and academic articles evolving through various stages of conception, drafting, and revision.

Many teachers are using portfolios in all curricular areas. Portfolios are useful as a support to new instructional approaches that emphasize the student's role in constructing knowledge and the teacher's role in promoting this process. For example, in writing instruction, portfolios can function to illustrate the range of assignments, goals, and audiences for which a student produced written material. In addition, portfolios can be a record of the activities undertaken over time in the development of written products. They can also be used to support cooperative teaming by offering an opportunity for students to share and comment on each other's work. For example, a videotape of students speaking English in the classroom can be used to evoke a critical evaluation of each other's conversational skills at various points during the study year.

Recent changes in education policy, which emphasize greater teacher involvement in designing curriculum and assessing students, have also been an impetus to increased portfolio use. Portfolios are valued as an assessment tool because, as representations of classroom-based performance, they can be fully integrated into the curriculum. And unlike separate tests, they supplement rather than take time away from instruction. Moreover, many teachers, educators, and researchers believe that portfolio assessments are more effective than "old-style" tests for measuring academic skills and informing instructional decisions.

Why try it? Students have been stuffing assignments in notebooks and folders for years, so what's so new and exciting about portfolios? Portfolios capitalize on students' natural tendency to save work and become an effective way to get them to take a second look and think about how they could

improve future work. As any teacher or student can confirm, this method is a clear departure from the old write, hand in, and forget mentality, where first drafts were considered final products.

How does it work? Although there is no single correct way to develop portfolio programs, in all of them students are expected to collect, select, and reflect. In building a portfolio of selected pieces and explaining the basis for their choices, students generate criteria for good work, with teacher and peer input. Students need specifics with clear guidelines and examples to get started on their work, so these discussions need to be well guided and structured. The earlier the discussions begin, the better.

While portfolios were developed on the model of the visual and performing arts tradition of showcasing accomplishments, portfolios in classrooms today are a highly flexible instructional and assessment tool, adaptable to diverse curricula, student age/grade levels, and administrative contexts.

Portfolios may also be used to compare achievement across different groups. When they are used for this purpose, fairness requires that standards be developed to specify the types of work that can be included and the criteria used to evaluate the work. Guidelines may also address issues of teacher or peer involvement in revising draft work or in deciding on what to identify as a best piece.

In all administrative contexts, teachers need administrative support to initiate a portfolio program. They need support material such as folders, file drawers, and access to a photocopy machine, and time to plan, share ideas, and develop strategies.

All portfolios - across these diverse curricular settings, student populations, and administrative contexts - involve students in their own education so that they take charge of their personal collection of work, reflect on what makes some work better, and use this information to make improvements in future work.

What does the research say? Research shows that students at all levels see assessment as something that is done to them on their classwork by someone else. Beyond "percent correct," assigned letter grades, and grammatical errors, many students have little knowledge of what is involved in evaluating their classwork. Portfolios can provide structure for involving students in developing and understanding criteria for good efforts, in coming to see the criteria as their own, and in applying the criteria to their own and other students' work.

Research also shows that students benefit from an awareness of the processes and strategies involved in writing, solving a problem, researching a topic, analyzing information, or describing their own observations. Without

instruction focused on the processes and strategies that underlie effective performance of these types of work, most students will not learn them or will learn them only minimally. And without curriculum-specific experience in using these processes and strategies, even fewer students will carry them forward into new and appropriate contexts. Portfolios can serve as a vehicle for enhancing student awareness of these strategies for thinking about and producing work--both inside and beyond the classroom.

What are the drawbacks? Good portfolio projects do not happen without considerable effort on the part of teachers, administrators, and policymakers. Research shows that portfolios place additional demands on teachers and students as well as on school resources. Teachers need not only a thorough understanding of their subject area and instructional skills, but also additional time for planning, conferring with other teachers, developing strategies and materials, meeting with individual students and small groups, and reviewing and commenting on student work. In addition, teachers may need extra space in their classrooms to store students' portfolios or expensive equipment such as video cameras.

So, if you are considering student portfolios as a means of assessment, the preceding may suggest criteria by which you may make a prudent decision. There are many opinions about value of student portfolios and you are encouraged to gather as much information as possible before making any decision.

