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Challenge of Effective Academic and Scientific Writing:

From Theory to Practice

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Даний навчальний посібник має на меті допомогти, перш за все, студентам магістратури у написанні наукових статей, тез, анотацій кваліфікаційних робіт тощо. Посібник складатиметься з двох частин – теоретичної, у якій надається інформація щодо особливостей академічного та наукового письма, та практичної, яка містить вправи, спрямовані на розвиток навичок ефективного письма в академічній та науковій сферах.

Адресовано студентам магістратури мовних та немовних спеціальностей, а також аспірантам та здобувачам наукових ступенів.

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Preface

In light of modern changes in the system of higher education, new claims have been made for the quality and structure of master's qualification work, Doctorate thesis, scientific paper presentation etc. which, along with the increasing opportunities of publishing scientific manuscripts in international highly-cited editions set new demands on the quality of academic and scientific writing. Thus, the aim of this manual is to raise students' awareness of the specifics of academic and scientific writing and to help them acquire necessary skills of such writing.

The manual consists of two parts – theoretical and practical. The first chapter – “Challenge of effective academic and scientific writing: theoretical background” outlines the basics of writing in academic and scientific field, highlights its main linguistic peculiarities, précises the structure of some genres of academic and scientific writing and provides some tips for effective writing in these areas. The suggested genres include writing a scientific paper, an abstract and an extended abstract of thesis. The choice of the genres was determined by the demands of the contemporary academia on students' and research degree applicants' printed works and qualification papers.

The second chapter – “Challenge of effective academic and scientific writing: From theory to practice” aims at developing learners' skills of academic and scientific writing by means of analytical reading followed by doing transformational and productive exercises. The texts selected for this chapter were gathered from popular international peer-reviewed journals with high impact factor, defended Doctorate and Master theses of world famous universities and, therefore, can be considered samples for academic and scientific writing.

The section of Supplementary Reading provides a full-text scientific paper and exercises for learners' self-guided work.

The Appendices include the rules of referencing according to the most popular referencing styles, the list of academic vocabulary with explanation and samples of empirical study and case study papers.

The manual is aimed, first of all, at master students of linguistic specialties, at research degree applicants, young scientists and everybody interested in developing the skills of effective academic and scientific writing.

UNIT 1. CHALLENGE OF EFFECTIVE ACADEMIC AND SCIENTIFIC WRITING: THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

1. 1 Academic and Scientific Writing: Basic Remarks

Academic and scientific writing serves as communication tool for conveying acquired knowledge in a specific field of study or science. Effective communication on paper is not the same as communicating through speech. Academic and scientific writing follows different rules of logic, layout, conciseness and clarity which is not expected in oral speech. In a nutshell, main characteristics of effective academic and scientific writing can be summarized as follows.

Academic and scientific writing is:

- *Planned and focused:* answers the question and demonstrates an understanding of the subject.
- *Structured:* is coherent, written in a logical order, and brings together related points and material.
- *Evidenced:* demonstrates knowledge of the subject area, supports opinions and arguments with evidence, and is referenced accurately.
- *Formal in tone and style:* uses appropriate language and tenses, and is clear, concise and balanced. Nevertheless, quite often scholars pay attention to the certain shift to some informality of academic writing which is reflected in inserts of informal vocabulary and grammar.
- *Impersonal:* academic writing is in general objective rather than personal. It therefore has fewer words that refer to the writer or the reader. This means that the main emphasis should be on the information that the writer seeks to convey and the arguments he or she wants to make rather than the writer himself/herself.

- *Concise*: academic and scientific writing is unambiguous in its vocabulary, grammar and syntax – the reader does not have to make a choice about what the writer possibly means.

Types of academic and scientific writing

The four main types of academic writing are *descriptive*, *analytical*, *persuasive* and *critical*. Each of these types of writing has specific language features and purposes. In many academic texts one will need to use more than one type. For example, in an empirical thesis:

- you will use critical writing in the literature review to show where there is a gap or opportunity in the existing research;
- the methods section will be mostly descriptive to summarize the methods used to collect and analyze information;
- the results section will be mostly descriptive and analytical as you report on the data you collected;
- the discussion section is more analytical, as you relate your findings back to your research questions, and also persuasive, as you propose your interpretations of the findings.

Below we will discuss in details the types of academic writing in details.

Descriptive

The simplest type of academic and scientific writing is descriptive. Its purpose is to provide facts or information. An example would be a summary of an article or a report of the results of an experiment.

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

Analytical

It's rare for a university-level text to be purely descriptive. Most academic and scientific writing is also analytical. Analytical writing includes descriptive writing, but you also re-organize the facts and information you describe into categories, groups, parts, types or relationships.

Sometimes, these categories or relationships are already part of the discipline, sometimes you will create them specifically for your text. For example, if you're comparing two theories, you might break your comparison into several parts, for example: how each theory deals with social context, how each theory deals with language learning, and how each theory can be used in practice.

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

➤ *To make your writing more analytical you should:*

- spend plenty of time planning. Brainstorm the facts and ideas, and try different ways of grouping them, according to patterns, parts, similarities and differences. You could use colour-coding, flow charts, tree diagrams or tables.
- create a name for the relationships and categories you find. For example, advantages and disadvantages.
- build each section and paragraph around one of the analytical categories.
- make the structure of your paper clear to your reader, by using topic sentences and a clear introduction.

Persuasive

In most academic and scientific writing, you are required to go at least one step further than analytical writing, to persuasive writing. Persuasive writing has all the features of analytical writing (that is, information plus re-organizing the information), with the addition of your own point of view. Most essays are persuasive, and there is a persuasive element in at least the discussion and conclusion of a research article.

Points of view in academic and scientific writing can include an argument, a recommendation, interpretation of findings or evaluation of the work of others. In persuasive writing, each claim you make needs to be supported by some evidence, for example a reference to research findings or published sources.

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

- *To help reach your own point of view on the facts or ideas you should:*
 - read some other researchers' points of view on the topic. Who do you feel is the most convincing?
 - look for patterns in the data or references. Where is the evidence strongest?
 - list several different interpretations. What are the real-life implications of each one? Which ones are likely to be most useful or beneficial? Which ones have some problems?
 - discuss the facts and ideas with someone else. Do you agree with their point of view?
- *To develop your argument you should:*
 - list the different reasons for your point of view;
 - think about the different types and sources of evidence which you can use to support your point of view;
 - consider different ways that your point of view is similar to, and different from, the points of view of other researchers;
 - look for various ways to break your point of view into parts. For example, cost effectiveness, environmental sustainability, scope of real-world application.
- *To present your argument, make sure:*
 - your text develops a coherent argument where all the individual claims work together to support your overall point of view;
 - your reasoning for each claim is clear to the reader;
 - your assumptions are valid;
 - you have evidence for every claim you make;
 - you use evidence that is convincing and directly relevant.

Critical

Critical writing is common for research, postgraduate and advanced undergraduate writing. It has all the features of persuasive writing, with the added feature of at least one other point of view. While persuasive writing requires you to

have your own point of view on an issue or topic, critical writing requires you to consider at least two points of view, including your own.

For example, you may explain a researcher's interpretation or argument and then evaluate the merits of the argument, or give your own alternative interpretation.

Examples of critical writing assignments include a critique of a journal article, or a literature review that identifies the strengths and weaknesses of existing research.

The kinds of instructions for critical writing include: critique, debate, disagree, evaluate.

➤ *You need to:*

- accurately summarize all or part of the work. This could include identifying the main interpretations, assumptions or methodology.
- have an opinion about the work. Appropriate types of opinion could include pointing out some problems with it, proposing an alternative approach that would be better, and/or defending the work against the critiques of others

provide evidence for your point of view. Depending on the specific assignment and the discipline, different types of evidence may be appropriate, such as logical reasoning, reference to authoritative sources and/or research data.

Critical writing requires strong writing skills. You need to thoroughly understand the topic and the issues. You need to develop an essay structure and paragraph structure that allows you to analyze different interpretations and develop your own argument, supported by evidence.

1. 2 Academic and Scientific Writing: Linguistic Peculiarities

Successful writers of academic writing need to be able to make appropriate choices from the language system and to match their text to the readership in a way which ensures maximum impact. As it has been said before, academic writing is

formal, unambiguous, evidenced and concise. The latter influences its vocabulary, grammar, syntax and punctuation.

Vocabulary

Formal vocabulary. As academic and scientific prose is restricted to formal situations and, consequently, to formal style, it employs mostly formal vocabulary. Thus, e.g. ‘*virtually*’ is more formal than ‘*almost*’, as well as the author ‘*argues/claim*’s rather than ‘*says*’ (more examples of academic vocabulary can be found in Appendix 1). However, now more and more informal vocabulary can be found as appropriate in scientific and academic papers.

The vocabulary of academic and scientific prose consists of two main groups: neutral vocabulary and professional vocabulary. The subject-neutral vocabulary is a particularly important aspect of scientific and academic language which cuts across different specialized domains.

In particular, a great deal of scientific and academic work involves giving instructions to act in a certain way, or reporting on the consequences of having so acted. Several lexical categories can be identified within the language of scientific instruction and narrative:

- verbs of exposition: *ascertain, assume, compare, construct, describe, determine, estimate, examine, explain, label, plot, record, test, verify*;
- verbs of warning and advising: *avoid, check, ensure, notice, prevent, remember, take care*;
- verbs of manipulation: *adjust, align, assemble, begin, boil, clamp, connect, cover, decrease, dilute, extract, fill, immerse, mix, prepare, release, rotate, switch on, take, weigh*;
- adjectival modifiers and their related adverbs: *careful(y), clockwise, continuous(ly), final(ly), gradual(ly), moderate(ly), periodic(ally), secure(ly), subsequent(ly), vertical(ly)*.

The general subject-neutral vocabulary employed in scientific prose bears its direct referential meaning, that is, words used in scientific prose will always tend

to be used in their primary logical meaning. Hardly a single word will be found here which is used in more than one meaning. Nor will there be any words with contextual meaning. Even the possibility of ambiguity is avoided. Likewise neutral and common literary words used in scientific prose will be explained, even if their meaning is slightly modified, either in the context or in a foot-note by a parenthesis, or an attributive phrase.

A second and no less important feature and, probably, the most conspicuous, is the use of professional vocabulary which, in its turn, falls into two groups – general academic / scientific vocabulary and vocabulary specific to each given branch of science, i. e. terminology.

Terminology. Due to the rapid dissemination of scientific ideas, some scientific terms begin to circulate outside the narrow field they belong to and eventually begin to develop new meanings. It is due to the interpenetration of scientific ideas. Self-sufficiency in any branch is now a thing of the past. Collaboration of specialists in related sciences has proved successful in many fields. The exchange of terminology may therefore be regarded as a natural outcome of this collaboration. But the overwhelming majority of terms do not undergo this process of de-terminization and remain the property of scientific prose. There they are born, develop new terminological meanings and there they die. No other field of human activity is so prolific in coining new words as science is. The necessity to penetrate deeper into the essence of things and phenomena gives rise to new concepts, which require new words to name them. A term will make more direct reference to something than a descriptive explanation, non-term. Furthermore, terms are coined so as to be self-explanatory to the greatest possible degree. But in spite of this, a new term in scientific prose is generally followed or preceded by an explanation.

Scientific terms permit clear, concise, and unequivocal expression of our best understanding of truth provided that they are used properly. At the same time, excessive use of specialized terminology, complex or obscure words gives readers the impression that the paper is more about style than substance and complicates

understanding. That is why it is advisable to avoid overuse of special terms in your paper unless it is really necessary.

It is also noteworthy that some terms can have different interpretations among scholars, therefore, when citing them it is important to provide your own explanation of what the term stands for.

Today, as many scholars point out, there is tendency to decrease the usage of terminology in scientific papers, limiting its application only to cases of special terms which are essential for the given research.

Unambiguous vocabulary. They recommend to minimize the usage of metaphors, which can be quite ambiguous and complicate understanding. Moreover, since being concise is crucial, the words used in academic and scientific writing should be quite concise, too. Therefore, it is advisable to use as few words as possible, for example ‘*now*’ instead of the wordier ‘*at the present time*’.

Acronyms and initialisms. In academic writing, one will often need to use acronyms and initialisms. Acronyms and initialisms are abbreviations formed from the first letters of the words in a phrase or an organisation’s name. Acronyms are pronounced as one word (e.g. UNICEF), while each letter in an initialism is pronounced separately (e.g. BBC). They are used instead of the full terminology to save space or avoid repetition. There are commonly known abbreviations such as TESOL, FCE which do need to be introduced. However, since some of them have more than one meaning, this can be in some cases confusing (as the *CPE* - Certificate of Proficiency in English and Customer Premises Equipment ably demonstrated for many years). Therefore, it is recommended to always interpret the abbreviations when they are given in the paper for the first time.

Grammar

Voice. The active voice refers to a sentence format that emphasizes the doer of an action. The passive voice lends an impersonal tone, which is perceived to be formal, but can make the text more wordy and difficult to understand, especially when used in long sentences. The usage of Passive Voice suppresses the author’s

role by removing the agent from the sentence and exclusively aims to describe the facts and phenomena. It appears also in the cases where not only the agent but also the activity is irrelevant and the only thing that matters is the affected subject. Until recently, this tone was considered favorable for scientific writing and authors were advised to strictly avoid using the active voice, especially the use of “I” and “we” in their academic research papers. However, nowadays, many authorities are going against this traditional notion and encouraging the use of the active voice, with the view that academic papers should be easy to read and understand. Most scientific publishers agree on a combination of both.

The active voice is especially useful in the introduction and discussion sections of your manuscript, where you discuss previous research and then introduce your own. On the other hand, the passive voice is useful in the Methods section, where the steps taken are more important than the doer. The guiding principle, as most scholars argue, should be clarity: think about what information the target reader is looking for, and choose the active voice or the passive voice, whichever will make the text most clear and comprehensible.

Personal pronouns. Academic arguments are not usually presented in the first person (using *I*), but use more objective language, logic and reasoning to persuade (rather than emotional or personal perspectives). Excessive use of personal pronouns in general [e.g., *I, me, you, us*] may lead the reader to believe the study was overly subjective. Using these words may be interpreted as being done only to avoid presenting empirical evidence about the research problem. This may not apply, however, in case of reflective writing, when you are asked, for instance, to write a reflective report based on your own thoughts and experiences. Personal pronouns are also generally found in the discussion section of a paper because this is where the author/researcher interprets and describes his/her work.

Tenses. Different tenses are used for writing about different types of information, and you will need to combine different tenses in your writing.

If you are writing about an experiment you carried out or a method you used then use the past tense. For example: “Our experiment showed wide variations in results where the variable was altered even slightly.”

If you are writing about established knowledge then use the present tense. For example: “Passive Voice is used when the author of the work is not important.”

When you are reporting on the findings or research of others then you should use the present tense. For example, you might write: “Smith’s research from 2012 finds that regular training according to the model may contribute to good articulation of English phonemes.”

When you are writing about your conclusions or what you have found then use the present tense. For example: “In this case there is not a large difference between the two values, which again is probably due to the fact that the average circularity ratio is on the high end of the scale, 0.88.”

If you are writing about figures that you have presented in a table or chart then use the present tense. For example: “These figures show that the number of people using Rising Heads decreases with age...”

Hedging. To avoid personality tentative verb forms (*seems to, appears to, tends to*) and/or modal verbs are regularly used, for example:

This result of the research supports/proves our initial hypothesis. – Over positive statement.

This result of the research seems to support/ could prove our initial hypothesis. – Hedged statement.

Modal verbs *can, may, might, would* are widely used for this purpose, for example:

The result proves our method works. – Direct statement.

This result could prove our method works. – Hedged statement.

To soften what you say or avoid claiming an absolute truth from your result the following adverbs are used: *a little, rather, somewhat, almost, nearly, quite, approximately, about*, for example:

This is a disappointing result to report. – Direct statement.

This is a somewhat disappointing result to report. – Softened statement

Syntax

Academic and scientific writing differs from other forms of writing not only in its vocabulary and grammar, but also in its syntactic constructions. The first and most noticeable feature of such writing is the logical sequence of utterances with a clear indication of the interrelations and interdependencies. Logical sequence of utterances is definitely important to comply with the following general features. The second characteristic feature of academic and scientific writing is what we may call sentence-patterns. They are of three types: postulatory, argumentative and formulative ones. A hypothesis, a scientific conjecture or a forecast must be based on facts already known, on facts systematized and defined. Therefore every piece of academic/scientific prose will begin with postulatory statements which are taken as self-evident and needing no proof. A reference to these facts is only preliminary to the exposition of the writer's ideas and is, therefore, summed up in precisely formulated statements accompanied, if considered necessary, by references to sources. Here are some examples of the three types of sentence-patterns:

If all the wavelengths are mixed, a white light will be produced.
(postulatory)

This one-celled organism ate, grew, responded to its surroundings, reproduced itself, and spread throughout the oceans. All life has probably evolved from that single original cell. (argumentative)

Chemical energy is potential energy that is stored in gasoline, food or oil; mechanical energy is energy related to the movements of objects. (formulative)

An important feature of academic and scientific prose is impersonality, that is a switch from the person, the author, to the action, process, thing discussed. That is why in the beginning of the new paragraph, such prose often employs the formula IT IS + ADJ + TO + INF, for example:

It is true that ...but; It is obvious that....

Impersonal sentences of this type bring minimum semantic information and serve only as an introduction sentence presenting the basic thought, for example:

It is evident that investigations should be made for other exposure times.

The presumptions and statements comprise one of the peculiarities of academic writing because they are usually not represented directly. It is mostly caused by the fact that newly revealed knowledge is often needed to be proved in a great amount of time. The following example demonstrates the situation where there is no certainty yet:

The difference does not appear to greatly affect the calculated value.

In the above-mentioned impersonal sentences the modal verbs *must*, *should*, *ought to*, *can*, *may*, *might* often are often combined with the weaker lexical meanings. In the following examples it is clear that modal verbs lose their lexical meaning mostly with the verbs *to note*, *to notice*, *to remark*, *to observe*, *to mention*, partially also with the verb *to say*:

It may be noted; It should be noted; It might be remarked; It ought further to be remarked.

It is necessary to realize that this modality is not subjective author's attitude to conveyed facts, but it is objectified which is in compliance with clarifying academic writing. Therefore, the usage of modal verbs is convenient for giving indirect instructions. Direct form of instruction is expressed in imperative mood that is used also in hypotheses or mathematical formulae, e. g.:

Assume a Cartesian coordinate system; Let us examine a couple of cases; Let V be the vector analytic signal.

Punctuation

Scholars rely on precise words and language to establish the narrative tone of their work and, therefore, punctuation marks are used very deliberately. For example, exclamation points are rarely used to express a heightened tone because it can come across as unsophisticated or over-excited.

It is recommended to avoid using **dashes** and **hyphens** because they give the impression of writing that is too informal. Dashes should be limited to the insertion of an explanatory comment in a sentence while hyphens should be limited to connecting prefixes to words [e.g., *quasi-spontaneous*] or when forming compound phrases [e.g., *commander-in-chief*]. Herewith, not all prefixes are hyphenated in modern English. In fact, only two prefixes do require hyphens – *self-* and *quasi-*. The prefix *ex-* is hyphenated with titles and occupational descriptions: *ex-president*, *ex-professor* etc. The following prefixes are used without hyphens unless (1) they are combined with a capitalized word, or (2) there is a possibility of two meanings or mispronunciation (e.g., *un-ionized* and *unionized*):

after	fore	meso	pos	un
ante	hyper	micro	pre	under
anti	hypo	mis	pro	super
bi	in	mono	pseudo	trans
by	infra	multi	re	
co	inter	neo	semi	
contra	intra	non	step	
de	intro	off	sub	
demi	iso	out	tri	
extra	macro	over	ultra	

Modifiers formed with numbers or letter are usually hyphenated except for terms used in the possessive (*2 days' vacation* or *2-day vacation*), or terms used with money (*\$10 million project*).

Words – American and British spellings are accepted but only one convention should be used in an article, and it must be used consistently throughout the article. The following are some of the words that the editors have noted as problem words:

audiovisual (one word)

e-mail (used as a noun or a verb)

web sites (two words)

web page (two words)

online (one word, no hyphen)

worksheet (one word)

Semi-colons represent a pause that is longer than a comma, but shorter than a period in a sentence. In general, there are four grammatical uses of semi-colons: when a second clause expands or explains the first clause; to describe a sequence of actions or different aspects of the same topic; placed before clauses which begin with ‘nevertheless’, ‘therefore’, ‘even so’, and ‘for instance’; and, to mark off a series of phrases or clauses which contain commas. If you are not confident about when to use semi-colons [and most of the time, they are not required for proper punctuation], rewrite using shorter sentences or revise the paragraph.

The **colon** is placed between two clauses when the first main clause introduces an explanation or description.

If the words following the colon form a complete sentence, the first word following the colon is capitalized. For example:

Many teachers hold second jobs to make ends meet: The majority work as sales clerks in department stores during the evenings and on weekends.

If the words following the colon do not form a complete sentence, the first word following the colon is not capitalized. For example:

Many teachers hold second jobs to make ends meet: sales clerks, private tutors, editors.

Quotation marks are used in all papers around phrases if the phrase is meant to be spoken (e.g., the phrase ‘*don’t do that*’); do not use quotation marks around words singled out as examples (e.g., the word *chocolate*); use italics or single quotation mark instead.

Referencing

Referencing is an important part of any academic and scientific writing, since it allows the author to avoid plagiarism which is regarded as a type of

academic dishonesty. Even if you do this unintentionally, it may still be considered ‘negligent plagiarism’.

To avoid plagiarism, you need to be aware of what falls into that category, as well as have good writing skills and referencing knowledge. You need to be able to:

- paraphrase and summarize;
- know when to quote a source and when to paraphrase it;
- link information from sources with your own ideas
- correctly use referencing conventions.

When you quote a source, you use an extract exactly as it was used in/by the source. You indicate a quote by using quotation marks or indenting the text for long quotes.

When you paraphrase or summarize, you put the author’s ideas in your own words. It’s usually better to paraphrase than quote, as it shows a higher level of thinking, understanding and writing skills. To rephrase ideas you need a large vocabulary of formal and technical words for the subject matter, as well as grammatical flexibility.

In order to avoid plagiarism, you need to acknowledge your sources through referencing.

There are several different referencing conventions, also called citation styles, among those most popular for Humanities are:

- APA (American Psychological Association) is used by Education, Psychology, and Sciences;
- Harvard Style is used by different Humanities;
- MLA (Modern Language Association) style is used by different Humanities;
- Chicago/Turabian style is generally used by Business, History, and the Fine Arts.

The most popular referencing styles for Humanities are APA and Harvard; in the Appendices 2 and 3 you can find detailed description of these styles.

You should be told which system to use by your editor, publisher, lecturer, department and/or faculty. You will be told either in a set of general guidelines, the outline for the unit of study or in the instructions for a particular assignment. Occasionally, you will be allowed to choose the citation style you prefer, as long as it is consistently used.

1. 3 Preparing Academic/ Scientific Paper

Academic and scientific writing covers a lot of forms, such as academic essays, articles, monographs, summaries, PhD theses, abstracts, extended abstract of PhD theses, research proposals etc. In this chapter we will dwell upon the most spread in academic sphere papers, namely, scientific article, abstract and extended abstract of PhD theses.

1. 3. 1 Preparing a Scientific Paper

Successful production of a written product for submission to a peer-reviewed scientific journal requires substantial effort. Reviewers consider the following five criteria to be the most important in decisions about whether to accept manuscripts for publication: 1) the importance, timeliness, relevance, and prevalence of the problem addressed; 2) the quality of the writing style (i.e., that it is well-written, clear, straightforward, easy to follow, and logical); 3) the study design applied (i.e., that the design was appropriate, rigorous, and comprehensive); 4) the degree to which the literature review was thoughtful, focused, and up-to-date; and 5) the use of a sufficiently large sample.

There are the following types of scientific publications approved by most international journals: article, letter, review, progress, commentary.

Article is a full fundamental research which employs several techniques and scientific approaches. The main body (excluding abstract, methods, reference list and appendix) includes approximately 2000-3000 words. It contains, as a rule, 4-6 schemes, charts or tables. The list of references includes up to 50 sources. The

abstract contains about 150 words and does not include any references, it provides a brief outline of the essence of the paper and ends with the main conclusion starting with the phrase '*Here we show*' or any other analogues to this one. Introduction consists of 500 words and includes references. It contains stating the aim and objectives, substantiation of the problem topicality, hypothesis, a list of existing works on the topic and 1-2 paragraphs with their discussion.

Letter presents new important information of scientific research, but is less fundamental as compared with the Article. The text is usually limited to up to 2000 words (excluding abstract, methods, reference list and appendix). This type of paper implies maximum 3-4 schemes or tables. The list of references contains up to 30 positions.

Review is quite authoritative (written by the author with scientific degree) balanced outline of the most renowned achievements in the field of research. Although this type of publication is regarded as a scientific work addressed to experts in a particular sphere, such papers are to be written from the point of view of informing non-experts in the sphere. That is why reviews are written in a simple, clear prose, avoiding excessive use of terminology or technical details. Reviews contain approximately 3000-4000 words and 4-6 schemes or tables. The list of references is limited to 100 positions.

Progress focuses on the area which is being studied at present, it is used in those cases, when the research is not fundamental enough to write a Review. Such papers contain up to 2000 words and not more than 4 schemes or tables. The list of references includes up to 50 sources.

Commentary is a section for expressing author's own scientific opinion concerning urgent scientific problems or certain scientific issue. It has a flexible format, which is usually to be agreed with the editor regarding its scientific novelty or social need for such commentaries on the pages of the Journal. Commentaries normally do not exceed 1500 words and do not compulsorily contain schemes or tables. The list of references is limited to 25 sources.

In this book, we will discuss the most spread forms of scientific papers – articles and letters which have analogous structure.

As far as methods of research are concerned, they distinguish between empirical studies and case studies. **Empirical studies** involve collection of data through different means such as observation and then analysis of the same most probably using statistical methods. It is like finding something or having a proof for specific theory or belief. **Case study** on the other side has a specific problem to be resolved in any way possible, you may not use statistical methods or may not even prove anything but you would explore the problem from every point of view. While empirical research would also have a question to be answered in a specific way such as by testing a hypothesis, a case study would explore every possible connection, relation or solution. Many a times, more than one case studies can be used for making comparisons but all of them would ultimately aim to solve one specific wide issue.

Structure of a scientific paper. Below we will discuss the basic structure of scientific articles and letters, which typically involve the following elements: Abstract, Introduction and Literature Review, Methods, Results, Discussion, Conclusions, Acknowledgements and References.

Abstract

Sometimes written as an afterthought, the abstract is of extreme importance as in many instances this section is what is initially previewed by readership to determine if the remainder of the article is worth reading. This is the authors opportunity to draw the reader into the study and entice them to read the rest of the article. The abstract is a summary of the article or study written in 3rd person allowing the readers to get a quick glance of what the contents of the article include. Writing an abstract is rather challenging as being brief, accurate and concise are requisite. The headings and structure for an abstract are usually provided in the instructions for authors. In some instances, the abstract may change slightly pending content revisions required during the peer review process. Therefore it often works well to complete this portion of the manuscript last. It is

worth keeping in mind that the abstract should be able to stand alone and should be as succinct as possible.

Introduction and Literature Review

The introduction is one of the more difficult portions of the manuscript to write. Past studies are used to set the stage or provide the reader with information regarding the necessity of the represented project. For an introduction to work properly, the reader must feel that the research question is clear, concise, and worthy of study.

A competent introduction should include at least four key concepts: 1) significance of the topic, 2) the information gap in the available literature associated with the topic, 3) a literature review in support of the key questions, 4) subsequently developed purposes/objectives and hypotheses.

When constructing a review of the literature, be attentive to ‘sticking’ or ‘staying true’ to your topic at hand. Don’t reach or include too broad of a literature review. For example, do not include extraneous information about performance or prevention if your research does not actually address those things. The literature review of a scientific paper is not an exhaustive review of all available knowledge in a given field of study. That type of thorough review should be left to review articles or textbook chapters. Throughout the introduction (and later in the discussion!) remind yourself that a paper, existing evidence, or results of a paper cannot draw conclusions, demonstrate, describe, or make judgments, only PEOPLE (authors) can. For example, ‘The evidence demonstrates that’ should be stated, ‘Smith and Jones, demonstrated that....’

Conclude your introduction with a solid statement of your purpose(s) and your hypothesis(es), as appropriate. The purpose and objectives should clearly relate to the information gap associated with the given manuscript topic discussed earlier in the introduction section. This may seem repetitive, but it actually is helpful to ensure the reader clearly sees the evolution, importance, and critical aspects of the study at hand.

Methods

The methods section should clearly describe the specific design of the study and provide clear and concise description of the procedures that were performed. The purpose of sufficient detail in the methods section is so that an appropriately trained person would be able to replicate your experiments. There should be complete transparency when describing the study. A clear methods section should contain the following information: 1) the population and equipment used in the study, 2) how the population and equipment were prepared and what was done during the study, 3) the protocol used, 4) the outcomes and how they were measured, 5) the methods used for data analysis. Initially a brief paragraph should explain the overall procedures and study design. Within this first paragraph there is generally a description of inclusion and exclusion criteria which help the reader understand the population used. Paragraphs that follow should describe in more detail the procedures followed for the study. A clear description of how data was gathered is also helpful. For example, were data gathered prospectively or retrospectively? Who, if anyone, was blinded, and where and when was the actual data collected?

Although it is a good idea for the authors to have justification and a rationale for their procedures, these should be saved for inclusion into the discussion section, not to be discussed in the methods section. However, occasionally studies supporting components of the methods section such as reliability of tests, or validation of outcome measures may be included in the methods section.

The final portion of the methods section will include the statistical methods used to analyze the data. This does not mean that the actual results should be discussed in the methods section, as they have an entire section of their own!

Most scientific journals support the need for all projects involving humans or animals to have up-to-date documentation of ethical approval. The methods section should include a clear statement that the researchers have obtained approval from an appropriate institutional review board.

Results, Discussion, and Conclusions

In most journals the results section is separate from the discussion section. It is important that you clearly distinguish your results from your discussion. The results section should describe the results only. The discussion section should put those results into a broader context. Report your results neutrally, as you “found them”. Again, be thoughtful about content and structure. Think carefully about where content is placed in the overall structure of your paper. It is not appropriate to bring up additional results, not discussed in the results section, in the discussion. All results must first be described/presented and then discussed. Thus, the discussion should not simply be a repeat of the results section. Carefully discuss where your information is similar or different from other published evidence and why this might be so. What was different in methods or analysis, what was similar?

As previously stated, stick to your topic at hand, and do not overstretch your discussion! One of the major pitfalls in writing the discussion section is overstating the significance of your findings or making very strong statements. For example, it is better to say: ‘Findings of the current study support....’ or ‘these findings suggest...’ than, “Findings of the current study prove that...” or ‘this means that....’. Maintain a sense of humbleness, as nothing is without question in the outcomes of any type of research, in any discipline! Use words like ‘possibly’, ‘likely’ or ‘suggests’ to soften findings.

Do not discuss extraneous ideas, concepts, or information not covered by your topic/paper/commentary. Be sure to carefully address all relevant results, not just the statistically significant ones or the ones that support your hypotheses. When you must resort to speculation or opinion, be certain to state that up front using phrases such as ‘we therefore speculate’ or ‘in the authors’ opinion’.

Remember, just as in the introduction and literature review, evidence or results cannot draw conclusions, just as previously stated, only people, scientists, researchers, and authors can.

Finish with a concise, 3-5 sentence conclusion paragraph. This is not just a restatement of your results, rather is comprised of some final, summative statements that reflect the flow and outcomes of the entire paper. Do not include speculative statements or additional material; however, based upon your findings a statement about potential changes in clinical practice or future research opportunities can be provided here.

Acknowledgments

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

Appendices 4 and 5 present templates for writing empirical study and case study papers.

1. 3. 2 Preparing an Abstract

The abstract is a condensed and concentrated version of the full text of the research manuscript. It should be sufficiently representative of the paper if read as a standalone document.

The abstract must be as detailed as possible within the word count limits specified by the journal to which the paper is intended to be submitted. This will require good précis writing skills, as well as a fine judgment about what information is necessary and what is not.

The abstract must contain as much information as possible on the analyses related to the primary and secondary outcome measures.

The abstract should not present a biased picture, such as only favourable outcomes with the study drug, or findings that support the author's hypotheses: important nonsignificant and adverse findings should also receive mention. Thus, to the extent possible, the reader should be able to independently evaluate the author's conclusions.

It should be noted that an abstract is quite different from a thesis – the thesis of a paper introduces the main idea or question, while the abstract works to review the entirety of the paper, including the methods and results.

Although all abstracts accomplish essentially the same goal, there are two primary styles of abstract: descriptive and informative. You may have been assigned a specific style, but if you weren't, you will have to determine which is right for you. Typically, informative abstracts are used for much longer and technical research while descriptive abstracts are best for shorter papers.

Descriptive abstracts explain the purpose, goal, and methods of your research but leave out the results section. These are typically only 100-200 words.

Informative abstracts are like a condensed version of your paper, giving an overview of everything in your research including the results. These are much longer than descriptive abstracts, and can be anywhere from a single paragraph to a whole page long.

The basic information included in both styles of abstract is the same, with the main difference being that the results are only included in an informative abstract, and an informative abstract is much longer than a descriptive one.

A ***critical abstract*** is not often used, but it may be required in some courses. A critical abstract accomplishes the same goals as the other types of abstract, but will also relate the study or work being discussed to the writer's own research. It may critique the research design or methods.

Structure of an abstract. Although some journals still publish abstracts that are written as free-flowing paragraphs, most journals require abstracts to conform to a formal structure within a word count of, usually, 200–250 words. The usual sections defined in a structured abstract are the Background, Methods, Results, and Conclusions; other headings with similar meanings may be used (e. g., Introduction in place of Background or Findings in place of Results). Some journals include additional sections, such as Objectives (between Background and Methods) and Limitations (at the end of the abstract). In the rest of this paper, issues related to the contents of each section will be examined in turn.

Background

This section should be the shortest part of the abstract and should very briefly outline the following information:

- What is already known about the subject, related to the paper in question?
- What is not known about the subject and hence what the study intended to examine (or what the paper seeks to present)?

In most cases, the background can be framed in just 2–3 sentences, with each sentence describing a different aspect of the information referred to above; sometimes, even a single sentence may suffice. The purpose of the background, as the word itself indicates, is to provide the reader with a background to the study, and hence to smoothly lead into a description of the methods employed in the investigation.

Some authors publish papers the abstracts of which contain a lengthy background section. There are some situations, perhaps, where this may be justified. In most cases, however, a longer background section means that less space remains for the presentation of the results. This is unfortunate because the reader is interested in the paper because of its findings, and not because of its background.

Methods

The methods section is usually the second-longest section in the abstract. It should contain enough information to enable the reader to understand what was done, and how. Carelessly written methods sections lack information about important issues such as sample size, numbers of patients in different groups, doses of medications, and duration of the study. Readers have only to flip through the pages of a randomly selected journal to realize how common such carelessness is.

Results

The results section is the most important part of the abstract and nothing should compromise its range and quality. This is because readers who peruse an abstract do so to learn about the findings of the study. The results section should therefore be the longest part of the abstract and should contain as much detail about the findings as the journal word count permits. For example, it is bad writing to state ‘Response rates differed significantly between native and second language

speakers.’ A better sentence is ‘The response rate was higher in native than in second language speakers (49% vs 30%, respectively; $P<0.01$).’

Conclusions

This section should contain the most important take-home message of the study, expressed in a few precisely worded sentences. Usually, the finding highlighted here relates to the primary outcome measure; however, other important or unexpected findings should also be mentioned. It is also customary, but not essential, for the authors to express an opinion about the theoretical or practical implications of the findings, or the importance of their findings for the field. Thus, the conclusions may contain three elements:

- The primary take-home message
- The additional findings of importance
- The perspective

Despite its necessary brevity, this section has the most impact on the average reader because readers generally trust authors and take their assertions at face value. For this reason, the conclusions should also be scrupulously honest; and authors should not claim more than their data demonstrate.

Miscellaneous observations

Citation of references anywhere within an abstract is almost invariably inappropriate.

It goes without saying that whatever is present in the abstract must also be present in the text. Likewise, whatever errors should not be made in the text should not appear in the abstract (e.g., mistaking association for causality).

As already mentioned, the abstract is the only part of the paper that the vast majority of readers see. Therefore, it is critically important for authors to ensure that their enthusiasm or bias does not deceive the reader; unjustified speculations could be even more harmful.

As a parting note: Most journals provide clear instructions to authors on the formatting and contents of different parts of the manuscript. These instructions often include details on what the sections of an abstract should contain. Authors

should tailor their abstracts to the specific requirements of the journal to which they plan to submit their manuscript. It could also be an excellent idea to model the abstract of the paper, sentence for sentence, on the abstract of an important paper on a similar subject and with similar methodology, published in the same journal for which the manuscript is slated. A template of abstract can be found in Appendix 5.

1. 3. 3 Preparing an extended abstract of thesis

A part of every dissertation or thesis (Master or Doctorate) is the executive summary. This summary or abstract is the first part of your dissertation that will be read. Only after reading the abstract is the dissertation further reviewed. Therefore, it is important that the abstract is well written and that you draw out the correct information here.

The dissertation abstract has *three functions*:

1. Explanation of the title of your dissertation

The first function of the abstract is to further explain the title of your dissertation. This allows readers of your dissertation to better determine if your dissertation is interesting enough for them to read. A well-written abstract can encourage more people to consider your dissertation important and, thus, to intend to read it.

2. Short version of your dissertation

Secondly, the abstract serves as a short version for readers who don't have the time to read the complete dissertation. Often, scientists read only the abstract and not the entire piece.

