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методичні рекомендації до практичних занять з дисципліни
«Наукова комунікація іноземною мовою»
для здобувачів другого (магістерського) рівня вищої освіти
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Методичні рекомендації до практичних занять з дисципліни «Наукова комунікація іноземною мовою» для здобувачів другого (магістерського) рівня вищої освіти спеціальності 053 Психологія. Одеса. 2022. 90 с.

Методичні рекомендації містять необхідну інформацію щодо мети та змісту практичних занять, методичного забезпечення основних форм контролю, результативності виконання практичних завдань, завдання для самостійної роботи здобувачів. Посібник презентує добірку текстів і вправ для розвитку навичок писемного і усного спілкування відповідно до стандартів сучасного англійського наукового дискурсу, виокремлює лінгвостилістичні особливості англійських наукових текстів, визначає вимоги й основні правила написання наукової продукції.

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Вступ

Методичні рекомендації відповідають робочій програмі «Наукова комунікація іноземною мовою» та «Основи наукових комунікацій». Матеріал призначено для здобувачів другого (магістерського) рівня вищої освіти, викладачів, наукових співробітників, а також для всіх, хто бажає удосконалити знання з ведення наукової комунікації англійською мовою.

Методичний посібник складається з юнітів, що включають спеціальні тексти, вправи, завдання для самостійної роботи спрямовані на формування навичок наукової комунікації англійською мовою.

Практичне оволодіння іноземною мовою в рамках цього курсу передбачає наявність таких умінь у різних видах іншомовної комунікації: - визначення особливості наукового та офіційного стилів мовлення; - вільне читання оригінальну літературу іноземною мовою у відповідній галузі знань; - оформлення наукової інформації з іноземних джерел у вигляді перекладу чи резюме; - повідомлення, доповіді іноземною мовою, пов'язані з науковою роботою та вести бесіду за спеціальністю; - оформлення наукової усної та писемної доповідь. Після опрацювання матеріалу здобувачі повинні знати основні вимоги щодо реферування наукових джерел, написання анотацій, тез, статей, оформлення наукового дослідження (магістерської роботи).

Матеріали методичних рекомендацій формують знання про сутність та структуру наукових досліджень і можуть бути використані як під час аудиторних занять так і для самостійної роботи здобувачів освіти другого (магістерського) рівня вищої освіти.

Unit 1. A brief history of science

1. Read the text and make notes on the main stages of science development.

Humankind has always been inquisitive, needing to understand why things behave in a certain way, and trying to link observation with prediction. For example, since prehistoric times we have observed the heavens and tried to make sense of the seasonal changes in the position of the sun, moon and stars.

In about 4000 BC, the Mesopotamians tried to explain their observations by suggesting that the Earth was at the centre of the Universe, and that the other heavenly bodies moved around it. Humans have always been interested in the nature and origins of this Universe.

Metallurgy

But they weren't only interested in astronomy. The extraction of iron, which led to the Iron Age, is a chemical process which early metallurgists developed without understanding any of the science involved. Nevertheless, they were still eager to optimise the extraction by trial and error.

Before this, copper and tin were extracted (which led to the Bronze Age) and later, zinc. Exactly how each of these processes was discovered is lost in the mists of time, but it is likely that they were developed using observation and experiment in a similar way to that used by today's scientists.

Medicine

Early humankind also observed that certain plants could be used to treat sickness and disease, and herbal medicines were developed, some of which are still used by modern pharmaceutical companies to provide leads for new synthetic drugs.

The Greeks

The first people to try and develop the theory behind their observations were the Greeks: people such as Pythagoras, who concentrated on a mathematical view of the world. Similarly, Aristotle and Plato developed logical methods for examining the world around them.

It was the Greeks who first suggested that matter was made up of atoms - fundamental particles that could not be broken down further. But it wasn't only the Greeks who moved science on. Science was also being developed in India, China, the Middle East and South America. Despite having their own cultural view of the world, they each independently developed materials such as gunpowder, soap and paper.

However, it wasn't until the 13th century that much of this scientific work was brought together in European universities, and that it started to look more like science as we know it today.

Progress was relatively slow at first. For example, it took until the 16th century for Copernicus to revolutionize (literally) the way that we look at the Universe, and for Harvey to put forward his ideas on how blood circulated round the human body. This slow progress was sometimes the result of religious dogma, but it was also a product of troubled times!

The birth of modern science

It was in the 17th century that modern science was really born, and the world began to be examined more closely, using instruments such as the telescope, microscope, clock and barometer. It was also at this time that scientific laws started to be put forward for such phenomena as gravity and the way that the volume, pressure and temperature of a gas are related.

In the 18th century much of basic biology and chemistry was developed as part of the Age of Enlightenment.

The 19th century saw some of the great names of science: people like the chemist John Dalton, who developed the atomic theory of matter, Michael Faraday and James Maxwell who both put forward theories concerning electricity and magnetism, and Charles Darwin, who proposed the controversial theory of evolution. Each of these developments forced scientists radically to re-examine their views of the way in which the world worked.

II. Answer the question:

1. What is the role of science in modern society?
2. What is science? What is the purpose of science?

3. Is science a good or a bad thing?
4. How has science changed society? What new inventions could you not live without?

III. For each word below, read the sentence it occurs in the text above and answer the questions:

observation universe extraction suggest inquisitive

1. Is the word positive, negative or neutral?
2. Is it a noun, adjective, adverb or verb?
3. Can you think of a word with a similar meaning (synonym) and one with an opposite meaning (antonym)?

IV. Reading Comprehension

Read the text again and answer the questions.

1. Which ways of studying the world in prehistoric times does the text describe?
2. Who suggested that the Earth was the centre of the Universe?
3. Which factor led to the Iron Age?
4. How did the people cope with the task of extracting iron?
5. Extracting of which metals led to the Bronze Age?
6. What early knowledge of humankind does contemporary medicine imply?
7. What did the Greeks concentrate on?
8. When did science start to shape as it is today?
9. What kinds of inventions did China, the Middle East and America give to the world?
10. When was modern science born?
11. What was developed as part of the Age of Enlightenment in the 18th century.
12. What great scientists of the 19th century are mentioned in the text. What contribution to science did each of them make?

V. Complete the sentences

1. Humankind has always been
2. Since prehistoric times people observed

3. The Mesopotamians tried to
4. We do not know much about the process of discovery of ..., but
5. Some of herbal medicines developed by early humans are
6. The Greeks tried to develop
7. They also suggested that
8. However, it was not until the 13th century
9. In the 16th century Copernicus revolutionised
10. The slow process was the result of
11. In the 17th century the world began to be examined more closely, using
... .
12. In the 18th century much of
13. The 19th century saw some of the great
14. Each of these developments forced scientists to

Unit 2. English is a language of science.

Practically every major science journal you have ever heard of is in English. This isn't exactly a coincidence, however. Since science is such a broad and collaborative field, it seemed necessary at some point in the past to decide upon a sort of scientific lingua franca and stick with that. As with many other fields, English was chosen and remains the bridge language of science.

There are some obvious advantages of having English as the language of science. First of all, it is already widely spoken and learned as a second language around the world. It is used in business, medicine, and many other fields already, so why not science too? Having just one language as the "official" scientific language also expedites the process of communication between scientists, who all have crucial new information and research to share with the rest of the world. On the surface, it seems very inclusive as well; as long as you are a scientist and have a certain level of English, you can participate internationally in science.

The disadvantages of having a "primary" language for scientific communication are not entirely obvious at first, but once you start to analyze and think about how it

probably affects scientists who don't speak English as their first language, you begin to see where problems might arise. To start, we all express ourselves differently in different languages, even if we aren't aware of it. If you know a second language and take a moment to try and write out anything complex or technical in that language, you will see just how difficult it can be. This means scientists from different linguistic backgrounds have to spend extra time and energy when they are writing up their research papers in English.

Not only does it take more energy and time to write in a language that isn't your native language, it also might not end up conveying exactly what you meant to convey. There is more to language than just putting words together to form cohesive sentences and phrases; there is also the cultural and contextual aspect that all language feeds off of and floats around in, which means we tend to favor things written in our native language as we can immediately connect with the culture and context. When you add complicated scientific terminology into the mix, you end up with scientific writing that doesn't express itself as authentically as it would if it were written in the scientist's native language.

To expect everyone in the scientific community all over the world to be proficient in English as well as be an expert in whatever they are researching is to expect a lot, especially from scientists in countries where getting any kind of decent education at all costs a good chunk of change. By limiting the language of the scientific community to just one, English, we are not giving space for brilliant minds that just happen to not have the right level of English to share with the rest of the world. If we could figure out a way around that, we would advance much more quickly as a society in terms of scientific research and discoveries.

I. Answer the questions.

1. Do you agree that every major science journal you have ever heard of is in English?
2. What are the main advantages of having English as the language of science?

3. Do you think the role of the English language is increasing in Ukraine? Provide some examples of its functioning in different spheres of life in your country.
4. Is English a leading language in your field of study?
5. How often do you use English for information search as compared with Ukrainian?

II. In group of 3-4 discuss “What are your ways of learning English?”

III. Write a short summary of the text

IV. Write an essay “The role of English in my research work”.

V. Find synonyms to the words given

apply: a) administer; b) determine; c) bring into use; d) employ

valuable: a) costly; b) precious; c) bright; d) irreplaceable

implement: a) bring about; b) carry; c) accomplish; d) achieve

relevant: a) loyal; b) connected; c) applicable; d) essential

Unit 3. What is Linguistics?

Linguistics is the scientific study of language. *Linguists* (experts in linguistics) work on specific languages, but their primary goal is to understand the nature of language in general by asking questions such as:

- What distinguishes human language from other animal communication systems?
- What features are common to all human languages?
- How are the modes of linguistic communication (speech, writing, sign language) related to each other?
- How is language related to other types of human behavior?

The main goal of linguistics, like all other intellectual disciplines, is to increase our knowledge and understanding of the world. Since language is universal and fundamental to all human interactions, the knowledge attained in linguistics has many practical applications. Linguists, with some training in other appropriate disciplines, are thus prepared to seek answers to questions such as:

- How can a previously unstudied language be analyzed and written?
- How can foreign languages best be taught and learned?
- How can speech be synthesized on a computer or how can a computer be programmed to understand human speech?
- How can the language problems of people with speech abnormalities be analyzed and rectified?
- How are linguistic issues in legal matters to be handled?

The Sub-Fields of Linguistics

Language is a phenomenon with many layers, from the sounds that speakers produce to the meanings that those sounds express. The field of Linguistics is comprised of several sub-fields. Most professional linguists become specialists in one or more of these sub-fields. The major ones are:

Phonetics

The study of speech sounds. Phoneticians study both the production of speech sounds by the human speech organs (articulatory phonetics) and the properties of the sounds themselves (acoustic phonetics). Phoneticians are concerned with such questions as:

- What are the sounds, from among all those that humans could make, that actually exist in the world's languages?
- What specially defines different "accents"?
- Can speakers be identified by "voiceprints"?
- What are the properties of sounds that would apply in computerized speech synthesis?

Phonology

The study of language sound systems. Phonologists are concerned with questions such as:

- What sounds contrast in one language but not another (answers to such questions explain why Spanish speakers have trouble with the difference between English sh and ch, or why English speakers have trouble with the different "u" sounds in French words like rue 'street' and roue 'wheel'.)?

- What sounds of a language can or cannot occur one after the other (for example, why can words begin in st– in English but not in Spanish)?

- How do poets or writers or song lyrics intuitively know how to match the rhythm of speech to the abstract rhythmic pattern of a poetic or musical meter?

Morphology

The study of word structure. Morphologists examine such questions as:

- To what extent are ways of forming words “productive” or not (e.g. why do English speakers say arrival and amusement but not *arrivement and *amusal)?

- What determines when words change form (for example, why does English have to add –er to adjectives when making comparisons, but Hebrew does not add any equivalent)?

- How can humans program computers to recognize the “root” of a word separated from its “affixes” (e.g. how could a computer recognize walk, walks, walking, and walked as the “same” word)?

Syntax

The study of how linguistic units larger than the word are constructed. Syntacticians address such questions as:

- How can the number of sentences that speakers can create be infinite in number even though the number of words in any language is finite?

- What makes a sentence like visiting relatives can be boring ambiguous?

- Why would English speakers judge a sentence like colorless green ideas sleep furiously to be “grammatical” even though it is nonsensical?

- How can languages express the same thoughts even though they construct their sentences in different ways (e.g. Why does English I saw them there mean the same thing as French je les y ai vus even though the order of elements in French is I them there have seen)?

- How can humans program a computer to analyze the structure of sentences?

Semantics

The study of meaning. Semanticists answer such questions as:

- How do speakers know what words mean (e.g. How does one know where red stops and orange starts)?
- What is the basis of metaphors (e.g. Why is my car is a lemon a “good” metaphor but my car is a cabbage is not)?
- What makes sentences like I’m looking for a tall student or the student I am looking for must be tall have more than one meaning?
- In a sentence like I regret that he lied, how do we know that, in fact, he did lie?
- How many meanings can be found in a sentence like three students read three books and why do just those meanings exist?