Students Portfolio
• All written papers and project work description • Presentations in digital version • Practice (laboratory) papers and their descriptions • Self-study materials: - Grant application - Application form - Resume - Glossary - Web-site (Web-blog) - The list of links and literature to a theme - File of scientific papers on a theme of investigation - Correspondence with partner-university - Practice task creation etc.

CITATIONS

Citations tell the reader from where you derived materials or where you got ideas or quotations use for your work. To acknowledge the work of others is extremely important in all fields. To fail to acknowledge your sources is considered to be plagiarism. More important than this, however, is to lead the reader to the original sources you used so that they can see if your use of it is reasonable or "correct" or to get further information if they need it.

- Place the citation as close as possible to the idea or information used, but place it so that it won't disrupt the flow of the text. This usually means at the end of a sentence, not the middle. Place citations in the middle only if multiple sources are used in a complex sentence or if a particular author is named in text.
- If at the end of a sentence, the citation goes before final punctuation. The format is as in the example below:
  "...where the beaches are difficult to excavate (Zimmerman 1994:54)." In this example, Zimmerman is the author's last name, 1994 is the date of publication, and 54 is the page number from which the idea or quote comes.
- If the author's name is used in text, then just the date and page number are put in parentheses as in Zimmerman (1994:76) who really spends too much time thinking about beaches.
- It is better to over cite than not to cite enough.

Citations and Bibliographic Style

Every discipline has its own citation and bibliographic styles. In fact, each journal or press for whom you write may demand a particular style. As you develop your paper you should find out the preferred style.

Most scientific works actually use a "references cited" approach rather than a bibliography. The former is a list only of those works you actually used and cited in text. A bibliography is a full list of sources consulted for your work whether used or not.

Each reference cited in text has a date of publication and an author. These are the keys to the "references cited" section. In this section, the authors are listed alphabetically, last name first. If several works by an author are used, these are listed by date of publication with the earliest listed first. Multiple authors of the same work are listed with the first author alphabetically list in the section followed by the others in the order they appear on the publication.

The basic idea of this section is to allow the reader to have enough information to find the document cited so he/she can look it up.

Minimal information you must have is:

- *full author(s) name(s),*
- *full title of the work cited,*
- *date of publication,*
- *page numbers, and*
- *publisher.*

For journal articles you need not have the publisher. You need the article title and full journal name. For specialized sources such as internet, interviews, newspapers, and the like, you need information that will take the reader to the source. How these are arranged will be journal/publisher specific, but remember that if you don't have guidelines, be internally consistent. Be certain to underline, boldface, or italicize titles if or where appropriate. Be sure to indent the proper number of spaces for dates or titles. Following are examples:

References Cited

Anderson, Duane C. 1990 Letter to Steve Moore, Native American Rights Fund dated July 14, 1990. Files of author.

Anderson, Duane C., M. Pearson, A. Fisher and D. Zieglowsky, eds. 1980 Planning Seminar on Ancient Burial Grounds. Iowa City: Office of the State Archaeologist of Iowa.

Anderson, Duane C., et al., eds. 1983 *The Study of Ancient Skeletal Remains in Iowa: A Symposium*. Iowa City: Office of the State Archaeologist of Iowa.

Brues, Alice 1987 Letter to John Echo-Hawk, Native American Rights Fund dated July 13, 1987. Files of author.

Buikstra, Jane 1981 A Specialist in Ancient Cemetery Studies Looks at the Reburial Issue. *Early Man* 3(3):26-27.

Cybulski, J.S., N.S. Ossenberg and W.D. Wade 1979 Committee Report: Statement on the Excavation, Treatment, Analysis and Disposition of Human Skeletal Remains from Archaeological Sites in Canada. *The Canadian Review of Physical Anthropology* 1(1):33.

Deloria, Vine 1973 *God Is Red*. New York: Delta.

1977 A Conversation with Vine Deloria, Jr. *Words and Places*, Program 8 (video), New York: Clearwater.

Eby, Lloyd 1991 Reflections on the Philosophy of Science: The Demise of

Justificationism. *The World and I* 6(9):530-544.