3. Overview of your dissertation

Third, the abstract's function is to serve as an overview of what readers can expect. This makes it easier for the reader to understand and to place in context the material in the dissertation. A well-written abstract ensures that difficult material in your dissertation is better understood.

A rough rule for ***the length*** of the abstract is 3-4 pages for Master Thesis and 6-10 pages for Doctorate Thesis abstract. The reason behind this rule is that it must always be possible to quickly review the abstract.

Structure of an extended abstract of thesis. Typically, any thesis abstract has the following structural elements, though not singled out visually. For each paragraph in the abstract, answer the following questions:

- *Introduction.* What is the problem? Indicate the objective, problem statement and research questions of your dissertation. If you have used hypotheses in your dissertation, indicate them here.
- *Methods and Procedure.* What has been done? Briefly explain the method and approach of your research.
- *Results.* What has been discovered? Provide a summary of the most important results and your conclusions.
- *Conclusions.* What do your findings mean? Summarize the key points from the discussion and present your recommendations.

Guidelines for writing the extended abstract of PhD Thesis

The final work on the extended abstract should take place towards the end of the work on the doctoral degree. However, the extended abstract shall provide an outline of the work, so that a comprehensive perspective is laid out at an early stage of the working process. The introductory work required for the extended abstract may help raise awareness of the overall perspective required for the dissertation. At the same time, it is perfectly natural for the extended abstract to be modified during the process in relation to the development in form and content of the articles.

Below you will find some recommended items you are advised to follow.

- The extended abstract shall outline and give reasons for the theoretical perspectives, the issues and the conclusions presented in the articles, so that the dissertation can be presented as a whole. The extended abstract shall categorize the results of the individual articles so that it illustrates the internal cohesion between these pieces of work.

- The extended abstract shall illustrate and summarize the contribution made by the dissertation to the research field in question. The extended abstract shall substantiate the choice of research issue and/or hypotheses.

- Both the complexity and nuances of individual results shall be discussed in the light of methodical, scientific theory and theoretical issues. The extended abstract must contain the necessary level of theoretical and methodical evaluations related to the work on the doctorate degree as long as this is not outlined and discussed in articles in the dissertation. The extended abstract shall also indicate where to locate definitions or detailed explanations of individual subjects within the dissertation.

- The extended abstract shall contain academic updates when required in relation to the articles' publication date or date of completion.

- The extended abstract shall be compiled by the doctoral candidate alone.

- The extended abstract shall have a maximum scope of between 6 to 10 pages, excluding references and appendices.

When you finish writing your abstract of thesis (Master or Doctorate), make sure that:

- The abstract is within a conventional volume.
- The abstract is written in the present or present perfect tense (These tenses are most commonly used when writing abstracts, for example: *The study shows that the majority of the respondents prefer to watch a film at the movie theater rather than at home on TV.* OR: *The study has shown that the majority of the respondents prefer to watch a film at the movie theater rather than at home on TV.*)
- Abbreviations are interpreted (since your reader should be able to read and understand your abstract without going through the rest of your dissertation, you have to introduce acronyms when you use them).
- The objective is specified in the abstract.
- The problem statement is given in the abstract.
- The research questions or hypotheses are included in the abstract.

- The methodology and approach of your research are briefly explained.
- A summary of the most important results is given.
- The conclusion is given (the answer to your research question / problem statement).
- The results have been discussed and explained (discussion).
- Suggestions for follow-up research are presented.
- Any recommendations are concisely discussed.
- The abstract clarifies what the dissertation is about (also for those without prior knowledge).
- Source referencing is presented (just like with the rest of your dissertation you have to include references when you use a source. However, in an abstract you often don't use any references because you mainly write about your own findings and research).

QUESTIONS FOR SELF-CHECK

-
1. What are the main characteristics of academic and scientific writing?
 2. What are the types of academic and scientific writing?
 3. What are the key features of analytical / descriptive / persuasive / critical writing?
 4. What are the main characteristics of academic and scientific vocabulary?
 5. Comment on the grammar peculiarities of academic and scientific writing.
 6. What is special about the syntax of academic and scientific writing?
 7. What should be done to avoid plagiarism in academic writing? What is 'negligent plagiarism'?
 8. What referencing styles do you know? Which of them are the most popular for the Humanities?
 9. What forms of academic and scientific papers do you know?
 10. What are the types of scientific papers?

11. Explain the difference between an Article and a Letter.
12. Dwell on the differences between empirical and case studies.
13. Comment on the structure of scientific paper.
14. Is an abstract different from a thesis? If so, in what ways?
15. What is the difference between descriptive, informative and critical abstracts?
16. Comment on the structure of an abstract.
17. What should be included into Conclusions of an abstract?
18. What are the functions of the extended abstract of Master / Doctorate thesis?
19. What is the volume of the extended abstract of (a) Master thesis? (b) Doctorate thesis?
20. What elements should be included into the extended abstract of thesis?
21. Which tenses are preferable to be used in the extended abstract of thesis?
22. Can the extended abstract of thesis contain any references?
23. Are abbreviations appropriate for the text of the extended abstract of thesis?

UNIT 2. CHALLENGE OF EFFECTIVE ACADEMIC AND SCIENTIFIC WRITING: FROM THEORY TO PRACTICE

2. 1 Work with authentic texts

2. 1.1 Writing a scientific paper

Text 1

1. Read the following introduction to the article.

Attitudinal Congruence and Similarity as Related to Interpersonal Evaluations in Manager-Subordinate Dyads

In recent years applied researchers have become increasingly interested in the interpersonal relationships with manager-subordinate dyads. **1**

The majority of studies have focused on actual similarity between managers and their subordinates as related to managers' appraisals of subordinates' performance (Miles, 1964; Nievam 1976; Ruda 1970; Senger, 1971), subordinates' job satisfaction (Huber, 1970) and subordinates' evaluations of their managers (Weiss, 2000). A few studies have examined the extent to which subordinates congruently perceive their managers (referred to here as "subordinate's perceptual congruence"). These studies suggest that subordinates who are more perceptually aware of their superiors' work-related attitudes receive higher performance evaluations (Golmieh, 2007; Green, 2017; Labovitz, 1998) and are most satisfied with their superiors (Howard, 1989). **2**

Each of these previous studies has researched only a part of this complex dyadic interpersonal relationship. First, none of the studies has examined the effects of a manager's congruent perception of a subordinate's work-related attitudes (i.e. "manager's perceptual congruence"). Second, no studies can be found that directly compare the relative importance of actual similarity with that of perceptual congruence. Third, none of the previous studies has looked at interpersonal perception by the manager and by the subordinate simultaneously within the same dyad. **3**

The purpose of the present field investigation was to study both actual similarity and perceptual congruence and to examine them from the perspective of both the manager and the subordinate. The study investigated the relationships of these perceptual processes in two important organizational outcomes: subordinates' satisfaction with work and supervision, and managers' evaluations of subordinates' job performance. Specifically, the study examined: (a) the relative magnitude of

perceptual congruence and actual similarity with these two organizational outcomes; (b) whether the more congruently a subordinate perceives the manager (subordinate's perceptual congruence), the more satisfied the subordinate will be; and (c) whether the more congruently a manager perceives the subordinate (manager's perceptual congruence), the higher the subordinate's performance will be evaluated. 4

2. In pairs, decide which phrases are used for the following.

MOVE ONE: Establishing the Field

- A) Showing centrality
 - i) by interest
 - ii) by importance
 - iii) by topic-prominence
 - iv) by standard procedure
- B) Stating current knowledge
- C) Ascribing key characteristics

MOVE TWO: Summarizing Previous Research

- A) Strong author-orientation
- B) Weak author-orientation
- C) Subject orientation

MOVE THREE: Preparing for Present Research

- A) Indicating a gap
- B) Question-raising
- C) Extending a finding

MOVE FOUR: Introducing Present Research

- A) Giving the purpose
- B) Describing present Research
 - i) by *this / the present* signals
 - ii) by Move 3 take-up
 - iii) by switching to first person pronoun.

Text 2

1. Read the article.

KEVIN McCAUGHEY

Ukraine

(---TITLE---)

(abridged)

Now I will do nothing but listen ...

–WaltWhitman, Song of Myself

Learning a language—like learning to dance ballet, weave carpets, or play the saxophone—takes time and practice. In general, it's safe to say that the more practice you get, the better you will become.

That's how I feel about understanding a foreign language, too. The more listening practice you get, the better you understand the language.

The problem is that students get little dedicated listening practice in their classes – and in some cases, they get almost none. The reasons are many. Teachers lack materials or equipment. They think their classrooms are too noisy or crowded. They value speaking, reading, grammar, or vocabulary over listening. Their curricula are driven by standardized tests without a listening component.

But the main reason is a perception of what listening practice is and is not. In a poll of 254 teachers from 40 countries, 84 percent felt that “any time the teacher is speaking to students in English it is a listening task” (McCaughey, 2010). Now, it is true that students will get exposure to English through teacher talk. But it begs the question: If teachers assume students get listening anyway, why bother to design listening-specific activities?

This article will, I hope, help teachers of English reconsider how we think about listening tasks. It will provide guidance for increasing classroom listening practice through short, dedicated *listening* tasks. The emphasis is not on the science or theory of processing language – many other articles cover that – but on the practical business of

setting up and “class-managing” listening activities in order to give students more practice.

Implementing new listening tasks is easy if we keep in mind five tips:

1. Students Do During
2. See It
3. Keep it Short
4. Play it Again
5. Change It Up

Before we advance to a detailed explanation of these tips, we need to examine a slippery notion, one that you may have objected to when you first read it a few paragraphs above: that “students get little dedicated listening practice in their classes – and in some cases, they get almost none.” Unfortunately, as I will explain next, there is a lot of not listening happening.

NOT LISTENING

The last teacher-training workshop I attended on the subject of listening actually provided a good illustration of *not listening*. After a lecture on pre-listening, while-listening, and post-listening, the trainer offered a demonstration. He played the role of teacher while we participants were students. The notes I wrote on the structure of the lesson appear in Figure 1.

Pre-listening	1. Introduction: Teacher asks the class if they like animals. Students volunteer answers.
	2. Teacher presents several riddles about animals. Students guess answers.
	3. Teacher brings out a bag. Inside are stuffed animals that students can't see. Students ask questions until they determine what animals are inside.
While-listening	4. Students receive a handout with three True/False statements. They listen to a recorded dialogue about animals and tick True or False. They listen once.
Post-listening	5. Students check answers.
	6. Students create follow-up questions about animals. The teacher writes these on the board.

Figure 1. Listening demonstration lesson

At first glance, this looks like a classic listening lesson, well-organized and varied. Participating teachers enjoyed it, too. The topic of animals was appealing. We were not overburdened with grammar. And the guessing game, featuring the realia of toys in a bag, was a fun surprise. Neither participants nor trainer doubted that the primary focus of this lesson was listening. After all, the while-listening task took a central position.

I had a stopwatch, too, and timed each segment of the lesson. The result, shown in Figure 2, offers a different picture of what actually happened during the lesson.

One minute of listening was supported by 23

minutes of *not listening* activities. You might contend that the other tasks supported the central listening segment. Maybe. But those tasks did not target listening practice. Or you might argue that there were elements of listening in Steps 1 and 2 of the pre-listening portion of the lesson because students would need to understand the teacher to form responses. And maybe there were some listening elements. But what if students did not understand? There was no provision for that. The teacher took verbal answers from volunteers and moved on. The teacher could not gauge exactly who understood or identify or help those who did not.

If the participants of this demonstration lesson had been students and not teachers, perhaps the trainer might have played the audio two or three times. That's an improvement, but even so, pre-listening and post-listening time dominated the lesson.

The question is: How much preparation does a 65-second audio warrant? If our goal is to increase listening practice, the answer should be "Very little." Usually, even within portions of class devoted to listening, actual listening gets short shrift.

Figure 3 is a quiz of sorts that you and fellow language teachers can take individually and then discuss. In the quiz, you will see descriptions of activities. Decide whether each activity offers true listening practice or whether it requires students to spend most of their time on some other skill such as vocabulary, grammar, or writing. Discuss answers with colleagues and think about how you give students listening practice in your classes. My answers to the quiz appear in the Appendix, though you are free to disagree.

PREPARING FOR THE LISTENING TASK

I have heard experienced trainers say that "No listening exercise is too difficult if there is enough pre-listening." What they mean is that, with enough scaffolding and language support prior to listening, learners can understand difficult or long audio texts. It's a

sensible dictum—but sneakily *anti*-listening. It tells us that students succeed at listening tasks if they have lots of *not listening*.

Is vocabulary preparation critical for understanding an audio text? Sometimes. But vocabulary preparation is not listening. What about a game that uses core ideas from the listening text? Not listening either. What if, in the middle of an audio, you encounter the natural surfacing of the past perfect progressive tense—something you had just introduced to your class the week before? Isn't that the perfect opportunity to review? Maybe. But then you are no longer focused on listening skills. The common goals of pre-listening—"activating prior knowledge, making predictions, and reviewing key vocabulary" (Richards 2005, 87)—are valuable in supporting listening activities, but they are not listening practice themselves.

And yet, in a poll of 118 teachers from more than 25 countries, 31 percent considered that in a listening task, the largest chunk of time should be devoted to pre-listening (McCaughey 2010). Another 9 percent chose post-listening. A significant 40 percent, then, did *not* consider while-listening the most important part of a listening task!

As some have pointed out (Cauldwell 2014; Field 2002), teachers often see listening as serving other language-learning goals. That idea prompted Nunan to refer to listening as the "Cinderella skill ... all too often ... overlooked by its elder sister—speaking" (2002, 238).

We need to think in terms of listening for the sake of listening practice. We must not label a segment of the English class *listening* just because the teacher talks in English. We should realize that when we use a listening text as a springboard for activities we are more comfortable with, like discussions, vocabulary practice, writing, or grammar, students are not getting the actual listening practice they may need.

LISTENING-SPECIFIC GOALS

A dedicated listening task focuses on listening goals. A goal might be understanding the text—in part or as a whole. It might be focusing on global gist or on discrete elements like single phrases. We do not need to follow up with writing or speaking in order to justify the listening task. Listening for the sake of practice is a reasonable goal.

When I observe a listening activity in a classroom, it usually follows this pattern: students listen to a complete audio text and afterwards answer comprehension questions posed by the teacher. (In the past, I did listening tasks this way, too.) This model is probably based on how we use written texts for reading comprehension: read the article and answer the questions. But listening texts, unlike the written word, do not remain unmoving in front of our eyes; listening texts move past our ears in real time. The student doesn't have the opportunity to go back, review a sentence, or look up a word in the dictionary. Answering comprehension questions *after* an audio is mostly a test of memory. The focus is on outcome, on "product rather than process," and ignores the specific difficulties students may have experienced during the actual listening phase (Field 1998, 111).

Listening-specific goals can address difficulties of understanding as they are happening. They can deal with utterances, specifically tackling differences in oral and written language like hesitations, false starts, pauses, background noise, variable speed, and variable accent (Rost 2002, 171). Our dedicated listening tasks might also draw attention to reduced forms and connected speech that occur naturally when speakers drop consonants (Wednesday = *Wenzday*), leave off endings (going = *goin*), or blend sounds together (that will = *that'll*). Brown and Kondo-Brown (2006, 2) have identified nine of these processes: "word stress, sentence stress and timing, reduction, citation and weak forms of words, elision, intrusion, assimilation, juncture, and contraction." There's no reason that most students—or even most teachers—need to

know these terms or how to differentiate between the processes. But students will benefit from repeated exposure to examples. They will see that words are often not pronounced the way they are spelled and that their pronunciation changes at times, even when spoken by a single person. The language teacher—like any teacher—shouldn't shelter students from reality.

For instance, in my classes I have used an audio recording of my father telling a story. In the first sentence, he uses the word *probably*. Except he doesn't actually say *probably*. He says *prolly*. Sometimes students have to listen a few times to hear this, and they express surprise that a word can lose two separate "b" sounds and one full syllable, yet still be comprehensible. And if one speaker pronounces a word one way once, it doesn't mean the same speaker will pronounce it the same way the next time. Most English students are familiar with *gonna*, a reduced blend of "going to." (*Gonna* appears often in writing.) My wife, a non-native speaker of English, pointed out to me that when I say "I'm going to," it comes out as "I'm unna" [ajm ˈnə], with the "g" disappearing entirely. And yet teachers should not get the idea that they are promoting slang or dialects in pointing out features of connected speech, for "it is commonly used in all registers and styles.

Even the most formal pronunciation of a language will typically contain some aspects of these phenomena" (Brown and Kondo-Brown 2006, 5).

Is it any wonder that students express difficulty in understanding English speech outside their classroom environments?

Pointing out the aberrations of spoken language—or better yet, letting students discover them through our guidance—is a shortcut toward understanding authentic speech:

When second-language learners learn some new element of a language, at first they have to pay conscious attention and think about it; that takes time, and their use of it is slow. But as the new element becomes more

familiar, they process it faster, with less thought, until eventually the processing of that element becomes completely automatic. (Buck 2001, 7)

Many activities we do in the course of a listening lesson are actually *not listening*

We want to put our students on the road to that automatic processing. Is it frustrating for students that language doesn't conveniently bend to the rules written in their textbooks? It might be. But according to Brown (2006), students enjoy learning about reduced forms because it's new information. In my own experience, I've found that students treat the discovery of, say, an elision or glide that suddenly makes two words comprehensible as a kind of secret key to unlocking mysteries of the language and putting them ahead in the learning game. And the bottom line is that students feel good about understanding authentic English.

FIVE TIPS FOR INCREASED LISTENING PRACTICE

At this point, we should have two key ideas foremost in our minds:

- First, many activities we do in the course of a listening lesson are actually *not listening*.
- Second, we can increase listening practice by including simple activities with *listening-specific goals*.

The five tips below will make the design and setup of listening practice in the classroom easy and effective.

1. STUDENTS DO DURING

A good listening task is one with "active responses occurring during, or between parts of, the listening passage, rather than at the end" (Ur 1984, 4). In fact, a great model for a listening task is the children's game Simon Says. In Simon Says, one person (in

classroom setting, usually the teacher) gives commands:

Simon says, “Put your hands on your head.”

Simon says, “Lower your hands to your sides.”

Simon says, “Lift your left leg.”

Students follow these commands bodily. They do this while listening, or to be more precise, in those spaces between spoken commands. The actions are an immediate response to the spoken word. I call this kind of task a “do-during” task because students need to *do something during* the listening portion of the activity. (Full instructions for how to play Simon Says can be found in a video at www.howcast.com/videos/258347-How-to-Play-the-Simon-Says-Game.) Many audio texts—especially those where the teacher’s voice is the audio source—can easily be paused or segmented, so that students respond immediately. Take, for example, a picture dictation.

Picture dictation

Each student, working with a blank piece of paper, has a pencil or colored pen or marker. The teacher dictates instructions one by one, and students draw accordingly: Teacher: We are going to draw a monster. We just learned the word *lopsided*, right? Draw a big lopsided circle near the top of your paper. ... Okay, give your monster two big eyes.

... Give your monster two large ears.

... Now put an earring in his left ear.

... Good. Let’s give our monster very curly hair. ...

We can sense the natural pauses here as the teacher walks around the room, observing the progress of every student. Again, students are responding immediately, during the listening activity.

Sound-clip dictation

This *Students Do During* principle also applies to writing or dictation that is based

on listening. In the following case, I’ve taken a single sentence, one of the most famous lines in American film, spoken by the actor Marlon Brando in 1972’s *The Godfather*:

I’m gonna make him an offer he can’t refuse.

The teacher can voice the sentence, of course, but such authentic sound bites are easy to

find online (onYouTube.com, for instance, or search for “movie sound clips”). And with a recording, you can play it again and again as a loop, giving students lots of exposure to the language. Students write while they listen.

Single-sentence gap fill

Using another single-sentence text, you could pinpoint attention on reduced speech. Write the following gap fill on the board:

1) _____ be great if (2) _____ get it done early this year.

Next, play a recording of the sentence or read it as many times as necessary. Repeating the audio many times is not a problem—it’s just three seconds long—and students may need the repetition to figure out what’s missing, especially since the missing words do not sound the way they look in writing.

The missing words are (1) *It’d* and (2) *we could*. (Who says only one word can be missing in a blank?) In this authentic audio, (1) *It’d* is pronounced [ˈdɪd] to rhyme with *lidded*, and (2) *we could* is pronounced [wɪkəd].

Many students, even advanced students, are not aware of the contraction *it’d*. But after this short listening task, they will be, and catching it in a natural conversation will start to become automatic.

2. SEE IT

In the above activities, the key is that *Students*

Do During: whether they are moving their bodies, drawing, writing, or gap-filling, students react immediately to the listening text. The great advantage to this arrangement is that no matter what the students are doing, the teacher can *See It* every step of the way. The teacher sees exactly who understands and who doesn't, which groups are fast and which are slow, who is struggling and who needs an extra challenge, and what everyone understands and perhaps what no one understands. The teacher can actually discern student comprehension and measure progress in real time.

Let's return to Simon Says to test whether the *See It* principle applies. The teacher says, "Simon says, 'Stand on one leg.'" The teacher can see who in the class understands because those students are standing on one leg. The game features built-in discernible comprehension. True, some students look at others and imitate what they are doing, but the teacher sees that, too. (Fix that problem, by the way, by having students wear blindfolds or close their eyes.)

Follow the map

For another example, let's take a map activity. Students receive a handout of a simple city map and have it in front of them. Each student gets a paper clip or some other small object to represent his or her car. The teacher gives oral instructions:

You are in the parking lot on Monkey Street.
...Turn left on Javelina Street.
... Go two blocks to Giraffe Park. ...

The teacher walks around the room while giving the instructions and can see whether students' cars are at the right place at every stage, thus being able to help those who need it. And if all students seem to be following instructions with ease, the teacher can add a little more challenge, speeding up the language or offering more complex directions:

Now make a U-turn, go two blocks, and turn right. Do you see the Little Cat Café? Don't stop there; keep going until you get to Old King Mighty Food—it's a huge grocery store

right before the river.

Seeing answers

You can improve any question-and-answer task by applying the *See It* idea—for instance, when you ask questions about an audio text or about a reading text, or even when you ask for students' opinions. Resist the temptation to ask students to raise their hands to answer. This tends to give an artificial picture of student participation. The same students tend to answer, and we have no idea how to gauge whether those who don't raise their hands understand.

Instead, distribute to each student two small squares of paper, one green and one red. Ask Yes/No questions or give True/ False statements. For each Yes/No question, every student responds by raising one of the colored papers: green for "Yes" and red for "No." Adding a third paper, a white square to mean "I'm not sure," is even better. It allows students to take part while admitting they do not have an answer yet. The teacher can spare these students stress by not calling on them or asking them follow-up questions. A large number of "I'm not sure" squares are a signal that students need to listen to the text again.

The *See It* tactic works with all sorts of questions, not just Yes/No questions. Try asking personal opinion questions to the entire class, with each student signaling an answer through movement.

Teacher: Stand up if you like ice cream.
Sit down.
Stand up if your favorite color is blue.
Sit down.
Stand up if you drank tea this morning.
Sit down.

Try Yes/No questions the next day. Tell students to stand up for a "Yes" answer.

Teacher: Are you 38 years old?
Is today Tuesday?
Am I wearing glasses?
Do you like eating snakes? Do you like rainy weather? Are the windows open?
Is Shanghai the capital of China?
The next day, mix things up: tell students to

stand up for a “No” answer.

You can even practice grammar forms in listening. Here is an example where students are required to understand and differentiate between events associated with certain times—in this case, present perfect vs. simple past structures. A warning, though: avoid the trap of naming or explaining the grammar. Once that happens, you are no longer doing a listening activity.

Who has had coffee before?

Who bought a coffee somewhere yesterday?

Who had coffee this morning?

Who hasn’t had any coffee this week? Who has tried iced coffee?

Who has never had iced coffee? Who had iced coffee this morning?

Who didn’t have iced coffee this morning?

We can also introduce variability into student responses. Write guidelines on the board:

Yes	No	Sometimes
Stand up	Remain seated	Wave your arms

And we can easily go beyond Yes/No questions. Here is a guideline for responding to questions of “How often ... ?”:

How often do you brush your teeth in the morning?

How often do you go swimming on weekends?

How often do you see monkeys on your way to school?

These simple tasks, led by the teacher and with virtually no preparation, can considerably increase student listening time. Students give responses during listening, and teachers can discern who understands throughout.

3. KEEP IT SHORT

For most of the above activities, the teacher is the source of the audio. Thus, the teacher can provide pauses for students to do something during the activities. But often, you will want to use recordings, too. The Internet offers a practically unlimited source of audio files, many of which are free.

It’s best to work with very short audios.

By “short” I mean from a few seconds in length up to a minute. What are the advantages of using short audios? Short audios mean short activities. Short activities require little preparation. You don’t need to make handouts. You can write a gap fill on the board. You can dictate. Short activities are easy to squeeze into the class schedule. And there’s even a benefit to classroom discipline. Short audios get students to quiet down and focus. They shush each other so as not to miss the beginning. They are like 50-meter sprinters, bracing themselves and cocking their heads to hear the starting gun. They know that there is little chance that a ten-second audio will bore them.

All these benefits make short audios low-risk, too. If an activity based on a 20-second audio goes wrong, there’s little harm done. But if a long-audio activity (say, one that is based on a ten-minute speech) goes wrong, the teacher has wasted a lot of time – the teacher’s own and the students’. For Scrivener (2005, 176), “[t]wo minutes of recorded material is enough to provide a lot of listening work,” while Rost (2002, 145) reminds us of the “well-known limitations to short-term memory that occur after 60 to 90 seconds of listening.” Lewis and Hill (1985) put the concentration of lower-level students at about 20 seconds. For the average teacher, this is great news: preparing short audio takes very little time.

Some secondary-school students may be preparing for university classes where they

Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Jump up	Hold a book in the air	Put one hand in the air	Put your hands over your eyes

will listen to long lectures in English. Your short activities will help them, too. Just increase the level of difficulty by finding audios that are faster or that contain more complex vocabulary. These activities will build confidence, give students practice with authentic spoken language, and increase students’ awareness of reduced forms.

4. PLAY IT AGAIN

In the summer of 2003, I was studying Russian in the United States. My teacher played a Russian song in class one day. She had prepared a gap fill with about 12 words missing. It was exciting because as a teacher myself I had used songs hundreds of times, but this was, amazingly, my first time experiencing a gap-fill song as a learner.

I wrote down missing words as the song played. But I couldn't write them all; there just wasn't time. When the song ended, we checked answers. The teacher called on me once. That was for a word I just didn't happen to catch – one of the two words I'd missed. Somehow that didn't feel fair. The teacher – who was actually wonderful – had decided to play the song only once, perhaps because it was four minutes long and playing it again might have seemed like a waste of class time. Playing the audio just once, though, was a mistake. It meant that none of us had a chance to succeed at the task as it was designed, to understand and fill in all the missing words. It is too bad we didn't repeat the song, perhaps playing it in segments and repeating certain lines multiple times.

Most trainers and course books recommend playing an audio two or three times. Sometimes that's enough. But a better rule of thumb is to play the audio (or speak it) as many times as the students need in order to succeed at the task. That is another benefit of *keeping it short*: you can play or speak the audio again and again, and students can succeed at the task, without a huge investment of class time.

**Students should have specific tasks, something to do during the audio, and that enables the teacher to monitor progress and comprehension.
Everybody wins.**

Longer audios can—as we've mentioned—always be segmented, turned into short audios. These segments can be played over and over. All the while, students should have specific tasks, something to do during the audio, and that enables the teacher

to monitor progress and comprehension. Everybody wins.

5. CHANGE IT UP

Increasing the variety of our audio sources will make bringing more listening to the class easy. Below are some of the choices you will make when selecting an audio.

Recorded audios or teacher's voice?

The teacher's voice is a great audio source. Give your students a do-during task, and then provide them with content: read a newspaper headline, recite a short poem, or sing a song. Audio recordings work well, too, and thousands are available for free on the Internet. Sources for freely downloadable audible content include American English (americanenglish.state.gov), English Teachers Everywhere (www.etseverywhere.com), BBC Learning English (www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish), and sources mentioned in the sections below.

Non-authentic or authentic texts?

Non-authentic texts are designed for learners of English, not for native speakers. Voice of America's Special English recordings (learningenglish.voanews.com) are read at two-thirds normal speed and are, thus, not authentic. When a teacher reads a dictation to the class, this is also non-authentic. It is not a natural form of communication; it is an exercise to learn English. However, non-authentic recordings are useful: their clarity and limited vocabulary allow students to understand large chunks of English.

Outside the classroom, authentic texts are much more common. These are real, natural communications, intended for purposes beyond English learning. A radio advertisement to sell soap is authentic because the goal is to sell a product, not to teach English. A conversation in English in a café is also authentic.

Teachers should not avoid using authentic texts just because they have low-level students or because they think authentic

texts are too difficult. The teacher's task is to design the listening activity so that students will succeed, whatever the text. Keeping that text short will almost always help.

Scripted or unscripted texts?

We can make a further distinction among authentic texts. Some are scripted (or written), while others happen spontaneously. The dialogue in a TV show or film is usually scripted. So are the lyrics to songs. These scripted texts are still authentic, though, since they are created for entertainment and not for language learning.

Unscripted language develops spontaneously, like the conversations you have every day with friends and family. Interview responses are usually unscripted. The interviewee may have a general plan but is not reading the answers. It is in unscripted language where we find the most examples of reduced speech, and so it is important that we provide our students the opportunity to experience and decipher these potential points of frustration. A good source for free unscripted audios is the English Language Listening Lab Online (ello.org).

Native speakers or non-native speakers?

Listen to CNN or BBC news and you will hear reporters from Scotland, Abu Dhabi, South Africa, and Argentina, among other places. Your students, if they travel, are more likely to encounter other second-language English speakers than native English speakers (Graddol 2006). Non-native English speech can be as authentic as native English speech. Students need to hear a variety of English accents and dialects. They do not need repeat-after-the-audio drills, though; reproducing dozens of accents is not the goal. Instead, listening practice that leads toward understanding the broad array of 21st-century Englishes is the goal. If anything, we as teachers should probably increase listening

**Give students variety.
Expose them to a wide
range of English. Let them
understand that English
does not have one single
correct form.**

practice from non-native-speaking sources. Even more than a decade ago, in 2004, 74 percent of 750 million international travelers were non-native English speakers traveling to non-English-speaking countries (Graddol 2006). What does that tell us about sticking only to native English models of speech?

Furthermore, native English itself is full of dialects. Give students variety. Expose them to a wide range of English. Let them understand that English does not have one single correct form. This exposure may have the added benefit of letting students realize that their own variety of English is perfectly legitimate and has a rightful place in the world of communication.

OVERCOMING BARRIERS

I hope I have convinced you that adding listening activities to the class hour need not be difficult. But I realize that for many, there are obstacles. The curriculum, for instance, is packed. Teachers may have little time to add anything. In this case, think *small*; think *short*. Reminder: an audio text can be a few seconds long. Dictate a single sentence now and then.

For other teachers, the problem is technical. They have no audios, no CD player or cassette player—or they have one, but the class is just too huge and noisy for students to hear the audio. There are possible solutions here. Use your voice as the audio source. Bring in a guest. Is there a video player at school? Use that for audio only. Ask your school to purchase an MP3 player, or borrow one from somebody. Take the students to the computer lab. Or use your phone; today many cell phones can play audio files. Of course, they won't be audible to the whole class, so change the arrangement: bring the students to the audio

source. Create a listening station in the corner of the class where a few students at a time rotate in to listen. Whatever solution you find, keeping the audios short and making sure students have a task to complete when they listen are the keys to productive listening practice.

CONCLUSION

Many students of English eventually travel abroad, where they are shocked to discover how unprepared they are for understanding real speech—whether native or non-native English. A teacher who attended one of my training workshops had had that experience: “After studying English for many years,” she said, “I was able to understand only my teachers, nobody else.”

Comments like that one are evidence that students are not getting the listening practice they deserve. So often, we are sidetracked from listening goals and drift back towards the familiar safety of teaching vocabulary and grammar. We need more listening for the sake of listening. We need to give students practice. We need to give them while-listening practice. And it can be easy to do. Keep audios short. Let listeners respond right away. Make sure their responses are visible; make sure that you can discern how much they understand and can measure the progress they make. Take advantage of the huge variety of listening texts available on the Internet. Keep in mind how important it is to have your students “do nothing but listen.” You can, of course, keep teaching vocabulary, writing, reading, and speaking. But don’t let those activities steal from the listening portion of class.

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Contents Analysis

2. In mini-groups, choose the most appropriate paper title from the ones given below. Report your ideas to the class. Decide together on the best title and, afterwards, compare your option with the original one. Is it different or the same?

- Effective Listening: Time Limiting
- The Role of Listening Activities in the English Language Lesson
- Developing Skills of Effective Listening Through Task-Focused Activities
- Practical Tips for Increasing Listening Practice Time
- The Importance of Material Selection for Developing Listening Skills

3. In pairs, analyze the structure of the article. Single out its compositional elements: introduction, literature outline, main body, conclusions, references. Does the article contain all of them? If not, which one is omitted and why, in your opinion?

4. In pairs, analyze the insertions in the text written in capital bold print. What do you think their aim is? Do they refer to the information given above or below? How else could you highlight some key points of your article? Discuss your ideas in mini-groups.

5. Brainstorm the ideas on the effect of rhetorical questions use in Point 5. Choose the best 5 opinions. In mini-groups, think of some alternative headings for the

paragraphs. Share your ideas with the class. Discuss if any of the headings offered could be more effective than the original one.

6. The article is quite rich in examples. Discuss with your partner the way they are presented (e.g. charts, model sentences, etc.). How much space of the paper do they occupy? Rearrange the exemplifying parts so that they would serve the same purpose.

7. Figure 1 demonstrates some notes on the structure of the lesson. Does it precedes or follow its textual description? Choose in pairs the best heading for the figure and prove your choice. Discuss your variants with the whole class.

- Listening activities in the English lesson
- The structure of the lesson devoted to developing listening skills
- Developing students' listening skills
- Listening demonstration lesson
- Plan of lesson on listening

In pairs, transform the Figure into the detailed explanation. Report it to the class.

Language Analysis

8. In mini-groups, write out from the article the phrases which are used to introduce:

- statement of the problem area;
- reasoning;
- examples;
- references to other sources;
- explanation of the information provided in tables and figures;
- conclusions.

Exchange your ideas with the class and together make a list of such phrases.

9. In pairs, make a list of terms items used in the paper. Classify them together with the class into the groups:

- general academic vocabulary;
- special professional vocabulary (terminology).

Which of these items are related most directly to the topic of the article?

10. In mini-groups, analyze the vocabulary of the paragraph “Listening Specific goals”. Count the words which belong to neutral, general academic and special professional (terminology) vocabulary and transfer the data into percents. Which layer has higher ranks?

11. The author uses the pronouns “I” and “we” in the paper. Analyze in groups the fragments of the text including these pronouns. Why is specifically “I” or “We” is used in these contexts? What information do they refer to?

12. Read the paragraph “See it”. Paraphrase the paragraph as if you had to cite it in your own work. Employ various types of periphrasis (lexical, grammatical, syntactical, etc.). Present your version to the class. Which one is the best?

13. Pay attention to the text arranging – bullet points, spacing, print changes. What purpose do they serve? Which other types of text arranging could you suggest for these paragraphs?

14. In pairs, underline all the cases of citation in the paper. What is the punctuation introducing them? Is it always the same? What is different and what does the punctuation type depend on in these cases? Rearrange the punctuation of the cites and analyze which changes in the visual perception it will result in.

15. Analyze the referencing style. What is it? How do you know it? Rearrange the list of references using the Harvard style.

Text 3.

1. Read the article.

Personification in discourse: Linguistic forms, conceptual structures and communicative functions

(abridged)

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Abstract

Drawing on examples from a corpus of 14 excerpts from novels, this article aims to present a systematic investigation of the different linguistic forms, conceptual structures and communicative functions of personification in discourse. The Metaphor Identification Procedure (Pragglejaz Group, 2007) and Steen's five-step procedure (1999, 2009) will be used to present an integral model distinguishing between linguistic, conceptual, and communicative levels of analysis. The influence of linguistic realization, conventionality, deliberateness, metonymy, and stylistic effects will be considered and it will be demonstrated that studying personifications in discourse raises different issues at each level of analysis. As a result, the question whether something should count as a personification may yield a different answer for each level.

Keywords: communicative function, conceptual structure, conventionality, deliberateness, fiction, linguistic form, metaphor identification, metonymy, personification

1 Introduction

The study of personification has a long and rich tradition in rhetoric and the arts, going all the way back to Erasmus and Quintilian. Nevertheless, Paxton (1994), Edgecombe (1997) and Hamilton (2002) point out that there is still much debate about the actual definition of personification. Within cognitive metaphor studies, personification is usually mentioned as one of the most basic ontological metaphors (Kövecses, 2002; Lakoff and Johnson, 1980) and discussed in relation to the differences between metaphor and metonymy (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980; Lakoff and Turner, 1989; Low, 1999). However, hardly any empirical work has been done on the different manifestations of personification in discourse and it remains unclear how personifications can be reliably identified and analysed.

This article presents a systematic investigation of the different linguistic forms, conceptual structures and communicative functions of personification by drawing on examples from fiction and employing different state-of-the-art methodologies. Steen (2008) has pointed out that distinguishing between different levels of analysis 'has the advantage that the autonomy of the dimensions of metaphor in language and thought is acknowledged, and where long-term effects of metaphor may be perceived in linguistic and conceptual systems and their use' (2008: 238). Moreover, the communicative dimension can distinguish between metaphors that are deliberately used for a particular rhetorical goal and metaphors as a general tool in language and thought (2008: 238). This article will demonstrate that the identification and analysis of personifications raises different issues at

each level of analysis, and that the question whether something should count as a personification may yield a different answer for each level.