In addition to these sub-fields, there are a number of other sub-fields that cross-cut them:

Historical linguistics

The study of how languages change over time, addressing such questions as why modern English is different from Old English and Middle English or what it means to say that English and German are “more closely related” to each other than English and French.

Sociolinguistics

The study of how language is used in society, addressing such questions as what makes some dialects more “prestigious” than others, where slang comes from and why it arises, or what happens when two languages come together in “bilingual” communities.

Psycholinguistics

The study of how language is processed in the mind, addressing such questions as how we can hear a string of language noises and make sense of them, how children can learn to speak and understand the language of their environment as quickly and effortlessly as they do, or how people with pathological language problems differ from people who have “normal” language.

Neurolinguistics

The study of the actual encoding of language in the brain, addressing such questions as what parts of the brain different aspects of language are stored in, how

language is actually stored, what goes on physically in the brain when language is processed, or how the brain compensates when certain areas are damaged.

Computational linguistics

Learning and understanding a language involves computing the properties of that language that are described in its phonology, syntax, and semantics. The challenge of describing this process connects linguistics with computational issues at a very fundamental level. How could syntactic structures be computed from spoken language, how are semantic relations recognized, and how could these computational skills be acquired?

Unit 4. Methods of stylistic research.

Methodology defines the approach of science to the object of investigation and specifies its general orientation in a research.

The most traditional method of stylistics is the method of semantico-stylistic analysis (stylistic analysis). This method aims at defining the correlation between language means employed for expressive conveyance of intellectual, emotional or aesthetic content of speech (or text) and the content of information.

The comparative method is considered to be the nucleus of the stylistic analysis method. To make the speech more effective speakers constantly select definite language means from a set of synonymous units. These language means have the best stylistic effect only in comparison with other language means which are either less expressive or neutral in the given context.

The method of stylistic experiment lies in substitution of the writer's words, utterances or constructions for new ones - 13 - with the stylistic aim. With the help of this method it is possible to characterize the stylistic properties of the writer's text and approve of the substituted units stylistic possibilities. This method was extensively used by such scholars as L. Shcherba, O. Peshkovskiy, L. Bulahovskiy.

The quantitative method consists in defining the quantitative properties of a language phenomenon. Using the quantitative data and specific calculations the statistic method aims at distinguishing peculiarities and regularities of language units functioning that can differentiate individual or functional styles. It establishes the statistic parameters of the analyzed text or texts. These parameters provide reliable and objective data for stylistic analysis.

What are the levels of linguistic analysis and which of them are relevant for stylistic analysis?

Stylistics is not equal to linguistics science, such as phonetics, linguistics disciplines – lexicology, morphology, syntax because they are level disciplines as they treat only one linguistic level and stylistics investigates the questions on all the levels and different aspects of the texts in general. The smallest unit of language is the phoneme. Several phonemes combined make a unit of a higher level – morpheme (morphemic level). One or more morphemes makes a word, a lexeme (lexical level). One or more than one words make an utterance, a sentence (sentence level). Words combinations are treated either on the lexical or syntactical level. Stylistics must be subdivided into separate, independent branches – stylistic phonetics, Stylistic morphology, Stylistic lexicology, Stylistic syntax Whatever level we take, stylistics is describes not what is in common use, but what is specific in this or that respect, what differentiates one sublanguage from others. General (non-stylistic) phonetics investigates the whole articulatory - audial system of language. Stylistic phonetics describes variants of pronunciation occurring in different types of speech. Special attention is also paid to prosodic features of prose and poetry. General (non-stylistic) morphology treats morphemes and grammatical meanings expressed by them in language in general, without regard to their stylistic value. Stylistic morphology is interested in grammatical forms and grammatical meanings that are peculiar to particular sublanguages, explicitly or implicitly comparing them with the neutral ones common to all the sublanguages. Lexicology deals with stylistic classification (differentiation) of the vocabulary that form a part of stylistics (stylistics lexicology).

In stylistic lexicology each units are studied separately, instead of as a whole text (group of words, word classification). General syntax treats word combinations and sentences, analyzing their structures and stating what is permissible and what is inadmissible in constructing correct utterances in the given language. Stylistic syntax shows what particular constructions are met with in various types of speech, what syntactical structures are style forming (specific) in the sublanguages in question. Semantic level – connected with meaning.

Writing a summary of an article

The purpose of a summary is to give the reader a clear, objective picture of the original text. Most importantly, the summary restates only the main points of a text or a lecture without giving examples or details, such as dates, numbers or statistics.

Guidelines for writing a summary of an article:

- State the main ideas of the article.
- Identify the most important details that support the main ideas.
- Write your summary in your own words; avoid copying phrases and sentences from the article unless they're direct quotations.
- Express the underlying meaning of the article, not just the superficial details.
- Your summary should be about one third of the length of the original article.

Your summary should include:

Introduction

- Start with a summary or overview of the article which includes the author's name and the title of the article.
 - Finish with a thesis statement that states the main idea of the article.

Body Paragraphs

- The number of paragraphs in your summary depends on the length of the original article.
- Your summary should be about one third the length of the original article. For a **one-paragraph summary**, discuss each supporting point in a separate sentence.

Give 1-2 explanations for each supporting point. For a **multi-paragraph summary**, discuss each supporting point in a separate paragraph.

- Start each body paragraph with a topic sentence.
- Each paragraph focuses on a separate main idea and just the most important details from the article.
- Put the ideas from the essay into your own words. Avoid copying phrases and sentences from the article.
- Use transitional words and phrases to connect ideas.

Concluding Paragraph

- Summarize the main idea and the underlying meaning of the article.

Unit 5. Guidelines for using in-text citations in a summary (or research paper).

The purpose of a summary is to give the reader, in a about 1/3 of the original length of an article/lecture, a clear, objective picture of the original lecture or text. Most importantly, the summary restates only the main points of a text or a lecture without giving examples or details, such as dates, numbers or statistics.

Skills practiced: note-taking, paraphrasing (using your own words and sentence structure), condensing.

Before writing a summary

1. For text, read, mark, and annotate the original. (For a lecture, work with the notes you took.)

- highlight the topic sentence
- highlight key points/key words/phrases
- highlight the concluding sentence
- outline each paragraph in the margin

2. Take notes on the following:

- the source (author--first/last name, title, date of publication, volume number, place of publication, publisher, URL, etc.)
- the main idea of the original (paraphrased)

- the major supporting points (in outline form)
- major supporting explanations (e.g. reasons/causes or effects)

Writing a summary -steps.

1. Organize your notes into an outline which includes main ideas and supporting points but no examples or details (dates, numbers, statistics).

2. Write an introductory paragraph that begins with a frame including an in-text citation of the source and the author as well as a reported speech to introduce the main idea. The reporting verb is generally in present tense.

1. At the end of your summary, double-space and write a reference for the in-text citation (see #8 below), following APA guidelines.

1. Article:

In the article, ____ (author's last name) (year) argues (claims/reports/contends/maintains/states) that _____ (main idea/argument).

Example: In his article, Serwer (1997) describes how Michael Dell founded Dell Computers and claims that Dell's low-cost, direct-sales strategy and high quality standards accounted for Dell's enormous success.

2. Book:

In his book *The Pearl*, John Steinbeck (1945) illustrates the fight between good and evil in humankind.

3. Interview:

In an interview _____ (first name last name) stated that _____ (main idea/argument;) (personal communication, month day, year).

Reporting Verbs:

STRONG ARGUMENT	NEUTRAL	INDICATING RESEARCH RESULTS	COUNTERARGUMENT	SUGGESTION	CRITICISM
argue	state	show	refute the claim	suggest	criticize
assert	note	demonstrate	argue against	recommend	
claim	report	illustrate			
contend	explain	indicate			
maintain	discuss	point out			
insist	illustrate	(studies/authors) prove			
posit	observe	(studies/authors) found			

Other examples of frames:

1. According to _____ (author's last name) (year), _____ (main idea; S + V + C).

2. _____ (author's last name) (year) argues that _____ (main idea; S + V + C).

3. If no author is given, use the title of the article: According to " _____ " (Title of the Article) (year), _____ (main idea; S+V+C).

4. _____ (topic/NP) has had a major impact on the _____ (NP) of _____ (main idea; NP) (author's last name, year).

5. _____'s (author's last name) article on _____ (topic/NP) (year) discusses the _____ (main idea; Noun Phrase) of _____ (NP).

3. The main idea or argument needs to be included in this first sentence. Then mention the major aspects/factors/reasons that are discussed in the article/lecture. Give a full reference for this citation at the end of the summary (see #6. below).

a. For a one-paragraph summary, discuss each supporting point in a separate sentence. Give 1-2 explanations for each supporting point, summarizing the information from the original.

b. For a multi-paragraph summary, discuss each supporting point in a separate paragraph. Introduce it in the first sentence (topic sentence).

Example: The first major area in which women have become a powerful force is politics.

4. Support your topic sentence with the necessary reasons or arguments raised by the author/lecturer but omit all references to details, such as dates or statistics.

5. Use discourse markers that reflect the organization and controlling idea of the original, for example cause-effect, comparison-contrast, classification, process, chronological order, persuasive argument, etc.

6. In a longer summary, remind your reader that you are paraphrasing by using "reminder phrases," such as

- The author goes on to say that ...
- The article (author) further states that ...
- (Author's last name) also states/maintains/argues that ...
- (Author's last name) also believes that ...
- (Author's last name) concludes that

6. Restate the article's/lecturer's conclusion in one sentence.

Unit 6. Citation of Sources (APA Style)

Using in-text citation.

Include an in-text citation when you refer to, summarize, paraphrase, or quote from another source. For every in-text citation in your paper, there must be a corresponding entry in your reference list.

APA in-text citation style uses the author's last name and the year of publication, for example: (Field, 2005). For direct quotations, include the page number as well, for example: (Field, 2005, p. 14). For sources such as websites and e-books that have

no page numbers, use a paragraph number. More information on citing sources without pagination is given on the [APA Style web page](#).

Example paragraph with in-text citation

A few researchers in the linguistics field have developed training programs designed to improve native speakers' ability to understand accented speech (Derwing, Rossiter, & Munro, 2002; Krech Thomas, 2004). Their training techniques are based on the research described above indicating that comprehension improves with exposure to non-native speech. Derwing et al. (2002) conducted their training with students preparing to be social workers, but note that other professionals who work with non-native speakers could benefit from a similar program.

References

Derwing, T. M., Rossiter, M. J., & Munro, M. J. (2002). Teaching native speakers to listen to foreign-accented speech. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 23(4), 245-259.

Krech Thomas, H. (2004). *Training strategies for improving listeners' comprehension of foreign-accented speech* (Doctoral dissertation). University of Colorado, Boulder.

In-text references should immediately follow the title, word, or phrase to which they are directly relevant, rather than appearing at the end of long clauses or sentences. In-text references should always precede punctuation marks. Below are examples of using in-text citation.

Author's name in parentheses:

One study found that the most important element in comprehending non-native speech is familiarity with the topic (Gass & Varonis, 1984).

Author's name part of narrative:

Gass and Varonis (1984) found that the most important element in comprehending non-native speech is familiarity with the topic.

Group as author:

First citation: (American Psychological Association [APA], 2015)
Subsequent citation: (APA, 2015)

Multiple works: (separate each work with semi-colons)

Research shows that listening to a particular accent improves comprehension of accented speech in general (Gass & Varonis, 1984; Krech Thomas, 2004).

Direct quote: (include page number)

One study found that “the listener's familiarity with the topic of discourse greatly facilitates the interpretation of the entire message” (Gass & Varonis, 1984, p. 85).

Gass and Varonis (1984) found that “the listener’s familiarity with the topic of discourse greatly facilitates the interpretation of the entire message” (p. 85).

Note: For **direct quotations of more than 40 words**, display the quote as an indented block of text without quotation marks and include the authors’ names, year, and page number in parentheses at the end of the quote. For example:

This suggests that familiarity with nonnative speech in general, although it is clearly not as important a variable as topic familiarity, may indeed have some effect. That is, prior experience with nonnative speech, such as that gained by listening to the reading, facilitates comprehension. (Gass & Varonis, 1984, p. 77)

Cite web pages in text as you would any other source, using the author and date if known. If the author is not known, use the title and the date as the in-text citation (for long titles just use the first few words). Your in-text citation should lead your reader to the corresponding entry in the reference list. For sources with no date use n.d. (for no date) in place of the year: (Smith, n.d.). Below are examples of using in-text citation with web pages.

In-text citation:

Role-play can help children learn techniques for coping with bullying (Kraiser, 2011).

In-text citation:

The term Nittany Lion was coined by Penn State football player Joe Mason in 1904 (All things Nittany, 2006).

Reference entry:

In-text citation:

Establishing regular routines, such as exercise, can help survivors of disasters recover from trauma (American Psychological Association [APA], n.d.).