Fabian, Johannes 1983 *Time and the Other: How Anthropology Makes Its Object.* New York: Columbia University Press.

The single best bit of advice on preparing citations, references cited sections and bibliographies is to ask the professor which style is preferred if it is for a class paper. If you can't find it, look at the way citations and references are done and copy it carefully. If still in doubt about certain items, simply try to be consistent throughout the document.

Citing Internet Sources

Internet sources differ in the kinds of information that are important for retrieval, and the model for each type of source reflects the information needed to retrieve that source. Many writers in the natural sciences use the citation style recommended in the *CBE Manual,* which also gives advice for styling and formatting scientific papers, journals, and books for publication. Its editors offer two methods for citing and documenting sources: the citation-sequence system and the name-year system.

The citation-sequence system

When using the citation-sequence system, key cited sources to a list of references that are numbered in the order in which they appear in the text. Use a superscript number[1] or a number in parentheses (1) following any reference to a source. (Most instructors prefer superscript numbers to numbers in parentheses. If you're a student, ask your instructor which style he or she prefers.) If a single reference points to more than one source, list the source numbers[1,3,6] in a series. Use a comma (but no following space) to separate two numbers, or numbers[1,3] that do not form a sequence. Use a dash to separate more than two numbers[1-3] that form a sequence. If you cite a source again later in the paper, refer to it by its original number.

In the citation-sequence format, the date of publication is listed after the publisher's name (for books) or after the periodical name (for articles). The following example uses the citation-sequence system.

- Ungvarski[1] claims that most HIV-positive patients lose weight as their illness progresses. The World Health Organization has recognized HIV wasting syndrome as an AIDS-defining condition.[2]

HIV wasting is caused partly by an increase in the level of tumor necrosis factor (TNF). . . . This increase in TNF leads to the accelerated muscle breakdown characteristic of HIV wasting syndrome.[1,3]

Here are the References entries for these three sources:

◗ [1] Ungvarski PJ, Staats J. HIV/AIDS: A guide to nursing care. 3rd ed. Philadelphia: WB Saunders; 1995. p 47.

[2] World Health Organization. World health statistics annual: 1993. Geneva: World Health Organization; 1994.

[3] Coodley GO, Loveless MO, Merrill TM. The HIV wasting syndrome: a review. J Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndromes 1994 July; 7(7):681-94. p 681.

The name-year system

When using the name-year system, key cited sources to an alphabetically arranged list of references. In the name-year format, the date of publication immediately follows the author's name. The following example uses the name-year system.

◗ The discovery in normal cells of genes capable of causing tumors can be considered a milestone in cancer research (Stehelin and others 1976). Recent work (Sarkar, Zhao, and Sarkar 1995) has confirmed the importance of this finding. As Bishop and Varmus (1985) point out, numerous results now suggest that changes in these genes transform normal cells into cancerous ones.

Here are the References entries for these three sources:

◗ Bishop JM, Varmus HE. 1985. Functions and origins of retroviral transforming genes. In: Weiss R, Teich N, Varmus HE, Coffin J, editors. RNA tumor viruses. Cold Spring Harbor, NY: Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press. p 999-1019.

◗ Sarkar T, Zhao W, Sarkar NH. 1995 Oct. Expression of junoncogene in rodent and human breast tumors. World Wide Web J Biology 1(1). <http://www.epress.com/w3jbio/vol1/sarkar/sarkar.html>. Accessed 1996 23 Oct.

◗ Stehelin D, Varmus HE, Bishop JM, Vogt PK. 1976. DNA related to the transforming gene(s) of avian sarcoma viruses is present in normal avian DNA. Nature 260:170-73.

World Wide Web site citation

To document a file available for viewing and downloading via the **World Wide Web**, provide the following information:

- Author's name (if known)
- Date of publication or last revision
- Title of document
- Title of complete work (if relevant)
- URL, in angle brackets
- Date of access

Personal site

[1]Pellegrino J. 1999 May 12. Homepage. <http://www.english.eku.edu/pellegrino/default.htm> Accessed 1999 Nov 7.