The linguistic forms of personification will be analysed on the basis of the Metaphor Identification Procedure or MIP (Pragglejaz Group, 2007) and its extended version MIPVU (Steen et al., 2010). These methods were developed to offer analysts a reliable, replicable and flexible tool for metaphor identification in discourse. Steen's five-step procedure (1999, 2009) will be used to show how analysts can move from linguistic forms to underlying conceptual structures in a systematic and constrained fashion. All examples were taken from the fiction corpus annotated in the *Metaphor in Discourse* project at VU University Amsterdam. This corpus consists of 14 randomly selected excerpts from novels included in the BNC-Baby corpus, a 4-million-word subcorpus of the British National Corpus. The sources of the cited files can be found in the Appendix. For the reader's convenience, italics have been added to the relevant parts of cited examples in the following sections.

This article is organized as follows. Section 2 offers a theoretical background to the definition of personification. Section 3 explores the different linguistic manifestations of personification while Section 4 makes the transition from linguistic forms to conceptual structures and considers the influence of conventionality. Section 5 discusses the tension between conventionality and deliberateness. Section 6 considers the interaction between metaphor and metonymy by examining body-part personifications. Finally, Section 7 provides a summary of the findings from all three levels of analysis and discusses general tendencies and suggestions for further research.

2 Theoretical background

Within cognitive metaphor studies, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) defined personification as an ontological metaphor involving a cross-domain mapping where an object or entity 'is further specified as being a person', as in the following examples (1980: 33):

- (1) His *theory explained* to me the behavior of chickens raised in factories.
- (2) This *fact argues* against the standard theories.
- (3) *Life has cheated* me.
- (4) *Inflation is eating up* our profits.

In their discussion they stress that 'personification is not a single unified general process' and that each personification 'differs in terms of the aspects of people that are picked out' (1980: 33). When examples such as 'Inflation is eating up our profits' and 'The dollar has been destroyed by inflation' are encountered, the relevant conceptual metaphor is therefore not INFLATION IS A PERSON but INFLATION IS A DEVOURER and INFLATION IS A DESTROYER. This relates to the fact that we do not merely see an abstract concept such as inflation as a person, but as a particular kind of person, such as a destroyer. The particular kind of person that is selected determines the salient features that are mapped onto the non-human concept, so that we 'think of inflation as an adversary that can attack us, hurt us, steal from us, even destroy us' (1980: 34).

Lakoff and Turner (1989) discuss personification in relation to the EVENTS ARE ACTIONS metaphor, which allows us to 'conceive of agentless events as if they were caused by agents', as, for example, in 'My car just refused to start this morning' (1989: 36). In combination with the identification of a

specific type of agent, such as a thief or destroyer, this will result in a personification. This personification is a separate process from the EVENTS ARE ACTIONS metaphor itself; it is the choice of a specific entity that leads to personifications such as TIME IS A DESTROYER, TIME IS A THIEF and TIME IS A HEALER. Lakoff and Turner emphasize that personification should therefore be distinguished from ‘mere agency’ in which no specific agent is identified (1989: 38–9).

In addition to being contrasted with ‘mere agency’, personification is also often opposed to metonymy. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) argue that examples such as ‘The ham sandwich is waiting for his check’ are not personifications but metonymies since the expression *the ham sandwich* is used to refer to the person who ordered the sandwich and ‘we do not understand “the ham sandwich” by imputing human qualities to it’ (1980: 35). Other examples include (1980: 35) ‘Acrylic has taken over the art world (= the use of acrylic paint)’ and ‘The Times hasn’t arrived at the press conference yet (= the reporter from the Times)’. However, it has often been pointed out that the distinction between metaphor and metonymy is not always easy to make, and that metaphor and metonymy can interact in various ways (e.g. Geeraerts, 2002; Goossens, 2002; Radden, 2002).

MacKay (1986) points out that it is virtually impossible to read such examples as ‘Acrylic has taken over the art world’ without a spill-over effect of human qualities: ‘*acrylic* acquires human properties even though the author of the sentence clearly means “the use of acrylic”’ (1986: 102). MacKay argues that people use human beings as their prototypical or default frame of reference and such examples can be considered ‘personification in disguise’ (1986: 102).

According to MacKay (1986: 87), personification pervades human cognition and often comes disguised in other figurative devices (such as metonymies, spatial metaphors, and container metaphors) or syntactic expressions (for example, frozen word orders and obligatory nominal gender marking). Similarly, Wales (1996) exposes a lingering sexism underlying the use of pronouns in present-day English to talk about cars, countries, pets and so on, and argues that personification takes the form of ‘he’ as the male norm by default (1996: 148).

Moreover, the same metonymic reading can in fact be applied to Lakoff and Johnson’s personification examples (1) and (2) mentioned earlier. As Steen (2007: 57–61) points out, the important question is whether a metonymic reading and a metaphorical reading may not sometimes be equally plausible and occur alongside each other. For example, in a sentence such as *I see what you mean* both concrete seeing and abstract understanding may be involved simultaneously, with literal seeing entailing understanding (metonymy) and understanding being understood in terms of seeing (metaphor). The same point is made by Cameron (2003: 69) for expressions such as *see what you can do* and *I’ve been able to see what their problem is* in class-room interaction.

Low (1999) points out that for expressions such as *This essay thinks* analysts can effectively choose between a metonymic and a metaphoric interpretation, ‘depending on whether the writer’s starting point for a decision is seen as the noun or the verb’ (1999: 222–3). If the writer started from the noun phrase *This essay* and then tried to find an appropriate verb, then the decision between verbs like *believes*, *thinks* or *intends* represents ‘the humanisation of the essay’ and this expression should be

interpreted as an instance of the metaphor AN ESSAY IS A PERSON (1999: 223). However, if the writer started from the verb *think* and then consciously decided to avoid the personal pronouns *I* and *we* in order to avoid an inappropriately ‘subjective’ style, then the author can opt to name the product in place of the producer; this should be regarded as metonymy rather than metaphor since the objectifying strategy does not involve ‘the creation of animacy’ (1999: 223).

Graesser et al. (1989) focus on personification as ‘yet another strategy of facilitating comprehension by giving abstract processes and notions a concrete conceptual foundation that is familiar to members of a culture’ (1989: 141). Their definition of personification is therefore much more general: ‘Personification occurs when animals, objects, social organizations, and abstract notions are given qualities of people’ (1989: 141). For example, in an expression such as *common sense tells us that*, common sense acquires the ability of speaking to people while normally only people can speak to people. Graesser et al. also include examples that could count as metonymic according to other researchers, and their focus is more on the different abstractions that can be personified, for instance in ‘The weapon is vulnerable’ an object receives human characteristics, in ‘Japan announced that ...’ a country receives human characteristics, and in ‘The court declared that ...’ a social organization receives human characteristics (1989: 141).

Within literary studies, Hamilton (2002: 411) offers the following definition: ‘We personify when we metaphorically ascribe agency to normally inanimate objects, turning non-existent or imaginary entities into realistic actors or agents’. Hamilton

points out that the rhetorical tradition, which distinguishes between prosopopoeia (i.e. when authors address their audience by speaking with the voice of another person or object) and prosopographia (i.e. the personification of objects or abstractions), suggests that ‘personification is merely a categorization issue’ and that this two-fold division ‘overlooks how we personify, why we personify, or what metaphorical domains are involved’ (2002: 411). Moreover, personified abstractions that function as characters in poetry and novels (such as Chastity and Justice in Spenser’s *Faerie Queen*) or paintings and sculptures (such as the female representations of the Seven Virtues or the Four Seasons) appear to be of a different order than the examples discussed so far. Concerning such allegorical personifications, Crisp (2005) has pointed out that ‘[in] the case of such abstract personifications, an abstract noun refers via a metaphoric pragmatic connector to a character in a fictional situation. This character is then projected back onto the relevant abstract property’ (2005: 116).

The differences between the definitions just discussed suggest that what counts as personification will depend greatly on the analysts’ field of research (psychology, literature, linguistics, visual arts) and on whether personification is studied at the linguistic, conceptual, communicative or cognitive level. One essential factor seems to be the assignment of agency via a violation of selection restrictions. Such selection restrictions play a central role during linguistic analysis, while the specification of a particular agent occurs primarily at a conceptual level. Another important influence is the possibility of a metonymic reading. Although it remains an empirical question whether personifications are processed as

metaphors or metonymies or both, a study by Dorst, Mulder and Steen (submitted) on the recognition of personifications by non-expert readers showed that readers refer to both metaphoric and metonymic readings in their interpretations and indicate that the metonymic reading yields additional stylistic information in the interpretation of the personification. The different levels of analysis and the relations between them will now be considered in turn.

3

The first factor that plays a role in the identification of personification in discourse is its linguistic realization. The examples discussed in the previous section illustrate that conceptual personifications such as those postulated by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) and Kövecses (2002) take a nominal form, that is, INFLATION IS AN ADVERSARY, while their linguistic realization depends heavily on the use of verbs, for example ‘The dollar *has been destroyed* by inflation’. The nature of the relationship between the verbal linguistic expression and the nominal conceptual personification and the process by which the one is derived from the other are both left implicit. However, when analysts are involved in doing metaphor analysis at the linguistic level, the role of word class cannot be ignored. Consider, for instance, the following two examples from fiction:

- (5) She has an obsession with the drug that verges on monomania. She tells me she needs to understand it if she’s going to *defeat* it. (BNC BNC-Baby: CCW)
- (6) She studies the drug, you know? Like it was her *enemy*. (BNC-Baby: CCW)

To determine whether the verb *defeat* and the noun *enemy* are used metaphorically in these sentences, the analyst can apply the Metaphor Identification Procedure (Pragglejaz Group, 2007) or its extended version MIPVU (Steen et al., 2010). In both MIP and MIPVU, the unit of analysis is the lexical unit and a one-to-one correspondence between words, concepts and referents is assumed: words evoke concepts and concepts in turn designate referents in the projected text world. Lexical units are marked as metaphorically used when they refer indirectly to their referents and this referential incongruity can be resolved by comparison. To detect such cases, MIP (and MIPVU) follows the steps below (Pragglejaz Group, 2007: 3):

With regard to personification, the application of MIP entails that there should be a non-human contextual sense (step 3a) and a human basic sense (step 3b) and that these can be contrasted but also compared (step 3c). One essential decision is therefore whether the basic sense is human. Though this may sound straightforward, the dictionary used in MIP and MIPVU to determine contextual and basic senses – the Macmillan English dictionary for advanced learners (Rundell and Fox, 2002) – does not necessarily refer to humanness in its definitions. Thus it may not always be clear whether a basic sense should be interpreted as human only, human and animal, sentient beings, animate beings, concrete entities, and so forth. For *defeat* and *enemy* in examples (5) and (6) given earlier the following senses can be found in the Macmillan dictionary:

Both *defeat* and *enemy* can be said to involve a personification of the drug in question, cocaine, such that COCAINE IS AN ENEMY, and more generally DRUGS ARE AN OPPONENT. In (5)

this mapping is expressed by the verb *defeat*, in (6) by the noun

1. Read the entire text/discourse to establish a general understanding of the meaning.

2. Determine the lexical units in the text/discourse

3a. For each lexical unit in the text, establish its meaning in context, i.e. how it applies to an entity, relation or attribute in the situation evoked by the text (contextual meaning). Take into account what comes before and after the lexical unit.

3b. For each lexical unit, determine if it has a more basic contemporary meaning in other contexts than the one in the given context. For our purposes, basic meanings tend to be:

- more concrete; what they evoke is easier to imagine, see, hear, feel, smell, and taste
- related to bodily action
- more precise (as opposed to vague)
- historically older.

Basic meanings are not necessarily the most frequent meanings of the lexical unit.

3c. If the lexical unit has a more basic current/contemporary meaning in other contexts than the given context, decide whether the contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning but can be understood in comparison with it.

4. If yes, mark the lexical unit as metaphorical.

Defeat (2002: 363)

1 to win against someone in a game, fight, or election

2 if something defeats you, it is so difficult that you are unable to do it

3 to prevent something from happening or being successful

Enemy (2002: 457)

someone who is opposed to someone else and tries to do them harm

a. a country that is fighting another country in a war

b. relating to a country's enemy

c. something that harms or threatens someone or something *enemy*. In (5) the personification results from the fact that the verb *defeat* normally requires both a human subject (a human agent) and a human direct object (a human patient).

The personification in (5) is thus realized via the selection restrictions of the verb. The important role metaphorically used verbs play in realizing personifications has also been noted by Wales (2001). She uses the famous lines 'Night's candles are burnt out, and jocund day / Stands tiptoe on the misty mountain tops' from Shakespeare's *Romeo and Juliet* to argue that '[i]n terms of generative grammar ... the metaphor in the second line would be a deviation, since the selection restrictions of subject and verb are here violated' (2001: 251). She points out that '*stands tiptoe on* would normally co-occur with nouns marked with animate/human reference (as also *jocund* normally)' and that 'it is *day* which is personified, and acquires by "contagion" the connotations also perhaps of youthful impishness' (2001: 251).

In example (6), on the other hand, the nominal comparison at the linguistic level closely resembles the nominal conceptual structure, which may cause it to be more noticeable as a personification than example (5). Though most metaphor analysts would probably agree that *defeat* is used metaphorically, they are less likely to agree that it is a personification. For metaphor annotation purposes, these examples raise the additional question which word should be annotated as involving personification, since it is the verb *defeat* that is metaphorically used

and evokes the mapping but it is the entity COCAINE expressed by the noun *drug* that is technically being personified.

This situation can be visualized as in Figure 1. The personification set up by the noun-to-noun comparison can be visualized as a straightforward entity-to-entity mapping between a human source domain (ENEMY) and a non-human target domain (COCAINE). Personifications that are derived from a violation of selection restrictions – such as those linguistically expressed by verbs like *defeat* – would be visualized as in Figure 2.

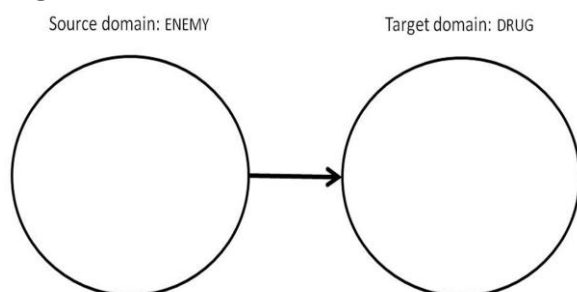


Figure 1. Personification set up by a noun-to-noun comparison

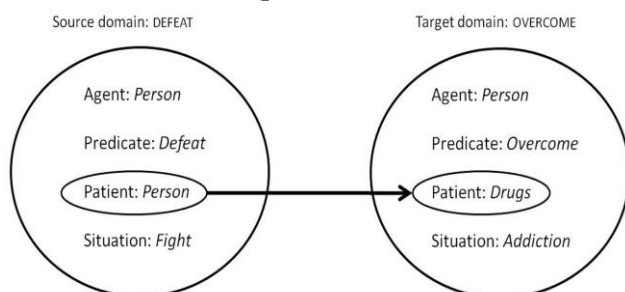


Figure 2. Personification derived from the argument structure of the verb

Figure 2 shows that the personification is the result of a mapping between arguments within the conceptual domains, rather than between the domains themselves.

As personifications are often realized by verbs and adjectives rather than nouns (see also Crisp, 2008), selection restrictions play a vital role in the analysis of personification at the linguistic level, while its visibility as personification may indeed, as MacKay

(1986) suggested, be considered ‘in disguise’. When personifications are realized by verbs, adverbs or adjectives, their presence may not be established until the underlying conceptual structure is analysed, though the tension between human and non-human roles in argument structures plays a role at the linguistic level. Whether or not such instances are also processed and understood as personifications is of course a matter for behavioural research.

Related to the issue of word class is the fact that personifications can be expressed in the form of either linguistic metaphors or similes. Consider examples (7) and (8):

(7) Leaves and yellow blossoms obscured the top of the window, while the bottom was covered by *aggressive* pink hollyhocks, seemingly *determined* to *fight* their way inside. (BNC-Baby: FPB)

(8) At the top they came out into uncompromising, bright grey light, the bleak, hedgeless lane, the flat meadows where here and there stunted trees *squatted like old men in cloaks*. (BNC-Baby: CDB)

Both examples involve a personification of plants, but in (7) this personification is realized by the metaphorically used adjectives *aggressive* and *determined* and the verb *fight*, while in (8) it is realized by the metaphorically used verb *squatted* and the simile *like old men in cloaks*. Since similes are necessarily more explicit in setting up and signalling comparisons, personifications expressed by similes are likely to be more noticeable and deliberate than those expressed by metaphors, as also suggested by Steen (2008). Moreover, since similes often focus on attributional correspondences rather than relational ones (cf. Aisenman, 1999),

personifications realized as similes may be similar to image mappings, with a strong visualization effect. Such personifications are more likely to be noticed as personifications and have a clearer communicative function as personifications, though the underlying linguistic mechanisms remain the same.

The foregoing examples have illustrated that at the linguistic level personifications can be set up by entity-to-entity mappings expressed by nouns, as in example (6), or via the argument structure of verbs or adjectives, as in example (5). In addition, personifications can be linguistically realized as metaphors or as similes, with personifications realized as similes often involving more noticeable cases of personification because of their explicit form. With respect to realization by different word classes, the results of the study by Dorst, Mulder and Steen (submitted) suggested that there were no differences in recognizability between the word classes, though there were differences relating to the conventionality of the linguistic expressions, which is the central issue of the next section.

The role of conventionality

The role of conventionality can be illustrated by the use of many verbs of motion and possession in combination with non-human subjects:

- (9) Though she thought sleep would never *come*, eventually it did *come*. (BNC-Baby: CB5)
- (10) The gangway lamps seemed to *give* no light. (BNC-Baby: BPA)
- (11) Valentine's Day *brought* two happy events. (BNC-Baby: FPB)

In the Macmillan dictionary, the verbs in examples (9)–(11) have conventional

human and non-human sense descriptions:

Come (2002: 269)

1 to move or travel to the place where you are

6 to happen

Give (2002: 599)

1 to put something in someone's hand or pass something to someone

4 to cause a general result or effect

Bring (2002: 168)

1 to take someone or something from one place and have them with you when you arrive somewhere else

4 to be the cause of a state, situation, or feeling

These verbs can be analysed as being metaphorically used on the basis of a contrast and comparison between basic senses involving concrete movement and objects and contextual senses involving abstract processes, time and causality. However, what is less noticeable is that the basic senses of these verbs involve human agents while the contextual senses involve non-human entities. This means that these verbs can be considered instances of conventionalized linguistic personification. Their sense of human agency has been backgrounded since their abstract metaphorical uses are so conventional that their human origins have become bleached. The resulting mappings are therefore more obviously from concrete to abstract than from human to non-human. The fact that an abstract process or causation is compared to concrete motion backgrounds the fact that there is also a distinction between human and non-human agency. In essence, however, delexicalized verbs such as *give*, *get*, *take*, *make*, *go*, *come* have human basic senses. ...

5 Deliberateness and elaboration

Deciding whether *run* and *dance* should be analysed as personifications raised the question: when is something a deliberate personification? Steen (2008) proposes that a metaphor is used deliberately ‘when it is expressly meant to change the addressee’s perspective on the referent or topic that is the target of the metaphor, by making the addressee look at it from a different conceptual domain or space, which functions as a conceptual source’ (2008: 222). Clear examples of such deliberate metaphors are novel metaphors, similes and figurative analogies, extended or elaborated metaphors, or metaphors expressed in an explicit A IS B format. The influence of elaboration and extension can be illustrated by the following example:

(14) Now they guard the body, which is motionless in a lake of blood that is rapidly drying, *drunk* by the *thirsty*, *insatiable* soil. You can almost hear the soil *gulping*. (BNC-Baby: FAJ)

Compared to the examples of *run* and *dance*, the presence of *drunk*, *thirsty*, *insatiable* and *gulping* in such close proximity makes this a more likely case of deliberate personification. In (14) there are two verbs and two adjectives that can be interpreted as referring by default to humans but now referring to the non-human entity *soil*.

Though this may seem a clear case of personification because of its elaboration, the linguistic and conceptual analyses are not as straightforward as they may seem. The verb *drink* is defined in the Macmillan dictionary as ‘to take liquid into your body through your mouth’ (2002: 425). Animals can of course also literally drink, yet it is clear that the verb is metaphorically used when applied to the inanimate noun *soil*. The adjective *thirsty* has a conventional

plant sense ‘thirsty plants or areas of land need a lot of water’ (2002: 1494). This means that *thirsty* counts as a conventionalized or even ‘dead’ personification, whereas a verb like *drink* would have to be analysed as a personification based on a violation of selection restrictions. The fact that *drink* and *thirsty* are clearly related to the source domain of drinking while *insatiable* and *gulping* are not restricted to drinking means that even though these words seem to create one coherent mapping, they do in fact behave differently at the linguistic and conceptual level.

6 Body-part personifications

One type of personification that was frequently encountered in the fiction corpus concerns what can be called body-part personifications, involving a personification of parts of the human body. Body part is used here (following Goossens, 2002) in the broadest sense, including such instances as ‘voice’ and ‘breath’. These personifications are usually realized by verbs or adjectives, but can also be expressed by other word classes. It is important to note that in body-part personifications the body parts are part of the *target domain*. In other words, they are the entities being personified; these cases should not be confused with examples such as (16) and (17), in which the body parts are part of the *source domain* and can be used to personify other entities:

(16) To his right the ground rose gently towards the southern cliffs and he could see the dark *mouth* of a concrete pillbox. (BNC-Baby: C8T)

(17) There was a low table and three or four dainty chairs with aubergine velvet seats and gilded spindle *legs*. (BNC-Baby: BMW)

When it comes to body-part personifications, it can be observed that some are highly conventional, such as *come* in example (18), while others are more novel and more deliberately personifying, such as *play* and *hunt* in (19):

(18) We were alone on deck, though not the only ones awake for I could hear Rickie and Ellen's voices *coming* from the open skylight of the main saloon. (BNC-Baby: CCW)

(19) The voices *played* with the slaughter of the innocents, treble and descant *hunting* each other, while she bowed her head, unable to sing in tune. (BNC-Baby: FET)

Additionally, these examples can be said to involve a metonymic relation between voices and people in line with Langacker's active-zone metonymies (2009: 43). Though body parts are often used metonymically to stand for a specific character, metonymy is not a necessary condition in body-part personifications. Conventionality, metonymy and deliberateness are independent forces interacting in different ways, as illustrated by the following examples:

(20) Their tense, edgy faces *watched* Delaney closely. (BNC-Baby: BPA)

(21) They reached the main deck, dropping down in a defensive posture, eyes *searching* the stacked containers. (BNC-Baby: BPA)

(22) His gaze *came back* to George, still sprawled over the control desk. (BNC-Baby: BPA)

(23) Paula's stomach *turned a somersault*. (BNC-Baby: BMW)

(24) Dimples *played* in his cheeks. (BNC-Baby: BMW)

(25) With Mrs Cranbrook's words Ruth's appetite immediately *returned*. (BNC-Baby: CB5)

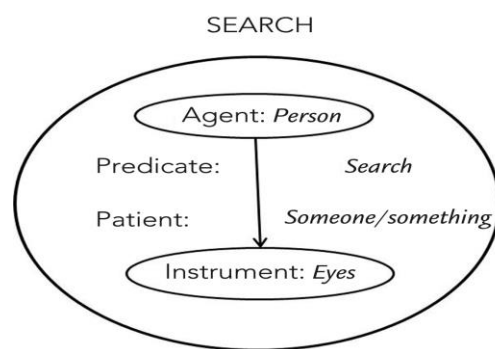


Figure 3. Personification based on a metaphor-metonymy interaction

7 Conclusion

This article has shown that from a linguistic, conceptual and communicative point of view all personifications are not equal, and they do not merely differ in the specific human aspects that are picked out. Personifications can be analysed in terms of their linguistic forms, conceptual structures or communicative functions; though interrelated, these levels of analysis may each yield a different answer to the question whether something is a personification or not. In addition, analysts can investigate the cognitive representations of personifications, their processing, comprehension, interpretation and appreciation by language users.

Section 3 illustrated that personifications can linguistically be realized by different word classes, and that selection restrictions play a crucial role in this process. Section 4 showed that conventionality may disguise the personification mapping and emphasized the need to distinguish between personification on a purely linguistic level, or even as a historical development in the language system, and personifications that are fully realized on a conceptual level or in processing. Section 5 illustrated how deliberateness can revitalize or foreground a personification mapping, for instance

through extension. Section 6 discussed body-part personifications and the involved interaction between metaphor and metonymy.

Applying different methodologies, such as the Metaphor Identification Procedure (Pragglejaz Group, 2007), MIPVU (Steen et al., 2010) and the five-step procedure (Steen, 1999, 2009) can help to define what counts as a personification at which level of analysis. Since it makes a world of difference whether analysts are talking about personification at the level of linguistic form, conceptual structure, communicative function, or cognitive representation, analysts can only communicate effectively if they are clear about their methodological choices.

The literature suggests a bias in favour of conceptual personifications on the one hand, and an emphasis on deliberate and poetic personifications on the other. The relation between the linguistic forms and the conceptual structures of personification has not been discussed systematically, nor has the influence of conventionality, deliberateness and metonymy received much attention. Personifications that are so conventional and automatic that we hardly notice them should not be disregarded, and the fact that an expression may not be processed as a personification or give rise to a full conceptualization should not mean that the linguistic personification is ignored. Each level of analysis yields interesting results, and more research is needed to investigate how these levels interact, especially when it comes to the processing, understanding and appreciation of personification by language users.

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Structure and Contents Analysis

1. In pairs, analyze the structure of introduction. Arrange the following structural elements in the order they appear in introduction. Note that one of the elements is odd. Which one?

- ✓ Stating the objectives
- ✓ Exploring the importance of the problem
- ✓ Stating the gaps in the exploration of the problem
- ✓ Defining the key concepts
- ✓ Presenting the structure of the article
- ✓ Presenting material and methods
- ✓ Theoretical outline
- ✓ Historical background

2. Read attentively Part 3 of the article. What is its main focus? Choose in mini-groups the best heading for the part.

- Linguistic realizations of personification
- Main body
- Exemplifying personification
- Personification mapping

➤ Personification in discourse

3. Analyze Figures 1, 2 and 3 and their in-text interpretation. In mini-groups, match the scheme of figures' representation/interpretation with the appropriate figure. What is common in their representation? What is variable and why, in your opinion?

1. Figure → reference to the Figure → Figure interpretation	Figure 1
2. reference to the Figure → Figure interpretation → Figure	Figure 2
3. reference to the Figure → Figure → Figure interpretation	Figure 3

4. In pairs, analyze the structure of Conclusions. Single out its main structural elements which coincide with its paragraphs. Share your ideas with other students. Together with the class make a general scheme of Conclusions structure.

5. Analyze the ways examples are presented in the article. How are they referred to in the text? Do they illustrate the information given before or following them?

6. Analyze the changes of print throughout the article. What do they aim at? What alternative ways of highlighting would you use suggest?

7. In pairs, determine the in-text and post-text citation/referencing style. What are the key peculiarities of the style? What makes it different from other styles?

Language Analysis

8. The article offers quite rich theoretical background. In pairs, write out all the expressions used to refer to the works / opinions of other scholars, e.g. *Low (1999) points out...*, *MacKay argues that...* . Share your list with the class.

9. In pairs, make a list of terms used in the article. Classify them together into the groups:

- general academic vocabulary;
- special professional vocabulary.

Extend your list sharing it with the class. Having done that, divide special professional items into three groups according to the part of speech they belong to – nouns, verbs, adjectives. Items of which group prevail in the article? Why?

10. Analyze the use of personal pronoun *I* in the article. Which part of the article can you find this pronoun more often and why, in your opinion?

11. In the part Acknowledgements, the author expresses gratitude to different people for their contributions to the research. Underline the expressions used to explain the reasons for thanking. What other reasons could you suggest?

12. In mini-groups, write out the phrases which are used for:

- reasoning;
- exemplifying;
- explaining the information given in tables and figures;
- adding information;
- contrasting;
- concluding.

Exchange your ideas with the class and together make a list of such expressions.

13. In pairs, analyze *Introduction* and *Part 5 Deliberateness and elaboration*. Count the number of active and passive verb forms. Which form prevails in each part? Why?

Text 4

Comparing scientific papers

1. Read the papers given below.

Lifelong Learning: a Challenge to Universities

(abridged)

L. Ojala

Continuous change – need for Lifelong Learning

Bigger companies are calculating that they will make their future profit with half of the employees of today who will have twice the level of competence and provide three times the added value compared with the employees of today, $(1/2 \times 2 \times 3 = P(\text{profit}))$. This trend continues. More and more people belong to “the half” outside the core business. They either have to start selling their competence on an open market or they need to learn a new job. In any case they need to renew, upgrade and update

competence. This need translates into a new emerging market for basic-, further-, and continuing education and training.

Lifetime employment is vanishing as well. This requires that each individual takes on the responsibility for his or her competence and education. The more up-to-date the education, the better the opportunities for advancement and promotion. Today's best job security is a knowledge base which allows one to learn quickly the requirements of a new job.

What is Lifelong Learning?

According to the European Lifelong Learning Initiative (ELLI) Lifelong Learning means all learning from cradle to grave. "Lifelong Learning is continuously supportive processes which stimulates and empowers individuals acquire all the knowledge values, skills and understanding they will require throughout their lifetimes and to apply them with confidence, creativity and enjoyment in all roles, circumstances, and environments.

To put it more accurately.

- Lifelong Learning develops person's competence throughout his/her lifetime. Competence includes knowledge, skills, capabilities experience, contacts,

attitudes and values (Fig.1). Lifelong Learning is not only development of knowledge and skills

- Lifelong Learning includes all learning that takes place in different areas of life. It includes formal and informal education, and training Lifelong Learning is not only formal education.
- Lifelong Learning is a continuous development process of an individual. Lifelong Learning is not a one-off event, nor a short course.
- Lifelong Learning provides a person with capabilities to live in a continuously changing world

and to cope with the changing society and working life

Lifelong Learning concerns a person throughout a lifetime. However, due to problems caused by increasing mismatch between people's skills and market needs, the focus of Lifelong Learning is now on adults. Today's working age population is in a new situation. Old professions with outdated skills vanish and new professions with new skills and competencies are needed to stay employable. People need continuous updating and upgrading.

Individual competence and Lifelong Learning

Individual competence is not only factual knowledge and hard skills. It is also experience gained in all areas of life. Experience is also important for the learning ability. Experience provides us with a framework into which we can integrate all new pieces of information. The framework is the broader and the wider, the longer we have gained experience. Thus, our ability to learn increases by the age of 60 (e.g. Eisdorfer, 1963; Owens, 1963).

In today's networking society, contacts are an important part of competence. That includes human contacts as well as all kinds of information contacts through which one can get information, receive signals about changes, and learn about implication of changes. The more there are fast changes in our environment, the more important are good contacts that keep us informed.

Values and attitudes determine how willing and motivated a person is to learn and to adapt to new situations. Many industrialists, for example, think that attitude is the most important criteria when recruiting a person—is the person capable to adapt to the future

requirements and to the vision of the organization?

Personal mental and physical energy provides the fuel for learning. A crucial element of the fuel is a person's own will to get new information and skills, the passion for learning (Fig.1).

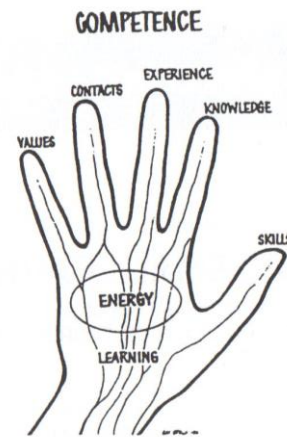


Figure 1 — ELEMENTS OF INDIVIDUAL COMPETENCE

Lifelong Learning develops all elements of human competence. Of course, the relation and importance between different elements varies at different ages. The on-going process throughout one's lifetime increases knowledge and skills. This is the main process which is supported by the learning process and the attitude process. The learning process describes how the ability to learn increases. The attitude process describes how well a person can cope with changes and the level of personal mastery (see Table 1). The value of this learning process is that a person can stay employable and is capable of participating in the modern information society.

Prerequisites for Lifelong Learning

School should give young people a solid base for all processes of Lifelong Learning. The most important task of schools is, however, the development of

individuals as human beings so that they are strong enough to cope with continuous change and uncertainty.

A lifelong learner needs new skills and competencies to carry out continuous learning. The most crucial is the learning ability. So far, no one has exactly defined what the learning ability is. One can, however, think of various skills that influence one's ability to process information to cope with changes. These competencies for Lifelong Learning are

described in *Table 1*. These skills should be core learning for all young people. They should also be adopted by many adults who need them to be able to carry out personal Lifelong Learning. Universities should develop a learning package including these skills for different target groups. We need urgently information on how could people best learn them; they cannot be learned in a traditional classroom through lecturing.



Challenges for the universities

Education and the role of universities has been basically the same for centuries. Education has been one complete phase in a person's life. Education has been a regulated institution that has been a part of a protected establishment in society. This position had not even been questioned. In many cases educational institutions and universities particularly have lived their own lives closed off from the outside world. Today, the need for education, the role of education, and the methods of learning provide universities and other educational institutions with new roles, new potential and new challenges.

Growing market of lifelong learners

In today's rapidly changing business environment, the traditional role of universities as providers of knowledge is greatly affected. Individuals, trained in specific fields, must cope with business demands that require them to and continuously renew their knowledge competence. In many instances, one must renew professional education three or four times during a career. This situation translates into a lifelong need for upgrading and updating, and many

look to universities to assist in this need. This kind of renewing competence development is a long-term activity with long-term objectives.

Lifelong learners are potential customers for universities throughout their lives. The number of adult students is growing everywhere. In American universities, less than 20% meet the typical norm of being 18-21 years of age, full-time, residential students. In Germany, there are as many people in continuing education in universities as in basic education. In Finland, the number of adult students in universities is already two-thirds of the number of young students. Adult students will be the fastest-growing market segment for educational institutions. Universities must develop programmes and techniques to provide the knowledge needed during career cycles.

Adults as students

Adult students are not an easy market. They are critical demanding and result-oriented. Their enrolment is not automatic; universities have to work for that. They also have to meet requirements concerning quality, service

and customer-orientation. Adult students have already gained experience that helps them to quickly learn new things; they are motivated to learn if they can implement the learning at work. Adult students are often specialists themselves who cannot be taught. They do not need education. Instead, they need tutoring, guiding counseling, and tools for learning.

Competence is viewed as a personal asset in which individuals are willing to invest. However, it is important that one's investment in education be recognized and accepted in today's international job market. Credits, diplomas, and degrees serve as both signs of personal assets, as well as concrete milestones for Lifelong Learning. Since credits for studies are the realm of universities and other educational institutions, international, transferable programmes are needed. This allows lifelong learners to transport their knowledge and skills from region to region and country to country -an absolute necessity in the international and increasingly global market place.

Partnership with working life

Speed and sudden change have been major problems in industry and in many people's working life during the past years. That has forced businesses to focus on short-term issues as well as on competence development. Company training is, however, strictly related to current tasks, products and processes. Companies, particularly, find difficulties in committing to long-term development programmes of individuals. During the recession, many businesses downsized human resource development and company training activities. In spite of the growing economy, it is not very obvious that companies would go back to

the old model of company training centres with large training staff. Training is not the core activity of a business organization. However, the need for increasing employee competence is growing rapidly.

New roles of universities in networks

Industry is restructuring in networks members of different sizes and with types. The competitiveness of a network requires that all members meet the same competence requirements. Many smaller members do not have resources of their own to take care of employee competence development. Industry network needs a partner who can take care of competence development needs of the network and the provision of learning opportunities for all network members. These tasks could well be taken care of by universities. They have new role in industry networks as the coordinator of network-based competence development needs and the provider of network-based competence development opportunities.

Universities have to meet the competitiveness, efficiency and quality requirements of industry. Competitiveness is, today, based on focus and specialization. To meet customer needs outside their core areas universities need partners. This has promoted the networking structure. **Networks of universities and educational institutions** form a competence development or a learning provision network. They can provide teaching and sources for learning throughout the world. The technology can be used as a tool even in cases when language barriers are hindering learning through traditional methods. University networks can also promote internationalism by offering students

from different countries an opportunity to work together, to learn international approaches, and to compare (benchmark) their learning with international standards.

Lifelong Learning infrastructure

Lifelong learners are becoming more and more mobile; learning does not stop at national borders. Universities should provide an international lifelong learning infrastructure which makes it possible to continue studies in another country. The infrastructure should also provide for Europe-wide (or someday global) recognition of study. In practice, good infrastructure implies that universities agree upon basic rules for recognition and credits, and the principles of credit transfer. They also agree to cooperate in providing competence development and

learning for both individuals and organizations.

The infrastructure for Lifelong Learning forms a common framework with common principles and policies for providing learning opportunities.

The principles would include the following:

- study and learning modules
- flexible combination of modules
- individual study/learning plans
- individual learning styles
- many providers and many modes
- common principles for assessing and crediting
- transfer of credits
- Industry-university cooperation networks.



Meeting the challenges

Universities and other educational institutions have to learn to provide quality, to achieve customer satisfaction, to guarantee simultaneously high quality and cost efficiency. Universities can use the same strategies as businesses do: focus on core activities and core competencies, re-engineer processes, develop effective networks, promote teamwork and learn fast.