Reference entry:

American Psychological Association. (n.d.). Recovering emotionally from disaster. Retrieved from <http://www.apa.org/helpcenter/recovering-disasters.aspx>

APA style has specific rules for citing works by multiple authors. Use the following guidelines to determine how to correctly cite works by multiple authors in text.

Note: When using multiple authors' names as part of your narrative, rather than in parentheses, always spell out the word **and**. For multiple authors' names within a parenthetical citation, use **&**.

See chart on page 177 of the manual for useful information on authors.

One author: (Field, 2005)

Two authors: (Gass & Varonis, 1984)

Three to five authors:

First citation: (Tremblay, Richer, Lachance, & Cote, 2010)

Subsequent citations: (Tremblay et al., 2010)

Six or more authors: (Norris-Shortle et al., 2006).

Unit 7. Plagiarism: What It is and How to Recognize and Avoid It

What is Plagiarism and Why is it Important? In college courses, we are continually engaged with other people's ideas: we read them in texts, hear them in lecture, discuss them in class, and incorporate them into our own writing. As a result, it is very important that we give credit where it is due. Plagiarism is using others' ideas and words without clearly acknowledging the source of that information. How Can Students Avoid Plagiarism? To avoid plagiarism, you must give credit whenever you use • another person's idea, opinion, or theory; • any facts, statistics, graphs, drawings—any pieces of information—that are not common knowledge; • quotations

of another person's actual spoken or written words; or • paraphrase of another person's spoken or written words. These guidelines are taken from the Student Code of Rights, Responsibilities, and Conduct.

How to Recognize Unacceptable and Acceptable Paraphrases Here's the ORIGINAL text, from page 1 of *Lizzie Borden: A Case Book of Family and Crime in the 1890s* by Joyce Williams et al.: The rise of industry, the growth of cities, and the expansion of the population were the three great developments of late nineteenth century American history. As new, larger, steam-powered factories became a feature of the American landscape in the East, they transformed farm hands into industrial laborers, and provided jobs for a rising tide of immigrants. With industry came urbanization the growth of large cities (like Fall River, Massachusetts, where the Borden family lived) which became the centers of production as well as of commerce and trade.

Here's an UNACCEPTABLE paraphrase that is plagiarism: The increase of industry, the growth of cities, and the explosion of the population were three large factors of nineteenth century America. As steam-driven companies became more visible in the eastern part of the country, they changed farm hands into factory workers and provided jobs for the large wave of immigrants. With industry came the growth of large cities like Fall River where the Borden family lived which turned into centers of commerce and trade as well as production. What makes this passage plagiarism? The preceding passage is considered plagiarism for two reasons: • the writer has only changed around a few words and phrases, or changed the order of the original's sentences. • the writer has failed to cite a source for any of the ideas or facts. If you do either or both of these things, you are plagiarizing. NOTE: This paragraph is also problematic because it changes the sense of several sentences (for example, "steam-driven companies" in sentence two misses the original's emphasis on factories).

Here's an ACCEPTABLE paraphrase: Fall River, where the Borden family lived, was typical of northeastern industrial cities of the nineteenth century. Steam-powered production had shifted labor from agriculture to manufacturing, and as immigrants arrived in the US, they found work in these new factories. As a result,

populations grew, and large urban areas arose. Fall River was one of these manufacturing and commercial centers (Williams 1). Why is this passage acceptable? This is acceptable paraphrasing because the writer: • accurately relays the information in the original uses her own words. • lets her reader know the source of her information.

Here's an example of quotation and paraphrase used together, which is also ACCEPTABLE: Fall River, where the Borden family lived, was typical of northeastern industrial cities of the nineteenth century. As steampowered production shifted labor from agriculture to manufacturing, the demand for workers "transformed farm hands into industrial laborers," and created jobs for immigrants. In turn, growing populations increased the size of urban areas. Fall River was one of these hubs "which became the centers of production as well as of commerce and trade" (Williams 1). Why is this passage acceptable? This is acceptable paraphrasing because the writer: • records the information in the original passage accurately. • gives credit for the ideas in this passage. • indicated which part is taken directly from her source by putting the passage in quotation marks and citing the page number. Note that if the writer had used these phrases or sentences in her own paper without putting quotation marks around them, she would be PLAGIARIZING. Using another person's phrases or sentences without putting quotation marks around them is considered plagiarism EVEN IF THE WRITER CITES IN HER OWN TEXT THE SOURCE OF THE PHRASES OR SENTENCES SHE HAS QUOTED.

Plagiarism and the World Wide Web

The World Wide Web has become a more popular source of information for student papers, and many questions have arisen about how to avoid plagiarizing these sources. In most cases, the same rules apply as to a printed source: when a writer must refer to ideas or quote from a WWW site, she must cite that source. If a writer wants to use visual information from a WWW site, many of the same rules apply. Copying visual information or graphics from a WWW site (or from a printed source) is very similar to quoting information, and the source of the visual information or graphic

must be cited. These rules also apply to other uses of textual or visual information from WWW sites; for example, if a student is constructing a web page as a class project, and copies graphics or visual information from other sites, she must also provide information about the source of this information. In this case, it might be a good idea to obtain permission from the WWW site's owner before using the graphics.

Strategies for Avoiding Plagiarism

1. Put in quotations everything that comes directly from the text especially when taking notes.
2. Paraphrase, but be sure you are not just rearranging or replacing a few words. Instead, read over what you want to paraphrase carefully; cover up the text with your hand, or close the text so you can't see any of it (and so aren't tempted to use the text as a "guide"). Write out the idea in your own words without peeking.
3. Check your paraphrase against the original text to be sure you have not accidentally used the same phrases or words, and that the information is accurate.

Terms You Need to Know (or What is Common Knowledge?)

Common knowledge: facts that can be found in numerous places and are likely to be known by a lot of people. Example: John F. Kennedy was elected President of the United States in 1960. This is generally known information. You do not need to document this fact. However, you must document facts that are not generally known and ideas that interpret facts. Example: According the American Family Leave Coalition's new book, *Family Issues and Congress*, President Bush's relationship with Congress has hindered family leave legislation (6). The idea that "Bush's relationship with Congress has hindered family leave legislation" is not a fact but an interpretation; consequently, you need to cite your source.

Quotation: using someone's words. When you quote, place the passage you are using in quotation marks, and document the source according to a standard documentation style. The following example uses the Modern Language Association's style: Example: According to Peter S. Pritchard in *USA Today*, "Public schools need reform but they're irreplaceable in teaching all the nation's young" (14).

Paraphrase: using someone's ideas, but putting them in your own words. This is probably the skill you will use most when incorporating sources into your writing. Although you use your own words to paraphrase, you must still acknowledge the source of the information.

Unit 8. Scientific writing

In scientific writing you are generally expected to write in a scientific style, with objectivity, clarity and precision. This can be achieved by using:

- Objectivity
- Clarity
- Formality
- Hedging

Objectivity

Even though it's people who carry out research work and have to write about the results, they're expected to remove themselves from the written account and present what they found in a fair, objective and responsible way.

As a scientific writer it's your job to achieve this in your own writing. You need to keep your own personal feelings out of the write up.

You're expected to analyse your results in the discussion section, but you should do this in a fair and even manner. You may present your own interpretation of the results, but should also highlight any opposing explanations or views.

An impersonal style, as expected in scientific writing, can usually be achieved by the use of the passive voice, by removing the doer of the action from the sentence.

In addition to using the passive voice, avoid ambiguous language; especially metaphors that might not be widely understood.

Use technical terms where appropriate, as these should be well understood by your audience.

Clarity

Clarity is an important part of scientific style. It can be achieved by using simple language choices in your writing as these help improve the ease with which your readers will be able to understand you.

Try to write in plain, clear and straightforward sentences. Each sentence should not be too long and should not contain too many clauses. If a sentence is too long try to break it into several smaller ones. You can repeat words and use linking words to lead your reader through the smaller sentences and how they relate to each other.

Writing in a concise manner will also help your clarity. Every extra word gives your reader something extra to read and understand. The more words you use the greater the chance that there will be a mistake or that your reader will misunderstand something.

Help your reader to understand you by giving them simple clear text to read.

Formality

Academic writing, including scientific writing, is formal writing. This means that you should not use words and language constructs that you'd use when speaking to someone, writing an email, or even writing for a website.

You shouldn't use contracted verbs which are a representation of spoken English verbs in a written form.

- The experiments won't be finished in this class. – *incorrect*
- The experiments will not be finished in this class – *correct*

The verb 'will not' has been contracted to 'won't' in the first sentence. This shouldn't be used in scientific writing.

The first person pronoun 'I' should not be used in scientific writing.

Generally when writing in a scientific style you should be using the passive voice, so should not need to regularly refer to yourself. When you do, use 'we', 'the team' or 'the research group', to show that you're speaking for the whole group which was involved in the experiments you're reporting. This is better than using 'I'.

Hedging

Hedging is about not making blunt, absolute or categorical statements. Hedging leaves room for your readers to disagree with you. This can include avoiding over-generalisations and toning down the amount of positiveness in your writing.

The use of hedging is linked to the impersonal part of writing in a scientific style. It's one of the ways of removing your own views and feelings about the quality of the results you're presenting and leaving it to your reader to decide if your work is important and good.

If you're too direct it might show overconfidence in your own work.

There are several ways to include hedging in your writing.

The first, as for formality, is to avoid the use of 'I' and use 'we' instead. It shows that the author is a member of a group which have all come to the same conclusion. This adds weight to your results when presenting positive statements.

Secondly you can use tentative verb forms and/or modal verbs.

Tentative verbs which you could use are:

- Seems to
- Appears to
- Tends to
 - This result supports our initial hypothesis. – *Over positive statement*
 - This result **seems** to support our initial hypothesis. – *Hedged statement*

While the modal verbs are:

- Can
- Could
 - The result proves our method works. – *Direct statement*
 - This result **could** prove our method works. – *Hedged statement*

Thirdly you could use adverbs to soften what you say or avoid claiming an absolute truth from your result.

Some of the adverbs you could use are:

- A little
- Rather
- Somewhat
- Almost
- Nearly
- Quite
- Approximately
- About
 - This is a disappointing result to report. – *Direct statement*

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

Types of academic 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 you 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 summarise the methods used to collect and analyse 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.

Descriptive

The simplest type of academic 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', 'summarise' and 'define'.

Analytical

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

Sometimes, these categories or relationships are already part of the discipline, while in other cases you will create them specifically for your text. 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: 'analyse', 'compare', 'contrast', 'relate', and 'examine'.

To make your writing more analytical:

- 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 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-organising 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 writing can include an argument, 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', and 'take a position'.

To help reach your own point of view on the facts or ideas:

- 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:

- 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' and 'evaluate'.

You need to:

- accurately summarise 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 analyse different interpretations and develop your own argument, supported by evidence.

Unit 9. Structuring written work

Some assignments have a standard format, such as lab reports or case studies, and these will normally be explained in your course materials. For other assignments, you will have to come up with your own structure.

Your structure might be guided by:

- the assignment question. For example, it may list topics or use wording such as 'compare and contrast'
- the subject matter itself, which may suggest a structure based on chronology, process or location
- your interpretation of the subject matter. For example, problem/solution, argument/counter-argument or sub-topics in order of importance

- the structure of other texts you've read in your discipline. Look at how the information is organised and sequenced. Make sure you modify the structure to suit your purpose to avoid plagiarism.

Essays

Essays are a very common form of academic writing. Like most of the texts you write at university, all essays have the same basic three-part structure: introduction, main body and conclusion. However, the main body can be structured in many different ways.

To write a good essay:

- know if you're expected to write an analytical, persuasive or critical essay
- clearly structure your main body and paragraphs
- use appropriate referencing
- use academic language.

Reports

Reports generally have the same basic structure as essays, with an introduction, body and conclusion. However, the main body structure can vary widely, as the term 'report' is used for many types of texts and purposes in different disciplines.

Find out as much as possible about what type of report is expected.

How to plan your structure

There are many ways to come up with a structure for your work. If you're not sure how to approach it, try some of the strategies below.

During and after reading your sources, take notes and start thinking about ways to structure the ideas and facts into groups. For example:

- look for similarities, differences, patterns, themes or other ways of grouping and dividing the ideas under headings. This could include advantages, disadvantages, causes, effects, problems, solutions or types of theory

- use coloured highlighters or symbols to tag themes or categories of information in your readings or notes

- cut and paste notes in a document

- physically group your readings or notes into piles.

It's a good idea to brainstorm a few different ways of structuring your assignment once you have a rough idea of the main issues. Do this in outline form before you start writing – it's much easier to re-structure an outline than a half-finished essay. For example:

- draw some tree diagrams, mind-maps or flowcharts showing which ideas, facts and references would be included under each heading
- discard ideas that don't fit into your overall purpose, and facts or references that are not useful for what you want to discuss
- if you have a lot of information, such as for a thesis or dissertation, create some tables to show how each theory or reading relates to each heading (this is often called a 'synthesis grid')
- plan the number of paragraphs you need, the topic heading for each one, and dot points for each piece of information and reference needed
- try a few different possible structures until you find the one that works best.