Professional site

[1][CBE] Council of Biology Editors. 1999 Oct 5. CBE home page. <http://www.councilscienceeditors.org>. Accessed 1999 Oct 7.

Book

An online book may be the electronic text of part of all of a printed book, or a book-length document available only on the Internet (e.g., a work of **hyperfiction**).

[1]Bryant P. 1999 Aug 28. Biodiversity and conservation. <http://darwin.bio.uci.edu/~sustain/bio65/index.html>. Accessed 1999 Oct 4.

Article in an electronic journal
(e-journal)

[1]Browning T. 1997. Embedded visuals: student design in Web spaces. Kairos: A Journal for Teachers of Writing in Webbed Environments 3(1). <http://english.ttu.edu/kairos/2.1/features/ browning/bridge.html>. Accessed 1997 Oct 21.

Abstract

[1]Isaac JD, Sansone C, Smith JL. 1999 May. Other people as a source of interest in an activity [abstract]. In J Experimental Soc Psychol 35:239-65. IDEAL database <http://www.europe.idealibrary. com>. Accessed 1999 Jun 7.

Article in an electronic magazine
(e-zine)

[1]Myhrvold N. 1997 Jun 12. Confessions of a cybershaman. Slate. <http://www.slate.com /CriticalMass/97-06-12/CriticalMass.asp>. Accessed 1997 Oct 19.

[2]Glockle WG, Nonnenmacher TF. 1995. A fractional calculus approach to self-similar protein dynamics. Biophysical J Abstr 68(1):46. <http://www.biophysj.org/cgi/content/abstract/68/1/46>. Accessed 1996 Jul 25.

Newspaper Article

[1]Azar B, Martin S. 1999 Oct. APA's Council of Representatives endorses new standards for testing, high school psychology. APA Monitor. <http://www.apa.org/monitor/tools.html>. Accessed 1999 Oct 7.

Government publication

[1]Bush G. 1989 Apr 12. Principles of ethical conduct for government officers and employees. Executive Order 12674. Part 1. <http://www.usoge.gov/exorders/eo12674.html>. Accessed 1997 Nov 18.

Email message

To document an **email** message, provide the following information:

- Author's name
- Date of sending
- Subject line
- Type of communication (personal email, distribution list, office communication), in square brackets
- Date of access

[1]Franke N. 1996 Apr 29. SoundApp 2.0.2 [Personal email]. Accessed 1996 May 3.

[2]Robinette D. 1999 Apr 30. Epiphany project [Office communication]. Accessed 1999 May 23.

Web discussion forum posting

To document a posting to a **Web discussion forum**, provide the following information:

- Author's name
- Date of posting
- Title of posting
- URL, in angle brackets
- Date of access

[1]LaLiberte D. 1996 May 23. HyperNews instructions. <http://union.ncsa.uiuc.edu/HyperNews/get/hypernews/instructions.html>. Accessed 1996 May 24.

[2]Saffran A. 1996 Jan 5. It's not that hard. < http://union.ncsa.uiuc.edu/HyperNews/get/hypernews/instructions /90/1/1.html>. Accessed 1996 May 24.

Appendix A

EFFECTIVE PRESENTATION

Introduction	
Introducing yourself	Greet an audience, say your name, position, place of work
Introducing your speech: title / subject	I am going to speak about ……. My topic / my subject is ….. The subject of my speech is …. I'd like to speak about….. I'm going to present the recent …../ explain our position on…./ inform you about…… describe ….. The focus of my presentation/ academic paper…..
Purpose/objective	We are here today to decide/agree/ learn about The purpose of my presentation is to show/ take a look at/ report on/ outline/ give an overview/ discuss/review This talk is designed to act as a springboard for discussion/start the ball rolling
Length	I shall take (…) minutes of your time. I plan to be brief. This should last (…) minutes/
Outline/main parts	I've divided my presentation into (4, 5,…) parts/sections. They are….. The subject of my presentation can be looked under the following headings. We can break this area into the following fields. Firstly /first of all …. Secondly/then next. …. Thirdly/ and then we come to …. Finally/lastly
Questions	I'd be glad to answer any questions at the end of my talk. If you have any questions, please feel free to interrupt. Please interrupt if there's something, which needs clarifying. Otherwise, there will be some time for discussion at the end.
Main part	
Sequencing Ordering points Transition/ changing topic	First/next/then/after that Let's turn to… The/next point is … the next thing is … After all,.. Finally… Now let's look at/ move on / turn to
Referring to	Going back to…