Competition requires quality. Quality is related to customers and markets. The companies that have learned to listen to customer needs and quickly meet them are the winners. Universities should learn the same. Because of the rapid changes in working life universities should reshape and streamline their own activities to improve speed and to become proactive instead of reactive. These needs translate into organizational

development needs among universities.

Meeting the quality demands

Education is a service. Hamburger restaurants are often benchmarked as examples of effective and high-quality service businesses. Everything is standardized and everything can be "measured and planned McDonaldization" is being adopted by other services, including educational services. This efficiency is supported by the objectives, and quality and performance assessment criteria which in many countries measure credits, diplomas, lecturing hours, low costs. Standardized study programmes and standardized degrees have been promoted. Customer satisfaction as a quality measurement has had a minor role.

According to Edward Sallis, a quality

expert in the education sector, service is generated if the organization knows who the customer is and what the university wants to offer to the customer. Who is the customer? It can be the job market, employers who need competence in current and future employees, or the individuals who need to renew skills and competencies to stay employable and be able to contribute to the employer's future activities. Or is the customer the Ministry of Education which still pays the bill in most countries? The answer is: all should be considered as customers. The core clients are individuals who want to learn skills and competencies necessary for the future job market. The working organizations are more and more partners with which universities can share development objectives based on network competence. The role of the educational administration should focus on developing a vision, coordinating policy, to be a provider, a strategic leader and a consultant.

According to Sallis, quality is produced in processes, not in individual tasks and jobs, and quality requires continuous improvement of processes. Universities should thus define core customers and analyze its core processes. These analyses should highlight the need for developing the organizational structure

of the university.

Another quality strategy of services is defined by "servuction" production of services, which is different from production of products. In servuction the quality of the service is the better the more closely a customer can participate in the service. In educational services this means that the customer is learning, not receiving education and he or she gets good and customer-focused support to his/her individual learning. This is an *la Carte* strategy. Learning opportunities and support are distributed to the client when, where and how he or she wants them. Learning opportunities are needed in different modes according to the customer.

Learning needs vary, so do methods of learning. The same learning should be available in many modes. Many companies and working organizations are already using individual learning styles to encourage employees to learn. Universities should do the same, particularly in the case of adult students. When the focus is on learning, not on education, it is a big challenge for universities to learn to assess competence, the results of learning not depending on the method used for learning.

Reshaping the organization

Towards open systems

In the old economy, institutions were judged on their ability to be productive and efficient, to produce high volumes of standardized goods and services at low prices. The solution was

an organization functioning like a machine, organized like a machine and managed like a machine. The organization was divided into small parts

which could be taken apart, dissected literally or representationally (business functions or academic disciplines), and then put back together without any significant loss. By comprehending the each piece, the whole could workings of be understood. The parts managed by a big engine and the were focus was on things rather than on relationships of the parts.

Educational institutions are still

organized like machines. They are divided into faculties focusing only on their own discipline. The discipline has also been the engine for teaching. Through research the engine generates new fuel. In other words, educational institutions have long been very much closed systems.

Being part of many dimensional networks means that universities and educational institutions may interact in different directions. Being customer-

focused and proactive means that they should be able to be sensitive to changes and new demands. Understanding that they are parts of various processes highlights the importance of their relationships with many

external partners. As a result of this, they cannot be closed systems; instead, they have to be open systems which have interactive relationships with many partners." Learning can take place anywhere and everywhere. Universities and other promoters of learning must become open systems, living organisms which are in other organisms in the society and are there where learning is taking place, not inside four walls.

Universities should use the gemba-strategy, go where things are happening: to offices, factories, homes etc. close the customer. This requires the use of new technology and solutions provided by the media.

From faculties to resource centres

The university itself should have an organizational structure which allows continuous development of its core competencies. These could be like resource pools which replace the traditional role of disciplines and faculties. The pools should be managed so

that they generate new knowledge and improve the core competencies the pools can provide. Core study modules as the basis of their service. The core modules can be combined according to each student's need and by a quickly they can be complemented, tailored part for each client or client group.

Departments build up flexible curricula and recommended paths for degrees and diplomas from the modules provided by resource pools for different customer groups. Departments and teams inside a university should be in relationship with one another. This will be the result if the university has a learner-focus approach and structures the organization into processes based on client/learner needs. In addition to the competence organization, the faculty members should be able to form problem-based, target-oriented or client-oriented teams combining the resources of core competence pools.

These teams are the ones who "do the business for the university whether it is a question of learning or research. As universities will have to follow market rules, they should have organized access to core customer groups in order to continuously have information about changes and new needs.

More decentralization

Centralized administration of universities in many countries in Europe does not allow universities the flexibility and speed of reaction they need to meet customer needs. Universities should have enough autonomy to set their own vision, goals and ways to achieve those goals. Universities have to find a balance between the needs of providing stability and continuity for students facing instability and continuous changes between the needs of increasing

effectiveness that can be achieved through industrializing the education and training services and through using technology, and the need of customer focus that can be promoted by providing education and training services according to market needs, and by personalizing all these services.

The finances and administration of the learner-based processes can be difficult if we still have centrally

administered management and funding. Universities need basic funding to keep up their share of the knowledge infrastructure and to develop their core competence pools. They should have flexibility to invest in their core competencies and charge for the excellence they are able to generate and offer through the multi-competence teams.

Universities' strategies in Lifelong Learning

Alliances with media and technology

Universities could have long term collaboration with media. They should keep the leading role in education and learning. However, the media has the expertise in packaging information so that it attracts people. Media is also expert in using different kinds of distribution channels for wide audiences. What the media assess cannot do is to organize and take learning. Universities should overall responsibility for the content, assessment, and comprehensiveness of learning, but use all the expertise and experience of the media to package information in an attractive and customer-oriented way and to distribute it to different audiences.

Active role in defining learning and development needs

To become more customer focused and to meet quality requirements, universities should take an active role in defining competence

development and learning needs in the future. They can focus on cluster-, network or industry- based development needs. Meeting the competence needs of a network or a cluster provides an individual with wider working

possibilities. Longer-term development needs even in one company focus more on networks.

The learning institution gives lifelong learners a support network. It consists of a study counselor, a tutor, and sometimes a mentor. Study counselors help learners to make their personal learning and development plans with individual learning objectives. That can be a new diploma, degree or a part of studies recognized by the university or other educational institution. Tutors help learners to access the best sources of learning and to acquire a combination of study modules and learning s that meet the quantitative and qualitative learning targets. Universities can also assist employers to provide employees with mentoring and help company managers and team leaders to become leaders of learning.

In addition to acquiring new knowledge, skills and competence, organizations must also implement them. Business organizations are interested in organizational learning. There is a need to improve organizations' ability to support benefit, accelerate and generate learning. This can be a consulting competence that some universities could offer to external clients.

New skills and competencies of learning institutions

New tasks and new ways to operate require new skills among academia. is no longer enough to be a top level expert in one's own discipline During the time of interaction and

teamwork, social and communication skills are much needed among academics. Universities should be experts in learning. All learning skills in Table 1 are important. There is an increasing need for understanding the economic implications and factors of learning, research and everyone's work.

The big challenge

In many cases, continuing education centers or other special organizations have taken the lead in developing skills and services for lifelong learning. However, lifelong learners are clients of all the university. We are turning a page in the history of education and learning. Universities have "a million dollar opportunity" to become and be the leader of a new chapter in education. It is just a matter of the ability to renew and to learn Lifelong Learning is not only something universities should provide, they should implement that themselves as well! The change process in the universities requires good leadership. The key to the success of a new kind of learning university lies with the top management of the institution. Rectors should be great visionaries, effective leaders and humble learners as role models.

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Exploring Pragmalinguistic and Sociopragmatic Variability in Speech Act Production of L2 Learners and Native Speakers (abridged)

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1. Introduction

Pragmatic competence is “the ability to use language appropriately in a social context” which involves both innate and learned capacities and develops naturally through a socialization process (Taguchi, 2009, p. 1).

According to Dippold (2008), it is understood as knowledge of forms and strategies to convey particular illocutions (i.e. pragmalinguistic competence) and knowledge of the use of these forms and strategies in an appropriate context (i.e. sociopragmatic competence). In order to be pragmatically competent, learners must map their sociopragmatic knowledge on pragmalinguistic forms and strategies and be able to use their knowledge online under the constraints of a communicative situation (McNamara & Roever, 2006; Roever, 2004).

The distinction between pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic aspects of communication is an important one for both learners and teachers since both aspects must be considered in learning or teaching a language (Trosborg, 2010). According to Liu (2004), any failure in L2 learners’ comprehension and production of the idiosyncrasies of either component in any language use situation would lead to pragmatic failure or

communication breakdown. As he states, pragmalinguistic failure relates to a linguistic deficiency “caused by differences in the linguistic encoding of pragmatic force”, while sociopragmatic failure results from a lack of sociocultural knowledge and “cross-culturally different perceptions of what constitutes appropriate linguistic behavior” (p. 16).

In order to decrease instances of pragmatic failure, students should learn pragmalinguistic as well as sociopragmatic aspects of the target language use. However, as Yates (2010) points out, these two aspects cannot be taught unless teachers almost consciously know how these facets of communicative acts are realized in various contexts of language use.

The study of speech act realization patterns and strategies in a wide range of language use situations has so forth yielded insightful results in comparative cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics research that explore how force can be mapped onto form by different language users

(e.g., Achiba, 2003; Al-Zumor, 2011; Bardovi-Harlig, 2002; Barron, 2008; Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Nureddeen, 2008; Ogiermann, 2009; Rue & Zhang, 2008;

Woodfield, 2008). This cross-cultural pragmatics line of inquiry has mainly examined how different types of speech acts are realized by nonnative speakers (NNSs) of a second language (L2) with a variety of language backgrounds and other learner-specific variations. This research has also investigated the differences between L2 learners and native speakers (NSs) in their choice of speech acts realization strategies, content, or form. Despite the rich literature on cross-cultural pragmatics, no sufficient research has yet been undertaken to explore the pragmalinguistic features and sociopragmatic values of speakers' pragmatic performance across different languages and cultures. Therefore, as Trosborg (2010) states, much work is needed not only to investigate what is said by whom in what situation, but also why language is used the way it is. On that account, this study aims to explore the sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic variations between American English NSs' and Iranian EFL learners' in their production of the apology, request, and refusal speech acts, using a written discourse completion test (WDCT) instrument and its accompanying multidimensional scoring system.

2. Background

Pragmatic competence is a central component in Bachman's (1990, 2000) and Bachman and Palmer's (1996, 2010) model of language competence. It is regarded as one of the two main components of language competence parallel to organizational competence. Pragmatic competence is the ability to convey and interpret meaning appropriately in a social situation which "has become an object of inquiry in a wide range of disciplines including linguistics, applied linguistics, anthropology, sociology, psychology,

communication research, and cross-cultural studies" (Taguchi, 2009, p. 1). It is divided into two components of pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics (Leech, 1983; Thomas, 1983). According to Kasper and Rose (2001), pragmalinguistics is the linguistic resources available for conveying communicative acts and performing pragmatic functions. The resources "include pragmatic strategies such as directness and indirectness, routines, and a large range of linguistic forms which can intensify or soften communicative acts" (p. 2). In other words, as Kasper and Roever (2005) state, pragmalinguistics focuses on the intersection of pragmatics and linguistic forms and comprises the knowledge and ability for the use of conventions of meanings (e.g. the strategies for realizing speech acts) and conventions of forms (e.g. linguistic forms implementing speech act strategies). Sociopragmatics is the interface of sociology and pragmatics and refers to "the social perceptions underlying participants' interpretation and performance of communicative action" (Kasper & Rose, 2001, p. 2). As Kasper and Roever (2005) assert, sociopragmatics encompasses the knowledge of the relationships between communicative action and power, social distance, imposition, and the social conditions and consequences of what you do, when, and to whom.

Research into pragmatics (e.g. Bardovi-Harlig, 2002; Kasper & Rose, 2002) has demonstrated that the pragmatic knowledge of nonnative language learners and that of NSs can be quite different. Part and parcel of pragmatic variability emerges in the production of speech acts. In Cohen's (2008) terms, speech acts refer to the ways in which people carry out specific social functions in speaking such as apologizing, complaining, making requests, refusing

things/invitations, or complementing. A growing body of empirical evidence in pragmatics, as Woodfield (2008) points out, focuses on language learners' pragmatic knowledge and the way they employ such knowledge in the performance of speech acts in an L2. That is, these studies concentrate on how native speakers and learners employ pragmatic strategies such as directness and indirectness, routines, and a range of linguistic forms to intensify or soften communicative acts. These studies do not deal with the sociopragmatic component or just provide general descriptions of the situational context.

The largest speech act study has been the cross-cultural speech act realization project (CCSARP) conducted by Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper (1989). They focused on requests and apologies in five languages (i.e. Canadian French, Danish, German, Hebrew, and English) to establish native speakers' patterns of realization, compare speech acts across languages, and establish the similarities and differences between NSs and NNSs in the realization of these acts. The framework used by the CCSARP was replicated in later speech act studies (e.g. Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984; Kasper, 1989) and led to a large body of comparable data from many more languages. Consequently, continuing debate between universality and culture-specificity in speech act realization appeared.

Eslami-Rasekh (1993) investigated request realization patterns of native speakers of American English and Persian by using an open questionnaire. The results of the data analysis showed that Persian speakers were more direct and used more alerters, supportive moves, and internal modifiers than the Americans. She concluded that the Persians utilized such strategies to mitigate the level of directness. They

also opted for politeness by assuming that a single direct request without any supportive moves was too inappropriate to get the message across. Also, Afghari (2007) explored the range of strategies the Persian speakers used in realizing the apology speech act to see if Persian apologies were as formulaic in pragmatic structures as English apologies. A discourse completion test (DCT) was used for collecting the data. The findings indicated that Persian apologies were formulaic in pragmatic structures. A direct expression of apology (IFID) and an acknowledgement of responsibility such as '*It was my fault*' were the most frequent apology formulae. Besides, the sociopragmatic variables of social distance and dominance between the interlocutors were found to have significant effects on the frequency of the intensifiers such as '*Very/Really*' in different situations. The most intensified apologies were offered to friends and the least intensified ones to the strangers. Later, in a comparative study on the use of requests by Japanese learners of English and British English (BE) native speaker students, Woodfield (2008) indicated that both participants preferred conventionally indirect strategies such as '*Could you do it?*'. However, the Japanese learners exhibited a higher proportion of direct strategies than the BE group. Moreover, the learners used fewer internal mitigations than the BE group. Also, Ogiermann (2009) investigated cross-cultural differences between Russian and Polish in dealing with offensive situations and revealed some culture-specific perceptions of what constituted an apology and what constituted politeness in the Slavic and Anglo-Saxon cultures. Allami and Naeimi (2010) in their study on exploring the differences between American native speakers and Persian speaking learners of English in

the production of the refusal found that there were differences in the frequency, shift, and content of semantic formulae used in refusals by Iranian and American speakers. The American participants were more specific and concrete than the Persian learners. However, Iranians used various formulae such as '*I know that you are one of my best workers*' more than the Americans to soften their refusals. Moreover, they used consistent patterns in their refusals, whereas the Persian participants showed a high level of frequency shift in their use of several semantic formulae. Finally, Alamdari, Esmaeilnia, and Nematpour (2010) compared Iranian students' refusal with those of native Australian speakers. They analyzed the data according to Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz's (1990) framework and indicated that the two groups were different in their use of refusal strategies. Three categories of 'statement of regret', 'excuse/cause/explanation,' and 'negative willingness ability' were common among the natives, while 'excuse/cause/explanation' was the frequent strategy preferred by the Iranian students. They concluded that Iranian EFL learners tended to use limited strategies because of their limited pragmatic knowledge.

The relationship between sociopragmatic competence and pragmalinguistic competence in the development of L2 pragmatic competence has also been addressed in several studies (e.g. Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1993; Barron, 2003; Rose, 2009). They mostly favored the precedence of pragmalinguistics over sociopragmatics instead of dealing with the reciprocity of the two pragmatic levels. For instance, Barron (2003) examined the development of Irish learners of German in producing the three speech acts of request, refusal, and offer. They found

that the learners achieved great improvement in their pragmalinguistic competence, but little sociopragmatic development. The participants' exposure to L2 input triggered some important developments in their use of routines, syntactic, and lexical downgraders.

Yet, Chang (2011) has asserted that the relationship between sociopragmatic competence and pragmalinguistic competence is a complex and interwoven one. Consequently, it is difficult to draw a clear boundary between them. Thus, any exploration of pragmatic variability should address the pragmalinguistic forms and strategies in relation to the sociopragmatic values and norms of language speakers. To sum up, the aforementioned studies do not provide a complete picture of the sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic aspects of pragmatics. As Yates (2004) argues, the secret nature and intricacy of many sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic conventions can be hazardous for learners and may lead to pragmatic failure. Therefore, investigating the ways in which NNSs and NSs as well as learners with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds differ in pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge is of great importance.

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

The participants of the study included 240 graduate and undergraduate Iranian university students majoring in English Translation, Literature, and Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) and 60 native speakers of English. The nonnative speakers were both female and male EFL students at Shahrekord (n = 150), Shiraz (n = 30), Isfahan (n = 30), and Tehran (n = 30) universities, with the age range of 19-29. The NSs were selected from American English-speaking students studying at several

American universities, mainly Columbia University and the American members of the LTEST-L group.

3.2 Instrumentation

An open-ended production test (WDCT) was developed and used to assess the participants' ability to produce the speech acts of request, apology, and refusal in English. Despite criticisms leveled against the use of WDCTs in eliciting authentic speech act behavior, as Kasper (2000) asserts, such instruments are useful to be informed about language speakers' pragmalinguistic as well as sociopragmatic knowledge. The WDCT was open-ended and included 27 items, each of which had a situation and a blank followed by a rejoinder, where a certain kind of speech act was expected. As Roever (2005) states, the use of rejoinders can limit the range of allowable responses to an item and facilitate rating. Different combinations of the three sociopragmatic variables (i.e. power, social distance, and degree of imposition) were used in constructing the situations (i.e. scenarios) and assessing variability. The scenarios required the test takers to produce one of the speech acts of request, apology, and refusal. According to Ogiermann (2009) and Hudson (2001), these three speech acts are supposed to be the most frequent speech acts in normal everyday talks and appropriate for exploring speech act realization patterns across a number of languages.

3.3 Procedure

The developmental process of the pragmatics test consisted of three major stages: exemplar generation, expert judgments, and pilot testing. Exemplar generation helped to collect situations directly from the test takers and thus

ensured the authenticity of the situations. Expert judgments helped to include plausible and consistent scenarios, and the pilot was conducted in order to determine the practical feasibility of the inquiry and to ensure that the answers were examples of the data the researcher expected. The construct validity of the test was examined on the basis of the factor analysis (Principal Components Analysis). An inspection of the screeplot initially revealed a clear break after the third component. Using Catell's (1966) scree test and Horn's (1965) Parallel Analysis (PA), it was decided to retain three components for further investigation. The rotated solution revealed the presence of a simple structure, with three components showing a number of strong loadings.

The results of the complementary analysis of the item loadings supported the use of the test items for assessing the (L2) pragmatic knowledge in producing the three speech acts of apology, request, and refusal. Finally, Cronbach's alpha was computed for (internal) reliability estimates ($r = 0.94$).

The developed WDCT was administered to 50 NSs of English and 100 students in Shahrekord, Shiraz, Tehran, and Isfahan universities. The participants were asked to write what they would respond in the situations they were provided with. Besides, they were also asked to write as much as it was thought to be appropriate for each situation. The data were evaluated and scored through the development and use of a multidimensional scoring system. An appropriacy or sociopragmatic scale in the form of a 5-point Likert scale (i.e. from 1: very inappropriate to 5: very appropriate) was used to assess the appropriacy of the responses considering the particular combination of the sociopragmatic variables of power, social distance, and degree of imposition

each item depicted. The pragmalinguistic accuracy of the responses was evaluated and scored using two complementary and additive subscales. First, a binary (0-1) accuracy scale was used to determine whether their responses were linguistically accurate, hence representing the particular speech act. Second, an analytic, multilevel pragmalinguistic scale (1-4) was used to assess and score the pragmalinguistic strategies employed for each item with reference to the patterns evidenced in the NSs' data as well as in the related literature.

In order to ensure the raters' consistency in rating the sociopragmatic appropriacy and the pragmalinguistic accuracy of the participants based on the multidimensional scoring scale, the raters (two graduate students) were asked to attend training and standardization meetings before scoring the data. The reliability of the raters' scoring was estimated separately for each dimension. The Kappa measure of agreement value was 0.71 for sociopragmatic interrater reliability and 0.74 for pragmalinguistic interrater reliability. As Peat (2001) states, a Kappa value above 0.70 represents a good agreement and measure of interrater consistency.

4. Results

4.1 Sociopragmatic-appropriacy variability

In order to investigate the sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic differences between the NSs and NNSs, a series of Chi-squares was run. Table 1 indicates the Chi-square values for the participants' sociopragmatic performances on the *apology* situations.

Table 1. The Chi-square results of the participants' sociopragmatic performances (*apology*)

Items	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Item 1	Pearson Chi-Square	17.090	4 .002
Item 2	17.548	4	.037
Item 3	10.182	4	.001
Item 4	18.703	4	.028
Item 5	10.909	4	.000
Item 6	34.913	4	.001
Item 7	18.831	4	.029
Item 8	10.756	4	.000
Item 9	32.754	4	.002
N of Valid cases			150

The results demonstrated that there was a significant difference between the NSs' and the NNSs' sociopragmatic performances producing appropriate apology speech acts. The American participants utilized various kinds of strategies in the three *+power*, *+imposition*, and *-social distance* situations. The four categories which the Americans used frequently were the use of 'Intensifiers,' 'Illocutionary force indicating device (IFID),' 'Explanation of cause,' and 'Offer of repair.' An example of the way they apologized using these categories is: '*I am really sorry. I have been busy. I will take you tomorrow.*' By contrast, the Iranian participants used fewer strategies in apologizing. The most frequent strategies among the Iranians were 'IFID' and 'Offer of repair.' For example: '*Sorry. I promise to take you tomorrow.*' However, for the *-power*, *-imposition*, and *-social distance* situations both of the NSs and the NNSs utilized 'Explanation of cause' such as '*Traffic was really bad.*' Moreover, most of the NNSs tended to use 'Promise of forbearance' like '*This won't happen again*' in these situations. The NS and the NNS preferred different speech act realization patterns based on their perceptions of the sociopragmatic appropriacy needed to perform the communicative act. An inspection of the results indicates that in the *+power*, *-*

imposition, and *-social distance* situations, the American participants mostly used the ‘Mood drivable’ strategy such as ‘*Turn off your phone*’ in making requests, while the ‘Explicit performative’ strategy such as ‘*I’m asking you to turn off your phone*’ was the most common strategy among the Iranian participants. By contrast, for those *-power*, *+imposition*, and *- social distance* situations, both groups employed the ‘Query preparatory’ strategy such as ‘*Could you cook for my party?*’

4.2 Pragmalinguistic-accuracy variability

To see if there were any significant differences in the pragmalinguistic performances of the NSs and the NNSs on the test, another series of Chi square was run. Table 4 depicts the results of the Chi-square test for the pragmalinguistic variation in the *apology* situations. The results indicated that there was a significant difference between the NSs’ and the NNSs’ pragmalinguistic performance. The analysis shows that although their use of pragmalinguistic accuracy structures was different, both of the NSs and the NNSs used direct strategies such as ‘*I’m sorry/I regret*’ to apologize. In addition, the Americans used adverbials such as ‘*I’m really sorry*’ or repetition (double intensifier) like ‘*I’m very very sorry.*’ the NSs’ and the NNSs’ pragmalinguistic structures were significantly different. Further analysis showed that most of the NSs opted for the indirect strategy such as ‘*I feel terrible,*’ whereas the NNSs preferred both direct nonperformative statement such as ‘*I don’t think so*’ and indirect strategy like ‘*I am sorry*’ in refusing. The frequent use of fillers such as ‘*Oh*’ and ‘*Uhm*’ by the Americans, and intensifiers like ‘*Terribly*’ and

‘*Really*’ by the Iranian participants was also noticeable.

Overall, the Chi-square results showed that there were considerable discrepancies and pragmatic variations between the NSs and the NNSs in their productions of the three speech acts (i.e. apology, request, and refusal). These pragmatic differences were realized both in terms of the sociopragmatic appropriacy and the pragmalinguistic accuracy strategies used by the NSs and the NNSs. Needless to say, there was an association between being a (non)native speaker and the sociopragmatic appropriacy or pragmalinguistic accuracy of the speech acts used in these situations.

5. Discussion

The analysis of the data related to the apology situations showed that the Americans and the Iranian participants varied in the way they framed their apologies according to the three sociopragmatic variables of power, social distance, and degree of imposition. As Tatton (2008) argues, the variation might be due to sociocultural differences in the participants’ perception of these variables. This finding is supported by Ogiermann (2009) who claims that culture is a factor responsible for varying assessments of the variables resulting in differences in the selection of (in)appropriate strategies. The analysis of the strategies used by both groups revealed that the American participants utilized more strategies in apologizing than the Iranian participants. The reason, as Kwon (2003) points out, may be the limited pragmatic capacity of the learners or their limited knowledge of L2 sociolinguistic rules.

The comparison of the level of directness of apology strategies showed that direct strategies were the most favored strategies used by both groups. The IFID

was the most frequent direct strategy, indicating that both groups tried to preserve their positive face since, in Nureddeen's (2008) words, this strategy would be a less risky one.

Moreover, both groups were concerned about the hearer since they both used 'Explanation of cause' to justify the offence and placate the hearer. Moreover, the NSs tried to divert the hearers' attention from the offence. As Marquez Reiter (2000) argues, one way to divert attention from the offence is the use of intensifiers, which were used by the NSs. In contrast, the NNSs used promise of forbearance to admit responsibility.

The findings confirm the claim by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) that IFID emerges to varying degrees in all situations in most languages while the other apologizing semantic formulae are situation-dependent. In a similar vein, Afghari (2007) found that a direct expression of apology and an acknowledgement of responsibility were the most frequent apology formulae offered by Persians across the majority of the apology situations.

The analysis of both sets of data from the request situations indicated that the choice of request strategy was again influenced by the assessment of the three variables of power, social distance, and imposition. The participants' use of direct or indirect situations in different situations may clear the point. Moreover, the Americans were significantly more direct when making requests than the Iranians.

According to Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) and Eslami-Rasekh (1993), the level of directness of a request has a strong correlation with the expectation of right and obligations between hearers and speakers. The greater the right of the speaker to ask (+power) and the greater

the obligation of the hearer to comply with the request (-power), the less is the motivation for the use of indirectness. The frequent use of syntactic downgraders by both groups or lexical downgraders by the Americans reveals that they both try to mitigate their requests. This strong preference for modifications in the English and Iranian data confirms previous findings (e.g. Eslami-Rasekh, 1993; Ogiermann, 2009). Moreover, the Iranian participants produced sweetener (an external modifier) such as '*You are such a good cook*' more than the Americans to reduce the imposition involved.

The findings related to the directness level of request strategies contrast with Eslami-Rasekh's (1993) cross-cultural study. She found that Persian speakers used direct strategies more than the North American NSs. According to her, the reason may lie in the fact that Persian society is less individualistic and more psychologically depends on group mentality. Therefore, its people tended more toward using strategies of positive politeness which is opposed to negative politeness.

In a similar vein, Ogiermann (2009) indicated that English and German speakers showed a strong preference for conventional indirectness. Considering the situations of refusal, the Americans' and the Iranians' refusal strategies revealed that the American participants preferred a direct strategy, while the Iranians utilized both direct strategies and indirect strategies. In the contexts of L2 use, the perception of the varying social and interpersonal factors, such as interlocutors' power difference, social distance, and the degree of imposition, has influenced different participants' directness levels, particularly Iranians' varied directness levels of speech act expressions. The analysis of the data indicated that both groups of participants

tended to begin refusals with an apology followed by a reason attributed to a concern for ending the refusal quickly. Considering the data, the American English reasons were found to be clearer and concrete in refusing. Plain refusals such as '*No, Thank you*' and expression of negative ability were rarely used by the Iranian speakers. By explanation, these expressions are highly face-threatening (Lyuh, 1992), and Iranians usually cannot say 'no' directly to their addressees. In fact, they tried to protect both their interlocutor's and their own face. The frequent use of fillers by the Americans, and intensifiers by the Iranian participants also pointed to the participants' concern about their interlocutors. It seems that pragmatic transfer from Iranian culture occurs. Al-Issa's (2003) belief that the sociocultural transfer may influence the EFL learners' responses can support the above conclusion. The findings of the present study support the findings of the study by Alamdari, Esmaeilnia, and Nematpour (2010). They found that the Iranian EFL students utilized fewer negative ability strategies in their refusals than the native speakers. The frequent use of fillers by the Americans and the use of intensifiers by the Iranian participants also pointed to the participants' concern about their interlocutors.

The overall findings corroborate the cross-cultural pragmatic variations documented in Allami and Naeimi's (2010) study. They found that there were differences in the frequency, shift, and content of semantic formulae used in refusals by Iranian and American speakers.

The Iranian participants used direct refusals considerably more towards a person of low status. Expression of regret and excuse/reason were the common strategies among both groups.

Finally, the Iranian L2 learners tended to take a more mitigating approach than the American participants to soften their refusals.

To sum up, in spite of the presence of a similar range of strategies, noticeable cross-cultural pragmatic variability was evidenced in the frequency and semantic content of the sociopragmatic formulae as well as the pragmalinguistic forms used in each language use situation.

Pragmalinguistic variability was scrutinized in relation to sociopragmatic variations focusing on the contextual variables of power, social distance, and imposition for each speech act and learner-specific attributes. It was revealed that careful consideration of the interdependent dynamicity between the two levels of pragmatics can better depict why language users employ different speech act realization patterns across situations and cultures. The above findings can enrich the growing literature (e.g., Chang, 2010; Felix-Brasdefer, 2003; Marquez Reiter, 2000) where pragmatic variability has been explored with reference to the sociopragmatics and pragmalinguistics reciprocity.

6. Pedagogical Implications

As to the implications of the study for L2 research and pedagogy, it is suggested that, given the documented intricate reciprocity between the two levels of pragmatics, future cross-cultural pragmatics research should attempt to approach pragmatic variability on the two pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic planes of language use in context. This integrated approach can more clearly reveal why language users resort to varying speech act realization patterns across situations and cultures. In addition, the findings related to the speech act realization patterns that

emerged in the American and Iranian participants' data can provide a starting point for classroom exploratory interactive activities to further probe the crosscultural L2 pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic variability by EFL teachers and learners. L2 teachers can benefit from the findings when planning metapragmatic assessment tasks and activities for L2 learners to deal with the patterns of realizing the apology, request, and refusal speech acts in the target community, the strategies and linguistic means needed to implement these speech acts, and the ways of making contextually appropriate choices. This way, they help learners to enhance their awareness and knowledge of appropriate speech act use and how to sound pragmatically appropriate in L2 use situations. Finally, the study underscores the importance of incorporating L2 pragmatics into the EFL syllabi in Iran in an attempt to bridge the gap that naturally exists between the two cultures on sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic levels. By implication, materials developers may also benefit from these findings and take practical insights for developing instructional materials that reflect the sociopragmatic values and pragmalinguistic strategies associated with particular speech acts.

7. Conclusions

The study aimed to explore the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic variability that existed between American English native speakers' and Iranian EFL learners' production of the speech acts by using the WDCT and the accompanying multidimensional scoring system. The results indicated that in spite of the presence of a similar range of strategies, the Iranian EFL learners differed in several ways from the

American native speakers of English. Such differences relate to their choices of speech acts, semantic formulae, sociopragmatic content, and pragmalinguistic forms. The findings related to the directness levels of speech act expressions showed that in a situation which involved minus power (with the speaker being of a lower rank), plus social distance (in which the speaker and the hearer did not know or identify with each other), and plus degree of imposition (on the part of the hearer to carry out the request), a greater degree of politeness was required to allow the interlocutor to save face. In contrast, when the speech act involved a lower degree of imposition and addressed a person in an equal relationship (e.g. apologizing a friend for a delay), a lesser degree of politeness was required. Thus, the social factors of power, distance, and imposition are thought to make speech acts more demanding in certain situations. In addition, since there were some significant sociocultural differences between the American and the Iranian participants in the assessment of the three variables, some differences appeared between the American and the Iranian participants in their choice of L2 pragmalinguistic strategies. In fact, the findings supported the dynamic interrelationship between language and culture and produced a picture of cross-cultural pragmatic and stylistic variability in terms of English speech act realization patterns of L2 learners and native speakers.

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Structure and Contents Analysis

1. Analyze the papers you have read. What type of scientific papers (article, letter, review, commentary) do they belong to?
2. In pairs, compare the structure of the two articles. Have both articles got main structural parts – Introduction, Main Body, Conclusions, References? Compare the way they are presented in the articles. Comment on their graphic presentation (font, frames, bullet points etc.).
3. Compare the tables of the articles. Which of them contains more statistical / descriptive information? Which is easier to perceive visually?

4. Compare the graphic elements of the papers. Which contains more bullet points, figures, schemes? What do they contribute to?
5. Analyze the ways references are given in the two papers. Which article contains more direct quotes and which more indirect citations? What is the aim of using direct quotes?
6. In pairs, analyze the in-text and post-text reference styles of the papers. Which of them is more popular in modern scientific publications?

Language Analysis

7. Analyze the paragraphs of Introduction (titled *Continuous change – need for Lifelong Learning* in article 1 and *1. Introduction* in article 2). Count the words belonging to neutral vocabulary, general academic and special professional vocabulary (terms), transfer the data into percent. Which vocabulary units prevail in these parts? Share your ideas with the class.
8. Compare lexical stylistic peculiarities of the two papers. Which of them has more units of colloquial / academic style? The article 1 contains such vocabulary units as ‘mcdonaldization’, ‘à la Carte strategy’, ‘to package information’, ‘a million dollar opportunity’. What role do they play in the paper? Can you find any similar units in article 2?
9. Analyze the way tables and figures are introduced in the articles. Which words are used to interpret these graphical objects? Are they similar or different?
10. Article 1 contains a lot of rhetorical questions. What is their role? Can you find any in article 2? Do they contribute to conventionalizing or deconventionalizing the language of the paper?

11. Compare the length of sentences in paragraphs *What is Lifelong Learning* (article 1) and 2. *Background* (article 2). What is an average number of words in a sentence in these articles? What effect does it create?

2. 1. 2 Writing an abstract

Text 1

1. Read the abstract.

Teachers in the Technological Revolution: Exploration of Higher Education

Prof. RenuYadav

The present study is aimed to investigate the paradigm shift in teacher's role in the digital era. The higher education sector is changing at fast pace, especially inclusion of technological intervention changed the face of teaching-learning process in higher education. Access to information of subject content changed the perception of teachers towards knowledge generation. The theoretical underpinning of technological revolution emphasizes combining teacher efficacy, teacher concern and teacher orientation for creation of teacher belief of teaching. Considering the significance of IT in teaching-learning process and increasing access to information and communication technology, the role of teachers must be reanalyzed in higher education.

The present study investigated the perception of teachers towards their changing role in higher education institutions (2-degree colleges, 2 B. Ed. Colleges and one university) of Haryana. Unstructured interviews were conducted with 30 teachers working in colleges and university who have at least 2 years of experience. They were teaching education technology as their specialization to their classrooms.

The result of the study found that all teachers working in higher education institutions perceive strong cohesion between their pedagogy and inclusion of ICT. However, teachers of colleges (both degree and professional courses) asserted that context is more significant in deciding the inclusion of ICT in classroom and role

of teachers have been changed not much especially in rural areas. Interviews with teachers refereed 4 significant dimensions in changing role of teachers in higher education due to inclusion of technology. These dimensions can be broadly categories in advanced knowledge attainment for their subject content, opportunity for self paced learning for students, better communication opportunities, improvement in presentation skills as per individual needs were identified prominently. The study also suggest that Schulman model can be used to adjust the role of teacher in higher education institutions to better address the needs of students.

Key words: _____

Contents and Structure Analysis

2. Discuss in pairs and decide on the type of the given abstract – is it informative or descriptive? Prove your point.

3. Analyze the structure of the abstract. Single out the fragments reflecting the following:

- Stating objective;
- Presenting urgency of the problem;
- Describing the research methods and procedure;
- Outlining the results;
- Conclusions;
- Key words.

4. Read the abstract attentively again. Which of the suggested key words are most appropriate for the given text? Explain your choice.

- a. Technology, Pedagogy, ICT
- b. Pedagogy, ICT, Higher Education
- c. Higher Education, Technology, Schulman Model.

Language Analysis

5. Look back at the abstract. Underline the words and word combinations used to introduce:

- objective and tasks;
- topicality of the problem;
- procedure of the study;
- results description;
- further implications of the study for pedagogy.

6. Match the following explanations with the words and word combinations from the text above:

- a. theoretical background -
- b. find definite connection -
- c. person-focused requirements -
- d. important -
- e. achieving some knowledge -
- f. evaluate, test -

7. Analyze the abbreviations used in the abstract – IT, 2 B.Ed. Colleges, ICT. Is there any reference to their full form in the text? Is it easy to understand what they stand for without being referred to the full equivalents?