Eventually, you'll have a plan that is detailed enough for you to start writing. You'll know which ideas go into each section and, ideally, each paragraph. You will also know where to find evidence for those ideas in your notes and the sources of that evidence.

If you're having difficulties with the process of planning the structure of your assignment, consider trying a different strategy for grouping and organising your information.

Making the structure clear

Your writing will be clear and logical to read if it's easy to see the structure and how it fits together. You can achieve this in several ways.

- Use the end of the introduction to show the reader what structure to expect.
- Use headings and sub-headings to clearly mark the sections (if these are acceptable for your discipline and assignment type).
- Use topic sentences at the beginning of each paragraph, to show the reader what the main idea is, and to link back to the introduction and/or headings and sub-headings.

- Show the connections between sentences. The beginning of each sentence should link back to the main idea of the paragraph or a previous sentence.

- Use conjunctions and linking words to show the structure of relationships between ideas. Examples of conjunctions include: however, similarly, in contrast, for this reason, as a result and moreover.

Introductions

Most of the types of texts you write for university need to have an introduction. Its purpose is to clearly tell the reader the topic, purpose and structure of the paper.

As a rough guide, an introduction might be between 10 and 20 percent of the length of the whole paper and has three main parts.

1. The most general information, such as background and/or definitions.
2. The core of the introduction, where you show the overall topic, purpose, your point of view, hypotheses and/or research questions (depending on what kind of paper it is).
3. The most specific information, describing the scope and structure of your paper.

If the main body of your paper follows a predictable template, such as the method, results and discussion stages of a report in the sciences, you generally don't need to include a guide to the structure in your introduction.

You should write your introduction after you know both your overall point of view (if it is a persuasive paper) and the whole structure of your paper. You should then revise the introduction when you have completed the main body.

Paragraphs

Most academic writing is structured into paragraphs. It is helpful to think about each paragraph as a mini essay with a three-part structure:

- topic sentence (also known as introductory sentence)
- body of the paragraph
- concluding sentence (necessary for long paragraphs but otherwise optional).

The topic sentence introduces a general overview of the topic and the purpose of the paragraph. Depending on the length of the paragraph, this may be more than one sentence. The topic sentence answers the question 'what's the paragraph about?'.

The body of the paragraph develops this topic. It may elaborate directly on the topic sentence by giving definitions, classifications, explanations, contrasts, examples and evidence.

The final sentence in many, but not all, paragraphs is the concluding sentence. It does not present new information, but often either summarises or comments on the paragraph content. It can also provide a link, by showing how the paragraph links to the topic sentence of the next paragraph. The concluding sentence often answers the question 'so what?', by explaining how this paragraph relates back to the main topic.

You don't have to write all your paragraphs using this structure. For example, there are paragraphs with no topic sentence, or the topic is mentioned near the end of the paragraph. However, this is a clear and common structure that makes it easy for the reader to follow.

Conclusions

The conclusion is closely related to the introduction and is often described as its 'mirror image'. This means that if the introduction begins with general information and ends with specific information, the conclusion moves in the opposite direction.

The conclusion usually:

- begins by briefly summarising the main scope or structure of the paper
- confirms the topic that was given in the introduction. This may take the form of the aims of the paper, a thesis statement (point of view) or a research question/hypothesis and its answer/outcome.

- ends with a more general statement about how this topic relates to its context. This may take the form of an evaluation of the importance of the topic, implications for future research or a recommendation about theory or practice.

Unit 10. Scientific Literature

In its earliest stages, the scientific literature took the form of letters, books, and other writings produced and published by individuals for the purpose of sharing their research. For example, the Babylonians recorded significant astronomical events like lunar eclipses on clay tablets as early as the 6th century BCE (see our Description in Scientific Research module). The notable scientist Alhazen from Basra, Iraq, handwrote a seven-volume treatise on his experiments in the field of optics while he was under house arrest in Cairo, Egypt, between 1011 and 1021 CE (see our Experimentation in Scientific Research module). Much of Galileo Galilei's ground-breaking work was published as a series of letters, such as his *Letters on Sunspots or the Letter to Grand Duchess Christina*. Isaac Newton's landmark *Philosophiæ Naturalis Principia Mathematica* was published as a series of books in 1686, largely paid for from the personal fortune of the English astronomer Edmund Halley.

Today, although scientists still publish books and letters, the vast majority of the scientific literature is published in the form of peer reviewed journal articles, a practice that started in the mid-1600s. This means that the articles are reviewed by at least two scientists with expertise in the same area of science who comment on the article and decide whether it should be published. In March 1665, the Royal Society of London (see our Scientific Institutions and Societies module) began publishing *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London*. The serial not only included a description of events that occurred at the weekly meetings of the Royal Society, but it also included results from scientific investigations conducted outside of the Royal Society meetings by its members. This publication was made available to other scientists as well as the general public, and thus it helped establish an archive of scientific research.

Other journals in which scientists could publish their findings appeared around the same time. The French *Journal des sçavans* (translated as *Journal of the Savants* – a "savant" is a member of a scholarly society) actually began publishing a few months before *Philosophical Transactions* but it did not carry scientific research reports until

after (Figure 1). The Italian journal *Saggi di naturali esperienze* (*Essays of natural experiments*) was first published in 1667 by the Accademia del Cimento in Florence. By the mid-18th century, most major European cities had their own scientific society, each with its own scientific publication.

As the number of scientific journals expanded, they helped promote the progress of science itself. Whereas Newton had to seek a wealthy donor to fund the publication of his research, it was no longer the wealthiest or best-known individuals who had the ability to publish their findings. As a result, many more individuals were encouraged to take up the study of science and publish their own research. This in turn led to an explosion in the number of scientific studies that were conducted and the resulting knowledge that was generated from this research.

However, the expansion of the scientific literature also created challenges. As the knowledge base of science grew, it became more difficult to keep track of the discoveries that were made. By the 18th century, many journals also included abstracts or short summaries of scientific research papers published in other journals so that their readers could stay current with the latest scientific advances.

In 1945, Vannevar Bush, an American scientist and statesman, highlighted the importance of the archive of research contained within the scientific literature when, in an essay first published in *The Atlantic Monthly*, he wrote, "A record if it is to be useful to science, must be continuously extended, it must be stored, and above all it must be consulted." Inspired by Bush's essay, Eugene Garfield, an American scientist, founded the Institute for Scientific Information (ISI). In 1960, ISI introduced *Science Citation Index*, the first citation index for scientific scholarly journals. *Science Citation Index* makes use of the inherent linking characteristics of scientific papers: A single scientific paper contains citations to any number of earlier studies on which that work builds, and eventually it too is cited by future research studies. Thus, each published manuscript is one node in a network of citations. In making these networks explicit, *Science Citation Index* emphasizes a key aspect of the scientific literature – the way that it is continuously extended and builds on itself. Evidence that scientists consult that continuously growing record is seen in the reference list that accompanies

every scientific journal article. Understanding how scientists utilize the scientific literature is a key component to understanding how science works.

The scientific literature in practice

In a lecture discussing the connections between scientific writing and scientific discovery, Frederic Holmes, an American biologist and historian of science, has said:

When scientists refer to the "literature" of their fields, they have in mind something very different from what we mean when we talk of literature in general. The literature of a scientific specialty area is the accumulated corpus of research articles contained in the journals of the field, and it is regarded as the primary repository of the knowledge that defines the state of that field. (Holmes, 1987)

As Vannevar Bush noted, literature is useful only if it is consulted, and scientists must make it clear in their own work when they have, in fact, consulted that "accumulated corpus of research articles." You are probably familiar with the notion of citing sources, the way that, for example, a journalist indicates the experts that he or she consulted to write a news article. When scientists cite sources in their scientific journal articles, they are doing more than just showing which experts they consulted, however. Scientists consult the literature to learn all they can about a specific area of study, and then cite those articles to both acknowledge the authors as the originators of the idea they are discussing and also to help readers understand their line of reasoning in coming to their own conclusions.

Using the literature is an ongoing, iterative process for all scientists. For example, when beginning to conduct a geologic field investigation in the Warner Range in northeastern California, Anne Egger first did a search in GeoRef, a geosciences-themed database of journal articles, to see if anyone had published geologic maps or other investigations in this region. She did not want to duplicate any work that had already been done, and also wanted to see what information was already available. She first came across a paper published in 1986 by two geologists from the U.S. Geological Survey, in which they presented their work on determining the ages of volcanic rocks in the region (Duffield & McKee, 1986). These data would be very useful in understanding the volcanic history of the region. In addition, she used a

technique that many scientists use when searching the literature: She consulted the reference list in the paper, as it provided a wealth of additional papers for her to search. One such paper was a publication entitled "Basin Range Structure and Stratigraphy of the Warner Range, Northeastern California," by Richard Joel Russell, published by the University of California Press in 1928. This appeared to be the first published scientific investigation in this region (Russell, 1928). The USGS geologists had added more detail to Russell's work, but only in the southern part of the range. Therefore, these and other resources helped Egger and her colleagues decide to focus on the central and northern parts of the range, where less was known about the geology. In addition, they helped define where there were still unanswered questions.

One such unanswered question was the origin of the sedimentary rock layers in the Warner Range (see Figure 2). Several geologists had noted the presence of granite cobbles in these sedimentary rock layers. Cobbles in general indicate that the sediments were deposited by a large river, but the presence of granite cobbles indicates something else: Although granite is common in other parts of California, there is none nearby, so they had to be carried a long distance by that ancient river. By looking at the age and chemical make-up of the granite cobbles, Egger and her colleagues could compare them to granite in other areas and try to determine where the cobbles came from. They collected data in the field and in the laboratory, eventually preparing a scientific journal article about the work they did, entitled "Provenance and paleogeographic implications of Eocene-Oligocene sedimentary rocks in the northwestern Basin and Range" (Egger, Colgan, & York, 2009).

The literature as a data source

In some cases, the literature itself can serve as source for data collection. This has been the case in paleontology, for example, where many investigations over the past several hundred years have involved publishing descriptions of fossil localities, including which species and genera are present in different rock layers. In 1982, John Sepkoski Jr. published a compilation of data of when individual species of marine fossils first appear in the rock record, and when they are no longer seen in rocks.

These data came from thousands of published reports (Sepkoski, 1982). In several earlier papers, Sepkoski had analyzed these compiled data and, based on that analysis, developed new ideas about taxonomic diversity through time (for example Sepkoski, 1979). In 1984, Sepkoski and his colleague David Raup published a controversial paper on the apparent regular occurrence of mass extinction events through time (Raup & Sepkoski, 1984), based entirely on the collection of data from the published literature. This type of analysis – often called *meta-analysis* – could not be done without the reliable archive of research provided by the scientific literature. Meta-analysis is especially useful in fields like medicine and climate science, where the results of studies with disparate methods can be combined to yield more robust results.

Of course, our knowledge and understanding of the natural world continue to evolve, inevitably revealing some mistakes in interpretation in the existing literature, as well as causing some material and ideas to become out of date. Sepkoski recognized this likelihood, and in 1993 he published a paper entitled "Ten Years in the Library: New Data Confirm Paleontological Patterns" (Sepkoski, 1993). In that article, he notes:

As soon as the manuscript for the 1982 Compendium went to press, I began discovering new and old paleontological literature that changed times of origination and extinction ... After publication..., the original data received special scrutiny from taxonomic experts, and embarrassing errors and promulgations of antiquated data were revealed.

Sepkoski collected the changes and reanalyzed the data. Interestingly, he found little difference in the conclusions about evolutionary patterns that he had published earlier (Sepkoski, 1993). For paleontology, this result has important implications. As Sepkoski states:

the major patterns of ... evolution are rather insensitive to new fossil discoveries and changes in taxonomic interpretation, indicating that analyses of transitory data can be robust, so long as a large component of the biosphere is being considered.

A similar conclusion can be drawn for the scientific literature as a whole, as well – though some mistakes get published, and our interpretations change, as a whole, the literature is robust and a reliable source of scientific data.

Searching the scientific literature can be challenging – thinking of the best keywords and concepts, finding the best resources, and accumulating a strong set of articles is a process that takes time and practice.

Unit 11. WHAT IS "SCIENTIFIC LITERATURE".

Literature is a term used frequently in academic and library circles that just means "the stuff that's been published on a topic."

There are three basic “levels” of literature, each reflecting a different stage of the ongoing creation, discussion, and reevaluation of research that is the essence of scholarly publishing.

Primary Literature: accounts of original research, written by the researchers who performed it. Sometimes also called *empirical research*, since it is concerned with measuring, evaluating, and testing hypotheses. Primary literature **must** provide enough information to allow another researcher (with the right skills) to reproduce the experiment. **Examples:** journal articles, conference proceedings, dissertations, and patents.

Secondary Literature: This type of literature refers to the primary sources, in some cases synthesizing information from primary sources to draw new conclusions, or repackaging it in a new form. Generally, secondary literature provides some new information or criticism on the topics discussed. **Examples:** monographs (a fancy word for books), encyclopedias, some textbooks, and annual reviews.