an earlier point/departing from your plan/digressing	By the way,….
Giving examples/introducing and commenting on visuals (graphs, charts, diagrams, tables, pictures, handouts)	For example/for instance/such as/one example of this is/ Let's look at../take a look at../have a look at… I'd like you to look at …. If you take a closer look at…, you'll notice… I'd like to focus your attention on … I'd like to draw your attention to …. I'd like you to look at ….in more details/ in the picture we can see…/ as you can see from the picture… The picture/ table shows/presents…
Introducing and commenting on graphs, charts, diagrams, tables, pictures, handouts	The graph/ chart shows/presents /There is (was) / we can see a slight drop in/a further decline in/a marked fall in/a leveling off in/a substantial rise in/a significant reduction in/an exponential increase in (noticeable, marked, perceptible, large, small, gradual, dramatic, rapid, negligible) This is a result of…/this is because of../ this is largely due to../……contributed to this. As a result, we will have…/It could lead to …/It may result in…/…. will be a direct result.
Conclusion	
Summary	Let me just run over the key points again. I'll briefly summarize the main issues. To sum up… Briefly.. In brief… In short…
Conclusion or recommendations (if appropriate)	So, / In conclusion, …/We've seen that As you can see, there are some very good reasons for… I'd like to leave you with the following thought/idea So, I would suggest that we… I'd like to propose *(more formal)/*In my opinion, the only way forward is…
Signal to end	That brings me to the end of my presentation. That completes my presentation. Before I stop/finish, let me just say…

	That covers all I wanted to say today.
Questions	
An invitation for questions/ To make comments, or start a discussion	I'd be glad to try and answer any questions. So, I'd now be glad to answer any questions. So, let's throw it open to questions. Any questions? I'd like to suggest we start the discussion now.
Check you have understood the question	*(rephrase or clarify)* Do you mean ….? Could you repeat the question?
Classify the question and reply	I think that the question is easy/difficult to answer. The question is irrelevant/ hostile to some extent.
Checking the questioner is satisfied	Does that answer your question? Is that clear? May we go on?
Close	
	Thank you for your attention. Thank you for listening. I hope you have gained an insight into…

Appendix B

PRESENTATION EVALUATION FORM

EVALUATOR_____ DATE

	SPEAKER	
	TOPIC OF SPEECH	
1.	**OVERALL CONSIDERATION** The presentation meets the requirements of the assignment The purpose of the speech is clear	
2	**SYSTEM \ STRUCTURE** (general organization). There is a clear structure (introduction, body, conclusion). The speech is delivered within appointed time-limit (7-10 min). The information is organized logically. The information is linked clearly (presenter uses linking devices such as…). The information is interesting and relevant. The main points are easily identified.	
3	**DELIVERY** The speech is clear, simple and fluent. The speaker maintains a good eye contact. The notes are used unobtrusively (ненавязчиво). How the speaker delivers the presentation (reading: all the time and badly sometimes with some mistakes without reading but making a lot of mistakes without reading but making some mistakes without reading and making no mistakes. The speaker's ability to answer questions: thorough interpretation of the question (providing arguments for or against) some interpretation little interpretation no interpretation	
4	**VISUAL AIDS** Visual aids are skillfully integrated into the speech. The visual aids are clear and exact (diagrams, etc.). The visual aids support the message of the presentation.	
5	**OVERALL IMPRESSION** excellent good satisfactory poor	
	WHAT SHOULD BE IMPROVED?	

Appendix C

QUESTIONNAIRE ON PRESENTATIONS

Please read each of the following statements carefully, and select the valuation that fits you best. (Be as frank to yourself as you can so that you can really learn from the results.)