Text 2

1. Read the abstract ignoring the gaps.

Active Learning Skills: Academic Guidance and Frontal Teaching in Teacher Training

Dr. Michael Dell, M. Shifrivich

This study examines students' satisfaction with courses utilizing active learning method, given at a teachers' training college, compared to their satisfaction with frontal teaching courses. We studied students' satisfaction with

learning strategies, teaching methods, level of knowledge achieved, new learning skills, and general atmosphere in the classroom. _____, the investigation inquired whether the course goals were achieved. _____, we searched for correlations between demographic factors and general motivation to learn, and the degree of satisfaction. In this experiment, we applied a mixed method of quantitative and qualitative research: semi-structured questionnaires, interviews, and course feedback surveys. We found significant satisfaction with active learning in the parameters of learning strategies, teaching methods, new learning skills, and general atmosphere in the classroom. _____, in other parameters, i.e. level of knowledge achieved and teaching skills, the students preferred frontal instruction. The reason is perhaps that frontal teaching enables better control and organization of the class, and therefore might be more conducive to comprehensive, well-structured knowledge acquisition. _____, the research found a significant advantage in active learning. _____, Frontal teaching is important as well for some aspects of learning. It is recommended to let students experience both active learning and frontal teaching, and to let teachers exercise discretion as to the extent to which each method should be used. _____, students will become acquainted with different learning strategies and enjoy a more meaningful learning experience.

Contents and Structure Analysis

2. In pairs, define what type of abstract it is – informative or descriptive?
3. The text is given here without paragraph division. Try and allocate the main structural elements of the text dividing it in paragraphs accordingly. Ignore the gaps.
4. The abstract does not provide Key words. Read the text thoroughly and suggest your Key words for it.

Language Analysis

5. Find all English words used in the abstract corresponding to the Ukrainian word “дослідження”. What is difference (lexical, grammatical) in their usage? Support your ideas with the reference dictionary definitions of these terms.

6. Fill in the gaps in the abstract text with the following link words:

Nevertheless,... Finally,... In conclusion,... In this way, ... However,

7. Find English equivalents to the following words in Ukrainian:

- a. дослідження присвячено вивченню -
- b. нами було застосовано метод -
- c. досліджували співвідношення між -
- d. дослідження виявило -
- e. що стосується інших параметрів -

Text 3

1. Read the following abstract.

A Cognitive-Affective Model of Organizational Communication for Designing IT

Dr. D. Teeni

☐ This study provides the spadework for a new model of organizational communication, and uses it to review existing research, as well as to suggest directions for future research and development. Beginning with the crucial aspects of action, relationship, and choice, an integrated model of how people communicate is developed. This model incorporates three basic factors: (1) inputs to the communication process (task, sender-receiver distance, and values and norms of communication with a particular emphasis on inter-cultural communication); (2) a cognitive affective process of communication; and (3) the communication impact on action and relationship. The glue that bonds these

factors together is a set of communication strategies aimed at reducing the complexity of communication.

☐ There are several theories available to describe how managers choose a medium for communication. However, current technology can affect not only how we communicate but also what we communicate. As a result, the issue for designers of communication support systems has become broader: how should technology be designed to make communication more effective by changing the medium and the attributes of the message itself? The answer to this question requires a shift from current preoccupations with the medium of communication to a view that assesses the balance between medium and message form. There is also a need to look more closely at the process of communication in order to identify more precisely any potential areas of computer support.

☐ The model provides a balance between relationship and action, between cognition and affect, and between message and medium. Such a balance has been lacking in previous work, and we believe it reflects a more realistic picture of communication behavior in organizations. A set of propositions generated from the model sets an agenda for studying the communication process as well as its inputs and outputs. Furthermore, this knowledge of the mechanisms that guide behavior is used to demonstrate the potential for developing design principles for future communication support systems.

Keywords: organizational communication, communication complexity, cognition, affect, organizational memory, design, management.

Contents and Structure Analysis

2. In pairs, define what type of abstract it is – informative or descriptive?
3. The paragraphs of the abstract are mixed. Decide in pairs on what the correct order is to be.

4. Which structural elements are NOT presented in the abstract? Tick them.

Stating the problem

☐

Justifying its urgency

☐

Stating the objectives

☐

Describing the procedure and methods

☐

Describing the results

☐

Presenting prospects for further research

☐

Concluding

☐

5. One of the words in the Key words section is odd. Can you guess which one?

Prove your answer.

Language Analysis

6. Analyze the paragraph introducing the topicality of the problem discussed. What is the purpose of using rhetorical questions?

7. Find in the text more academic equivalents to the following words in *italics*:

a. an example can *show* -

b. *modern* technology -

c. it is *enough to say* -

d. the model *tries* to explain -

e. a *deep* analysis -

f. is used to *show* -

g. *makes a plan* -

8. Analyze the metaphor used in the following sentence: The glue that bonds these factors together is a set of communication strategies aimed at reducing the complexity of communication. Can you paraphrase it using purely academic language? What effect does it create? Do you feel it is appropriate to use figurative language in scientific works? If yes, to what extent?

Text 4

1. Read the following abstracts.

The Pragmatic Function of Intonation: Cueing Agreement and Disagreement in Spoken English Discourse and Implications for ELT

Lucy Pickering, Guiling Hu & Amanda Baker

Although prosody is central to the interpretation of spoken language and understanding of speaker intent, it has traditionally been neglected in cross-cultural studies of pragmatics and overlooked in ESL/EFL materials. This study investigates prosodic (mis)matching to indicate (dis)agreement by native speakers of American English (AES) and Chinese learners of English (CLsE) in order to contribute to our understanding of cross-cultural manifestations of speech acts and the study of second language intonation acquisition and teaching. Twelve AESs and 12 CLsE completed an interactive preference task in pairs. Each pair viewed ten pictures of concept cars and were asked to browse through the pictures and agree together on one of the ten cars as their top choice. Their conversations were audiotaped using headset microphones, and analyzed using a Kay Elemetrics Computerized Speech Laboratory. (Dis)agreement sequences were coded for pitch (mis)matching using Brazil's (1997) model of discourse intonation. The results showed that both AESs and CLsE manifested pitch concord in the majority of agreement sequences. However, while AESs consistently used pitch mismatching as a cue to signal disagreement with their interlocutor, this was not the case in the CLsE discourse suggesting that pedagogical intervention may be appropriate.

Key words: ELT, agreement, disagreement, prosody.

Technology as a Lever for Change in Teaching and Learning

Dr. R. Wadmany

The persuasive information technologies, digital media, and social networks have a considerable impact on behavior, and particularly on the conduct of young people highly proficient in their use. These diverse forms of media enable the

development of social webs that facilitate active and inclusive social learning (Dede, 2009¹, O'Hara, 2013²).

Although most institutions of higher education are equipped with innovative technologies, the meaningful digital world of the young is at a dissonance with their experience of the academic world as irrelevant. Testimonies indicate that lectures display a superficial and traditional-conservative attitude toward new technologies (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 2008³). Many teachers use technology in linear and authoritative methods that center on the lecturer and disregard the need to create a real transformation of classroom teaching methods – from lecturer-centered teaching to student-centered teaching (Clarke-Midura & Dede, 2010⁴). Hence, in most cases use of technology does not lead lecturers to reexamine teaching and learning processes and change them or to utilize the new opportunities afforded by technological tools (Wadmany, 2012⁵).

There are three levels of innovative technology that require a paradigmatic change with regard to the integration and assimilation of technology in learning and teaching processes: social networks, alternate reality, and mobile technologies. Social networks such as Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, Pinterest, and others have generated a cultural transformation and offer a new opportunity to examine concepts such as “sharing” and “communication”. It is no surprise that social protest movements are emerging around the world in the present era. The ability of every person to be part of social movement, to contribute to the public good, to be aware of contemporary occurrences, and to assume responsibility for change, necessarily leads to the need to examine one's involvement in various environments, including people's learning environments. Social networks, the development of communities of learners, constructing shared databases – all these require reexamination of both roles and responsibilities.

Alternate reality technology offers a learning environment that combines virtual reality and/or augmented reality technology and facilitates experiential learning that did not exist previously, learning that changes “actual reality”.

Tools for shared learning, access to unlimited information, inquiry tasks, solving problems, resolving conflicts, experiential learning, unbounded communication, creating and producing learning products of all type and flavor – all these grant learners the role of partners in creating and designing their learning environment. Such a learning environment helps raise people to be aware of themselves and of the world, proficient in collaborating with others, used to taking responsibility for their reasoning capacity, creative and initiating and used to change. The digital pedagogue and digital pedagogy are an opportunity to create a new human being and a new culture.

¹ Dede, C. (2009). Immersive interfaces for engagement and learning. *Science*, 323 (5910), 66-69.

² O'Hara, S., Pritchard, R., Huang, C., & Pella, S. (2013). Learning to integrate new technologies into teaching and learning through a design-based model of professional development. *Journal of Technology and Teacher Education*, 21(2), 203-223.

³ Scardamalia, M., & Bereiter, C. (2008). Pedagogical biases in educational technologies. *Educational Technology*, 48(3), 3-11.

⁴ Clarke-Midura, J. & Dede, C. (2010). Assessment, technology, and change. *Research on Technology in Education*, 42(3), 309-328.

⁵ Wadmany, R. (2012). The role of students in the process of integrating innovative technologies in the classroom. Maof Uma'aseh – Ktav Et Le'iyun Ulemehkar, 14, 190-221 [in Hebrew].

Contents and Structure Analysis

2. What type of abstract does each of the text represent – informative or descriptive? What makes you think so? Consider the following clues:

- Does it include description of an experiment or a case study?
- Does it describe methods and procedure of the research?
- Does it provide detailed description of the results?

- Does it include any statistics?
- Does it present any examples?

3. Analyze the structure of the two abstracts given above. In pairs, decide and tick which of the following structural elements can be found in both of them.

Stating the problem	☐	Describing the methods and procedure	☐
Justifying the urgency	☐	Presenting the results	☐
Stating the objective	☐	Concluding	☐
Theoretical background	☐	Prospects for further research	☐

How many sentences are used for presenting each element in the abstracts?

4. The abstract 2 does not provide Key words. What, in your opinion, could be the Key words for this abstract?

5. Analyze the in-text and post-text reference style of the abstract 1. What is it? How do you know it?

Language Analysis

6. Underline the expressions used in both abstract to present:

- a. the urgency of the problem;
- b. the objectives;
- c. the description of results.

7. Compare the length of sentences in two abstracts. What is an average number of words in a sentence in these texts? Is it different? What effect does it create?

8. Which aspect form of the verb is predominantly used in the abstracts – active or passive? Why, in your opinion?

9. Analyze the special professional vocabulary found in the abstracts. Brainstorm in mini-groups the ideas on what the following notions stand for. Suggest your variants of their Ukrainian equivalents. Share your thoughts with the class.

- a. teaching-learning process -
- b. student-centered teaching -
- c. experiential learning -
- d. shared learning -
- e. digital pedagogy/pedagogue -
- f. prosodic (mis)matching -
- g. intonation acquisition -
- i. pedagogical intervention -

10. Abstract 1 contains some abbreviations. Are they commonly known or specific abbreviations? Does the text refer to their full form? Why?

* * *

1. Write an abstract of the following article.

BICS and CALP: Empirical and Theoretical Status of the Distinction

Jim Cummins

(abridged)

Introduction

The distinction between *basic interpersonal communicative skills* (BICS) and *cognitive academic language proficiency* (CALP) was introduced by Cummins (1979, 1981a) in order to draw educators' attention to the timelines and challenges that second language learners encounter as they attempt to catch up to their peers in academic aspects of the school language. BICS refers to conversational fluency in a language while CALP refers to students' ability to understand and express, in both oral and written modes, concepts and ideas that are relevant to success in school. The terms conversational fluency and academic language proficiency are used interchangeably with BICS and CALP in the remainder of this chapter.

Initially, I describe the origins, rationale, and evolution of the distinction together with its empirical foundations. I then discuss its relationship to similar theoretical constructs that have been proposed in different contexts and for different purposes. Finally, I analyze and respond to critiques of the distinction and discuss the relationship of the distinction to the emerging field of New Literacy studies (e.g. Barton, 1994; Street, 1995).

Early Developments

Skutnabb-Kangas and Toukomaa (1976) initially brought attention to the fact that Finnish immigrant children in Sweden often appeared to educators to be fluent in both Finnish and Swedish but still showed levels of verbal academic performance in both languages considerably below grade/age expectations. The BICS/CALP distinction highlighted a similar reality and formalized the difference between conversational fluency and academic language proficiency as conceptually distinct components of the construct of “language proficiency”. Because this was a conceptual distinction rather than an overall theory of “language proficiency” there was never any suggestion that these were the only important or relevant components of that construct.

The initial theoretical intent of the BICS/CALP distinction was to qualify Oller's (1979) claim that all individual differences in language proficiency could be accounted for by just one underlying factor, which he termed *global language proficiency*. Oller synthesized a considerable amount of data showing strong correlations between performance on cloze tests of reading, standardized reading tests, and measures of oral verbal ability (e.g. vocabulary measures). Cummins (1979), however, argued that it is problematic to incorporate all aspects of language use or performance into just one dimension of general or global language proficiency. For example, if we take two monolingual English-speaking siblings, a 12-year old child and a six-year old, there are enormous differences in these children's ability to read and write English and in the depth and breadth of their vocabulary knowledge, but minimal differences in their phonology or basic fluency. The six-year old can understand virtually everything that is likely to be

said to her in everyday social contexts and she can use language very effectively in these contexts, just as the 12-year old can. In other words, some aspects of children's first language development (e.g. phonology) reach a plateau relatively early whereas other aspects (e.g. vocabulary knowledge) continue to develop throughout our lifetimes. Thus, these very different aspects of proficiency cannot be considered to reflect just one unitary proficiency dimension.

CALP or academic language proficiency develops through social interaction from birth but becomes differentiated from BICS after the early stages of schooling to reflect primarily the language that children acquire in school and which they need to use effectively if they are to progress successfully through the grades. The notion of CALP is specific to the social context of schooling, hence the term "academic". Academic language proficiency can thus be defined as "the extent to which an individual has access to and command of the oral and written academic registers of schooling" (Cummins, 2000, p. 67).

The relevance of the BICS/CALP distinction for bilingual students' academic development was reinforced by two research studies (Cummins, 1980, 1981b) showing that educators and policy-makers frequently conflated conversational and academic dimensions of English language proficiency and that this conflation contributed significantly to the creation of academic difficulties for students who were learning English as an additional language (EAL).

The first study (Cummins, 1980, 1984) involved an analysis of more than 400 teacher referral forms and psychological assessments carried out on EAL students in a large Canadian school system. The teacher referral forms and psychological assessment reports showed that teachers and psychologists often assumed that children had overcome all difficulties with English when they could converse easily in the language. Yet these children frequently performed poorly on English academic tasks within the classroom (hence the referral for assessment) as well as on the verbal scales of the cognitive ability test administered as part of the psychological assessment. Many students were designated as having language or communication disabilities despite the fact that they had been in Canada for a

relatively short amount of time (e.g. 1-3 years). Thus, the conflation of second language (L2) conversational fluency with L2 academic proficiency contributed directly to the inappropriate placement of bilingual students in special education programs.

The need to distinguish between conversational fluency and academic aspects of L2 performance was further highlighted by the reanalysis of language performance data from the Toronto Board of Education (Cummins, 1981b). These data showed that there was a gap of several years, on average, between the attainment of peer-appropriate fluency in English and the attainment of grade norms in academic aspects of English. Conversational aspects of proficiency reached peer-appropriate levels usually within about two years of exposure to English but a period of 5-7 years was required, on

average, for immigrant students to approach grade norms in academic aspects of English (e.g. vocabulary knowledge).

The differential time periods required to attain peer-appropriate L2 conversational fluency as compared to meeting grade expectations in academic language proficiency have been corroborated in many research studies carried out during the past 30 years in Canada (Klesmer, 1994), Europe (Snow and Hoefnagel-Hohle, 1978), Israel (Shohamy, Levine, Spolsky, Kere-Levy, Inbar, Shemesh, 2002), and the United States (Hakuta, Butler, & Witt, 2002; Thomas & Collier, 2002).

The relevance of the BICS/CALP distinction is illustrated in Vincent's (1996) ethnographic study of second generation Salvadorean students in Washington DC. Vincent points out that the children in her study began school in an English-speaking environment and "within their first two or three years attained conversational ability in

English that teachers would regard as native-like" (p. 195). She suggests, however, that this fluency is largely deceptive:

The children seem to have much greater English proficiency than they actually do because their spoken English has no accent and they are able to converse on a few everyday, frequently discussed subjects. Academic language is frequently lacking.

Teachers actually spend very little time talking with individual children and tend to interpret a small sample of speech as evidence of full English proficiency. (p. 195)

BICS/CALP made no claim to be anything more than a conceptual distinction. It provided a way of (a) naming and talking about the classroom realities that Vincent (1996) discusses and (b) highlighting the discriminatory assessment and instructional practices experienced by many bilingual students.

Evolution of the Theoretical Constructs

The initial BICS/CALP distinction was elaborated into two intersecting continua (Cummins, 1981a) that highlighted the range of cognitive demands and contextual support involved in particular language tasks or activities (context-embedded/context-reduced, cognitively undemanding/cognitively demanding). Internal and external dimensions of context were distinguished to reflect the fact that “context” is constituted both by what we bring to a task (e.g., our prior knowledge, interests, and motivation) and the range of supports that may be incorporated in the task itself (e.g., visual supports such as graphic organizers). This “quadrants” framework stimulated discussion of the instructional environment required to enable EAL students to catch up academically as quickly as possible. Specifically, it was argued that effective instruction for EAL students should focus primarily on context-embedded and cognitively demanding tasks. It was also recognized, however, that these dimensions cannot be specified in absolute terms because what is “context-embedded” or “cognitively demanding” for one learner may not be so for another as a result of differences in internal attributes such as prior knowledge or interest (Coelho, 2004; Cummins, 1981a).

In later accounts of the framework (Cummins, 2000, 2001) the distinction between conversational fluency and academic language proficiency was related to the work of several other theorists. For example, Gibbons’ (1991) distinction between *playground language* and *classroom language* highlighted in a particularly clear manner the linguistic challenges of classroom language demands. She notes that playground language includes the language which “enables children to make friends, join in games and take part in a variety of day-to-day activities that

develop and maintain social contacts” (p. 3). She points out that this language typically occurs in face-to-face situations and is highly dependent on the physical and visual context, and on gesture and body language. However, classroom language is very different from playground language:

The playground situation does not normally offer children the opportunity to use such language as: *if we increase the angle by 5 degrees, we could cut the circumference into equal parts*. Nor does it normally require the language associated with the higher order thinking skills, such as hypothesizing, evaluating, inferring, generalizing, predicting or classifying. Yet these are the language functions which are related to learning and the development of cognition; they occur in all areas of the curriculum, and without them a child's potential in academic areas cannot be realized. (1991, p. 3)

The research of Biber (1986) and Corson (1995) also provides evidence of the linguistic reality of the distinction. Corson highlighted the enormous lexical differences between typical conversational interactions in English as compared to academic or literacy-related uses of English. The high-frequency everyday lexicon of English conversation derives predominantly from Anglo-Saxon sources while the relatively lower frequency academic vocabulary is primarily Graeco-Latin in origin (see also Coxhead, 2000).

Other ways in which the original BICS/CALP distinction has evolved include:

- The addition of *discrete language skills* as a component of language proficiency that is distinct from both conversational fluency and academic language proficiency (Cummins, 2001). Discrete language skills involve the learning of rule-governed aspects of language (including phonology, grammar, and spelling) where acquisition of the general case permits generalization to other instances governed by that particular rule. Discrete language skills can sometimes be learned in virtual isolation from the development of academic language proficiency as illustrated in the fact that some students who can “read” English fluently may have only a very limited understanding of the words they can decode (see Cummins, Brown &

Sayers, 2007, for an analysis of discrete language skills in relation to current debates on the teaching of reading in the United States).

- The embedding of the BICS/CALP distinction within a broader framework of academic development in culturally and linguistically diverse contexts that specifies the role of societal power relations in framing teacher-student interactions and determining the social organization of schooling (Cummins, 1986, 2001). Teacher-student interactions are seen as a process of negotiating identities, reflecting to varying degrees coercive or collaborative relations of power in the wider society. This socialization process within the school determines the extent to which students will engage academically and gain access to the academic registers of schooling.

Contributions of the BICS/CALP Distinction to Policy and Practice

Since its initial articulation, the distinction between BICS and CALP has influenced both policy and practice related to the instruction and assessment of second language learners. It has been invoked, for example, in policy discussions related to:

- The amount and duration of funding necessary to support students who are learning English as an additional language;
- The kinds of instructional support that EAL students need at different stages of their acquisition of conversational and academic English;
- The inclusion of EAL students in nationally-mandated high-stakes testing; for example, should EAL students be exempt from taking high-stakes tests and, if so, for how long—1, 2, 3, 4, or 5 years after arrival in the host country?
- The extent to which psychological testing of EAL students for diagnostic purposes through their L2 is valid and ethically defensible.

The distinction is discussed in numerous books that aim to equip educators with the understanding and skills required to teach and assess linguistically diverse students (e.g. Cline & Frederickson, 1996, in the United Kingdom; Coelho, 2004, in Canada; Diaz-Rico & Weed, 2002, in the United States) and has been invoked to interpret data from a range of sociolinguistic and educational contexts (e.g.

Broome's [2004] research on reading English in multilingual South African schools).

Thus, the BICS/CALP distinction was initially formulated to address certain theoretical issues (e.g. whether "language proficiency" could legitimately be viewed as a unitary construct, as Oller [1979] proposed) and to interpret empirical data related to the time periods required for immigrant students to catch up academically. It spoke directly to prejudicial policies and practices that were denying students access to equitable and effective learning opportunities.

Future Directions

The BICS/CALP distinction was not proposed as an overall theory of language proficiency but as a very specific conceptual distinction that has important implications for policy and practice. It has drawn attention to specific ways in which educators' assumptions about the nature of language proficiency and the development of L2 proficiency have prejudiced the academic development of bilingual students. However, the distinction is likely to remain controversial, reflecting the fact that there is no cross-disciplinary consensus regarding the nature of language proficiency and its relationship to academic development.

The most productive direction to orient further research on this topic, and one that can be supported by all scholars, is to focus on creating instructional and learning environments that maximize the language and literacy development of socially marginalized students. Because academic language is found primarily in written texts, extensive engaged reading is likely to be a crucial component of an effective learning environment (Guthrie, 2003). Opportunities for collaborative learning and talk about text are also extremely important in helping students internalize and more fully comprehend the academic language they find in their extensive reading of text.

Writing for authentic purposes is also crucial because when bilingual students write about issues that matter to them they not only consolidate aspects of the academic language they have been reading, they also express their identities through language and (hopefully) receive feedback from teachers and others that

will affirm and further develop their expression of self (Cummins, Brown, & Sayers, 2007). Deeper understanding of the nature of academic language and its relationship both to conversational fluency and other forms of literacy will emerge from teachers, students, and researchers working together in instructional contexts collaboratively pushing (and documenting) the boundaries of language and literacy exploration.

2. 1. 3 Writing an Extended Abstract of Thesis

Text 1

1. Read the following abstract.

Loanwords in Context: Lexical Borrowing from English to Japanese and its Effects on Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition

Andrew Michael Sowers, Portland State University, 2017

Research has shown that cognates between Japanese and English have the potential to be a valuable learning tool (Daulton, 2008). Yet little is known on how Japanese learners of English produce cognates in context. Recently, studies have argued that cognates can cause a surprisingly high number of syntactic errors in sentence writing activities with Japanese learners (Rogers, Webb, & Nakata, 2014; Masson, 2013). In the present study, I investigated how Japanese learners of English understood and used true cognates (words that have equivalent meanings in both languages) and non-true cognates (words where the Japanese meaning differs in various ways from their English source words). Via quasi-replication, I analyzed participants' sentences to determine the interaction of true and non-true cognates on semantics and syntax. In an experimental study, twenty Japanese exchange students filled out a word knowledge scale of thirty target words (half true cognates and half non-true cognates) and wrote sentences for the words they indicated they knew. These sentences were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively for both semantic and syntactic errors. Sentences with true cognates were semantically accurate 86% of the time, while those with non-true cognates were accurate only 62.3% of the time, which was a statistically significant

difference. When the sentences were analyzed for syntax, there was no statistically significant difference in the number of errors between true and non-true cognates, which contrasts with previous research. Qualitative analysis revealed that the most problematic syntactic issue across both cognate types was using collocations correctly. Among those collocational issues, there were clear differences in the types of errors between true and non-true cognates. True cognate target words were more likely to lead to problems with prepositional collocations, while non-true cognate target words were more likely to lead to problems with verb collocations. These results suggest that for intermediate Japanese learners of English, semantics of non-true cognates should be prioritized in learning, followed by syntax of true and non-true cognates, which should be taught according to the most problematic error types per cognate status.

Contents Analysis

2. Read the abstract and decide whether this piece is MA abstract or PhD (extended) abstract.
3. Read the abstract again thoroughly. Which is its structure? Working in pairs, suggest the plan of the text (e.g. stating the topic of the research, justifying the urgency of the issue, etc.). Pay attention to the fact that the text has no paragraphs. Where is the boundary between the structural parts of the abstract?
4. Analyze the abstract and decide whether it presents information only or the author postulates his opinion as well. If so, which parts of the text contain opinion presentation?
5. Analyze the references given in the abstract. Are they supported by detailed or general reference information about the sources? Could, in your opinion, the author avoid using references in the abstract? If yes, in what way? If no, what is their role?

6. In mini-groups, think of the key-words for this abstract (up to 5). Share your ideas with the class.

Language Analysis

7. In pairs, analyze the usage of pronoun '*I*' in the abstract. Could it be avoided? If so, how?

8. In pairs, analyze the tenses used in the abstract. Which tenses are used to

- a. present the research results?
- b. describe the procedure of the study?
- c. state the area of results application?

9. Find in the abstract the synonyms to the words and phrases in *italics*.

- a. The results *show*...
- b. In the *given research*...
- c. I *studied*
- d. *evident* differences...
- e. studies have *claimed*

Text 2

1. Read the abstract.

A Corpus Based Analysis of Noun Modification in Empirical Research Articles in Applied Linguistics

Jo-Anne Hutter, Portland State University, 2015

Previous research has established the importance of the nouns and noun modification in academic writing because of their commonness and complexity. However, little is known about how noun modification varies across the rhetorical

sections of research articles. Such a perspective is important because it reflects the interplay between communicative function and linguistic form.

This study used a corpus of empirical research articles from the fields of applied linguistics and language teaching to explore the connection between article sections (Introduction, Methods, Results, Discussion; IMRD) and six types of noun modification: relative clauses, ing-clause postmodifiers, ed-clause postmodifiers, prepositional postmodifiers, premodifying nouns, and attributive adjectives. First the frequency of these six types of noun modification was compared across IMRD sections. Second, the study also used a hand coded analysis of the structure and structural patterns of a sample of noun phrases through IMRD sections.

The results of the analyses showed that noun modification is not uniform across IMRD sections. Significant differences were found in the rates of use for attributive adjectives, premodifying nouns, and prepositional phrase postmodifiers. There were no significant differences between sections for relative clauses, ing-clause postmodifiers, or ed-clause postmodifiers. The differences between sections for attributive adjectives, premodifying nouns, and prepositional phrases illustrate the way the functions of these structures intersects with the functions of IMRD sections. For example, Methods sections describe research methods, which often have premodifying nouns (corpus analysis, conversation analysis, speech sample, etc.); this function of Methods sections results in a higher use of premodifying nouns compared to other sections. Results for structures of noun phrase across IMRD sections showed that the common noun modification patterns, such as premodifying noun only or attributive adjective with prepositional phrase postmodifier, were mostly consistent across sections. Noun phrase structures including pre-/post- or no modification did have differences across sections, with Introduction sections the most frequently modified and Methods sections the least frequently modified. The different functions of IMRD sections call for different rates of usage for noun modification, and the results reflected this.

The results of this research benefit teachers of graduate students of applied linguistics in students' research reading and writing by describing the use of noun

modification in the sections of empirical research articles and aiding teachers in the design of materials to clarify the use of noun modification in these IMRD sections.

Contents Analysis

2. Read the abstract and decide whether this piece is MA abstract or PhD (extended) abstract.

3. In pairs, delimitate paragraph boundaries corresponding to the following structural elements of the abstract.

- a. Previous research outline.
- b. Stating the urgency of the problem.
- c. Description of methods used in the study.
- d. Outline of results.
- e. Application of results.

4. Analyze the grammar of the sentences in the abstract. Which structure does the author use more often – a) ‘I’ as a subject; b) other pronoun/noun as a subject; c) passive constructions. Count their number.

5. In mini-groups, think of the key-words for this abstract (up to 5). Share your ideas with the class.

Language Analysis

6. In pairs, analyze the abbreviations used in the abstract. Are their full forms mentioned in the text? If so, do abbreviations precede or follow the explanation?

7. In pairs, analyze the tenses used in the abstract. Together with your partner, make a list of structural elements of the text and the tenses used there. Share your ideas with the class.

8. Find in the abstract the synonyms to the words and phrases in *italics*.

- a. The results *are useful for*...
- b. The differences *show* ...
- c. It reflects *the mutual connection* between...
- d. Research has *found out* ...
- e. Patterns of *a selection* of nouns ...

Text 3

1. Read the abstract.

The Complexity and Expressive Power of Valued Constraints

Stanislav Zivn, 2014

1 Introduction

Constraint programming is a powerful paradigm for solving combinatorial search problems that draws on a wide range of techniques from artificial intelligence, operational research, algorithms, graph theory and elsewhere. The basic idea in constraint programming is that the user states the constraints and a general purpose constraint solver is used to solve them. Constraints are specified by relations, and an instance of the constraint satisfaction problem (CSP) states which relations should hold among the given decision variables. More formally, a CSP instance consists of a set of variables, each with some domain of values, and a set of relations on subsets of these variables.

One of the strengths of the CSP framework is that it provides a unifying framework for various classes of problems that have been studied independently before. By specifying what the domains and constraints are (e.g. domains can be finite, infinite, discrete,...), one can obtain different classes of problems.

Since in practice many constraint satisfaction problems are over-constrained, and hence have no solution, or are under-constrained, and hence have many solutions, soft constraint satisfaction problems have been studied. Several very general soft CSP frameworks have been proposed in the literature. One of the most general frameworks is the valued constraint satisfaction problem (VCSP).

The VCSP is a generalization of the CSP that allows a variety of combinatorial optimization problems to be described.

In an instance of the VCSP, every constraint is associated with a cost function (rather than a relation as in the CSP) which allows the user to express preferences among different partial assignments, and the goal is to find an optimal assignment (i.e. an assignment of smallest total cost).

The notion of expressibility plays a crucial role in the theoretical study of the CSP/VCSP as well as in the design of constraint solvers. In the former, the notion of expressibility has been a key component in the analysis of complexity for the CSP/VCSP. Expressibility is a particular form of problem reduction: if a constraint can be expressed in a given constraint language, then it can be added to the language without changing the computational complexity of the associated class of problems. The importance of expressibility has been recognized in other fields as well, where expressibility for the CSP has been studied under the name of implementation, pp-definability, existential inverse satisfiability, or join and projection operations in relational databases. As with all computing paradigms, also for the (valued) constraint satisfaction problems, it is desirable for many purposes to have a small language which can be used to describe a large collection of problems. Determining which additional constraints can be expressed by a given constraint language is therefore a central issue in assessing the expressibility and usefulness of a constraint system.

This thesis is a detailed examination of the expressive power of valued constraints and related complexity questions. Although the results are stated in the VCSP framework, they apply to other equivalent frameworks. In particular, some of the results answer questions originally studied in the framework of pseudo-Boolean polynomial and Markov Random Fields.

2 Contributions

This thesis thoroughly explores the expressive power of valued constraints and makes significant contributions. We investigate various algebraic properties of valued constraints in order to understand the expressive power of classes of

relations and functions. We show that this so-called algebraic approach, traditionally used to separate tractable problems from intractable problems, is also useful for other questions, for instance, for finding boundaries to the applicability of certain algorithmic techniques. Using this approach, we have been able to resolve some open problems, such as the question of expressibility of all Boolean submodular constraints by binary submodular constraints (cf. Section 2.4).

The thesis has 4 main parts, as described in detail below. An extension of the thesis has been published as a monograph [1].

2.1 Expressive Power of Valued Constraints

It has been known for some time that the expressive power of classical constraints is determined by certain algebraic operations called polymorphisms. Moreover, there is a Galois connection between the set of classical constraints and the set of operations. This connection has been successfully used in the complexity analysis of the CSP. Cohen, Cooper and Jeavons, in their CP'06 paper, started investigating the question of the existence of a similar Galois connection for valued constraints. In particular, they have characterized the expressive power of valued constraints in terms of certain algebraic properties called fractional polymorphisms.

The main contribution of this work is an extension of their result by showing a new connection between the expressive power of valued constraints and linear programming. We prove a decidability result for the question of whether a given operation belongs to a particular fractional clone.

Results building on this part of the thesis have been published in two conference papers [2, 3] and one journal paper [4].

2.2 Expressive Power of Fixed-Arity Constraints

In this part of the thesis, we investigate the ways in which a fixed collection of valued constraints can be combined to express other valued constraints. We consider various classes of valued constraints and the associated cost functions with respect to the question of which of these classes can be expressed using only cost functions of bounded arities.

We show that in some cases, a large class of valued constraints, of all possible arities, can be expressed by using valued constraints over the same domain of a fixed finite arity. We also show that some simple classes of valued constraints, including the set of all monotonic valued constraints with finite cost values, cannot be expressed by a subset of any fixed finite arity, and hence form an infinite hierarchy. This result identifies the first known example of an infinite chain of classes of constraints with strictly increasing expressive power. Moreover, we present a full classification of various classes of constraints with respect to the problem of expressibility by fixed-arity languages.

Results from this part of the thesis have been published in one conference paper [5] and two journal papers [6, 7].

2.3 Expressive Power of Submodular Constraints

In this part of the thesis, we study submodular constraints and cost functions. Submodular functions play a key role in combinatorial optimisation and are often considered to be a discrete analogue of convex functions.

We study the question of which submodular functions can be expressed by binary submodular functions. Apart from shedding light on the structure of submodular functions, another importance of this question is the known fact that any function expressible by binary submodular functions can be minimized efficiently by a reduction to the $(s; t)$ -Min-Cut problem. Several classes of functions have been known to be expressible by binary submodular functions, including so-called negative-positive functions, cubic submodular functions, and $f_0; 1g$ -valued submodular functions.

We show that several classes of submodular functions can be expressed by binary submodular functions. Consequently, VCSP instances with constraint involving cost functions from these classes can be solved efficiently by a reduction to the $(s; t)$ -Min-Cut problem. Our results include known classes (with alternative, and often simpler proofs) as well as a new class of submodular functions of arbitrary arities.

Results from this part of the thesis have been published in one conference paper [8] and one journal paper [9].

2.4 Non-Expressibility of Submodular Functions

In this part of the thesis, we study the limits of the techniques from Section 2.3. It has previously been an open problem whether all Boolean submodular functions can be decomposed into a sum of binary submodular functions over a possibly larger set of variables; that is, whether all Boolean submodular functions can be expressed by binary submodular functions. This problem has been considered within several different contexts in computer science, including computer vision, artificial intelligence, and pseudo-Boolean optimization. Using a connection between the expressive power of valued constraints and certain algebraic properties of cost functions, we answer this question negatively.

These results have several corollaries. First, we characterize precisely which submodular polynomials of arity 4 can be expressed by quadratic submodular polynomials. Next, we identify a novel class of submodular functions of arbitrary arities that can be expressed by binary submodular functions, and therefore minimized in cubic time (in the number of variables) by a reduction to the (s; t)-Min-Cut problem. More importantly, our results imply limitations on this kind of reduction and establish for the first time that it cannot be used in general to minimize arbitrary submodular functions. Finally, we refute a conjecture of Promislow and Young from 2005 on the structure of the extreme rays of the cone of Boolean submodular functions.

Results from this part of the thesis have been published in one conference paper [10] and one journal paper [11].

Publications arising from the thesis

[1] Stanislav Zivny. The complexity of valued constraint satisfaction problems. Cognitive Technologies. Springer, 2012.

...

Contents Analysis

2. Read the abstract and decide whether this piece is MA abstract or PhD (extended) abstract.

3. Read the abstract again thoroughly. Which is its structure? Working in pairs, suggest the plan of the text (e.g. stating the topic of the research, justifying the urgency of the issue, etc.). Do the paragraph boundaries coincide with the structural elements?

4. In pairs, analyze the paragraphs which provide description of Thesis's chapters. Which words open and close them? Which phrases are used to refer to the author's publications on a chapter?

5. Does the abstract include any references to theoretical sources? If so, how are they presented? Are they followed by a list of references? What is the purpose of their mentioning in the abstract?

6. In mini-groups, think of the key-words for this abstract (up to 10). Share your ideas with the class.

Language Analysis

7. Analyze the grammar of the sentences in the abstract. Which structure does the author use more often – a) *I* as a subject; b) *we* as a subject; c) other pronoun/noun as a subject; d) passive constructions.

8. In pairs, analyze the tenses used in the abstract. Together with your partner, make a list of structural elements of the text and the tenses used there. Share your ideas with the class.

9. Explain in English the following phrases from the abstract. Pay special attention to the words in *italics*.

- a. This thesis *thoroughly* explores...
- b. An *extension of the thesis* has been published as a monograph.
- c. It has previously been an *open problem*.
- d. These results have several *corollaries*.
- e. One of the *strengths* of the CSP framework is that ...

10. In pairs, analyze the abbreviations used in the abstract. Are their full forms mentioned in the text? If so, do abbreviations precede or follow the explanation?

11. In mini-groups, analyze the paragraph “These results...” from the Chapter 2.4. It contains a logical chain of arguments to support the author’s point of view. Which linkers are used to introduce each argument?