Tertiary Literature: Tertiary literature is primarily used as a finding aid for primary and secondary literature, and does not usually provide any new information. **Examples:** directories, indexes, and bibliographies

In terms of locating the latest information on a research area, ***the most important type is primary literature***. Secondary and tertiary literature are there to assist you in

locating and understanding the primary literature, but it is the first-hand accounts of actual research that let you know what has been done, and what researchers have discovered.

Unit 12. The Internet

Last years the classical function of libraries has been more and more superseded by various electronic information systems which enable exchange, acquisition and transmission of information, searching, processing and storage of data and reviewing and lending of library material. As to their resources and unlimited access, no classical library at present can be compared with their capabilities of providing information. Generally speaking Internet is a global library. However, it is well known that it enables several different services, such as e-mail and access to distant computers and networks. So far, e-mail has been a significant factor in all areas of the Internet. Users of the Internet may search for various data, exchange information and communicate with the other users of Internet primarily by means of search engines such as Excite, Magellan, Point, Income, Alta Vista, InfoSeek, Lycos, Open Text Index, WebCrawler, Yahoo, etc.

The Internet is the latest jewel in the crown of information technology. Also known as the information super-highway, it is an international infrastructure used for data communication which is becoming as popular and relied upon as the telephone. The important characteristic of the Internet is its speed of information flow. Hence e-mail (electronic mail) travels much faster and is thus much preferred than traditional paper mail (also known as snailmail). E-mail is also beginning to replace many phone calls. This is because e-mail allows the senders the ability to edit information before they post it. Also, e-mail allows the receiver to answer at their own leisure. Another beneficial feature of the Internet is that being supported mostly by academic and nonprofit organizations, the information is free (after an initial connection fee). This means that this technology is not greatly restricted to or dominated by any particular economic class. In fact, the huge amount of competition between the Internet service providers means that the costs related to net-usage are even beginning to decline. The fact that the information is free to the end-user has also sparked a great deal of

commercial interest. Many companies are investing time and money into net-advertisements. They hope that their free promotional material can tap into the new consumer market of the computer-user.

Unfortunately, the Internet does contain inbuilt values like most technologies. On the Internet, English dominates, the United States of America is the source of most information and the information is generally a product of the pro-technology community. But despite these prejudices of the medium, the huge popularity of the Internet has led to end-users inventing ingenious ways to overcome these problems. For example, the net allows for teleporting (via telnet facilities) to other countries. This is akin to having multiple foreign exchange students and similarly, encourages cultural bio-diversity. Also, information on the net often appears in other languages, of which Japanese and German are very common.

Answer the questions:

1. How has the classical function of libraries been changed?
2. What services does Internet enable?
3. What may users of Internet search?

Dwell upon:

- a) characteristic feature of E-mail;
- b) the costs related to net-usage;
- c) the problem of replacing libraries by the Internet

Unit 13. My Research Work

I. Before you read answer the questions

1. What is your special subject?
2. What field of knowledge are you doing research in?
3. What is the title of your master's thesis?
4. Who is your research adviser?
5. How many scientific papers have you published?

II. Read the text and complete the gaps with information on your research work.

I was doing research under the supervision of Professor / Associate Professor _____, an authority in the field. I belong to the department of _____. The academic staff of our department are engaged in active research in almost all branches of _____

The title of my master's thesis is "_____". My special subject is _____. I combine practical work with scientific research. I am doing research in _____. My aim is to _____.

This branch of knowledge has been rapidly developing in the last two decades. The obtained results have already found wide application in most varied spheres of the country's _____. I am particularly interested in _____ which includes _____. I have been working at the problem for _____ years. I got interested in it when I was an undergraduate student. My work is primarily of practical importance. It is based on the theory of _____ developed by _____.

I work in close cooperation with my colleagues. There are several research teams at our department. The team I work in is headed by _____ He is my scientific adviser. I always consult him when I encounter difficulties in my research. We often discuss the obtained data.

I have not yet completed the experimental part of my thesis, but I am through with theoretical part. So far I have written _____ scientific papers, some of which were published when I was a student.

While studying _____ I've acquired research skills to analyse, collect, and process information, and generate new ideas and original methods. I take part in various scientific conferences where I make reports on my subject, I willingly participate in scientific discussions and debates. I am planning to finish writing the thesis by the end of next academic year I hope to obtain Master's degree in _____.

III. For each word below, find the sentence it occurs in the text above and answer the questions:

thesis acquire experimental difficulties willingly

1. Is the word positive, negative or neutral?;
2. Is it a noun, adjective, adverb or verb?;
3. Can you think of a word with a similar meaning (synonym) and one with an opposite meaning (antonym)?

IV. Find synonyms to the words given

- do research: a) analyse; b) carry out research; c) conduct research; d) pursue research
- obtain: a) give; b) award; c) get; d) gain
- supervision: a) examining; b) guidance; c) administration; d) surveillance
- scientific paper: a) scientific data; b) scientific report; c) scientific article; d) scientific journal.

V. Answer the questions:

- What MS program have you entered?
- What department do you belong to?
- What is your special subject?
- What field of knowledge are you doing research in?
- Have you been working at the problem long?
- What is the title of your master's thesis
- Is your work of practical or theoretical importance?
- Who do you collaborate with?
- When do you consult your scientific adviser?
- Have you completed the experimental part of your dissertation?
- How many scientific papers have you published?
- What research skills have you acquired while studying in the program
- Do you take part in scientific conferences?
- Where and when are you going to obtain the MS degree?

Phases for Summarizing

The paper/text is entitled ...

is called ...

is named ...

The title of the paper/ text is ...

The paper / text is published in...

The author (s) of the paper is (are)...

The article/ text is written by ...

The present paper/ text deals with...

The paper/ text under discussion (consideration) is concerned with ...

is devoted to ...

The paper/ text considers ...

discusses ...

describes ...

gives a brief account of ...

contains a survey of

presents a picture of

provides information on ...

reviews briefly ...

touches upon the issue of...

is about ...

centers round the problem of...

presents some data on ...

contains information on ...

The paper/ text is intended (aims) to describe (explain, characterize) ...

The paper/ text under consideration is mainly focused on ... issues:...

considers (describes) the following main issues: ...

First/ firstly, is/are discussed (described, shown, considered) in the paper/ text.

The paper/ text begins with the discussion of ...

The first part deals with ...

In the first part the problem of ... is considered in detail.

The first part concentrates (focuses) on ...

The introductory part reviews ...

Then/ Secondly ... is/ are analyzed (considered, reviewed).

The author goes on to show that ...

Also/ In addition the problem of ... is considered.

Besides, some comments on ... are given.

Then the author makes an attempt to show that ...

The paper/ text also presents some data on ...

The paper/ text also mentions the fact that ...

The paper/ text also contains ...

Besides, the paper/ text touches upon the problem of ...

The mechanism of ... was/has been investigated using the method / technique of ...

The structure of ... was/has been studied by (the method of) ...

The phenomenon of ... was/has been analyzed (by means of)

The process of ... was/has been examined making use of technique of ...

The function of ... was/has been analyzed by ...

Finally, the relationship between ... was/has been established.

the interaction between ... was/has been determined.

the parameters of ... were/have been calculated.

some information concerning ... was/has been obtained.

the properties of ... were/have been evaluated.

It was/has been found that ...

It was/has been shown that ...

It was/has been suggested that ...

It was/has been concluded that ...

Special attention is paid (given, called) to...

... is/ are of special importance (significance, interest)

It is stressed (underlined, emphasized) that ...

Much attention is focused on ...

... is/are emphasized (underlined, stressed, pointed out)

Summing up, the author points out that ...

Summing up the discussion, the author emphasizes that ...

Summarizing, the author says that ...

To summarize, the author says that ...

In conclusion, the author emphasizes that ...

Speaking practice.

1. Answer the questions.

1. What does the book begin with? (a short introductory chapter) 2. What does the article begin with? (an introductory part; a few general remarks; a short introduction) 3. What is each subsection preceded by? (a brief theoretical introduction; some introductory notes; an introductory discussion) 4. What does the book introduce to? (the work done in ...; the new data in the field of ...; the up-to-date techniques in ...) 5. What does the book acquaint us with? (recent discoveries in ...; applications of new methods; the work done in the field of; experimental technique).

2. Translate:

1. A list of references.
2. Key references.
3. A complete set of references.
4. To make reference to somebody (or something).
5. A reference book.
6. A work of reference.

3. Answer the questions.

1. Did you (the author) provide your (his) paper with a list of references?
2. Whom did you (the author) make reference to?
3. Is your (the author's) list of references complete (extensive, numerous, adequate, inadequate)?
4. What kind of book do you consult if you need some information?
5. What reference work do you usually consult?
6. Who is the author or editor of this work of reference?
7. What is the headline of the article you are going to tell us about?
8. What is the heading of the last section?
9. Does the title describe the subject?

10. Under what headings does the subject matter appear?

11. What is the title of your paper?

4. Complete the sentences.

1. The title of the book I am reading is 2. The title of my professor's work for Doctor's Degree is 3. The title of my friend's thesis is 4. The heading of the chapter I am interested in is 5. The headline of the article we discussed last time is ...

5. Put in: subject, object или subject matter:

1. The ... of the textbook falls into two sections.

2. The ... of my work is to investigate this particular problem.

3. I'm engaged in one of the aspects of the broad ... of law.

4. The ... of my thesis is arranged in the following way.

5. The ... of the book is of major importance.

6. The ... of the paper is to give some idea about family law.

6. Answer the questions.

1. What subjects are dealt with in your thesis (paper, article, the book you are reading)?

2. What is the subject of your research?

3. What is the object of your research (investigation)?

4. The subject of your research is of practical importance, isn't it?

5. How is the subject matter of your thesis (paper, the book you are reading) arranged?

6. How many chapters does the book you are reading consist of

7. Do the chapters contain any summary?

8. Does the book contain any original data?

9. Does it contain any errors?

7. Make up the annotation of your scientific work.

1. The title of the book
2. The time and the place of its publication
3. The aim of the book
4. The subject of the book
5. For whom the book is written
6. The author(s) of the book
7. The list of references
8. The arrangement of the subject matter
9. The contents of each part
10. The style and the way books are illustrated
11. Your own opinion about the value of the book.

8. Dwell upon your scientific thesis (articles).

1. What is the subject of your thesis?
2. Have you already published any articles?
3. Where and when did you publish them?
4. What are the titles of your published papers?
5. What problems do you deal with in those papers?
6. What are you going to prove in the course of your research?
7. Is there much or little material published on the subject of your research?
8. Who are your published papers addressed to?
9. What do you give much attention to in you published papers?
10. What is of particular interest in your paper?
11. How many parts does your paper consist of?
12. What is the purpose of your paper?
13. What do you treat in your introductory part?
14. What do you say in conclusion?
15. Who do you makes references to?

9. Translate the words.

to publish, sphere, research, to include, importance, to develop, to collaborate; enterprise, scientific adviser, scientific degree, to be awarded, department, to encounter, branch, research team, data, to participate, to take post-graduate courses, to prove a thesis (dissertation).

10. Find the synonyms.

1) device, research, technology, branch, obtain, importance, collaborator, team, scientific adviser, to enable, thesis, journal, to prove a thesis, to collect, data, to encounter, to be engaged in, to be through with, scientific papers, rapidly;

2) quickly, publications, instrument, technique, to finish, to be busy with, field, to get, significance, to come across, information, to gather, coworker, group, supervisor, to defend a dissertation, scientific magazine, dissertation, to allow, investigation

11. Find the antonyms.

1) theory, to obtain, rapidly, experimentator, to finish, to increase, new, experienced, unknown, wide, passive, to enable, high, complicated;

2) simple, low, practice, to give, to disable, active, slowly, theoretician, narrow, famous, to start, to decrease, old, inexperienced.

12. Make up the sentences.

a) Example: I took post-graduate courses in economics and applied quantitative methods.

1) psychology; 2) in international law; 3) informatics; 4) economics with mathematics; 5) business administration.

b) Example: I am to take the candidate examination in English.

1) in philosophy; 2) in the special subject.

c) Example: My scientific adviser received the State Prize.

1) got his Ph. D. degree in Kiev; 2) made a considerable contribution into economics; 3) took part in various scientific conferences and symposia.

d) Example: I take part in annual conferences of our university.

1) in international symposia; 2) in making experiments; 3) in delivering lecture in economics.

13. Read the following sentences.

1. The title of the article The article is headlined... The headline of the article I have read is...

2. The author of the article, where and when the article was published The author of the article is... The article is written by... It is published in ...

3. The general topic of the article, the aim of it The main idea of the article is... the article is about... the article is devoted to ...The article deals with...The article touches upon...The purpose of the article is to give the reader some information on... the aim of the article is to provide the reader with some material (data) on...

4. The contents of the article. Some facts, names, figures The author starts by telling the reader that... The author writes (states, stresses, thinks, points out) that... The article describes... According to the text...Further the author reports (says)... The article goes on to say that... In conclusion... the author comes to the conclusion that... 5. Your opinion of the article I found the article interesting (important, dull, of no value, too hard to understand...)