1. I am aware both of what I say and how I say it.
   never *seldom* *sometimes* *often* *always*
2. As a rule, before I start preparing my presentation I clearly spell out its purpose. It means that I first answer the question Why, and only then deal with What.
   never *seldom* *sometimes* *often* *always*
3. I prepare my presentation in advance so that I practically know it by heart.
   never *seldom* *sometimes* *often* *always*
4. I am aware of visual tools and how to apply them. I make sure I use them in my presentations.
   never *seldom* *sometimes* *often* *always*
5. I make use of visuals when and where they it is justified; I try not to flood my audience with them. I realize full well that I am the messenger.
   never *seldom* *sometimes* *often* *always*
6. I approach my presentation with deliberation, jotting down the main ideas and/or important points first, and then working them out.
   never *seldom* *sometimes* *often* *always*
7. I know the purpose of rhetorical questions, and I use them.
   never *seldom* *sometimes* *often* *always*
8. I present opinions and ideas to my audience with conviction so that they see I own them.
   never *seldom* *sometimes* *often* *always*
9. Rapport with people listening to my presentation is essential; smooth delivery is not enough.
   never *seldom* *sometimes* *often* *always*

10.I know how to use body language to make my presentation lively. I suppress any signs of uncertainty and/or doubt.

never *seldom* *sometimes* *often* *always*

RESULTS:

never=1 point seldom=2 often=4 always=5 MAX=100

THE CLOSER YOU GET TO 100 THE BETTER

Appendix D

TOPICAL VOCABULARY FOR WRITING AN ANNOTATION:

to analyze	pressing/topical/urgent
to set out the problem, question	relevant issues
to state	issues of current importance
to set forth	This problem is important today because…
to give an account (of) (сообщать)	topicality (злободневность)
to expound (подробно)	urgency
to pay attention to smth	to underline
to present,	to stress
to offer	to emphasize
to generalize,	to lay stress/emphasis (on)
to summarize;	to devote (to);
to synthesize	to dedicate (to)
to cover the field broadly	to view
to point to	to consider
to note	to take up
to outline	to draw a conclusion
to illustrate	to be of great importance
brief review/overview	to play a large role
to conclude	to reveal
to crown (with)	to intend (for)
to establish	to supplement (with)
essence, core, main point, gist	to complete
to come to the point	to investigate
complicated problem, challenge	to explore
to bring up issue, to raise an issue/	to give an example
to face an issue	to cite an instance
drawing on smb.'s experience	to mention briefly

essence, substance; main point	to make a brief mention (of) statistical abstract

Appendix E

USEFUL VOCABULARY TO WRITE AN ABSTRACT:

Verbs	**Nouns**
to report to show to suggest to find to argue to investigate to demonstrate to indicate to assume to propose to confirm	paper study data results findings experiment process method

Appendix F

LIST OF CLISHES FOR SYNOPSIS WRITING:

1. This work rests on…
2. The work is divided into … major parts.
3. The book is a contribution to …
4. The objective of this book (volume) is …
5. The study presents a picture of …
6. The book gives (introduces) …
7. The book draws a realistic picture of …
8. The book reveals the problem how …
9. The book points out that …
10. The book is supplemented with extensive notes.
11. The paper discusses …
12. The paper treats the opinion …
13. The article intended to strike up a debate, contains …
14. The study is completed by … figures and tables.
15. The first part (chapter 0 deals with …
16. The second chapter endeavours to clear up …
17. The third chapter shows (presents, regards, examines) …
18. The fourth chapter contains (studies, stresses) …
19. The fifth chapter concentrates on …
20. The sixth chapter analyses (describes) …
21. The author considers (outlines, concludes, points out) …
22. The author views (reviews,presents, sketches out) … .
23. The author analyses how …
24. The author examines why …
25. The author stipulates that …
26. The author mentions …
27. The author believes (stresses, underlines) that …
28. The author goes on to discuss (to examine) …
29. Finally the author outlines (introduces) …
30. In examining the problem the author points out that …
31. In the first part the author determines … .
32. In the opinion of the author … .
33. The author emphasizes that … .
34. According to the author … .
35. The author used various methods of analysis to draw the conclusion that … .
36. The author calls attention to the fact that … .
37. The author summarizes the results of … .