2. 4 Exercises

2. 4. 1 Contents and structure organization

1. Change the following paragraphs with bullet points into text.

- a) The second type of pragmatic transfer is sociopragmatic transfer which occurs from applying the sociocultural norms of the L1 to the L2. Examples include:
- Referring to the teacher by using a title such as ‘*Miss*’ or ‘*Sir*’. The use of titles is more commonplace in non-English speaking cultures. This could also occur because English does not have a T/V distinction (like the tu/vous distinction in French, for example). As such, English is a very informal language with relatively low social distance between all interlocutors, regardless of one’s position, power or ranking within the culture.
 - Asking someone you have just met for the first time: ‘*How much money do you earn?*’ While this situation would be perceived as somewhat offensive to a native English speaker, it would not be considered inappropriate in some other languages and cultures.

- Saying “Give it to me, please, Sir’ instead of “Could you give it to me, please, Sir?”

b)

- Much work in child language acquisition in the 1970s was influenced by Piaget and by the cognitive revolution in Psychology, so that the field of language acquisition had a strong functional/cognitive strand through this period that persists to the present.
- Work by Dan Slobin, Eve Clark, Elizabeth Bates and Melissa Bowerman laid the groundwork for present day cognitivist work.
- During the 1970s, Chomsky made the strong claim of innateness of the linguistic capacity leading to a great debate in the field of acquisition that still reverberates today.
- By the late 1980s, the kinds of linguistic theory development being done in particular by Fillmore, Lakoff, Langacker, and Talmy, although appearing radically different in the descriptive mechanisms proposed, could be seen to be related in fundamental ways.
- Lakoff was well-known for his work on metaphor and metonymy (Lakoff 1981 and Lakoff 1987). Langacker's ideas had evolved into an explicit theory known first as Space Grammar and then Cognitive Grammar (Langacker 1988).
- Talmy had published a number of increasingly influential papers on linguistic imaging systems (Talmy 1985a,b and 1988).

2. Transform the following charts into text.

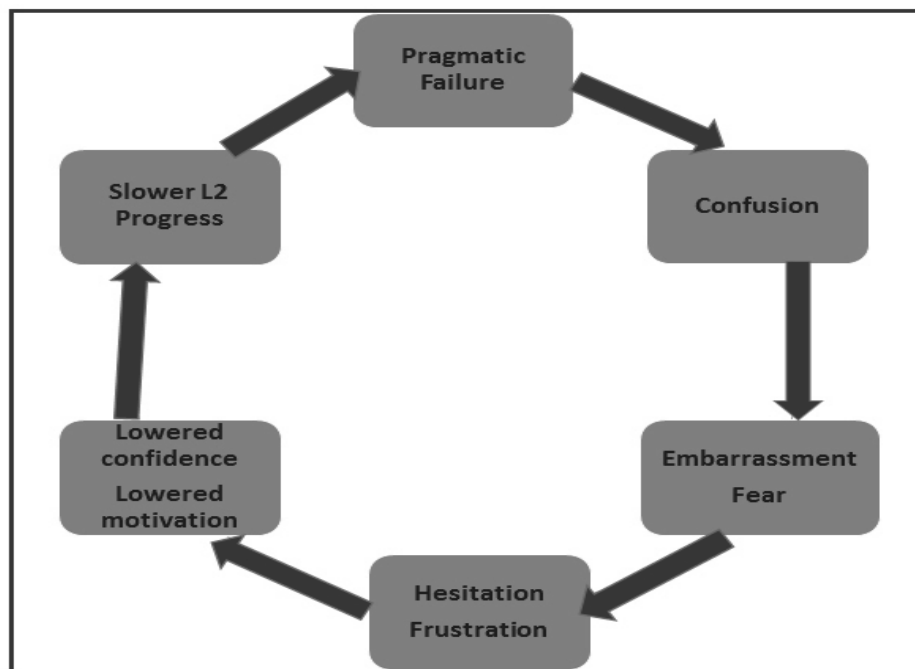
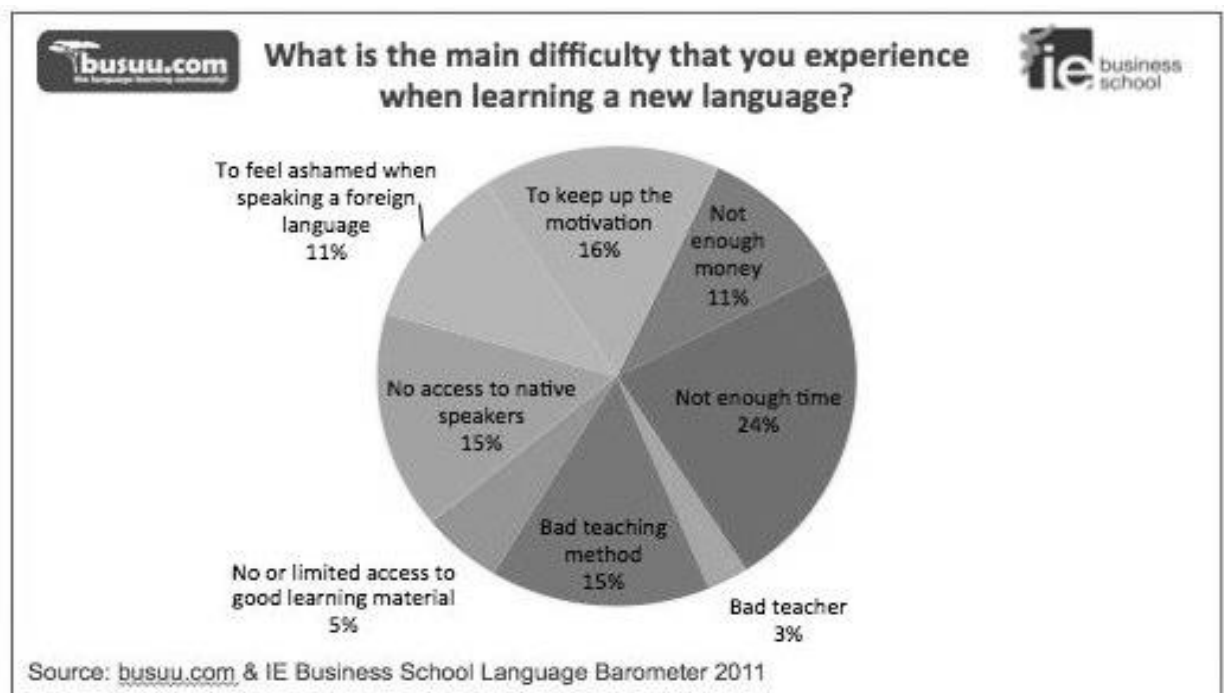


Figure 2. The devastating process that pragmatic failure can trigger for a second language learner



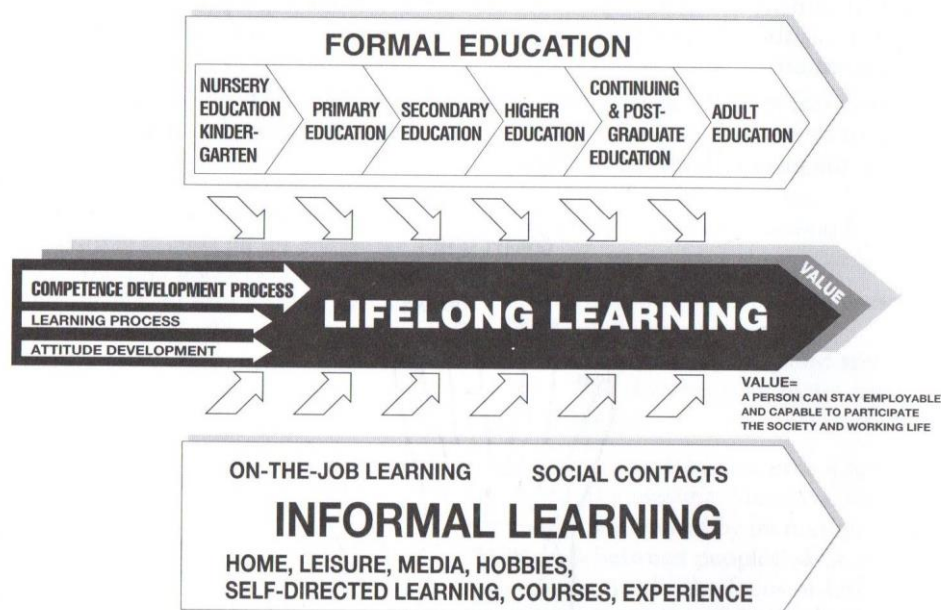


Figure 2 — LIFELONG LEARNING

3. In pairs, arrange the following information as a) table, b) any kind of chart. Share your charts and tables and charts with the class. Choose the best one.

a) The data presented in the figure show that on average, all the features of hyperactivity in boys have a somewhat more significant manifestation than in girls, which is proved by the pronounced relevant indices, that are higher in the group of boys, namely: the index of EM (emotionality) by 0, 71 points, the index of mobility (mobility) by 0.53 points, the index of LDA (liability to divert attention) by 0.41 points, the SEN (sensitivity) index by 0.43 points, the ESC (excitability) index by 0.54 points, the ATT index (attentiveness) by 0.51 points, the index of WCP (working capacity) by 0.14 points, the MIS (mental instability) by 0.48 points, the DG (diligence) index by 0.39 points, the OST (ostentation) index by 0.41 points. However, these differences between boys and girls in any of the indices did not receive a statistical confirmation of theirsignificance when employing the t-criterion of Student.

b) As it is seen from the Figure 1, the most important lecturer voice communicative properties, in students' opinion, are: confident (8,1%), animated (7,8%), persuasive (7,5%), interested (7,3%) and attractive (7,1%).

4. Paraphrase the following paragraphs so to avoid plagiarism. Do not use direct quotes. Mind that you have to render the general idea, so there is no need to fall into details.

- Cognitive Linguistics is a new approach to the study of language which views linguistic knowledge as part of general cognition and thinking; linguistic behaviour is not separated from other general cognitive abilities which allow mental processes of reasoning, memory, attention or learning, but understood as an integral part of it. It emerged in the late seventies and early eighties, especially through the work of George Lakoff, one of the founders of Generative Semantics, and Ronald Langacker, also an ex-practitioner of Generative Linguistics. As a consequence, this new paradigm could be seen as a reaction against the dominant generative paradigm which pursues an autonomous view of language.

- Synchronous computer-mediated communication (communication in real-time such as text-chat) has generated a lot of support because it mimics oral conversation without involving the potential pressure of a face-to-face discussion. Thus, chat has been described as a conversation in slow-motion. Furthermore, it allows learners to use a discourse that is similar to an oral conversation while also providing them with more time to concentrate and to reflect on the form and content of their intervention. In these interactions, language learners do not have to worry about pronunciation and judgment from classmates. Studies have shown that students participate more frequently and more equally in online discussions when compared to regular face-to-face in class discussion. Moreover, online discussions allow for a more learner-centered environment where students are willing to take more risks and use less of their first language to communicate than in face-to-face interactions.

- Communicative competence, as previously mentioned, involves not only knowing the language code and its syntactic rules but also the knowledge of what is appropriate and not so in any given context. In other words, it includes the knowledge of what to say to whom, or when to remain silent, how to speak appropriately in any given situation, how to address persons of different statuses, roles and/or gender, how to command, how to express criticism, how to accept or reject offers, how to make requests, etc. Shortly, the term encompasses all aspects of language use, and in some cases non-verbal means (posture, gestures, silence, etc), as well.

5. Analyze the following definitions of the concept “sociolinguistic competence”. Give the summarized definition of the concept.

1. Sociolinguistic competence refers to the ability to use language that is appropriate to social contexts. Alptekin (2002, p. 58) explains that social context refers to culture-specific contexts that include the norms, values, beliefs, and behavioural patterns of a culture.

2. Sociolinguistic Competence can be defined quite simply as: knowing and understanding how to speak given the circumstances you are in. To go into more detail, when we speak in our native language, we don't have to think about who we are talking to, or how we should say something (Canale, M., & Swain, M. 1980).

3. This ability to adjust one's speech to fit the situation in which it is said is called sociolinguistic competence, and without this ability, even the most perfectly grammatical utterances can convey a meaning entirely different from that which the speaker intended (Mizne, 1997).

4. We define the notion of sociolinguistic competence as “the capacity to recognize and produce socially appropriate speech in context” (Lyster, 1994: 263).

5. Sociolinguistics studies the complex connection between the variations within the language and variations within the social groups. Such differences can show the specific variations of pronunciation and grammar (Sugar, 2015).

6. Arrange the following references according to a) APA (5th edition) b) Harvard c) Chicago reference styles. Mind the rules of transliteration.

1. *Алексієвець О. М.* Просодичні засоби інтенсифікації висловлювань сучасного англійського мовлення: монографія / О. М. Алексієвець. – Тернопіль : Економічна думка, 2002. – 200 с.
2. *Ахманова О. С.* Словарь лингвистических терминов / О. С. Ахманова. – М. : Советская энциклопедия, 1969. – С. 180-181.
3. *Виноградов В. В.* Избранные труды. Исследование по русской грамматике / В. В. Виноградов. – М. : Наука, 1975. – 560 с.
4. *Григорьева В. С.* Дискурс как элемент коммуникативного процесса: прагмалингвистический и когнитивный аспекты : монография / В. С. Григорьева. – Тамбов : Изд-во Тамб. гос. техн. ун-та, 2007. – 288 с.
5. *Дворжецька М. П.* Фонетика англійської мови: фоностилістика і риторика мовленнєвої комунікації: посібник для студентів ВНЗ / М. П. Дворжецька, Т. В. Макухіна, Л. М. Велікова, Є. О. Снегірьова. – Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2005. – 240с.
6. *Дворжецька М. П.* Тенденції розвитку вимовної норми сучасної англійської мови // Мова, культура й освіта в сучасному світі : Зб. наук. праць до 90-річчя проф. О. К. Романовського. – К. : Вид. Центр КНЛУ, 2008. – С. 141-145.
7. *Дворжецкая М. П.* Единство системного и коммуникативно-функционального анализа просодии связного текста // Изучение динамического аспекта сегментных и суперсегментных единиц звучащего текста. – К. : КГПИИЯ, 1988. – С. 5-11.
8. *Калита А. А.* Актуалізація емоційно-прагматичного потенціалу висловлення : монографія / А. Калита. – Тернопіль : підручники і посібники, 2007. – 320 с.
9. *Карасик В. И.* О типах дискурса / В. И. Карасик // Языковая личность : институциональный и персональный дискурс : сб. науч. тр. – Волгоград, 2000. – С. 5-20.

10. *Карасик В. И.* Языковой круг: личность, концепты, дискурс / В. И. Карасик. – Волгоград : Перемена, 2002. – 477 с.
11. *Носенко Э. Л.* Особенности речи в состоянии эмоциональной напряженности / Э. Л. Носенко. – Днепропетровск : Издательство ДГУ, 1975. – 205 с.
12. *Паращук В. Ю.* Теоретична фонетика англійської мови : навчальний посібник / В. Ю. Паращук. – Вінниця, Нова Книга, 2005. – 240 с.
13. *Шаткина Л. А.* Взаимодействие просодии слова и фразы в реализации коммуникативно-прагматической парадигмы высказывания / Л. А. Шаткина // Изучение динамического аспекта сегментных и суперсегментных единиц звучащего текста. – К. : КГПИИЯ, 1988. – С. 65-70.

2. 4. 2 Language exercises

Referring to Source Material

1. Look at these extracts where the writers are talking about their sources. Match the words in bold with their explanations given below. One of the words has no explanation. Which one?

➤ This paper begins with a **review of the literature on**¹ organizational communication. The **literature suggests**² that people with serious behavioral problems tend to communicate poorly, especially if the problems are not considered by them to be threatening.

➤ This essay **draws its data**² from the most important **primary source**³ of information on prosody in English: the American Phonetics Association. I shall **make reference to**⁴ this source throughout the essay. Several recent **secondary sources**⁵ were also consulted.

➤ For this project, I consulted the county archives in an attempt to explain why there were so many deviations from the norm. These proved a **valuable resource**⁶. I also **surveyed the literature on**⁷ deviation processes during 2012-2014.

However, I only directly **cite**⁸ those works which are particularly relevant in the present study.

➤ **An extensive body of literature exists on**⁹ the effects of teaching foreign language to toddlers. The phenomenon has been studied for a long, but the effect is not fully known or **documented**¹⁰. The present study **draws primarily on**¹¹ the work of Gordon (1996).

➤ **As noted**¹² in the recent report, Australia has been at the forefront of developments in e-learning. This success **is often attributed to**¹³ Australia's geographical position, but the factor **catalogued**¹⁴ in the report reveal a more complex culture.

- a. an original document or set of documents giving information about a subject;
- b. gets its information;
- c. recorded, listed
- d. searched for all the important works, summarized and evaluated them;
- e. given special mention;
- f. books or articles about a subject, nor original documents;
- g. also 'amount of knowledge';
- h. people often say that this is the cause;
- i. a summary and evaluation of all the important works written on a particular subject;
- j. a collection of documents of historical importance;
- k. written about;
- l. slightly more formal alternative to *refer to*;
- m. refer to for illustration or proof;
- n. uses information mainly from;

2. Match the beginning of each sentence with the most appropriate ending.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1 The letters proved to be a valuable | study, which focuses on intonation only. |
| 2 An extensive body of literature | body of the book; they are in the appendix. |
| 3 Newspapers are a good primary | the literature on intellectual property rights. |
| 4 The data are not given in the main | exists on human to animal communication. |
| 5 Deviations are nor dealt with in the present | source for the period 1980-1985. |
| 6 The thesis begins with a review of | resource for the study of the poet's life. |

3. Rewrite the sentences using the word in brackets.

1. The article refers to the work of Hindler and Swartz (1988). (MAKES)
2. Schunker's book was a useful critique for understanding the pre-war period. I also consulted original government papers. (SECONDARY)
3. The book use data from several Japanese articles on syllable formation. (DRAWS)
4. In a different paper Kallen reports on his research into perception problems. (ELSEWHERE).
5. Han consulted the documents of historical importance in the Vienna Museum. (ARCHIVES).

Presenting Graphs and Diagrams

4. Match the type of diagrams and graphs from the box with the picture they represent and appropriate definition.

<i>pie chart</i>	<i>histogram</i>	<i>table</i>	<i>bar chart</i>	<i>graph</i>
	<i>cross-section</i>	<i>flowchart</i>		

1. A is a circle divided into segments from the middle (like slices of a cake) to show how the total is divided up.
2. A is a diagram in which different amounts are represented by thin vertical or horizontal bars which have the same width but vary in height or length.
3. A is a line showing changes in values.
4. A is something, or a model of something, cut across the middle so that you can see the inside.
5. A is a diagram which indicates the stages of a process.
6. A is a grid with columns and rows of numbers.
7. A is a kind of bar chart but the bar width also varies to indicate different values.

5. Fill in the gaps with the words given below.

Diagrams are visual ways of ¹⁾ concisely. They are often also called ²⁾ In an academic article they are usually ³⁾ Fig. (Figure) 1, Fig. 2, etc. In charts, ⁴⁾ or ⁵⁾ shows what each segment represents. The results of surveying ⁶⁾ can be represented by any kind of diagrams or graphs.

- a. key
- b. labelled
- c. legend
- d. presenting data
- e. random sample
- f. figures.

6. Read attentively the following expressions used to describe the charts. What are their functions (to express personal opinion, to describe tendencies of decrease/increase etc.)?

- 1 a For me, the most interesting aspect is .. .
b What strikes me as most interesting is .. .
- 2 a ... a sharp rise in the total number of ...
b ... a significant increase in the total number of ...
- 3 a ... a very large proportion of people ...
b ... the *vast* majority of people ...
- 4 a The chart tells us that .. .
b According to the chart, .. .
- 5 a ... more or less the same number of people ...
b ... roughly equal numbers of people ...
- 6 a ... seeing it in this form really brings home to you ...
b ... the way it is presented helps to emphasise ...
- 7 a There's a strong tendency to reject ... /embrace .. .
b There's a definite trend away from ... /towards .. .
- 8 a ... the rate has remained quite stable ...
b ... the rate has not fluctuated *very* much ...
- 9 a There has been a slight increase/decrease in ...
b ... has increased/decreased marginally .
- 10 a The significance of this is that ...
b This is significant because ...

7. Explain the following expressions. Use language from exercise 6 where appropriate.

Rates of vocabulary acquisition have:

1 rocketed 5 plateaued

2 crept up 6 slumped

3 plummeted 7 tailed off

4 multiplied 8 stabilised

8. Complete the sentence below using expressions below in position a or b. Which expression could go in either position? What other words could you use to mean the same?

Fast food consumption has risen (a) 10 per cent (b)

.....

give or take a per cent

in round numbers

in the region of

more or less

or thereabouts

something like

9. Answer the questions.

1. What would be the best type of charts to present a variety of statistical information in a clear but non-diagrammatic form?
2. In a table, what is the difference between columns and rows?
3. What would be the best type of chart to present the different stages in a research project you did?
4. What is another name for a legend in a diagram?
5. What type of data collection are you doing if you survey the first 50 people you come across?

10. Describe the following charts using the expressions from the previous exercises of the section.

Talking About Ideas

11. Match the following words from column A with their explanations in column B. Then fill in the gaps with the appropriate words from column A.

A	B
movement	appropriate;
essence	group of people sharing aims or beliefs;
thought	the most important quality or characteristics;
reaction	presented as something that is always true;
disciplines	thinking in general;
emphasizes	process of change stimulated by something else, often
interpret	moving in the opposite direction;
generalized	draws attention to;
valid	describe, explain

Postmodernism describes a ¹⁾ of intellectual ²⁾ which has had a major impact on a number of academic ³⁾ since the late 20th century. Perhaps the best way to understand postmodernism is as a ⁴⁾ to modernism. Modernism ⁵⁾ purity, honesty and total truth; for example, when an artist attempts to express the ⁶⁾ of a whole subject with a single line. In contrast, postmodernism asserts that experience is personal and cannot be ⁷⁾ And that meaning is only for the individual to experience, nor for someone else to dictate. Thus, postmodernists maintain that the person who, for example, admires a painting or reads a poem is free to ⁸⁾ Its meaning, and that different people will come to very different, but equally ⁹⁾, conclusions as to what that meaning is.

12. Replace the words in bold with words from column A of exercise 11 with similar meanings.

1. Many educators believe that different learning styles are equally **acceptable**.
2. In the UK a university faculty is a unit where similar **subjects** are grouped together.
3. The French impressionists were a key **group with shared aims** in European arts.
4. The most **important quality** of international law is the application of a single standard for strong and weak nations alike.
5. Researchers spend much of their time trying to **understand the meaning of** their data.
6. Some 19th century artistic styles were a **direct response to** the ugliness of industrialization.
7. Harvey (2003) stresses that the findings of the study cannot be **said to be always true**, as only a small amount of data was used.
8. In the late 20th century, intellectual ways of **thinking** were greatly influenced by ideas of gender and race.

13. Study the following useful nouns relating to ideas.

<i>word</i>	<i>meaning</i>
concept	principle, idea
framework	system of rules, beliefs or ideas used as the basis for something
model	simple description useful for discussing ideas
notion	belief, idea
perception	belief, opinion, held by many people
stance	way of thinking, often publicly stated
viewpoint	opinion, way of looking at an issue

14. Fill in the gaps with the words from column A of exercise 13.

1. The of honesty is understood differently in different cultures.
2. The articles provides a different on this difficult topic.
3. Mary is working on an analytical to help people design and evaluate training courses.
4. The novel had a powerful impact on people's of the war.
5. The writer uses a Marxist as the basis for his discussion of the economy.
6. The government has made their on the boycott issue clear.
7. She doesn't agree with the that boys and girls should be taught separately.

15. Match the beginning of each sentence with the most appropriate ending.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. We must never accept the notion | a. on the role of the United Nations in times of war. |
| 2. The task of choosing an analytical | b. on gender and language use very clear. |
| 3. The book expresses his viewpoint | c. of dark matter to explain certain observations. |
| | d. that intelligence is connected to race. |
| 4. Tannen has always made her stance | e. of family healthcare which changed everything. |
| 5. Consumers have different perceptions | f. of what low price and high quality mean. |
| 6. The report laid out a new model | g. framework is an important stage in any research. |
| 7. Physicists developed the concept | |

Reporting What Others Say

16. Reporting what others say is a key aspect of academic English and you need a range of verbs to do this in an appropriate and varied way. Note the structures used with each verb.

In her latest article Morton **explains** how information technology is changing society.

Schmidt **describes** the process of language change.

Kon **suggests** that all poets are strongly influenced by their childhood. [says indirectly or tentatively]

Lee **states** that problems arose earlier than was previously thought. [says directly]

Uvarov **claims/asserts/contends/maintains/declares** that the causes of the revolution can be traced back to the 18th century. [says something is true directly and firmly, often used when others disagree]

Van Elk **implies** that other historians have misinterpreted the period. [suggests indirectly].

Patel **argues** that governments should continue to fund space research. [use of this verb suggests he gives reasons for his view]

Greenberg **emphasizes/highlights/stresses** the importance of taking a liberal approach. [gives particular importance to]

Levack **observes/notes/comments/points out** that there are contradictions in Day's interpretation of the poem. [states but does not develop at length]

Kim **demonstrates/shows** how Bach's music draws considerably on earlier composer's work.

Gray **proves** there is a link between obesity and genes. [shows that something must be true]

In the book Dean **mentions** some new research in the field. [refers to briefly]

McIntosh **pinpoints** the key features of the period in question. [focuses in on]

Vaz **advances/puts forward/proposes** a new theory. [used with idea, theory, hypothesis]

Davidson **casts doubt on** previous research in the field. [suggests it is inaccurate]

Gerhard **questions** previous interpretations of the play. [expresses doubts about]

17. In each sentence two of the opinions in italics are possible and one is not.

Which is not?

1. The author *notes / observes / pinpoints* that commodity prices change depending on the season.
2. Grey *puts forward / proves / advances* a controversial theory to explain climate change.
3. Philipson *claims / questions / challenges* the accuracy of Malwar's figures.
4. Trakov *stresses / emphasizes / asserts* the importance of pilot testing before carrying out a survey.
5. Ripoll *advances / demonstrates / shows* how large-scale urban planning can go wrong.
6. Evans *declared / cast doubt / maintained* there was no causal link between the events.

18. There is one mistake in each sentence. Find and correct it.

1. According to me, courses in academic writing should be compulsory for all new students.
2. It has not yet been proof that the virus can jump from species to species.
3. Richardson emphasizes on a number of weaknesses in the theory.
4. Taylor mentions to several studies which have looked at the problem in the past.
5. Pratt's suggest that the poet may have suffered from depression is an interesting one.
6. Our latest results cat doubt to our original hypothesis.

Research and Study Aims

18. Study the words used to express aims.

<i>word</i>	<i>example</i>
deliberate	We took the deliberate decision to keep our study small.
goal	have something as a goal, achieve your goal.
intention	with the intention of -ing, have no intention of -ing
motive	motive for -ing [reason]
objective	meet/achieve objects
priority	top priority, take priority over
purpose	Our purpose was to test our theory
strategy	Their strategy was to proceed slowly.
target	reach/achieve/attain a target

19. Rewrite the sentences using words and expressions from the previous exercise and beginning as shown.

1. Protecting the privacy of our subjects must take priority over absolutely everything else. (We must give...)
2. Our intention in designing the questionnaire was to make it as simple as possible to answer. (We designed the questionnaire with ...)
3. We aimed to define and evaluate a new approach to urban planning. (We had as our goal the ...)
4. I did not intend to become a scientist when I began my studies. (I had no...)
5. A methodology based on a hypothesis does not work in some cases. (A hypothesis -...)
6. Our project is located in the area where sociology and psychology meet. (Our project is located at ...).

20. Read the following text and match the words in bold with their definitions.

Mission Statement¹

ResCen exists to **further**² the understanding of how artists research and develop new processes and forms, by working with professional artists and others.

AIMS

To **establish**³ new **understandings**⁴ of creative methods and their application in practice-as-research, extending **knowledge bases**⁵ in these areas.

To explore and **challenge**⁶ traditional **hypothesis-based** and critical-analytical research methodologies established within the university.

To establish a **critical mass**⁷ of artist-researchers, meeting regularly, to **instigate**⁸ and **inform**⁹ new creative work across disciplines.

To provide an **infrastructure**¹⁰ for practice-led and artist-informed postgraduate study within the university.

To further develop **criteria**¹¹ for the definition and evaluation of creative practice-as-research, as part of the wider national debate.

To contribute to the development of a national infrastructure supporting practice-as-research, at the **interface**¹² between academic and other Centres of art-making and its study.

- a. influential number;
- b. basic systems and support services;
- c. short written statement of the aims of an organization;
- d. the basic knowledge shared by everyone working in the areas;
- e. standards;
- f. initiate, cause to start;
- g. provide knowledge that can influence;
- h. question;
- i. encourage people to accept;
- j. place where two things come together and affect each other;
- k. vision;
- l. move forward, advance.

21. Answer the questions about the vocabulary of the exercises 18 and 20.

1. What word can we use to refer to the basic support services and systems of a country?
2. What phrase can we use if everyone in a country seems to be discussing an issue?
3. What is another word for academic subjects?
4. What phrase means 'the basic knowledge of an academic field'?
5. How could the phrase the place *where theory meets practice* be reworded?
6. What verbs are typically used with (a) *objective* and (b) *target*?
7. What are the two noun forms connected with the verb *motivate*?
8. What is the opposite of theory-led research?

Supplementary Reading

1. Read the article.

Judith Hebb

MIXED FORMS OF ACADEMIC DISCOURSE: A CONTINUUM OF LANGUAGE POSSIBILITY

ABSTRACT: "Academic Discourse" and "Hybrid Discourse"- these are contested terms. Recently, scholars in composition studies have begun to question and problematize the issues of writing in academic discourse communities. While scholars are now publishing in alternative discourses, Including "mixed" or "hybrid" forms, college students are only beginning to find acceptable spaces for their alternative writing styles in academia. This is especially true for inexperienced writers and those for whom English is a second language. If hybrid discourse were viewed along a continuum of linguistic and cultural possibility Instead of according to its proximity to the dichotomies of academic and nonacademic other, the term "hybrid discourse" and the writing it describes could become both useful and valued in the academy.

Broadly defined, a "hybrid discourse" is a mix of home and school languages. A term as slippery as "academic discourse," hybrid discourse was loosely defined in a 1999 article by Patricia Bizzell as nonacademic discourses blending with traditional academic discourses ("Hybrid" 11). In a later article, Bizzell asserted that to prepare students now for success in school, it may no longer be necessary to inculcate traditional academic discourse. Rather, what is needed is more help for students in experimenting with discourse forms that mix the academic and nonacademic, or what I have called "hybrid" forms of academic discourse. ("Basic Writing" 5-6) Bizzell refined this position by questioning the term "hybrid" because it is "at once too essentializing and too suggestive of

independent "'parent' strands" ("Basic Writing" 4). She also advocated a stronger classroom pedagogy- that writing instructors should find ways to encourage "mixed" forms in their teaching ("Basic Writing" 4). While I agree with Bizzell's pedagogical admonition, I would like to propose that the term "hybrid discourse" need not be as negative as Bizzell claims. If we were able to change our perspective and think of hybrids as discourse forms along a continuum rather than as mixed forms between a dichotomy of academic and nonacademic discourses, perhaps neither the term "hybrid discourse" nor the acceptance of alternative discourse use in college classrooms would be as problematic. This notion is of primary importance to college students in the margins for whom English is a second language and for under-prepared basic writers, whose

discourse is measured for correctness against "traditional" academic discourse, whatever that may be. When viewed on a continuum that extends from the completely traditional mainstream to the entirely idiosyncratic and unintelligible, the discourses of under-prepared writers could be viewed as attempts at meaningful discourse rather than as failures, and their true value would emerge.

Besides Bizzell, scholars such as Mina Shaughnessy, Peter Elbow, David Bartholomae, Joseph Harris, Min-Zhan Lu, bell hooks, Mike Rose, and Elspeth J. Stuckey have problematized the term "academic discourse." In fact, I would argue that no such entity exists; the term defies definition. Bizzell's list of the characteristics of traditional academic discourse, an extension of the work of Helen Fox, although perhaps the most comprehensive compilation, is not exhaustive ("Hybrid" 10-11). To rehearse a taxonomy of traditional academic characteristics would seem to imply a fixed unchanging entity, which is a myth (Bizzell, "Basic Writing" 6). Furthermore, since discourses are inherently "ideological," composing a list of traditional academic discourse traits would serve to reinforce its privileged sociopolitical position within the academy. Therefore, I choose not to produce such a list.

The heteroglossic nature and shifting characteristics of academic discourse, whether in the scholarship produced within composition studies or in the writing of first-year college students, render the term nearly useless. When

alternative discourse forms are juxtaposed against traditional notions of academic discourse, they are viewed as unacceptable violations representative of the marginal voice of the "other." The traditional reaction of college instructors has been to force students to transform writer-centered discourse into reader-centered discourse.

However, mixed or hybrid forms of discourse might be deemed acceptable for doing intellectual work in institutions of higher learning when viewed along a continuum of language use. I propose to advance this argument by showcasing the acceptable use of and value of "hybrid" discourses by scholars in various disciplines- composition/rhetoric, discourse theory, linguistics, and cultural and postcolonial studies- and by illustrating the possibility of acceptable student writing in college. The ideology represented by such a stance would serve to resist the notions of privilege and power assumed by traditional academic discourses.

This showcase of hybrid discourse scholars is not intended to be comprehensive; rather, I have selected representative examples from various disciplines and included writers and scholars fore-grounded by Bizzell in her ongoing alternative discourse work in academia.

Bakhtin is perhaps the first scholar, in discourse theory, to have used the word "hybrid." He locates discourse on a continuum of language use that highlights the value of a variety of complex, purposeful utterances. Bakhtin posits the term "hybrid

construction" to describe a double-accented, double-styled structure that has "enormous significance in novel style" (not poetic style) (Bakhtin 304-05). This utterance belongs to a single speaker but "actually contains mixed within it two utterances, two speech manners, two styles, two 'languages,' two semantic and axiological belief systems" (Bakhtin 304). According to Bakhtin, who denies the existence of individual voice, an utterance is multi vocal, a polyphony socially constructed from many voices, which are in an internal dialogic (Halasek 30-31). Furthermore, there are no "formal" boundaries between these voices and languages (Bakhtin 305). "Hybridization" is, therefore, the mixing of two or more different linguistic consciousnesses—an encounter—within a single concrete utterance, separated from one another by an epoch, by social differentiation, or by some other factor (Bakhtin 358, 429). It is precisely "between 'languages,'" "on the borderline between oneself and the other," that the individual consciousness lies (Bakhtin 293).

It is my contention that the inseparable mixing of oneself and the other(s) operates hazily along a continuum of consciousness and empowerment, the positioning of the subject ever moving back and forth as one reveals and takes control over more and less of the true self. This "ideological becoming" —a continuum—is a "process of selectively assimilating the words of others," a struggle within us for hegemony among various available verbal and ideological points of view,

approaches, directions, and values" (Bakhtin 341, 346). While these discourses continue to "interact or inform one another," the subject is liberated by the ability to freely choose the discourse(s) employed rather than be unconditionally bound to another discourse (Halasek 109).

Under-prepared writers, whose discourse may be viewed as idiosyncratic and unintelligible, could then be valued as writers not only learning to write but as human beings writing to learn, consciously making choices and mixing discourse forms.

According to Bartholomae, a developmental writer lacks choices, options, and control ("The Study of Error" 255). How will a basic writer learn to make choices if never presented with any? As a first-year writing teacher, one of my goals is to help students be critical thinkers, i.e., make choices and ask the right questions (Maimon 116-17). At my institution, where under-prepared writers are mainstreamed with prepared writers, every student and his/her discourse is valued, although some need more guidance in making critical "writerly" choices. We require a one-credit writing workshop to supplement English 101 for inexperienced writers. In any case, the ability to make effective choices simultaneously empowers beginning writers, resists the political and linguistic hegemony of academia, and encourages the emergent self of the writer. To prepare my students to succeed in other disciplines rather than do them a disservice, I further stress the importance of asking the

right questions in each discipline, where they are likely to find that all things are not valued equally and they must make appropriate choices.

Throughout his seminal essay "Discourse in the Novel," Bakhtin characterizes discourses as public and private, external and internal, centripetal and centrifugal (heteroglossia), direct and indirect, literary and everyday, personal and impersonal, authorial and "other," and authoritative and persuasive. The interaction (interanimation) between these diametrically opposed systems creates a dialogic tension-a resistant "internally persuasive" language- that results in multi-layered creative relationships with new contexts and new perspectives ("newer ways to mean") (Bakhtin 314, 345-47). The resulting "languages of heteroglossia," "a unique artistic system of languages," or "*images* of languages," become mirrors that reflect aspects which are "broader, more multi-leveled, containing more and varied horizons than would be available to a single language or a single mirror" (Bakhtin 414-16). Intentional hybrid styles have as their goal "the illumination of one language by means of another, the carving-out of a living image of another language" (Bakhtin 361). This purposeful mixing of languages results in an enriched language with the potential to produce meaningful discourse both creative and intellectual that would otherwise not be possible in the expression of only one language.

Frequently, meaning springs from tension, both in life and in reading and writing. The apprehension basic

writers feel because of their failure to meet the expectations of any, much less all, of their various academic discourse communities should be viewed as an opportunity for discovery. Carol Severino compares the clash between basic writers and academia to "hybrid snack 'nachos' [...] tortilla chips coated with melted, processed American cheese" (5). The chips and the cheese (artificial and not particularly nutritional, like academic discourse) may not seem compatible at first glance, but in fact, when mixed together, their individual flavors are enhanced. I contend that the intentional mixing of discourse forms is similarly unconventional yet appetizing. Severino's notion of commonality and intersection lends itself to the idea of a discourse continuum rather than to a relationship of discourses in opposition.