Grammar Focus

1. Open the brackets.

A.1. We always (to consult) a dictionary when we (to translate) texts. 2. We (to take part) in a sport competition last Sunday. 3. My friend (to pass) entrance examinations to the University last month. 4. He (to study) at the Law Department now. 5. He (to graduate) from the University in five years and will become a lawyer. 6. The students (to come) to the lectures every day. 7. We (not to go) to the country this Sunday.

B. 1. When he (to graduate) from the University, he will become a good specialist. 2. If you (to prepare) the report in time, you will take part in the conference. 3. When I (to be) 18, I (to take part) in the elections. 4. We (revise) the rules in some days. 5. If you (to come) to the lecture, you will learn many interesting things.

2. Open the brackets.

1. If you (to make) a mistake, they will find you. If they (to find) you, they will catch you. If they (to catch) me, I shall confess. If you (to confess), they will put you in prison. If you (to be) lucky, they won't catch you. 2. If you (to go) to Rome, you'll see the Coliseum. If you (to visit) London, probably you will see the Queen. If you (to stay) with me, you won't see anything, but I'll be happy. 3. When he (to propose) to her, she'll marry him. But she won't be happy when she (to marry) him. 4. I shall visit you as soon as I (to feel) better. 5. We shall stay here as long as our money (to last). 6. They won't send us a telegram unless there (to be) something urgent. 7. You'll phone me before you (to go) away, won't you? 8. I'll come to London after they (to find) some place for us stay at. 9. We'll work till it (to get) absolutely dark. 10. Students won't get financial rewards unless they (to get) high grades. 11. What will you do when summer (to come)? 12. If he not (to come), we'll have a problem

3. Choose which verb tense (simple past or past continuous) fits better.

1. I _____ - I didn't hear you come in.

a) was sleeping b) slept

2. I _____ to see her twice, but she wasn't home.

a) was coming b) came

3. What _____? I was watching TV.

a) did you do b) were you doing

4. Robin Hood was a character who _____ from the rich and gave to the poor.

a) stole b) was stealing

5. Hey, did you talk to her? Yes, I _____ to her

a) was talking b) talked

6. I _____ home very late last night.

a) came b) was coming

7. How long _____ the flu?

a) did you have b) were you having

8. _____ a good time in Brazil? Yes, I had a blast!

a) Were you having b) Did you have

9. We _____ breakfast when she walked into the room.

a) had b) were having

10. Last month I decided to buy a new car, and today I finally _____ it.

a) bought b) was buying

4. Complete the following sentences with the correct form (Past Simple or Past Continuous).

1. A: What (you, do) _____ when you heard that noise? B: I (try) _____ to change a light bulb that had burnt out.

2. After I (find) _____ the wallet full of money, I (go, immediately) _____ to the police and (turn) _____ it in.

3. The doctor (say) _____ that Brian (be) _____ too weak to go to work and that he (need) _____ to stay at home for a couple of days.

4. My best friend (arrive) _____ at my house a little before 9:00 pm, but I (be, not) _____ there. I (study) _____ at the library for my final examination in Italian.

5. John is in the living room working on his computer. At this time yesterday, he (work, also) _____ on his computer. That's all he ever does!

6. I (call) _____ you last night after dinner, but you (be, not) _____ there. Where were you? B: I (work) _____ out at the gym.

7. When I (walk) _____ into the busy office, the secretaries (talk) _____ on the phone with customers, a clerk (work, busily) _____ at his desk, and two managers (discuss, quietly) _____ methods to improve customer service.

8. I (watch) _____ a thriller on T.V. when the electricity went out. Now I am never going to find out how the film ends.

9. Samantha (be) _____ in the room when Bob (tell) _____ me what happened, but she didn't hear anything because she (be, listen) _____ to music.

10. It's strange that you (call) _____ because I (think, just) _____ about you.

5. Find the Past Simple of the following verbs:

Work _____ come _____

Walk _____ speak _____

Talk _____ see _____

Clean _____ do _____

Live _____ go _____

Wash _____ sing _____

Write the correct form of the verb, using the Past Simple or the Past Continuous tense.

A: I _____ (see) Peter and John in the park on Sunday.

B: _____ (they/play) football? They always play football on Sundays.

A: No, they _____ (not/be). They _____ (talk) with some girls.

B: _____ (you/say) hello to them?

A. Although I _____ (call) their names, they _____ (not/hear) me.

B: Maybe they _____ (not/notice) you _____ (be) there

6. Put the verbs in brackets into the Past Continuous or the Past Simple.

1) Frank _____ (finish) his lunch and _____ (ring) his friend Jason. 2) Jason _____ (watch) TV when Fran _____ (phone) him. 3) He _____ (turn off) the TV when he _____ (hear) the phone ringing. 4) They _____ (decide) what to do when Jason _____ (suggest) going to the club. 5) Frank _____ Jason _____ (pick up) and _____ (drive) to the club. 6) Two other people _____ (use) their tennis court when they _____ (arrive). 7) They _____ (drink) a soda and _____ (eat) a sandwich while they _____ (wait) to play. 8) While they _____ (play), it _____ (start) to rain so they _____ (have) to stop playing.

7. Present Perfect vs Past Simple

The Present and the Past Simple are often used in academic writing:

Present Perfect Active

active: has/have published/ written

passive: has/have been published/ written

We often use Present Perfect to talk about actions that are completed before now.

These actions are completed in the period of time that is unfinished.

Two articles *have been published* in the journal this year.

Past Simple

active: published/wrote

passive: was/were published/written

We use Past Simple to talk about finished actions and situations in the past. We know, and often say, the time of the action or situation.

They *published* an interesting article in Scientific American last month.

8. Present Perfect vs Past Simple

Complete these sentences with the Present Perfect or Past Simple of the verbs in brackets.

1. I (play) a lot of tennis this year.
2. She (have) six different jobs since she graduated from the university.
3. How many cups of coffee (you drink) today?
4. In those days, Andrew (come) to stay with us most weekends.
5. Since my brother lost his job, he (write) two books.
6. Would you believe I (make) twenty-three phone calls today?
7. Mary (go) to Australia for a while but she's back again now.
8. I did German at school but I (forget) most of it.
9. I (have) a headache earlier but I feel fine now.
10. "Is Helen still here?" "No, she (just/go) out".
11. Ann (give) me her address but I'm afraid I (lose) it.
12. What do you think of my English? Do you think I (improve)?

13. I (not read) her latest book.
14. Columbus (not discover) America: the Indians already (know) where it was.
15. Amazing news! Scientists (discover) a new planet!
16. I (never enjoy) a holiday as much as this one.

9. Translate the sentences (Present Perfect) .

1. What a boring film! It's the most boring film I have ever seen.
2. Have you heard from George recently?
3. I have met a lot of people in the last few days.
4. Everything is going well. We haven't had any problems so far.
5. I am hungry. I haven't eaten anything since breakfast.
6. It's nice to see you again. We haven't seen each other for a long time.
7. I've drunk four cups of coffee today.
8. Have you had a holiday this year (yet)?
9. I haven't seen Tom this morning. Have you?
10. Ron hasn't worked very hard this term.
11. It's the first time he has driven a car. He has never driven a car before.
12. Linda has lost her passport again. It's the second time this has happened.
13. Have you ever spoken to the famous person?

10. Translate the sentences (Present Perfect Continuous).

1. You're out of breath. Have you been running?
2. Paul is very tired. He has been working very hard.
3. Why are your clothes so dirty? What have you been doing?
4. How long has it been raining? – It has been raining for two hours.
5. How long have you been learning English?
6. Tim is still watching television. He has been watching television all day.
7. Where have you been? – I have been looking for you for the last half hour.
8. George hasn't been feeling well recently.
9. Debbie is a good tennis player. She has been playing since she was eight.
10. Every morning they meet in the same cafe. They have been going there for years.
11. I have been working hard, so now I'm going to have a rest.
12. The ground is wet. It has been raining.
13. We have been waiting for you an hour.
14. I have been learning Spanish since December.
15. He has been looking for a job for six months.
16. Mary has been working in London

since 18 January. 17. We have been going to the South for years. 18. They have been working hard recently.

11. Translate the following sentences (Passive Voice).

1. My letter was answered at once. 2. We were joined by a group of our students in the Crimea. 3. These events were followed by a wave of strikes. 4. The lecture was attended by many students. 5. The terms were agreed upon. 6. We hope that agreement will be arrived at. 7. He was listened to attentively. 8. This problem was not spoken about. 9. The doctor will be sent for at once. 10. This book was often referred to. 11. He was never heard of. 12. The terms were insisted upon. 13. They are taught French at school. 14. He was offered a new job. 15. We are paid twice a month.

12. Use Present Simple, Present Continuous или Present Perfect Continuous tenses.

My brother (work) at a research Institute. He (work) for five years since 1996. He (work) on his thesis now. He (work) on his thesis for a year. Now he (make) his experiments at the laboratory. 2. Professor M. (take) courses in English and American Literature. He (know) six foreign languages. He (speak) and (read) four languages fluently. At present he (learn) Japanese. He (learn) it for some month. 3. What you usually (do) in the evenings? I usually (do) my homework, (read), sometimes I (watch) television. Now I (write) a report. I (work) on it for an hour and a half. 4. Don't go out, it (rain) now. It (rain) since early morning. It often (rain) here in autumn.

13. Open the brackets using Past Perfect tense.

1. She hoped I (to pay) for the tickets. 2. When we came the plane (to take off). 3. I went to sleep as soon as the show (to finish). 4. By the end of the year he (to complete) five courses. 5. When they came home mother (to do) everything about the house. 6. I went to see the sights after I (to buy) a map of Moscow. 7. After I (to spend) all the money I turned to my father. 8. She understood the letter after she (to read) it a second time. 9. We (to keep) waiting until we lost patience.

14. Open the brackets using Past Perfect или Past Simple.

Model: When I (to come) home, mother already (to cook) dinner. When I came home, mother had already cooked dinner.

1. When father (to return) from work, we already (to do) our homework. 2. Kate (to give) me the book which she (to buy) the day before. 3. Mother (to see) that Nick (not to wash) his hands. 4. The teacher (to understand) that Lena (not to do) her homework. 5. I (to know) that my friend (not yet to come). 6. Tom (to return) from the cinema at 5 o'clock. 7. She (to return) from the theatre by 5 o'clock. 8. I (to finish) my homework at 7 o'clock. 9. He (to finish) his homework by 7 o'clock. 10. He (to think) that he (to lose) the money. 11. Ann (to tell) me that she (to see) an interesting film. 12. When I (to wake) up yesterday, father already (to go) to work. 13. Nick (to think) that his father (not yet to come) home. 14. Mary (to tell) us that she (to cook) a good dinner. 15. Yesterday I (to find) the book which I (to lose) in summer. 16. When we (to come) to the station, the train already (to leave). 17. Jenny (to say) that he (to get) his education in Cape Town. 18. He (not to know) who (to attack) him in darkness. 19. The girl (to be) glad that she (to find) a seat near the window. 20. By the time the train (to reach) the city, he (to make) friends with many passengers. 21. During the holidays my friend (to visit) the village where he (to live) in his childhood.

15. Choose Past Indefinite, Past Continuous, Past Perfect or Past Perfect Continuous.

1. He not (to see) me as he (to read) when I (to come) into the room. 2. When he was in Odessa he (to visit) the places where he (to play) as a boy. 3. The telegram (to arrive) five minutes after you (to leave) the house. 4. It (to rain) hard last night when I (to leave) the office. 5. The train couldn't stop because it (to travel) too fast at the time. 6. When I (to call) for my friend, his sister (to tell) me that he (to leave) half an hour before. 7. I (to shout) to him to stop, but he (to run) too fast and not (to hear). 8. Large crowds (to wait) at the station when the Ukrainian delegation (to arrive). 9. When I (to hear) the news, I (to hurry) to see him. 10. We (to walk) to the station when it (to begin) to rain.

16. Open the brackets and choose Active or Passive Voice

1. It's a big factory. Five hundred people are (employ). 2. Water (cover) most of the Earth's surface. 3. Most of the Earth's surface (cover) by water. 4. The park gates (lock) at 6.30 p. m. every evening. 5. The letter (post) a week ago and it (arrive) yesterday. 6. The boat (sink) quickly but fortunately everybody (rescue). 7. Ron's parents (die) when he was very young, he and his sister (bring) up by their grandparents. 8. I was born in London but I (grow) up in the north of England. 9. While I was on holiday, my camera (steal) from my hotel room. 10. Why he (kill / sack) from his job? What did he do wrong? 11. The company is not independent. It (own) by a much larger company. 12. I saw an accident last night. Somebody (call) an ambulance but nobody (injure) so the ambulance (not / need)

17. Transform into Passive Voice.

1. The speaker stressed the importance of the Congress. 2. This actor will play the part of Hamlet. 3. The director himself answered the phone. 5. Some body recommended me to see that doctor. 6. They had eaten all the dinner before they finished the conversation. 7. Somebody has locked the box and I cannot open it. 8. Our friends are making special preparations.