38. In summing up the author … .
39. At the end of the article the author sums up … .
40. The author warns that … .
41. The author gives an argument stating that … .
42. Evaluating the situation the conclusion can be drawn that … .
43. Summaries in English are attached to the book.
44. Further data cover (show) … .
45. Attention is called to the fact that … .
46. The article describes …
47. The paper shows …
48. The article indicates …
49. The publication deals with …
50. The book is concerned with …

Appendix G

LINKING DEVICES:	
To make contrasting points	however, nevertheless, in spite of, but, while, despite, even if, even though, at the same time, although, yet,
To list points	firstly, in the first place, first of all, to start with, secondly, thirdly, finally
To add more points to a topic	what is more, furthermore, also, apart from this/that, in addition to, moreover, besides, too, not to mention the fact that
To list advantages/ disadvantages	one/another/one other /the first/the greatest advantage/disadvantage of...
To express personal opinion	in my opinion/view, to my mind/way of thinking, personally I believe, it strikes me that, I feel very strongly that, I am inclined to, believe that, it seems to me that, as far as I am concerned
To refer to other Sources	according to, with reference to
To conclude	finally, lastly, above all, taking everything into account, on the whole, all things considered, in conclusion, as I have said, as was previously stated, to sum up
To express cause	because of, owing to, due to, for this reason
To express effect	therefore, thus, as a result, consequently, so, as a consequence
To emphasise what you say	clearly, obviously, of course, needless to say, in particular
To express reality	in fact, actually, as a matter of fact, in practice, the fact of the matter is that
To express difference between appearance and reality	on the face of it, at first sight, apparently
To state an argument against your opinion	it is popularly believed that, people often claim that, contrary to popular belief, it is a fact that, it is often alleged that, people argue that
To state other people's opinions	many people are in favour of/against, some people argue that, a lot of people think/believe
To express balance	while, on the one hand, on the other hand. whereas
To introduce the other	opponents of this view say, however there are

side of the argument	people/those who oppose... claim that
To refer to what actually happens	for example, for instance
To make general statements	as a rule, generally, in general, as a general rule, on the whole
To make partly correct statements	up to a point, to a certain extent, to some extent, in a way, in a sense
To express limit of knowledge	to the best of my knowledge, for all I know, as far as I know
To rephrase	that is to say, in other words
To bring up other points or aspects	as far as ... is concerned, regarding, with regard to, as for
To imply that nothing else needs to be said	anyway, at any rate, in any case
Accepting the situation	as it is, under the circumstances, things being as they are

Appendix H

DIMENSIONS OF WEB QUALITY FACTORS

Constructs	Description of constructs	Indicators (Questionnaire)
Functional fit-to-task	The extent to which users believe that the Web site meets their needs.	1) The information on the Web site is pretty much what I need to carry out my tasks. *never seldom sometimes often always* 2) The Web site adequately meets my information needs. *never seldom sometimes often always* 3) The information on the Web site is effective. *never seldom sometimes often always*
Tailored communications	Communications can be tailored to meet the user's needs.	4) The Web site allows me to interact with it to receive tailored information. *never seldom sometimes often always* 5) The Web site has interactive features, which help me accomplish my task. *never seldom sometimes often always* 6) I can interact with the Web site in order to get information tailored to my specific needs. *never seldom sometimes often always*
Trust	Secure communication and observance of information privacy.	7) I feel safe in my transactions with the Web site. *never seldom sometimes often always* 8) I trust the Web site to keep my personal information safe. *never seldom sometimes often always* 9) I trust the Web site administrators will not misuse my personal information. *never seldom sometimes often always*
Response time	Time to get a response after a request or an interaction with a Web site.	10) When I use the Web site there is very little waiting time between my actions and the Web site's response. *never seldom sometimes often always* 11) The Web site loads quickly. *never seldom sometimes often always* 12) The Web sit *never seldom sometimes often always* e takes long to load.

RESULTS:
never=1 pointseldom=2 often=4 always=5 MAX=60

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