Furthermore, inexperienced writers would not be evaluated by their proximity to and approximation of a particular discourse.

Taking on a new dialect, such as SAE, is likely to result in more production errors, especially in early drafts, than texts written in home vernacular. For basic writers, particularly, the initial "freedom from failure" may be the catalyst for achieving confidence and control over subsequent texts, with both the writer and the writing being transformed in various ways in the process.

The acceptance of hybrid discourses for accomplishing serious academic work will revolutionize the academy and create new and interesting intellectual possibilities. However, in

order to decrease tension and facilitate the negotiation of students across distinct academic discourse communities, all college teachers should clearly voice their expectations and model the writing conventions valued in their particular disciplines. Since writing teachers are usually the first to meet beginning college students, they need to purposely communicate that reading and writing allow writers to learn more about themselves, their feelings, their ideas, their language use, and their writing process, things they might never discover any other way except through the cognitive and metacognitive reflections of the inner mirror of language use. As they are confronted with (and helped to make) writerly choices and gain control over texts, developmental writers, especially, will achieve confidence and experience success in the college classroom. They will see that they are able to accomplish intellectual work that is valued. My first-year writing classroom includes speakers of SAE, English as a second language, AA VE, regional Georgia dialects, and bilingual speakers. I try to communicate to my students that all of these languages, dialects, and varieties are valued and that we as a writing community are enriched by the linguistic and cultural mixture. One way I do this is to have individual students share their writing within our local discourse community and in published collections on our college website. We also read multicultural texts written in multiple discourse styles and genres, including film, some in home vernacular (from

Making Literature Matter, edited by John Schilb and John Clifford, and supplemental texts). If such hybrid texts are acceptable as models, why must student drafts be transformed? As Bizzell has pointed out, no one speaks SAE ("The Future").

In my writing classroom, we continually point out language differences, we explore the possibilities of language use, and we talk about the importance of language choices. Furthermore, clashes of culture and language are foregrounded as students read texts against each other and against their own experiences. Assigning mixed discourse forms a place on a discourse continuum rather than a value derived from their distance to/ from acceptable/unacceptable positions frees teachers from having to valorize discourses and allows us to appreciate the uniqueness of each as they illuminate our multilingual classroom conversations.

I also stress to my beginning writers that the individuals who belong to each particular discourse community and the languages they use make it unique, not only without but also within the discipline of English, including my own different sections of English 101 and English 102. To succeed in college and at work, students must learn to identify the characteristics and expectations of each discourse community they wish to (or are forced to) join. One of my goals in first-year writing is to have my students "try on" various reading and writing strategies in order to fill their reading and writing toolboxes with tools that might be helpful to

them in the many, sometimes contradictory, discourse communities they will be asked to negotiate both at school and in the workplace.

It might be helpful to revisit Volosinov's bridge metaphor for the utterance as a two-sided act "thrown between myself and another" (qtd. in Halasek 44). Hybrid discourse is best imagined as a bridge (a connection, a continuum) between travelers (conversants) free to travel unrestricted and unlimited in either direction. Both prepared and underprepared college writers should have the freedom to travel this bridge of discourse in either direction. Further, the value of travel in both the literal and metaphorical senses should not be underestimated, as wide experiences broaden not only our cultural but our linguistic horizons as well. From the complex interaction and mixing of discourses, possibilities arise for new ways of thinking, new ways of doing ("creativity"), and enrichment not otherwise possible in a mythical monolithic language. Certainly, experimenting with various mixtures of styles and dialects will better prepare our students to make effective choices in the multiple rhetorical situations in the overlapping discourse communities they will encounter in academia and on the job.

Many scholars have argued for broadening the concept of acceptable academic discourse(s), investigating new forms, and accepting alternatives discourses within the academy (Bizzell, Chase, Bridwell-Bowles, Sledd, Pixton, Eskey, Delpit, Bishop, Helen Fox, Tom Fox, Schroeder).

Bizzell has demonstrated how in recent years academic scholars (Rose, Helen Fox, Gilyard, and Villanueva) have revolutionized their "successful, published academic" discourses by employing

many or all of the traits she has identified as characteristics of "hybrid discourse," such as writing in variant forms of English and using nontraditional shared cultural references and assumptions, personal experience, "offhand refutation," "appropriative history," humor, and indirection ("Hybrid" 16-17). These hybrid discourse forms are mixtures of personal narratives, poetry, prose, and commentary, as well as languages and dialects. The acceptance of alternative discourses and mixed forms has changed the way the academy views and writes

"academic discourse." Bizzell considers well-done, deliberate hybrid discourse to be an enriched discourse that has the capacity for accomplishing reflective, dense, rigorous, serious intellectual work that could not be done in traditional discourse ("Hybrid" 11, 13). As Bartholomae has pointed out, university students must "invent" themselves by appropriating the language of academic discourse communities to earn the right to speak and enter the conversation ("Inventing the University"). As college "outsiders" try on their Bakhtinian masks (identities and languages), they are tested against the changing discourse of academic "insiders." Since these shifting discourses mix along a continuum of academic discourse, both experts and novices

should have the freedom to move simultaneously along the academic discourse continuum instead of being separated as they adapt and mix home and school languages to the intellectual work of the academy.

Of course, just because I say so doesn't make it so. Folks in disciplines outside of English (and some inside of English) do not and will not value mixed discourse forms for intellectual work. We can propose to analyze published texts in other disciplines and make other scholars and teachers aware of their own use of hybrid discourses in their published scholarship (as, for example, at ecce 2001 convention

in Denver, Bizzell, in an address entitled "The Future of College Composition," analyzed an article written in hybrid discourse by Joe Williamson in the *Journal of American History*). We can share how our students are using mixed discourse forms to do intellectual work (and we are accepting them) in our classes. Perhaps this can develop from a formal discussion or from a casual conversation with a colleague commenting on the grammar, spelling, and punctuation inadequacies

of their students and our responsibility as English teachers to "fix" them. We can provide models of teacher response based on the pleasure of responding to the content of student writing for colleagues who choose to value form over content. We can talk about our students as individuals and as interesting people who, through hybrid discourses, allow us glimpses into their true selves. We need to start

and/ or continue meaningful dialogues among our colleagues. Discourse theorists and linguists hold similar theories about the goals of discourse and speaker *j* writer roles and oral versus written language (Summerfield, Britton, Horowitz and Samuels, Tannen, Lakoff); however, Brandt, Horowitz and Samuels, Tannen, and Lakoff have worked to dispel the dichotomy between oral and written ("literate") languages. Tannen, for example, refers to the "oral-literate continuum." From a linguistic perspective, an "interlanguage" resembles a hybrid discourse. Whether the "middle ground" between students' language and academic discourse is viewed as transitional or not (Kutz 393), this dynamic, overlapping, and ever-shifting interlanguage lies along a continuum between home and school languages. Harris describes how teachers might build on the "'overlap' ['polyglot'] between the students' 'common' discourses and the 'academic' ones of their teachers" to encourage a "polyphony" ("an awareness of and pleasure in the various competing discourses that make up their own") (17, 20) . When viewed along a continuum in which characteristics of oral and written-home and school-languages are mixed, a place will be opened up for hybrid discourses that serve both writer and reader.

Judging hybrid discourse by the dual measuring sticks of "traditional" and "nontraditional" academic discourse-theoretically, culturally, or linguistically-will always render it "other" - "substandard,"

"abnormal," "deviant," "a violation," or "unacceptable." Hybrid discourse will forever be devalued as impoverished (Kells uses the term "linguistic shame" due to "dialect misconceptions"), even as academic discourse has and will continue to change (Kells 137). On the contrary, the rich, varied, and unique textures of discourse are to be found somewhere in-between, in the mixing of the traditional and the innovative, the personal and the impersonal; discourses that fall at both ends of the discourse continuum then become impoverished, for they reflect neither the complexity and multivocality of group nor the individual voice(s) of self. When assessed from a continuum perspective, alternative discourses are valued and not dismissed as aberrations. Hybrid discourse is the language of possibility not restriction. This is good news for basic writers, who bring valuable linguistic resources and personal experiences with them to college, which must be acknowledged rather than discounted. Inviting under-prepared writers to cross the bridge of hybrid discourse, thereby entering the conversation of the university, will serve to empower them; the alternative is to silence them by continuing to measure their discourse by its distance from a pre-determined (yet undefined and unstable) point (academic discourse). Bizzell coined the term "hybrid discourse" by borrowing the word "hybrid" from postcolonial theory because it upsets the dichotomy between academic discourse and students' home discourses and implies that discursive

and cultural boundaries are blurred ("Basic Writing"). However, cultural and postcolonial scholars have negative associations with "hybridity," a term linked for them to the context of colonial subject. For example, Deepika Bahri and Mary Vasudeva call the hybrid "the exiled, the dislocated, the multi-located" in a "condition of betweenness" sliding between identities (9, 13). Bahri and Vasudeva assert that postcolonial theorists rely on the "inadequately nuanced binary colonizer *I* colonized" despite their efforts to resist dichotomous constructions that force postcolonialists to write back to Eurocentrism (138-39, 152). They challenge postcolonialists to produce "a discourse free from colonial reminiscing," as the colonizer *I* colonized (us and them) dichotomy because "it casts the 'postcolonial' as passive victim and encourages a culture of blame and self-pity" (Bahri and Vasudeva 145). Furthermore, since postcolonial terms such as "hybridity" tend to refer to metropolitan locations, thereby obscuring those in the Third World, the term becomes essentialist, homogenizing whole groups and reinforcing stereotypical attitudes and failure to genuinely investigate other cultures and voices (Bahri and Vasudeva 142, 154). But Bahri and Vasudeva do not suggest that these terms be abandoned; rather, they admonish us to confront their inherent contradictions and open them up to new readings (152). They charge that "the persistent reading of culturally

'Other' texts for their 'difference' and distance from the dominant culture could foster rather than erase divisions," and they challenge us to "activate the continuum rather than the polarities between binaries" (Bahri and Vasudeva 154, 158).

This call is parallel to my continuum argument for hybrid discourse, which seeks to abandon the oppositional binaries of academic and nonacademic discourses. Rather than reject the term "hybrid discourse," we ought to problematize then embrace it as the discourse of possibility not limitation. When Homi Bhabha refers to the growing number of cultural hybrid communities, he speaks of oppression, assimilation, and resistance, the "defined" and the "not defined." Hybridity is an in-between reality, a halfway point of non-definition (neither one or other) (Bhabha

6-14). In this "hybrid gap," where the colonial subject takes place and its subaltern position is ascribed, there is no relief, only anxiety and anguish associated with "vacillating boundaries" drawn with "subversive political lines" (Bhabha 58-59). This discriminatory "ambivalent space," signifying the displacement of value, is inhabited by "other," the hybrid split of the self (Bhabha 112-14). Bhabha contends

that the bearers of a hybrid identity are caught in discontinuous time; however, he challenges us to explore the "Third Space," the in-between space that carries the burden of the meaning of culture, a space of translation free from "the politics of polarity" where the others of our

selves may emerge (38-39). Bhabha thinks of this space as a passage, borrowing from Benjamin's idea that "the important thing about translation is to focus on the continuum of transformation" (Olson 14-15).

This passage implies movement on three levels: spatially, as in opening up a space; as in a rite of passage (transition); and as an inscription (holding the moment of transition) (Olson 14). For Bhabha, hybridization is "the process of negotiation," a move away from the notion of the subject of recognition toward the subject of enunciation" in which one is both subject and object at once (living in "double-time") (Olson 18-19, 23, 31). By opening up a physical space for hybrid discourse in college classrooms, beginning writers, especially, will be helped to negotiate through their passages from outsider to insider and make their unique marks on the ensuing conversations along the journey.

However, this "cross-boundary process" is fraught with tension (Olson 20, 25). Although Bhabha labels hybridity as a "zone of nowhere-ness," as Bizzell has pointed out, this zone is a very real place, a "contact zone" defined by Mary Louise Pratt as a "social space where cultures meet, clash, and grapple with each other, often in contexts of highly asymmetrical relations of power, such as colonialism, slavery, or their aftermaths as they lived out in many parts of the world today"

(Pratt qtd in Bizzell, "Basic Writing" 10). This space is not free of conflict, as "border~crossing can be dangerous and potentially fatal" (Bahri 39). As a

discourse with the potential to discover, negotiate, and revise hybrid identity, I believe the language of the hybrid Third Spacea shifting continuum of cultural and linguistic (and ethnic) mixing, meaning, value, and possibility- is hybrid discourse.

Scholars in cultural and postcolonial studies (Anzuldua, Spivak, Mohanty, Bhabha) have called "hybrid" people-people (in the words of Jacqueline Jones Royster)

who either have the capacity by right of history and development, or who might have created the capacity by right of history and development, to move with dexterity across cultural boundaries, to make themselves comfortable, and to make sense amid the chaos of difference.

(37) While this hybridization process allows for survival, Royster contends that it also breeds the emergence of genius. The fusion of cultural and linguistic (and ethnic) boundaries, like hybrid discourse, "allows for the development of a peculiar expertise that extends one's range of

abilities well beyond ordinary limits, and it supports the opportunity for the development of new and remarkable creative expression" (Royster 37). Just as the agronomist chooses the best traits to yield a unique and better breed, hybrid discourse mixes the best of academic and nonacademic characteristics. Further, if our interpersonal and cross-cultural goals are to exchange perspectives, negotiate meaning, and create understanding, hybrid discourse is the perfect language for

our conversation of cooperation and collaboration. Hybrid discourse may

be the vehicle to achieve these same goals in college classrooms.

Gloria Anzaldua creates an evocative hybrid voice in her writing. In *Borderlands/La Frontera*, she refers to herself as a "hybrid progeny," a mixture of races. However, "rather than resulting in an inferior being, [...][this racial mixture] provides a mutable, more malleable species with a rich gene pool" (Anzaldua 77). Although there may be a " *choque* (cultural collision) between cultures, the new *mestiza* can emerge with *Ia conciencia* (a new consciousness) [Freire's conscientizaao?], a breaking down of the" subject-object duality" that keeps her a prisoner (Anzaldua 80). Anzaldua illustrates how by true faces we will be known:

I am visible- see this Indian face- yet I am invisible. I both blind them with my beak nose and am their blind spot. But I exist, we exist. They'd like to think I have melted in the pot.

But I haven't, we haven't. (Anzaldua 108)

Anzaldua views her self, her culture, and her language along a continuum of mixed changing images ("hybridized metaphors") rather than as fixed points of heritage. From the resulting tension created by this rich, continual mixing and ambiguity of the private and the public, new but true identities are released.

In the Preface to *Borderlands*, Anzaldua explains how the codeswitching between Spanish and English languages (and dialects) she writes in results in the cross-pollination and revitalization of the languages. This new way of speaking

illuminates her feelings and ideas in a way not possible in only one language. A reflection of her hybrid self, she describes her writing ("a creative act") as a "mosaic," "montage," "weaving," "hybridization," "beaded work," "assemblage," "crazy dance" (Anzaldua 66, 73). Clearly, Anzaldua's distinctive fusion of language, self, and meaning could only have been achieved through her unique hybrid discourse. In fact, she claims that living in a Borderland state "is what makes poets write and artists create" (Anzaldua 95). Anzaldua is the "new Mestiza," a successful inhabitant of the Third Space, "the borderland space that is home to her multiple identities and voices" (Lunsford 44). Anzaldua explains how, through the cracks between two worlds, borderland residents have access to other worlds" (Anzaldua 237). It is in this space that she finds her "non-binary identity," an identity always in process (Bakhtin's "ideological becoming"), a fusion of self and other (the peripheral 'I's within a person, the personal 'I's, and the collective 'we' of her ethnic community) (Lunsford 44, 47). Anzaldua feels the ambivalence, perplexity, strife, insecurity, indecisiveness, and restlessness of the border struggle:

Because I, a *mestiza*,
continually walk out of one culture
and into another,
because I am in all cultures at the
same time,
alma entre dos mundos, tres, cuatro,

me zumba la cabeza con lo contradictorio.

Estoy norteada por todas las voces que me hablan simultáneamente.

(Anzaldua 99-100)

(A soul between two worlds, three, four, my head is buzzing with the contradictions. I am steered to the north by all the voices that talk to me simultaneously) [my translation] In a continuation of *Borderlands*, Anzaldua refers to the "Nepantla," a "Nahuatl word for the space between two bodies of water, the space between two worlds" (Anzaldua 237). She describes this limited space as "a space where you are not this or that but where you are changing. You haven't got into the new identity yet and haven't left the old identity behind either-you are in a kind of transition," which is "very awkward, uncomfortable and frustrating ... because you are in the midst of transformation" (Anzaldua 237). Anzaldua uses the Spanish pronoun for "we" (women), "*nosotras*," to disrupt binary oppositions and to illustrate that for her, there is no such thing as "other." "Us" ("*nos*") and "them" ("*otras*") are interchangeable, for "[t]he other is in you, the other is in me" (Lunsford 52). From within this Third Space, Anzaldua's language-a reflection of her blurred identities- has emerged. For her, language and identity are inseparable; she says, "I am my language" (Lunsford 45). Nepantla is not only a place where identities get created but where "reality gets constructed" and "knowledge gets produced," a concept that is "articulated as a process of writing" (Anzaldua 237). This hybrid

language of possibility results in" new and remarkable creative expression," to use Royster's words, a rich mixture of genres"-a "Mestiza Rhetoric" (Lunsford 45).

Should we deny our students the same remarkable possibilities of being, creating, and doing through their writing?

In my earlier work, I have demonstrated how a beginning college student successfully used hybrid discourse (as defined by Bizzell) to negotiate various academic discourse communities English, Speech, Broadcasting, Radio-TV across the curriculum and how he was unsuccessful in those communities that did not accept his unique, creative discourse, such as History (Hebb). I analyzed the writing of Jeremy, a student of mine in English 101 at Texas A&M University-Commerce, across several disciplines over a period of two years (and have his permission to cite his work). Jeremy's Essay #6 for English 101, "Voice-The Ambrosia of Language," is a response to the question "How is language a form of resistance and/ or power? The writing assignment required at least five total citations from the essays "From Outside, In" by Barbara Mellix and "From Silence to Words: Writing as Struggle" by Min-Zhan Lu and the film *O/eanna*. Excerpts from the beginning and end of this essay, written in hybrid discourse, effectively illustrate the importance of language for empowering (or silencing) personal voice (and the identity of the writer):

Everyone must have their say in this and that these days. Got to argue the belief of oneself ... right. So how can someone get the attention of another to be heard? Beep ... What is a voice Alex? That is correct. a voice is power and can be used in the speaking or the writing sense. It's the key to take an opponent and rip out their beating heart and shove it in their face verbally. The battle of the voices is an ugly one. I had an experience in one of these with a high school junior English teacher who we will name "Mrs. I only like a select few." [...] [...]

So now I leave you with this fact that the voice is very powerful, creative, and can be silenced by the outside foes. So be on your toes wizards and warriors. Keep fighting for the forces of good and protect your vocal cords and scrolls for the War of Language is never over ... (Drake Essay #6; bracketed ellipses indicate omissions, while others occurred in the student's original)

In this essay, Jeremy clearly demonstrates how his hybrid mix of home and school languages enriches his discourse and advances his argument.

His nontraditional cultural references, comparing language use to an intellectual contest (like the game show "Jeopardy") and to physical combat and a joust (offhand refutation), as well as his colloquial language and humor, add new, insightful, colorful perspectives on the hegemony of academia. Furthermore,

reading his personal experience against the experiences of Mellix, Lu, and Carol in *O/eanna* illuminates his forceful, resistant voice and reinforces his argument for the power of language in a way that would not have been possible in entirely traditional academic discourse. We ought to validate the sometimes marginal spaces inhabited by hybrid discourse writers such as Jeremy and invite them to enter into and illuminate the intellectual conversations in institutions of higher learning rather than dismiss them as irrelevant.

Along the continuum, there are spaces for experts and novices alike to mutually enrich one another's discourse.

The term "hybrid discourse" has a rich, complex, and multi-layered history and context. Whether viewed through the lenses of compositionists, rhetoricians, discourse theorists, linguists, or postcolonialists, hybrid discourse is the discourse of possibility not limitation.

Language and identity are inseparable. In some sense, we are all linguistic and cultural hybrids, continually revised and constructed by many voices, both collective and individual. We should acknowledge and revel in the polyphony that shapes us. As long as we are careful to equate all discourses along the discourse continuum with heteroglossia, the term "hybrid discourse" will be valid. By abandoning a dualist perspective and perceiving mixed discourse(s) along a continuum of conversation, we could value hybrid languages and the people who speak them. These are goals shared by those who study and

teach both language and culture. This theoretical and pedagogical move would help to bridge gaps between languages, people, ideologies, and experiences both within and without the academy. Think of the possibilities!

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2. State the type of scientific paper it is.

3. Find the following words and word-combinations in the text, write out the sentences they are used in and give your explanation to each of them.

pedagogical admonition

offhand refutation

idiosyncratic

showcase

vernacular

contention

problematize

empower

writer-centred discourse

seminal

revolutionize

discourse continuum

dispel the dichotomy

codeswitching

hybrid progeny

4. State whether the following statements are true (T) or false (F) based on the article.

1. The author thinks that the term "hybrid discourse" is rather negative. _____

2. The term "hybrid" was firstly used by Bakhtin. _____

3. In the author's opinion it is important to teach students make language choices.

4. The idea of the author is that students should use correct language in the writing projects. _____
5. Hybrid language is a mix of academic, non-academic and fiction languages. _____
6. All scholars agree on what concerns the need for broadening the concept of acceptable academic writing. _____

5. Answer the following questions.

1. What was the conception of Bakhtin in regard to “hybrid construction”?
2. What is the idea of comparison of “hybrid discourse” with cheese, chips, etc.?
3. How does the author make use of the heterogeneity of students’ group in writing classroom?
4. What is the point of comparing “hybrid discourse” with travelling?
5. How can students “invent” themselves?
6. What is interlanguage, in the author’s opinion?

6. Write a summary of the article (about 500-600 words).

APPENDIX 1

Talking about points of view

1 objective	not influenced by personal beliefs or attitudes, based only on facts;
2 subjectively	influenced by personal beliefs or attitudes;
3 impartial	uninfluenced by personal beliefs or attitudes
4 biased in favour of	showing an unreasonable linking for something based on personal beliefs or opinions; opposite = biased against;
5 prejudiced against	showing an unreasonable dislike for, based on personal beliefs or opinions (stronger and more pejorative than <i>biased</i>); opposite = prejudiced in favour of;
6 rational	based only on reason; opposite = irrational.
7 to hold views	to have opinion
8 to adopt a stance	to take a position
9 to change/shift your position	to change a point of view
10 the principle underlying	basic idea lying behind
12 to encounter prejudice	to experience unreasonable negative behavior
13 deep-rooted prejudice	strong, unreasonably negative view
14 have ethical objections to	dislike for reasons related to morality

Presenting an Argument

1 the pros and cons	(slightly informal) advantages and disadvantages;
2. in the sense that	used to explain precisely what has just been said;
3 albeit	(formal) although;
4 that's all very well, but	(informal, typical of spoken contexts) indicates a partial agreement, followed by a disagreement;
5 Having said that	(typical of spoken contexts) said when you wish to add a point which contrasts with what has just been said;
6 and so on/ and so forth	(typical of spoken contexts) can be used separately or together (<i>and so on and so forth</i>); can also be <i>et cetera</i> (more common in writing – etc.)
7 Nevertheless/Nonetheless	however; nevertheless is more frequent in academic style than nonetheless.

Making a Presentation

1 feel free to	an informal way of giving permission; less formal than <i>allow</i> ;
2 handout going round	a more formal version would be which is <i>being distributed</i> ;
3 spare	extra;
4 I did	more formal, <i>carried out/conducted</i> .
5 turn to	being to examine or talk about;
6 moving on	going on to the next point;
7 in more detail	less formal than <i>in great detail</i> ;

8 come back to	or, more formal, <i>return to</i> ;
9 go back to	or, more formal, <i>return to</i> ;
10 Anyway, getting back to/ to return to	<i>getting back to</i> is less formal than <i>to return to</i> ;
11 Having said that	a less formal way of saying <i>nevertheless</i> ;
12 skip	<i>skip</i> (informal) = leave out/omit;
13 run out of time	have no time left;
14 take questions	rather formal = accept and answer questions.

Describing Research Methods

1 pilot study	preliminary study;
2 a device	an object or method used for a special purpose;
3 apparatus	equipment for a lab experiment.
4 manipulates	makes changes to;
5 artificial	not natural;
5 replicate	do in exactly the same way;
6 disprove	show something is not true;
7 phenomenon	something that exists and can be seen, felt, tasted, etc.;
8 interfering with	altering;
9 disrupting	making it change;
10 makes inferences from	comes to conclusions on the basis of;
11 in-depth	detailed;
12 be representative	typical.

Classifying

1 categories	a group that shares some significant characteristics;
2 component	a part which combines with other parts to create something bigger;
3 existence	the fact that something or someone is or exists;
4 a feature	typical part or quality;
5 hierarchy	system in which people or things are arranged according to their importance or power;
6 nature	type or main characteristic of something;
7 structure	the way in which the parts of a system are arranged;
8 type	group with similar characteristics, a smaller division of a larger set.
9 devised	thought of, invented;
10 belongs to	is part of;
11 consists of	includes, is made up of
12 distinct from	significantly different from
13 allocate	place (also assign)
14 gender	sex, male or female;
15 ethnic background	racial background;
16 urban-rural	city versus countryside;
17 dimension	aspect, way of considering something;
18 denotes	means;
19 employment	paid work;
20 subsumed	included as part of a larger group;

21 heading	title something up a group.
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Making Connections

1 complemented	useful;
2 reveal links	show connections not seen before;
3 piece together	try to discover the truth about something by collecting different pieces of information and considering them at the same time;
4 correlate with	are connected, with often in a way in which one of them influences the other;
5 synonyms with	the two are so closely connected that one suggests the other;
6 referred to	related to;
7 associated with	connected in people's minds;
8 suggest	show an idea without stating it directly or giving proof;
9 relative to	if something is relative to something else, it varies according to the speed or level of the other thing;
10 mutual	influencing each other;
11 bond	close connection;
12 reverse	opposite;
13 in that	used before giving an explanation for something;
14 interaction	communication with or reaction to;
15 interrelated	connected in such a way that each thing has an effect on or depends on

16 interplay	other; the effect two or more things have on each other.
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Describing Problems

1 the problem arose	<i>question/issue/difficulty/controversy</i>
2 controversy	also often combine with <i>arise</i> ;
3 contradiction in terms	a lot of disagreement or argument about something;
4 errors are apparent	a combination of words which is nonsense because some of the words suggest the opposite;
5 poses a challenge	can be seen;
6 raises the issue of	<i>threat/problem/danger</i> also are often used with <i>pose</i> ; the verb <i>present</i> can also be used with these nouns;
7 contain inconsistencies	<i>question/problem</i> also are often used with <i>raise</i> ;
8 revealed short	if a person, idea, opinion, etc. has inconsistencies, different parts of it do not agree;
	faults or a failure to reach a particular standard.

Processes and Procedures

1 procedure	carefully controlled set of actions;
2 application	using it for a practical;
3 simulation	a model of a problem or course of

4 utilize	events; (formal) use something in an effective way;
5 unify	bring together/combine;
6 supplement	add something to something to make it larger or better;
7 verify	make certain that they are correct
8 emergence of	process of appearing or starting to exist;
9 consumption	process of using fuel, energy, food, etc.
10 ratification of	process of making an agreement official;
11 security of	(formal) process of getting something;
12 advent of	arrival of an invention (the noun has no verb form).
13 automate	make a process be operated by machines or computers, instead of by humans;
14 display	arrange something or a collection of things so that they can be seen;
15 export	copy a large amount of it either to a different part of the computer's storage space or to another form of storage;
16 input	put them into the computer's system;
17 insert	add;
18 output	results produced by the programme.

Describing Change

1 translation from	change from one form to another;
2 status quo	the situation as it was at that time;
3 abandoned	left for ever;
4 shift away	change in position or direction;
5 to adapt	change to suit different conditions;
6 adjust	become more familiar with a new situation;
7 move towards	action taken to achieve something;
8 fundamental	in a very basic way;
9 maintaining	not allowing them to change;
10 increasingly	more and more;
11 emanation	removal;
12 transformed	changed completely so that they are better;
13 expansion of	increase in size or extent;
14 enhanced	improved the quality of;
15 impact	powerful effect that something, especially something new, has on a situation;
16 altered	changed (usually slightly);
17 sustainable	causing little or no damage to the environment and therefore able to continue for a long time

Evaluation and Emphasis

1 comprehensive	complete, including everything that is necessary;
2 fundamental	basic, from which everything else

3 a ground-breaking	originates;
4 misguided	very new and a big change;
	based on bad judgment or on wrong information.
5 notable	important and deserving attention;
6 given credit to	stated the importance of;
7 validity	basis in truth or reason;
8 compatible	able to exist successfully together;
9 solid	of a good standart; giving confidence or support;
10 hard	clear, able to be proven.
11 borne out by	confirmed, shown to be true;
12 seminal	containing important new ideas, very influential;
13 challenges	questions whether they are
14 flaws	correct; faults, mistakes or weakness;
	we can say a method is <i>flawed</i>

Summary and Conclusion

1 to recapitulate;	a less formal alternative is the short form <i>to recap</i>
2 In summary	(more formal) can also be <i>in sum</i> ;
3 in short	used before describing something in as few words and as directly as possible;
4 to a close	<i>or bring to an end</i> <i>or summarise the key points</i>

APPENDIX 2

Rules of preparing a list of references according to APA style

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алфавіту латиницею»
від 27 січня 2010 р.)**

№	Українські літери	Латинські літери	Нотатки	Приклад застосування
1	А	A		Алушта— Alushta
2.	Б	B		Борщагівка— Borschahivka
3.	В	V		Вишгород — Vyshhorod
4.	Г	H, hg	Н – у більшості випадків, hg – щоб передати сполучення -зг-	Гадяч — Hadiach, Згорани — Zhgorany
5.	Ґ	G		Ґалаґан — Galagan
6.	Д	D		Дубно— Dubno
7.	Е	E		Рівне— Rivne
8.	Є	Ye, ie	Ye – на початку слова, ie – на іншому місці	Євпаторія— Yevpatoriia, Наєнко — Naienko
9.	Ж	Zh		Житомир — Zhytomyr
10.	З	Z		Запоріжжя — Zaporizhzhia
11.	И	Y		Мирний — Myrnyi
12.	І	I		Іршава— Irshava
13.	Ї	Yi, i	Yi – на початку слова, i – на іншому місці	Їжакевич— Yizhakevych, Кадіївка— Kadiivka
14.	Й	Y, i	Y – на початку слова, i – на іншому місці	Йосипівка — Yosypivka, Стрий — Stryi
15.	К	K		Київ— Kyiv, Коктебель — Koktebel
16.	Л	L		Лебедин — Lebedyn
17.	М	M		Миколаїв— Mykolaiv
18.	Н	N		Ніжин — Nizhyn
19.	О	O		Одеса— Odesa

20.	П	P		Полтава— Poltava
21.	Р	R		Ромни — Romny
22.	С	S		Суми — Sumy
23.	Т	T		Тетерів— Teteriv
24.	У	U		Ужгород — Uzhhorod
25.	Ф	F		Фастів— Fastiv
26.	Х	Kh		Хуст — Khust
27.	Ц	Ts		Біла Церква— Bila Tserkva
28.	Ч	Ch		Чернівці — Chernivtsi
29.	Ш	Sh		Шостка— Shostka
30.	Щ	Shch		Гоща— Hoshcha
31.	Ю	Yu, iu	Yu – на початку слова, iu – на іншому місці	Юрій — Yurii, Крюківка— Kriukivka
32.	Я	Ya, ia	Ya – на початку слова, ia – на іншому місці	Яготин — Yahotyń Ічня— Ichnia

М'який знак і апостроф латиницею не відтворюються. Транслітерація прізвищ та імен осіб і географічних назв здійснюється шляхом відтворення кожної літери латиницею.

**Написання обов'язкових елементів оформлення списку літератури
англійською мовою**

Тези доповідей	Abstracts of Papers
Матеріали (праці) конференції	Proceedings of the Conference Title
Матеріали 3 міжнар. конференції симпозіуму, з'їзду, семінару)	Proceedings of the 3rd International Conference (Symposium, Congress, Seminar)
Матеріали II Всеукраїнської конференції	Proceedings of the 2nd All-Ukrainian Conference
Матеріали V Всеукраїнської науково-практичної конференції	Proceedings of the 5th All-Ukrainian Scientific and Practical Conference

Дис. ... канд. наук	Candidate's thesis
Дис. ... д-ра наук	Doctor's thesis
Автореф. дис. ... канд. наук	Extended abstract of candidate's thesis
Автореф. дис. ... д-ра наук	Extended abstract of Doctor's thesis

Написання загальноприйнятих скорочень слів англійською мовою

Вип.	issue
Стаття = Ст.	article
У книзі: = В кн.:	in
Том = Т.	Vol.
Серія = Сер.	ser.
Частина = Ч.	part
Гл.	ch.
та ін.	et al.
Без року публікації = б.г.	No date = n.d.
Без місця публікації = Б.м.	N.p.
Спец. випуск (розділ)	special issue (section)

APPENDIX 3

Rules of preparing a list of references according to Harvard style

BOOKS, BOOK CHAPTERS AND BROCHURES

SINGLE AUTHOR

Reference list	Andreasen, NC 2001, <i>Brave new brain: conquering mental illness in the era of the genome</i> , Oxford University Press, Oxford.
In-text citation	Andreasen (2001) stated that... or It is suggested that... (Andreasen 2001).

TWO OR THREE AUTHORS

Reference list	Schneider, Z, Whitehead, D & Elliott, D 2007, <i>Nursing and midwifery research: methods and appraisal for evidence-based practice</i> , 3rd edn, Elsevier Australia, Marrickville, NSW. <i>Note: Within each entry author names should be listed in the order in which they appear on the source or as displayed on the title page</i>
In-text citation	Schneider, Whitehead and Elliot (2007) showed that or ...is demonstrated (Schneider, Whitehead & Elliot 2007).

FOUR TO SIX AUTHORS

Reference list	Belenky, M, Clinchy, B, Goldberger, N & Tarule, J 1986, <i>Women's ways of knowing</i> , Basic, New York.
In-text citation	Belenky et al. (1986) explains that knowing is... Or ...and therefore knowingness can be ... (Belenky et al. 1986). <i>Note: When citing more than three authors in text, give the name of the first author and abbreviate the others to et al. (meaning: "and others").</i>

SEVEN OR MORE AUTHORS

Reference list	Davis, M, Charles, L, Curry, MJ, Shanti, P, Prasad, S, Hewings, A et al. 2003, <i>Challenging spatial norms</i> , Routledge, London. <i>Note: If a book has more than six authors, give the first six authors and abbreviate the remaining authors to et al. (meaning: "and others").</i>
In-text citation	Davis et al. (2003) found..... or This has indicated... (Davis et al. 2003). <i>Note: When citing more than six authors in-text, give the name of the first author and abbreviate the others to et al. (meaning: "and others").</i>

NO AUTHOR (INCL. DICTIONARY OR ENCYCLOPAEDIA)

Reference list	<i>Guide to agricultural meteorological practices</i> 1981, 2nd edn, Secretariat of the World Meteorological Organization, Geneva. <i>Note: When referencing an entry from a dictionary or an encyclopaedia with no author there is no requirement to include the source in the reference list. In these cases, only cite the title and year of the source in-text. For an authored dictionary/encyclopedia, treat the source as an authored book.</i>
In-text citation	<i>Guide to agricultural meteorological practices</i> (1981) provides... or This can be shown by...(<i>Guide to agricultural meteorological practices</i> 1981).

CORPORATE AUTHOR / AUTHORIZING BODY

Reference list	Institute of Chartered Accountants in Australia 2004, <i>AASB standards for 2005: equivalents to IFRSs as at August 2004</i>, Person Education, Sydney, Australia.
In-text citation	According to the Institute of Chartered Accountants in Australia (2004) figures for 2004... This can be seen... (Institute of Chartered Accountants in Australia 2004). <i>Note: Abbreviate long names after providing in full on first occurrence.</i>

EDITED BOOK

Reference list	Craven, I (ed.) 2001, <i>Australian cinema in the 1990s</i>, Frank Cass, London.
In-text citation	Craven (ed. 2001) discussed the successful... or The film starred actors...(ed. Craven 2001). <i>Note: The abbreviation for two or more editors = (eds)</i>

CHAPTER OR ARTICLE IN BOOK

Reference list	Knowles, MS 1986, 'Independent study', in <i>Using learning contracts</i>, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, pp. 89-96. <i>Note: You do not need to specify the chapter names from a book that is written in its entirety by the same authors, however if you wish to emphasise the use of one chapter it would be given in the above format. Please note that page numbers are not mandatory, however providing these can assist your reader to locate the source.</i>
In-text citation	Knowles (1986) demonstrated that... or This independent study showed...(Knowles 1986)

CHAPTER OR ARTICLE IN AN EDITED BOOK

Reference list	Ferres, K 2001, 'Idiot box: television, urban myths and ethical scenarios', in I Craven (ed.), <i>Australian cinema in the 1990s</i> , Frank Cass, London, pp. 175-88.
In-text citation	Ferres (2001) discussed the television episode... or The television episode...(Ferres 2001).