18. Transform the sentences into Reported speech.

1. He said to me: "Come at nine o'clock, I shall be free at that time and we shall have a nice cup of coffee."

2. Helen asked her friend: "What did the professor speak about in his lecture?"

3. Ann said: "He is one of the best speakers I have ever heard."

4. He said: "I seldom went to see my friend in May as I was very busy."

5. She asked her brother: "Will you manage to get tickets to the Philharmonic on Sunday?"

6. My friend said: "We arrived in Kiev on Saturday and the next day we went to have a look around the city."

7. My friend said to me: "The discussion will still be going on when you return."
8. He said: "I am proud of my brother who took the first prize at the competition."
9. She said: "He has just left."
10. Tom asked: "Were you present at the meeting yesterday?"

19. Transform the sentences into Direct speech.

John asked Mary if she was afraid of thunderstorm. John asked Mary: "Are you afraid of thunderstorm?"

1. He asked her if she had ever walked in rainy weather.
2. Mary told John that she preferred sunny days.
3. The woman asked her son if he was in a hurry.
4. Ann asked if they would go to the country the next day.
5. Kate asked her friend what she liked to do on her day off.
6. I asked the secretary if I might speak to the headmistress.
7. Nick wanted to know if Helen would give him her book.
8. Mary wondered if Helen would be busy the next day.
9. Tom asked if Jane would come to the cinema with me.
10. Jane asked at what time he was planning to go.
11. Tom said that it would take them long to get there.
12. I am asked where they would meet.

20. Rewrite the dialogue in reported speech.

Michael: I say, Bill, can you show me around a bit? I only came here two days ago and I haven't been anywhere as yet.

Bill: Of course, I shall do it with pleasure. Let's go at once. And let's invite Alice to come with us. She knows a lot about the places of interest here.

Michael: That's a good idea.

Bill: Alice, can you come with us? We are going for a walk, and I want to show Michael some places of interest.

Alice: No, I can't go with you, boys. I am sorry. Mother told me to buy some bread, and I forgot about it. I shall have to do it now. Go without me. I shall go with you some other time.

Bill: It's pity. All right, Michael, let's go.

21. Change the sentences using Present Participle or Perfect Participle.

Model: (to do) his homework, he was thinking hard. Doing his homework, he was thinking hard. (to do) his homework, he went for a walk. Having done his homework, he went for a walk.

1. (to sell) fruit, he looked back from time to time, hoping to see his friends.
2. (to sell) all the fruit, he went to see his friends.
3. (to eat) all the potatoes, she drank a cup of tea.
4. (to drink) tea, she scalded her lips.
5. (to run) in the yard, I fell and hurt my knee.
6. (to look) through some magazines, I came across an interesting article about UFO.
7. (to write) out and (to learn) all the new words, he was able to translate the text easily.
8. (to live) in the South of our country, he cannot enjoy the beauty of St. Petersburg's White Nights in summer.
9. (to talk) to her neighbour in the street, she did not notice how a thief stole her money.
10. (to read) the story, she closed the book and put it on the shelf.
11. (to buy) some juice and cakes, we went home.
12. (to sit) near the fire, he felt very warm.

22. Translate the sentences.

1. Having arrived two days before the opening of the conference, they had enough time to go sightseeing.

2. Having knocked twice and not having received an answer, they decided that there was nobody in.
3. Having read Petrov's report attentively, I came across a few mistakes in it.
4. Having come to the hotel, she made herself comfortable in the room and suddenly found a telegram awaiting her.
5. I felt very tired, having worked the whole day in the sun.
6. Having been kept without water for a long time, the flowers faded.
7. Not having found the necessary book at home, he went to the library.
8. Having opened the door noiselessly, he waited for a while and tiptoed into the room.
9. Not having done the work in time, I had to apologize to them.
10. Having stayed in London for about a week, I could tell them many interesting things.

23. Translate the following conditional sentences.

1. If our ship arrives today, we shall leave the port tomorrow.
2. If our ship arrived today, we should leave the port tomorrow.
3. If our ship had arrived two days ago, we should have left the port yesterday.
4. If their ship calls at the port of Stockholm, they will take on board passengers there.
5. If we had passengers for the port of Helsinki, we should call there on our way to London.
6. If we had had favourable weather last time, we should have arrived at our port in time.
7. If they took more fuel, they would take less cargo.
8. If our engine were more powerful, we should cover this distance in a shorter time.
9. If I were you, I should sail to the Antarctic on the "Ob".
10. If we take enough fuel, we shall not have to call at any port on our way to Odessa for refueling.

24. Open the brackets.

Model: If I knew his address, I (to give) it to you. If I knew his address, I would give it to you.

1. If he worked more slowly, he (not make) so many mistakes.
2. I could tell you what this means if I (to know) Greek.
3. He might get fat if he (to stop) smoking.
4. If he knew that it was dangerous, he (not to come).
5. I (to keep) a horse if I could afford it.
6. What you (to do) if the lift got stuck between two floors?
7. If I were you I (to go) there.
8. They (to go) for a swim in the lake if it were warmer.

25. Open the brackets using the necessary condition.

Examples: If I found 100\$ in the street, I would keep (keep) it. They'd be rather angry if you didn't visit (not/visit) them.

1. If I was offered the job, I think I(take) it.
2. I'm sure Tom will lend you some money. I would be very surprised if he(refuse).
3. Many people would be out of work if that factory(close) down.
4. If she sold her car, she(not/get)much money for it.
5. They're expecting us. They would be disappointed if we(not/come).
6. Would George be angry if I(take) his bicycle without asking.
7. Ann gave me this ring. She(be) terribly upset if I lost it.
8. If someone(walk) in here with a gun, I'd be very frightened.
9. What would happen if you.....(not/go) to work tomorrow?
10. I'm sure she.....(understand) if you explained the situation to her.

26. Make up the questions.

Example: Perhaps one day somebody will give you a lot of money. What would you do if somebody gave you a lot of money.

1. Perhaps one day a millionaire will ask you to marry him/her.

What would you do if

2. Perhaps one day you will lose your passport in a foreign country. What.....

3. Perhaps one day somebody will throw an egg at you. What.....

4. Perhaps one day your car will be stolen. What.....

5. Perhaps one day somebody will park his car on your foot What.....

Test 1.

1. _____ you ever stayed at the Ritz?
A) Did B) Have C) Was D) Were
2. We _____ breakfast in bed.
A) were have B) has C) was having D) had
3. _____ John give you those flowers?
A) Did B) Have C) Was D) Is
4. I _____ my homework very quickly last night.
A) do B) have C) did D) am
5. She _____ a shower every morning before school.
A) does B) has C) did D) is
6. We _____ talking to James about his exam.
A) don't B) haven't C) wasn't D) aren't
7. Lots of trees _____ blown down by the wind.
A) were B) has C) did D) is
8. Where _____ you yesterday?
A) was B) have C) did D) were
9. Mary never _____ the washing up.
A) does B) has C) did D) is
10. Thank goodness we _____ a dishwasher!
A) was B) have C) did D) were
11. How many people _____ you invited to the party?
A) was B) have C) did D) were
12. Why _____ you leaving so early?
A) was B) have C) is D) are
13. We _____ got a beautiful puppy called Molly.
A) was B) have C) did D) were
14. We _____ a beautiful puppy called Molly.

- A) was B) having C) did D) had
15. I have been to Australia but Anna _____ .
A) haven't B) hasn't C) isn't D) doesn't
16. Anna likes ice-cream but John _____ .
A) haven't B) hasn't C) isn't D) doesn't
17. I don't like ice-cream but Jill _____ .
A) have B) has C) is D) does
18. Maria isn't studying hard but I _____ .
A) have B) has C) am D) are
19. John loves flying but we _____ .
A) haven't B) don't C) isn't D) doesn't
20. I watched TV last night but my sister _____ .
A) hasn't B) didn't C) isn't D) doesn't
21. Bill hasn't finished his work but we _____ .
A) have B) do C) don't D) doesn't
22. We don't want to leave early but they _____ .
A) have B) do C) is D) does
23. They didn't remember my birthday but you _____ .
A) have B) don't C) did D) does
24. Your English is really improving but mine _____ .
A) haven't B) don't C) isn't D) doesn't
25. _____ you speak three languages?
A) Do B) Does C) Did D) Are
26. _____ you having a holiday soon?
A) Do B) Does C) Did D) Are
27. _____ you have a good holiday last year?
A) Do B) Does C) Did D) Are
28. _____ you ever been to Amsterdam?
A) Do B) Does C) Have D) Did

29. _____ you often travel abroad?
A) Do B) Does C) Have D) Did
30. _____ your best friend sometimes go on holiday with you?
A) Do B) Does C) Have D) Did
31. I think you're wrong. I don't agree _____ you at all.
A) to B) on C) with D) about
32. I'm not interested _____ what you think or what you want.
A) to B) on C) with D) in
33. We might have a picnic. It depends _____ the weather.
A) to B) on C) with D) about
34. What are you listening _____ ?
A) to B) on C) with D) about
35. If you have a problem, talk _____ the teacher.
A) to B) on C) at D) in
36. "What did you talk _____ ?" "Oh, this and that."
A) to B) on C) with D) about
37. You aren't concentrating on your work. What are you thinking _____ ?
A) to B) on C) with D) about
38. "What do you think _____ Pete?" "I really like him."
A) to B) at C) with D) of
39. Where's the cash desk? I'd like to pay _____ this book.
A) to B) for C) with D) about
40. "I've lost your pen. Sorry ..." "It's all right. Don't worry _____ it."
A) to B) on C) with D) about

Test 2.

1. Sue and Geoff _____ a shop.
A) work B) study C) run D) runs
2. This kind of shop _____ a milk bar.
A) is called B) called C) is calling D) is being called

3. Most days the shop _____ at 10.00 p.m.
 A) sells B) opened C) closes D) run
4. They _____ camping any more.
 A) go B) doesn't go C) don't go D) have gone
5. Ursula _____ four brothers and sisters.
 A) have B) has C) haven't D) having
6. It _____ her fifteen minutes _____ to school.
 A) took / go B) has taken / walk C) takes / walk D) takes / to walk
7. She _____ school at 7:45 a.m.
 A) go B) begin C) starts D) goes
8. I _____ lunch in the university canteen.
 A) eats B) have C) drink D) has
9. I _____ extra money teaching computer studies.
 A) earn B) earns C) win D) buy
10. I _____ the traffic in Bangkok.
 A) play B) have C) hate D) has
11. English is _____ here.
 A) speak B) spoke C) is speaking D) spoken
12. Volvos are _____ in Sweden.
 A) produced B) produce C) produces D) producing
13. Is service _____ in the bill?
 A) including B) include C) to include D) included
14. Our kitchen _____ decorated at the moment.
 A) is B) is being C) being D) was being
15. Our factory is being _____ over by an American company.
 A) taken B) bought C) sold D) run
16. About one thousand people are _____ in the factory.
 A) taken B) cleaned C) employed D) worked
17. Lots of tulips are _____ in Holland.
 A) grown B) growing C) grow D) grew

18. That block of flats is being _____ because it is unsafe.

A) pulled down B) pulled C) pulled up D) pulling down

19. In Britain milk is _____ to your doorstep. A) shown B) sold C) bought D) delivered.

When you __(20)__ at an airport, you should go straight to the checkin desk where your ticket and luggage __(21)__. You __(22)__ your hand luggage with you but your suitcases __(23)__ to the plane on a conveyor belt. You can now go to the departure lounge. If you are on an international flight, your passport __(24)__, and then you and your bags __(25)__ by security cameras; sometimes you __(26)__ a body search and your luggage __(27)__ by a security officer. You __(28)__ in the departure lounge until your flight __(29)__ and you __(30)__ which gate number to go. Finally you __(31)__ your plane and you __(32)__ your seat by a flight attendant.

20. A) start B) started C) arrive D) are arrived

21. A) are checked B) control C) check D) is changed

22. A) kept B) keeping C) wait D) keep

23. A) take B) took C) are taken D) taking

24. A) check B) checked C) is checking D) is checked

25. A) are x-rayed B) x-rayed C) control D) check

26. A) give B) are given C) gave D) giving

27. A) is searched B) searching C) searched D) search

28. A) waiting B) waits C) wait D) waited

29. A) calling B) call C) is called D) called

30. A) are told B) telling C) told D) tell

31. A) boarded B) boarding C) sit D) board

32. A) show B) are shown C) showing D) come

33. "Hello. Can I speak to Mr. James, please?" "I'm sorry. He isn't _____ at the moment. Can I take a message?"

A) in B) on C) at D) off

34. "Hello. Can I speak to Mr. James, please?" "I'm sorry. He is _____ on holiday at the moment. Can I help you?"

A) in B) on C) away D) off

35. "I feel like going to the cinema tonight." "Good idea! What's _____ at the moment?"

A) in B) on C) at D) off

36. I think this milk's _____. It smells horrid.

A) in B) on C) at D) off

37. "Where shall we go for a meal?" "It's _____ you. It's your birthday. You choose."