E-BOOK

Reference list	Storey, KB 2004, <i>Functional metabolism: regulation and adaptation</i> , John Wiley & Sons, Hoboken, NJ, viewed 4 April 2009, NetLibrary database. <i>Note: If an e-book is publicly accessible via the Internet, include the URL instead of database name. e.g. viewed 4 April 2009, <http://www...></i> <i>If the e-book is edited, include editor information as in the 'Edited book' example.</i>
In-text citation	Storey (2004) stated that... or Functional metabolism is... (Storey 2004)

JOURNAL ARTICLES, NEWSPAPER ARTICLES AND CONFERENCE PAPERS

The format for more than one author is the same for all sources including journal articles, therefore, refer to the examples for books in this guide.

JOURNAL ARTICLE (PRINT VERSION)

Reference list	Younger, P 2004, 'Using the internet to conduct a literature search', <i>Nursing Standard</i> , vol. 19, no. 6, pp. 45-51.
In-text citation	Younger (2004, p. 46) stated that the ... or The internet can be used to conduct a literature search (Younger 2004) For instructions on multiple authors see page 5.

JOURNAL ARTICLE (FULL-TEXT FROM ELECTRONIC DATABASE)

Reference list	Jackson, D, Firtko, A & Edenborough, M 2007, 'Personal resilience as a strategy for surviving and thriving in the face of workplace adversity: a literature review', <i>Journal of Advanced Nursing</i> , vol. 60, no. 1, pp. 1-9, viewed 2 April 2009, Academic Search Complete database, EBSCOHost, DOI 10.1111/j.1365-2648.2007.04412.x. <i>Note: DOI = Digital Object Identifier. If a DOI number is available for the journal article it can be included in the reference.</i>
In-text citation	Jackson, Firtko and Edenborough (2007) found that... or ...was therefore conclusive (Jackson, Firtko & Edenborough 2007).

NEWSPAPER ARTICLE (AVAILABLE IN PRINT)

Reference list	Berkovic, N 2009, 'Handouts may not be sent: tax office seeks quick resolution of High Court challenge', <i>The Australian</i> , 31 March, p. 5. <i>Note: If authorship is unknown a reference list entry is not required, however more detail is required for the in-text citation e.g. (Sydney Morning Herald 18 January 2009, p. 5)</i> <i>When citing a newspaper title frequently it can be abbreviated e.g. SMH</i>
In-text citation	Berkovic (2009) explained that handouts.... or It was suggested that handouts may not be sent (Berkovic 2009).

NEWSPAPER ARTICLE (FROM ELECTRONIC DATABASE)

Reference list	Wentworth, WC 1984, 'Why we need a permanent base on the moon', <i>Sydney Morning Herald</i> , 24 January, p. 11, viewed 3 April 2009, Sydney Morning Herald Archives database.
In-text citation	Wentworth (1984) stated that... orand this demonstrates the need for a permanent base (Wentworth 1984).

ARTICLE (FROM THE INTERNET, NOT AVAILABLE IN PRINT VERSION)

Reference list	Cooper, D 2009, 'Native ant may stop toad in its tracks', <i>ABC Science</i> , 31 March, viewed 2 April 2009, < http://www.abc.net.au/science/articles/2009/03/31/2530686.htm?site=science&topic=latest >.
In-text citation	Cooper (2009) stated that a ferocious ant... or ...that meat ants may be able to help control toad numbers (Cooper 2009).

NON-ENGLISH JOURNAL ARTICLE TRANSLATED INTO ENGLISH

Reference list	Von Der Luhe, I 1982, 'I without guarantees: Ingeborg Bachmann's Frankfurt lectures on poetics', trans. MT Kraus, <i>New German Critique</i> , vol. 8, no. 27, pp. 31-56.
In-text citation	Von Der Luhe (1982) concludes that both states are essential or ...that both states are essential (Von Der Luhe 1982).

PROCEEDINGS OF MEETINGS AND SYMPOSIUMS, CONFERENCE PAPERS

Reference list	Chang, SS, Liaw, L, & Ruppenhofer, J (eds) 2000, <i>Proceedings of the twenty-fifth annual meeting of the Berkeley Linguistics Society, February 12-15, 1999: general session and parasession on loan word phenomena</i> . Berkeley Linguistics Soc., Berkeley.
In-text citation	Chang, Liaw and Ruppenhofer (eds 2000) stated that... or It has been found that...(eds Chang, Liaw & Ruppenhofer 2000)

CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS (FROM ELECTRONIC DATABASE)

Reference list	Bukowski, RM 2009, 'Prognostic factors for survival in metastatic renal cell carcinoma: update 2008', Innovations and challenges in renal cancer: proceedings of the third Cambridge conference, <i>Cancer</i> , vol. 115, no. 10, p. 2273, viewed 19 May 2009, Academic OneFile database.
In-text citation	Bukowski (2009) stated that... or It has been found that...(Bukowski 2009)

SYSTEMATIC REVIEWS

Reference list	Osborn, DA, & Sinn, JKH 2006, 'Soy formula for prevention of allergy and food intolerance in infants', <i>Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews</i> , no. 4, art. no.: CD003741, viewed 19 May 2009, Cochrane Library database, DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD003741.pub4.
In-text citation	Osborne and Sinn (2006) stated that... or It has been found that...(Osborne & Sinn 2006).

OTHER MATERIALS

ACTS OF PARLIAMENT (INCLUDES BILLS)

Reference list	<i>Note: Acts of Parliament do not need to be added to the reference list unless there are details in the reference which are important to the understanding of your essay. Acts of Parliament should be listed separately under the heading 'Legislation'.</i> <i>Corporations Act 2001</i> (Commonwealth of Australia) s. 3, viewed 19 May 2009, <http://www.comlaw.gov.au/ComLaw/Legislation/ActCompilation1.nsf/framelodgmentattachments/32EF0670948528A2CA25756D007AA287>.
In-text citation	<i>Section 3 of the Corporations Act 2001</i> (Cwlth) states that... or Corporations must... (<i>Corporations Act 2001</i> (Cwlth), s.3) <i>Note: Titles of Acts and other legislation should be cited exactly as they appear, and punctuation should not be altered to suit the referencing style. After the first citation, the date can be omitted from the citation.</i>

BROCHURE

Reference list	Western Sydney University 2016, <i>Transport access guide: Penrith Campus</i> , WSU, Penrith, NSW.
In-text citation	Buses run on a schedule...(Western Sydney University 2016) or The Western Sydney University (2016) <i>Transport access guide: Penrith Campus</i> shows that...

GOVERNMENT REPORT

Reference list	National Commission of Audit 1996, <i>Report to the Commonwealth Government</i> , Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra.
In-text citation	The National Commission of Audit (1996) reported that... or ...was shown in the report (National Commission of Audit 1996).

GOVERNMENT REPORT (ONLINE)

Reference list	Department of Health and Ageing 2008, <i>Ageing and aged care in Australia</i> , viewed 10 November 2008, < http://www.health.gov.au/internet/main/publishing.nsf/Content/ageing >.
In-text citation	The Department of Health and Ageing (2008) reported that... or ...was shown in the report (Department of Health and Ageing 2008).

IMAGE ON THE INTERNET

Reference list	<i>An offering to the ocean in La Punta, Peru</i> 2009, image, Sydney Morning Herald, 19 May, viewed 25 May 2009, < http://www.smh.com.au/snapshots/ >.
In-text citation	In the image (<i>An offering to the ocean in La Punta, Peru</i> 2009) it can be...

LECTURE (UNPUBLISHED) / PERSONAL COMMUNICATION

Reference list	<i>Note: When you cite information spoken about in a lecture or expert that has gone unpublished it is treated as a personal communication and you do not need to provide a reference list entry because there is no recoverable data. All details are provided in the text. Ensure that you have the author's permission to include the citation.</i> <i>It is advisable to use published primary sources rather than lectures as references in your paper.</i>
In-text citation	... found that 'neutrons are dangerous' (H Dwyer [Western Sydney University] 2016, H0379 lecture, 10 January).

LEGAL AUTHORITIES (CASES)

Reference list	<i>Note: A legal case is only included in your references if it is important to the understanding of your essay. Cases should be listed separately under the heading 'Legal authorities'.</i> <i>Jones v. Sherlock</i> (2009) NSWSC 246
In-text citation	The case, <i>Jones v. Sherlock</i> (2009) NSWSC 246, showed that...

MICROFICHE / MICROFILM DOCUMENT

Reference list	Mead, JV 1992, <i>Looking at old photographs: investigating the teacher tales that novice teachers bring with them</i> , microfiche, National Center for Research on Teacher Learning, East Lansing, MI, ED346082, Rep. no. NCRTL-RR-92-4.
In-text citation	Mead (1992) showed that... or ...found by investigating teacher tales (Mead 1992).

PATENT/ TRADEMARK (ELECTRONIC DATABASE)

Reference list	Smith, PS 2002, <i>A pump for use in windmill assembly</i> , application no. 2008230011, 17 October, viewed 15 May 2009, < http://pericles.ipaustralia.gov.au/ols/auspat/applicationDetails.do?applicationNo=2008230011 >. <i>Note: Complete URLs should be given for publicly accessible databases; for databases requiring login, use database name.</i> <i>For patents or trademarks not retrieved from an electronic database, replace electronic database information with publisher information statements.</i>
In-text citation	Smith (2002) holds a patent for a windmill pump... or The patent for a windmill pump which... (Smith 2002).

PODCAST (FROM THE INTERNET)

Reference list	Atkin, M (Reporter) 2008, Bermagui forest disputed turf, <i>The Hack Half Hour</i> , 13 November, podcast, viewed 31 March 2009, < http://www.abc.net.au/triplej/hack/notes/ >.
In-text citation	Atkin (2008) found that... or It was found...(Atkin 2008).

STANDARD

Reference list	Standards Australia Online 2006, <i>Glass in buildings: selection and installation</i> , AS 1288-2006, amended 31 January 2008, viewed 19 May 2009, SAI Global database. <i>Note: For standards not retrieved from an electronic database, replace online database information with publisher information statements.</i>
In-text citation	The standard published by Standards Australia Online (2006) entitled <i>Glass in buildings: selection and installation</i> states that... or ...stated that glass in buildings must be... (Standards Australia Online 2006).

STUDY GUIDE

Reference list	<i>Note: It is advisable to use published primary sources rather than tutorial/lecture handouts as references in your paper.</i> Hickson, J 2009, <i>HCR56 images and the mind: study guide</i> , Spring session, Western Sydney University, Penrith. <i>Note: When you do not know the details of the author use the details of the university as the publisher e.g.</i> Western Sydney University 2009, <i>HCR56 images and the mind: study guide</i> , Spring session, Western Sydney University, Penrith.
In-text citation	Hickson (2009, p. 60) found that "images...". or <i>For unknown author:</i> ...as was found in the study (Western Sydney University 2009, p. 6).

THESIS / DISSERTATION

Reference list	Fayadh, KH 2015, <i>The legal regulation of assisted reproductive technology in Iraq: lessons from the Australian approach</i> , thesis, Penrith, Western Sydney University, viewed 24 November 2015, Research Direct database.
In-text citation	Fayadh (2015) showed that... or It was found...(Fayadh 2015).

TUTORIAL / LECTURE HANDOUT

Reference list	Western Sydney University 2016, <i>Madonna and child</i> , 18 January, H0379 tutorial handout, WSU, Penrith. <i>Note: It is advisable to use published primary sources rather than tutorial/lecture handouts as references in your paper.</i>
In-text example	The Western Sydney University (2016) 'Madonna and Child' handout explained that... or It can be seen that... (Western Sydney University 2016).

VIDEO OR AUDIO (FROM THE INTERNET)

Reference list	Norton, R 2006, <i>How to train a cat to operate a light switch</i> , 4 November, online video, viewed 5 April 2009, < http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Vja83KLQXZs >.
In-text citation	Norton (2006) showed that a cat can be trained... or Training a cat requires...(Norton 2006).

Appendix 3

Template of Case Study

TITLE (TIMES NEW ROMAN, 14, BOLD, CAPITAL LETTERS, CENTERED)

First Author Name and Surname (Times New Roman, 14, Bold)

Affiliation: Organization, City, Country (Times New Roman, 12, Italic)

E-mail (Times New Roman, 12)

Next Author Name and Surname (Times New Roman, 14, Bold)

Affiliation: Organization, City, Country (Times New Roman, 12, Italic)

E-mail (Times New Roman, 12)

Abstract: (Times New Roman, 10) An abstract is a brief, comprehensive summary of the contents of the article; it allows readers to survey the contents of an article quickly. The abstract should normally be a single paragraph *between 200 and 250 words*. It should be titled with the word “abstract”. A good abstract is accurate, nonevaluative, coherent and readable, clear and concise. It uses verbs rather than their noun equivalents and the active rather than the passive voice; uses the present tense to describe conclusions drawn or results with continuing applicability; uses the past tense to describe specific variables manipulated or outcomes measured. For the purposes of the case study, this means the individual or organization under study, the problem addressed, and the questions raised. Given the small amount of words allowed, each word and sentence included in your abstract needs to be meaningful. In addition, all the information contained in the abstract must be discussed in the main body of the paper.

Keywords: (Times New Roman, 10) keyword 1; keyword 2; keyword 3 (List five to ten pertinent keywords specific to the article; yet reasonably common within the subject discipline.)

Introduction. (Times New Roman, 12). A *case study* is an analytical piece. It involves heavy research and application of theories, concepts, and knowledge commonly discussed in the field of study. It highlights common problems in the field and will illuminate those problems through the in-depth study of its application. Case studies can be used in any academic discipline. The purpose of a

case study is to provide a more thorough analysis of a situation or “case” which might reveal interesting information about that classification of things. Case studies could be written about individuals, such as how students learn to write an essay, for example, or the results of applying a computer science program into an educational process.

There are many different kinds of case studies. There are also various uses for writing case studies, from academic research purposes to provision of corporate proof points. There are approximately four types of case studies: illustrative (descriptive of events), exploratory (investigative), cumulative (collective information comparisons) and critical (examine particular subject with cause and effect outcomes). A case-study can, for example, make use of library research; interviews; questionnaires; observation; diaries; historical documents; collection of current documents.

The body of a *case study* opens with an introduction that presents the specific problem under study and describes the *research strategy*. The structure of the introduction is:

1. Exploring the importance of the problem. How does the study relate to previous work in the area? If other aspects of this study have been reported previously, how does this report differ from, and build on, the earlier report?

2. Describing relevant related literature. This section should review studies to establish the general area, and then move towards studies that more specifically define or are more specifically related to the research you are conducting. Your literature review must not be a series of quotations strung together; instead it needs to provide a critical analysis of previous work.

3. Stating purpose and objectives, their correspondence to research. The purpose is to thoroughly analyze a situation (or “case”) which could reveal factors or information otherwise ignored or unknown. These can be written about establishments, programs or practices, whole countries, or even individuals. The objectives should logically follow on from your literature review and you may

want to make an explicit link between the variables you are manipulating or measuring in your study and previous research.

It is a common knowledge to provide in-text citation in the background information related to case-study. If you are directly quoting from a work, you will need to include the author, year of publication, and the page number for the reference (preceded by “p.”). Introduce the quotation with a signal phrase that includes the author's last name followed by the date of publication in parentheses. *For example: (1) According to Jones (2005), “Students often had difficulty using Gerunds and Infinitives, especially when it was their first time” (p. 156). (2) Jones (2005) found “students often had difficulty using Gerunds and Infinitives” (p. 156); what implications does this have for teachers?*

If the author is not named in a signal phrase, place the author's last name, the year of publication, and the page number in parentheses after the quotation.

She stated, “Students often had difficulty using Gerunds and Infinitives” (Jones, 2005, p. 156), but she did not offer an explanation as to why.

If you cite a work of two to five authors (use ‘&’ within parentheses; use ‘and’ outside parentheses): *(1) Becker and Seligman's (1996) findings contradicted this result. This result was later contradicted (Becker & Seligman, 1996). (2) Medvec, Madey, and Gilovich (1995) examined the influence of “what might have been” thoughts on satisfaction among a group of Olympic medalists.*

In case of six or more authors, cite only the last name of the first author, followed by “et al.” and the year of publication: *Barakat et al. (1995) attempted to . . . Recent research (Barakat et al., 1995) has found that . . .*

Your paper should be organized in a manner that moves from general to specific information. A good paragraph should contain at least the following four elements: transition, topic sentence, specific evidence and analysis, and a brief concluding sentence. A transition sentence acts as a transition from one idea to the next. A topic sentence tells the reader what you will be discussing in the paragraph. Specific evidence and analysis support your claims that provide a deeper level of

detail than your topic sentence. A concluding sentence tells the reader how and why this information supports the paper's thesis.

Method. (Times New Roman, 12). Method section into *labeled subsections*. These usually include a section with descriptions of the participants or subjects and a section. Any subsection should be given a brief heading marked in bold. Each heading should appear on its own separate line.

Research site and background on the case: The most difficult step in the case writing process for novice researchers is dealing with the twin problems of finding the case site (an organization) and the case subject (a topic or theme). Information about your case study site, where or who it is, what makes it a good sample of the larger group, what makes it special? Describe the scene of the case, background information and the most important issues. Identify two to five key problems. Why do they exist? How do they impact the organization? Who is responsible for them? Describe case study incorporated methods that may include observation of groups within the classroom setting, descriptive data, (open focus group interviews, teacher interviews), quiz and test score results, and thematic comparative analysis.

Participants and Data collection. In this section identify who you selected to be your subject. Explain why you selected this person and tell what experience he or she has had. Mention any background about this person which might help the reader understand the significance of his/her experience. Explain what sorts of questions you asked this person if you make use of an interview. Even list the questions you asked. Determine whether you will interview an individual or group of individuals to serve as examples in your case study. It may be beneficial for participants to gather as a group and provide insight collectively. Gather as much information as possible about your subjects to ensure that you develop interviews and activities that will result in obtaining the most advantageous information to your study. Plan and set up interviews with these people. Your interviewees should all be involved at the same company or organization (your case "site"). Talk to individuals at your case site about the issue. Ask what they have tried to do to

solve the problem, their feelings about the situation, and what they might do differently. Ask open-ended questions that will provide you with information about what is working, how the situation developed, which parties are involved, and what a typical day is like. Stay away from yes or no questions, or you may not get the information you are seeking.

Results. (Times New Roman, 12). In this section tell how your subject answered the questions you asked. This section doesn't require you to comment on the answers, but only to report what they were. Summarize or paraphrase your subject's responses to each question.

If you are presenting statistical results, place descriptive statistics first (means and standard deviations) followed by the results of any inferential statistical tests you performed. Indicate any transformations to the data you are reporting; for example, you may report percentage correct scores rather than straight scores. Raw data and lengthy whole transcripts of qualitative data should be put in the appendices, only excerpts (descriptive statistics or illustrative highlights of lengthy qualitative data) should be included in the results section.

In the results section you will need to use both the past tense and the present tense. The past tense is used to describe results and analyses; for example, *The knowledge scores were analysed ...*, *The results indicated ...* .

The present tense is used with results that the reader can see such as means, tables and figures; for example, *The means show that ...*, *The weekly growth rate illustrated in Table 3 illustrates how ...* .

Visual material such as tables and figures can be used quickly and efficiently to present a large amount of information to an audience. Before using a figure or a table make sure that it is necessary or maybe it is better to present simple descriptive statistics in the text, not in a table.

Because tables and figures supplement the text, refer in the text to all tables and figures used and explain what the reader should look for when using the table or figure. Focus only on the important point the reader should draw from them, and leave the details for the reader to examine on her own.

If you are using figures, tables and/or data from other sources, be sure to gather all the information you will need to properly document your sources.

Each table and figure must be intelligible without reference to the text, so be sure to include an explanation of every abbreviation (except the standard statistical symbols and abbreviations).

Number all tables sequentially as you refer to them in the text (Table 1, Table 2, etc.), likewise for figures (Figure 1, Figure 2, etc.). Abbreviations, terminology, probability level values must be consistent across tables and figures in the same paper. Likewise, formats, titles, and headings must be consistent. Do not repeat the same data in different tables.

Table 1

Title of the Table

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Figure 1. Description of figure.

Make sure the figure is worthwhile. If the text is crystal clear without the insertion of a figure there is no point including it, despite how good it may look. If the text does not make sense without the insertion of the figure, you are expecting the figure to do your job for you. In fact, the figure is not meant to make your point but to illustrate, emphasize and supplement it.

Discussion. (Times New Roman, 12). In this section outline what you learned in your interviews about the problem at this site, how it developed, what solutions

have already been proposed and/or tried, and feelings and thoughts of those working or visiting there. Provide one specific and realistic solution. Explain why this solution was chosen. Support this solution with solid evidence. Determine and discuss specific strategies for accomplishing the proposed solution. If applicable, recommend further action to resolve some of the issues.

Open the Discussion section with a clear statement of the support for your original hypotheses, distinguished by primary and secondary hypotheses. Similarities and differences between your results and the work of others should be used to contextualize, confirm, and clarify your conclusions. Do not simply reformulate and repeat points already made; each new statement should contribute to your interpretation and to the reader's understanding of the problem.

Your interpretation of the results should take into account (a) sources of potential bias and other threats to internal validity, (b) the imprecision of measures, (c) the overall number of tests or overlap among tests, (d) the effect sizes observed, and (e) other limitations or weaknesses of the study.

Acknowledge the limitations of your research, and address alternative explanations of the results. Discuss the generalizability, or external validity, of the findings.

End the Discussion section with a reasoned and justifiable commentary on the importance of your findings. This concluding section may be brief or extensive provided that it is tightly reasoned, self-contained, and not overstated. In this section, you might briefly return to a discussion of why the problem is important (as stated in the introduction); what larger issues, those that transcend the particulars of the subfield, might hinge on the findings; and what propositions are confirmed or disconfirmed by the extrapolation of these findings to such overarching issues.

You may also consider the following issues:

What is the theoretical or practical significance of the outcomes, and what is the basis for these interpretations? If the findings are valid and replicable, what

real-life psychological phenomena might be explained or modeled by the results?
Are applications warranted on the basis of this research?

What problems remain unresolved or arise anew because of these findings?
The responses to these questions are the core of the contribution of your study and justify why readers both inside and outside your own specialty should attend to the findings. Your readers should receive clear, unambiguous, and direct answers.

Conclusions. (Times New Roman, 12). In your conclusion section discuss the significance of your research. What important things have you noticed? What general comments might you make about the researched problem based on your conclusions? What concerns do you have for the future based on your interview? Do not repeat in summary form large pieces of factual information from the case. Rather, use the information in the case to illustrate your statements, to defend your arguments, or to make salient points. Beyond the brief introduction to the company, you must avoid being descriptive; instead, you must be analytical.

Acknowledgments (Times New Roman, 12; not obligatory paragraph). Identify grants or other financial support (and the source, if appropriate) for your study. Next, acknowledge colleagues who assisted in conducting the study or critiquing the manuscript. In this paragraph, also explain any special agreements concerning authorship, such as if authors contributed equally to the study. End this paragraph with thanks for personal assistance, such as in manuscript preparation.

References:

(Times New Roman, 10)

Author, A.A. (Year of Publication). *Title of a book*. Publisher City , State: Publisher.

Author, A.A.. (Year of Publication). *Title of an e-book* [E-Reader Version]. Retrieved from <http://xxxx> or [doi:xxxx](https://doi.org/xxxx)

Author, A.A.. (Publication Year). Article title. *Journal Title*, Volume(Issue), pp.-pp.

Author, A.A.. (Publication Year). Article title. *Journal Title*, Volume(Issue), pp.-pp. doi:XX.XXXXXX or Retrieved from journal URL

Appendix 4

Template of Empirical Study

**TITLE (TIMES NEW ROMAN, 14, BOLD, CAPITAL LETTERS,
CENTERED)**

First Author Name and Surname (Times New Roman, 14, Bold)

Affiliation: Organization, City, Country (Times New Roman, 12, Italic)

E-mail (Times New Roman, 12)

Next Author Name and Surname (Times New Roman, 14, Bold)

Affiliation: Organization, City, Country (Times New Roman, 12, Italic)

E-mail (Times New Roman, 12)

Abstract: (Times New Roman, 10) An abstract is a brief, comprehensive summary of the contents of the article; it allows readers to survey the contents of an article quickly. The abstract should normally be a single paragraph *between 200 and 250 words*. It should be titled with the word “abstract”. A good abstract is accurate, nonevaluative, coherent and readable, clear and concise. It uses verbs rather than their noun equivalents and the active rather than the passive voice; uses the present tense to describe conclusions drawn or results with continuing applicability; uses the past tense to describe specific variables manipulated or outcomes measured. An abstract of a report of an empirical study should describe: the problem under investigation, in one sentence if possible; the participants, specifying pertinent characteristics such as age, sex, etc; the essential features of study methodology; the basic findings; the conclusions and the implications or applications. Given the small amount of words allowed, each word and sentence included in your abstract needs to be meaningful. In addition, all the information contained in the abstract must be discussed in the main body of the paper.

Keywords: (Times New Roman, 10) keyword 1; keyword 2; keyword 3 (List five to ten pertinent keywords specific to the article; yet reasonably common within the subject discipline.)

Introduction. (Times New Roman, 12). The body of a manuscript opens with an introduction that presents the specific problem under study and describes the research strategy. The structure of the introduction is:

1. Exploring the importance of the problem. How does the study relate to previous work in the area? If other aspects of this study have been reported previously, how does this report differ from, and build on, the earlier report? What are the theoretical and practical implications of the study?

2. Describing relevant related literature. This section should review studies to establish the general area, and then move towards studies that more specifically define or are more specifically related to the research you are conducting. Your literature review must not be a series of quotations strung together; instead it needs to provide a critical analysis of previous work. This section uses both the past tense and the present tense. The past tense is used to refer to a particular experiment and the specific results of a particular experiment that has been carried out in the past. The present tense is used to refer to information that is not confined to a particular experiment.

3. Stating hypotheses and objectives, their correspondence to research. The statement of the hypothesis should logically follow on from your literature review and you may want to make an explicit link between the variables you are manipulating or measuring in your study and previous research. The present tense is used to state your hypotheses; for example, *It is predicted that...* , *It is hypothesized that*

Your paper should be organized in a manner that moves from general to specific information. A good paragraph should contain at least the following four elements: transition, topic sentence, specific evidence and analysis, and a brief concluding sentence. A transition sentence acts as a transition from one idea to the next. A topic sentence tells the reader what you will be discussing in the paragraph.

Specific evidence and analysis support your claims that provide a deeper level of detail than your topic sentence. A concluding sentence tells the reader how and why this information supports the paper's thesis.

It is a common knowledge to provide in-text citation in the Introduction and Discussion sections. If you are directly quoting from a work, you will need to include the author, year of publication, and the page number for the reference (preceded by "p."). Introduce the quotation with a signal phrase that includes the author's last name followed by the date of publication in parentheses. *For example: (1) According to Jones (2005), "Students often had difficulty using Gerunds and Infinitives, especially when it was their first time" (p. 156). (2) Jones (2005) found "students often had difficulty using Gerunds and Infinitives" (p. 156); what implications does this have for teachers?*

If the author is not named in a signal phrase, place the author's last name, the year of publication, and the page number in parentheses after the quotation.

She stated, "Students often had difficulty using Gerunds and Infinitives" (Jones, 2005, p. 156), but she did not offer an explanation as to why.

If you cite a work of two to five authors (use '&' within parentheses; use 'and' outside parentheses): *(1) Becker and Seligman's (1996) findings contradicted this result. This result was later contradicted (Becker & Seligman, 1996). (2) Medvec, Madey, and Gilovich (1995) examined the influence of "what might have been" thoughts on satisfaction among a group of Olympic medalists.*

In case of six or more authors, cite only the last name of the first author, followed by "et al." and the year of publication: *Barakat et al. (1995) attempted to . . . Recent research (Barakat et al., 1995) has found that . . .*

Method. (Times New Roman, 12). The Method section describes in detail how the study was conducted, including conceptual and operational definitions of the variables used in the study. Different types of studies will rely on different methodologies; however, a complete description of the methods used enables the reader to evaluate the appropriateness of your methods and the reliability and the

validity of your results. It also permits experienced investigators to replicate the study.

It is both conventional and expedient to divide the Method section into *labeled subsections*. These usually include a section with descriptions of the participants or subjects and a section describing the procedures used in the study. The latter section often includes description of (a) any experimental manipulations or interventions used and how they were delivered – for example, any mechanical apparatus used to deliver them; (b) sampling procedures and sample size and precision; (c) measurement approaches (including the psychometric properties of the instruments used); and (d) the research design. If the design of the study is complex or the stimuli require if detailed description, additional subsections or subheadings to divide the subsections may be warranted to help readers find specific information.

The method section should be written in paragraph form with as little repetition as possible. This section will often be broken down into subsections such as participants, materials and procedure. The subsections you use will depend on what is useful to help describe and explain your experiment.

In the method section of the paper you should use the past tense since you are describing what you did; for example, eg. *An experiment was performed...*, *The participants were instructed to ...*. Furthermore, as the focus in this section is on what was done rather than who did it, the passive voice is used as it aims to foreground the action, rather than the doer of the action.

Results. (Times New Roman, 12). This section describes but does not explain your results; it provides the reader with a factual account of your findings. You can, however, draw attention to specific trends or data that you think are important. Your aim in your results section is to make your results as comprehensible as possible for your readers/markers.

If you are presenting statistical results, place descriptive statistics first (means and standard deviations) followed by the results of any inferential statistical tests you performed. Indicate any transformations to the data you are reporting; for

example, you may report percentage correct scores rather than straight scores. Raw data and lengthy whole transcripts of qualitative data should be put in the appendices, only excerpts (descriptive statistics or illustrative highlights of lengthy qualitative data) should be included in the results section.

In the results section you will need to use both the past tense and the present tense. The past tense is used to describe results and analyses; for example, *The knowledge scores were analysed ...*, *The results indicated ...* .

The present tense is used with results that the reader can see such as means, tables and figures; for example, *The means show that ...*, *The weekly growth rate illustrated in Table 3 illustrates how ...* .

Visual material such as tables and figures can be used quickly and efficiently to present a large amount of information to an audience. Before using a figure or a table make sure that it is necessary or maybe it is better to present simple descriptive statistics in the text, not in a table.

Because tables and figures supplement the text, refer in the text to all tables and figures used and explain what the reader should look for when using the table or figure. Focus only on the important point the reader should draw from them, and leave the details for the reader to examine on her own.

If you are using figures, tables and/or data from other sources, be sure to gather all the information you will need to properly document your sources.

Each table and figure must be intelligible without reference to the text, so be sure to include an explanation of every abbreviation (except the standard statistical symbols and abbreviations).

Number all tables sequentially as you refer to them in the text (Table 1, Table 2, etc.), likewise for figures (Figure 1, Figure 2, etc.). Abbreviations, terminology, probability level values must be consistent across tables and figures in the same article. Likewise, formats, titles, and headings must be consistent. Do not repeat the same data in different tables.

Title of the Table

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Figure 1. Description of figure.

Make sure the figure is worthwhile. If the text is crystal clear without the insertion of a figure there is no point including it, despite how good it may look. If the text does not make sense without the insertion of the figure, you are expecting the figure to do your job for you. In fact, the figure is not meant to make your point but to illustrate, emphasize and supplement it.

Discussion. (Times New Roman, 12). After presenting the results, you are in a position to evaluate and interpret their implications, especially with respect to your original hypotheses. Here you will examine, interpret, and qualify the results and draw inferences and conclusions from them. Emphasize any theoretical or practical consequences of the results. (When the discussion is relatively brief and straightforward, some authors prefer to combine it with the Results section, creating a section called Results and Discussion.)

Open the Discussion section with a clear statement of the support for your original hypotheses, distinguished by primary and secondary hypotheses. Similarities and differences between your results and the work of others should be used to contextualize, confirm, and clarify your conclusions. Do not simply

reformulate and repeat points already made; each new statement should contribute to your interpretation and to the reader's understanding of the problem.

Your interpretation of the results should take into account (a) sources of potential bias and other threats to internal validity, (b) the imprecision of measures, (c) the overall number of tests or overlap among tests, (d) the effect sizes observed, and (e) other limitations or weaknesses of the study.

Acknowledge the limitations of your research, and address alternative explanations of the results. Discuss the generalizability, or external validity, of the findings.

End the Discussion section with a reasoned and justifiable commentary on the importance of your findings. This concluding section may be brief or extensive provided that it is tightly reasoned, self-contained, and not overstated. In this section, you might briefly return to a discussion of why the problem is important (as stated in the introduction); what larger issues, those that transcend the particulars of the subfield, might hinge on the findings; and what propositions are confirmed or disconfirmed by the extrapolation of these findings to such overarching issues.

You may also consider the following issues:

What is the theoretical or practical significance of the outcomes, and what is the basis for these interpretations? If the findings are valid and replicable, what real-life psychological phenomena might be explained or modeled by the results? Are applications warranted on the basis of this research?

What problems remain unresolved or arise anew because of these findings? The responses to these questions are the core of the contribution of your study and justify why readers both inside and outside your own specialty should attend to the findings. Your readers should receive clear, unambiguous, and direct answers.

Conclusions. (Times New Roman, 12). This section simply states what the researcher thinks the data mean, and, as such, should relate directly back to the problem/question stated in the introduction. This section should not offer any *reasons* for those particular conclusions – these should have been presented in

the Discussion section. By looking at only the Introduction and Conclusions sections, a reader should have a good idea of what the researcher has investigated and discovered even though the specific details of how the work was done would not be known.

Acknowledgments (Times New Roman, 12; not obligatory paragraph). Identify grants or other financial support (and the source, if appropriate) for your study. Next, acknowledge colleagues who assisted in conducting the study or critiquing the manuscript. In this paragraph, also explain any special agreements concerning authorship, such as if authors contributed equally to the study. End this paragraph with thanks for personal assistance, such as in manuscript preparation.

References:

(Times New Roman, 10)

Author, A.A. (Year of Publication). *Title of a book*. Publisher City , State: Publisher.

Author, A.A.. (Year of Publication). *Title of an e-book* [E-Reader Version]. Retrieved from <http://xxxx> or [doi:xxxx](https://doi.org/xxxx)

Author, A.A.. (Publication Year). Article title. *Journal Title, Volume*(Issue), pp.-pp.

Author, A.A.. (Publication Year). Article title. *Journal Title, Volume*(Issue), pp.-pp. [doi:XX.XXXXXX](https://doi.org/XX.XXXXXX) or Retrieved from journal URL

Throughout the text of your paper you will also need to provide references when you have included an idea in your paper which is not your own original idea.

DOIs

A digital object identifier (DOI) is a unique string of letters, numbers, and symbols assigned to a published work to identify content and provide a persistent link to its location on the Internet. The DOI is typically located on the first page of an electronic document near the copyright notice and on the database landing page for the document. When DOIs are available, include them in the reference

information. Place the DOI at the end of the reference, and don't add a period at the end of it. Here's an example:

Author, A. A., & Author, B. B. (Date of publication). Title of article. *Title of Journal*, volume number, page range. doi:0000000/000000000000 or <http://dx.doi.org/10.0000/0000>

APPENDIX

(Times New Roman, 10)

Information that is not essential to explain your findings, but that supports your analysis (especially repetitive or lengthy information), validates your conclusions or pursues a related point should be placed in an appendix (plural appendices). Sometimes excerpts from this supporting information (i.e. part of the data set) will be placed in the body of the paper but the complete set of information (i.e. all of the data set) will be included in the appendix. Examples of information that could be included in an appendix include figures/tables/charts/graphs of results, statistics, questionnaires, transcripts of interviews, pictures, lengthy derivations of equations, maps, drawings, letters, specification or data sheets, computer program information.

Each separate appendix should be lettered (Appendix A, Appendix B, Appendix B1, Appendix B2, Appendix C, etc). The order they are presented in is dictated by the order they are mentioned in the text of the paper. It is essential to refer to each appendix within the text of the paper; for example,

*For the students' self-efficacy level, see Appendix B or
Appendix C contains the levels of students' self-efficacy.*

Appendix 5

Template of an abstract

Title bolded, 12-point Times New Roman, centered

Contact author's name: 10-point Times New Roman, centered, bolded

Contact author's affiliation and full mailing address in 10-point Times New Roman, centered, italicized

Contact Author's e-mail address: 10 point Times New Roman, centered, italicized

Contact author's brief professional biography: This biography should be no more than 100 words and should describe the contact author's professional credentials, background, experience and research interests/initiatives.

Second author's name: 10-point Times New Roman, centered, bolded

Second author's affiliation and full mailing address in 10-point Times New Roman, centered, italicized

Second Author's e-mail address: 10-point Times New Roman, centered, italicized

Second author's brief professional biography: This biography should be no more than 100 words and should describe the contact author's professional credentials, background, experience and research interests/initiatives.

Abstract: The body of your abstract begins here. It should be an explicit summary of your presentation that states the problem, the methods used, and the major results and conclusions. It is advisable not to include scientific symbols, acronyms, numbers, bullets or lists in the abstract. It should be single-spaced in 10-point Times New Roman.

The first part of your abstract should state the problem you set out to solve or the issue you set out to explore and explain your rationale for pursuing the project. The problem or issue might be a research question, a gap in critical attention to a text, a societal concern, etc. The purpose of your study is to solve this problem and/or add

to your discipline's understanding of the issue. This section of the abstract should explain how you went about solving the problem or exploring the issue you identified. Your abstract should also describe the research methods; this section should include a concise description of the process by which you conducted your research.

Next, your abstract should list the results or outcomes of the work you have done so far. If your project is not yet complete, you may still include preliminary results or your hypotheses about what those results will be. Finally, your abstract should close with a statement of the project's implications and contributions to its field. It should convince readers that the project is interesting, valuable, and worth investigating further.

Key words: up to 10 key words.

Навчальне видання

Єременко Тетяна Євстафіївна
Трубіцина Ольга Михайлівна
Юмрукуз Анастасія Анатоліївна

Навчальний посібник

Ефективне академічне та наукове письмо: від теорії до практики

Авторська редакція

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