A) in B) on C) at D) up to

38. Come on, kids! Aren't you _____ yet? Breakfast's on the table.

A) in B) on C) up D) off

39. I wonder why they aren't answering the door. There must be someone _____.

A) in B) on C) at D) off

40. All the lights are _____. I can see nothing.

A) in B) on C) at D) off

41. I must be _____ soon. I want to get to the shops before they close.

A) in B) on C) at D) off

42. "Why isn't there any hot water?" "The central heating is _____. That's why."

A) in B) on C) at D) off

43. "You're crying. What's _____?" "I'm just a bit sad. That's all."

A) in B) on C) up D) off

TEST 3

1. My uncle died _____ the war.

A) via B) during C) for D) in

2. The phone rang _____ I was having supper.

A) while B) during C) for D) in

3. I lived in Paris _____ several years.

A) while B) during C) for D) in

4. _____ I was in Paris, I made a lot of friends.

A) While B) During C) For D) In

5. I was in hospital _____ three weeks. A) while B) during C) for D) in

6. _____ my stay in hospital, the nurses looked after me very well.

A) While B) During C) For D) In

7. A football match lasts _____ ninety minutes.

A) while B) during C) for D) in

8. I hurt my leg _____ I was playing football yesterday.

A) while B) during C) for D) in

9. I hurt my leg _____ the second half of the match.

A) via B) until C) for D) in

10. Traffic is always bad _____ the rush hour.

A) while B) during C) for D) in

11. Last week I was held up _____ three hours.

A) while B) during C) for D) in

12. Peter came round _____ we were eating.

A) while B) during C) for D) in

13. Peter came round _____ the meal.

A) while B) during C) on D) in

14. It's my birthday _____ next week.

A) at B) in C) on D)

15. "When?" "_____ Monday."

A) At B) In C) On D)*

16. _____ when were you born? A) At B) In C) On D) *

17. _____ 8.00 _____ the morning.

A) At / in B) In / in C) On / in D) * / in

18. I'm meeting Alan _____ this evening.

A) at B) in C) on D) *

19. "What time?" "_____ six."

A) At B) In C) On D) *

20. What did you do _____ the weekend?

A) at B) in C) with D) *

21. _____ Friday evening we went to a party.

A) At B) In C) On D) *

22. We slept late _____ Saturday morning.

A) at B) in C) on D) *

23. _____ the afternoon we went shopping.

A) At B) In C) On D) *

24. _____ 7:00 some friends came round for a drink.

A) At B) In C) On D) *

25. We didn't do anything _____ Sunday.

A) at B) in C) on D) *

26. The weather in England is unreliable. _____ summer it can be hot, but it often rains _____ April and June.

A) At / in B) In / in C) On / in D) * / in

27. _____ last year the summer was awful.

A) At B) In C) On D) *

28. The best English weather is _____ spring and autumn.

A) at B) in C) on D) *

29. I learned to drive _____ 1980 _____ the age of 17.

A) at / at B) in / at C) on / at D) * / at

30. My brother learned _____ the same time as me, but I passed first.

A) at B) in C) on D) *

31. I'll phone you _____ next week. _____ Thursday.

A) at / On B) in / On C) on / On D) * / On

32. I'll phone you _____ about 3.00.

A) at B) in C) on D) *

Helen Keller's deafness and blindness __ (33) __ by a severe illness when she was a baby. Her parents __ (34) __ what to do, and they __ (35) __ it difficult to control their growing daughter. One day they __ (36) __ about a brilliant young teacher called Anne Sullivan. She __ (37) __ to work with Helen. Very firmly and patiently, she

__(38)__ her that every object __(39)__ a name. Eventually Helen __(40)__ a place at university. After this she __(41)__ the world helping people like herself. In 1962 the story of her life __(42)__ into a film, The Miracle Worker.

- 33. A) cause B) caused C) were caused D) has caused
- 34. A) didn't know B) doesn't know C) knew D) knows
- 35. A) find B) finds C) were found D) found
- 36. A) tell B) were told C) telling D) told
- 37. A) came B) begin C) start D) helping
- 38. A) studied B) helped C) thought D) taught
- 39. A) has B) had C) have D) having
- 40. A) offer B) offered C) was offered D) offering
- 41. A) tour B) toured C) touring D) tours
- 42. A) was made B) make C) is making D) was making

TEST 4

1. I _____ work very hard because I have an exam next week.

- A) am having B) has to C) had to D) have to

2. You _____ work hard after your exam. You can have a holiday.

- A) had to B) won't have to C) have too D) won't have

My father is a customs official so he always __(3)__ wear a uniform at work, but my mother is a teacher so she __(4)__ wear one.

3. A) doesn't have to B) have to C) has to D) don't have to

4. A) doesn't have to B) have to C) has to D) don't have to When we were teenagers, we __(5)__ be home by nine o'clock. But we __(6)__ take as many exams as teenagers nowadays.

5. A) had to B) won't have to C) have to D) don't have to

6. A) had to B) didn't have to C) have to D) don't have to

7. I can't see the small print very well. I think I _____ wear glasses soon.

- A) will have to B) won't have to C) have to D) don't have to

8. Nobody enjoys _____ get up at five o'clock in the morning.
A) have to B) has to C) having to D) will have to
9. _____ we _____ have any vaccinations before we go to Barbados?
A) Will / have to B) Did / have to C) Won't / have D) Are / having
10. _____ your grandmother _____ leave school when she was only fourteen?
A) Will / have to B) Did / have to C) Won't / have D) Are / having to
11. You _____ be a millionaire to shop in Harrods. Everything is expensive there.
A) will have to B) won't have to C) have to D) don't have to
12. If I fail my exam, _____ I _____ take it again?
A) will / have to B) did / have to C) does / have to D) do / won't have
13. I phoned the plumber because I _____ smell gas in the kitchen.
A) can B) could C) managed to D) couldn't
14. Jane and John saved and saved, and finally they _____ buy the house of their dreams.
A) can B) could C) managed to D) couldn't
15. I phoned yesterday, but I _____ get an answer. Where were you?
A) can B) could C) managed to D) couldn't
16. The neighbors were having a row, and I _____ hear every word they said.
A) can B) could C) managed to D) couldn't
17. _____ you speak French before you moved to Paris?
A) Can B) Could C) Managed to D) Couldn't
18. I went for a ten-mile run last Saturday. It nearly killed me! I _____ move on Sunday.
A) can B) could C) managed to D) couldn't
19. _____ you _____ find all the things you wanted at the shops?
A) Did / have to B) Did / can C) Did / manage to D) Did / could
20. The police _____ find the man who had stolen my car. He was sent to prison.
A) can B) could C) managed to D) couldn't
21. My grandfather _____ speak four languages when he was alive.

A) can B) could C) managed to D) couldn't

22. When we got to the top of the mountain we _____ see for miles.

A) can B) could C) managed to D) couldn't

23. In my country you _____ get married when you're sixteen.

A) can B) could C) managed to D) couldn't

24. Speak up! I _____ hear you!

A) can B) could C) can't D) couldn't

5. _____ I borrow your dictionary?

A) Can't B) Could C) Manage to D) Couldn't

26. I'd love _____ help you, but I can't. I'm sorry.

A) can B) could C) managed to D) to be able to

27. I _____ get into my house last night because I'd lost my key.

A) can B) could C) managed to D) couldn't

28. Women _____ vote in England until 1922.

A) can B) are able to C) managed to D) couldn't

29. I'm learning Spanish because I want _____ speak when I'm in Mexico.

A) can B) could C) will be able to D) to be able to

30. The doctor says I _____ walk again in two weeks' time.

A) can B) could C) will be able to D) to be able to I asked the teacher if I

__(31)__ open the window, but she said I __(32)__ because it would be too noisy. 31.

A) can B) could C) managed to D) couldn't

32. A) can B) could C) managed to D) couldn't

33. I'm sorry, but I _____ come to your party next week.

A) can't B) couldn't C) can D) 'll be able to

34. I love driving! _____ drive has changed my whole life.

A) Can B) Could C) Will be able to D) Being able to

35. Children in my country _____ go to school when they're

7. A) doesn't have to B) has to C) have to D) don't have to

36. Adults _____ go to school.

A) doesn't have to B) has to C) have to D) don't have to

37. Every adult _____ go to work.

A) doesn't have to B) has to C) have to D) don't have to

38. A retired person _____ go to work.

A) doesn't have to B) has to C) have to D) don't have to

39. Teenagers _____ study for exams.

A) doesn't have to B) has to C) have to D) don't have to

40. You _____ drive on the right in Britain.

A) mustn't B) has to C) have to D) don't have to

Texts for additional reading

Science

Science is one of the most important subjects we study at school. I loved it. I thought it was so interesting. Time in my science lessons went very quickly because I was always working on things and doing experiments. I liked all of the sciences, physics, biology and chemistry. I wish I continued studying science. I would love to be a scientist now. I think being a computer scientist would be great. Science is so important for our life and our world. All of the world's problems can be solved with science. We can go to different planets because of science. I hope governments pump lots of money into science so we have more and better scientists in the future. It's interesting to think about what future science will be like.

Studying

Love it or hate it, studying is one of the most important things we do in life. We all start school around the age of four and then it's study, study, study. Some of us are good at it and like it. Some people even become lifelong learners and study into their old age. I know one woman who's over seventy and is doing her fifth Master's degree. Other people hate studying. Many people leave school at the age of 15 or 16 and get a job. They like the idea of getting money and not having homework. The truth is, however, studying is one of the best ways to make sure you do well in life. The more you study, the more qualifications you have and the better job you can get. I really think everyone would love studying if they studied something interesting.

Students

Being a student is a good life. I don't think most students understand this. A lot of students complain they have no money and too much homework. They never complain that they have loads of free time, don't have to go to work and have really long holidays. When students finish being students and go to work, they understand how good it is to be a student. Being a student at high school can be tough. You have to study boring things and deal with things like bullying. Going to college or

university is when the fun starts. Just a few hours of classes a week and lots of student parties. I'd love to be a student again. I know many people who'd like to be full-time students forever. All you need is a bit more cash.

Research

Research is a very important thing. Without research, we'd have no new products. Our food would be more dangerous to eat. And we'd never go to the moon. I'd like to see my government spend a lot more money on research. Especially on research into diseases. Scientists have been researching into AIDS and cancer for years and still have not found cures. Research into technology is also important. There seems to be loads of research into information and computer technology. It's amazing how quickly technology is changing. We really need to spend more to research how global warming is affecting our planet. This could be the most important research scientists ever do. Research to save the planet.

Plagiarism

OK, everyone, today's topic is plagiarism. If you don't know what that is, it's copying stuff from books or the Internet without letting people know where the stuff came from. Lots of people do it nowadays because copy and paste is so quick and easy. It's OK to copy and paste small chunks of someone's work but you must make it clear it's copied, and write from whom you copied it or where you got it. Put the text in quotation marks and say something like, "according to..." and then put the writer's name. The best thing is to go to the Internet and search for, "how to cite sources". EnglishClub.com has good information on how to do this. The best thing is to make sure what you write is really from your head.

Some Aspects of Research Work Organization in the English-Speaking Countries

Science is not licensed profession, and to be counted as a scientist one need not be a Doctor of Philosophy... But a scientist without a Ph.D. (or a medical degree) is like a lay brother in a Cistercian monastery. Generally he has to labor in the fields while others sing in the choir. If he goes into academic life, he can hope to become a professor only at the kind of college or university where faculty members are given neither time nor facilities for research... A young scientist with a bachelor's or a master's degree will probably have to spend his time working on problems, or pieces of problems that are assigned to him by other people and that are of more practical than scientific interest. Wherever he works, the prospects are slight that he will be given much autonomy and freedom. Having a Ph. D. or its equivalent – a medical degree plus post-graduate training in research – has become in fact, if not in law, a requirement for full citizen ship in the American scientific community.

Leading Research Centers

To be successful as a scientist, it is important not only to have a Ph. D., but to have earned it at the right place. From the standpoint of rightness, American universities may be divided into three groups. The first is made up of those institutions to which the term “leading” may appropriately be applied. They include Chicago, Cal Tech, the University of California at Berkeley, Columbia, Harvard, Illinois, M. I. T. (Massachusetts Institute of Technology), Michigan, Princeton, Stanford, Wisconsin, Yale, and perhaps two or three others. These are the universities whose professors get the biggest research grants, publish most scientific papers, serve on the most important government committees, win most of the scientific prizes, and are most likely to be acknowledged as leaders in their fields... Ranking just below these twelve are universities like Minnesota and Indiana and U. C. L. A. (University of California at Los Angeles), where scientists and scholars of international renown are also to be found, but in such dense clusters as at Harvard or Berkeley... This is not to say that

first-rate scientists are to be found only at first rate universities – or that are no second-rate people at Berkeley and M. I. T. But the brightest students, like the brightest professors, tend to be found at the leading universities.

Postdoctoral Study

Although possession of a Ph. D. is supposed to signify that a scientist has learned his trade as a researcher, it is now very common for young scientists to continue in a quasi-student status for a year or two after they get their doctorates... Older scientists as a rule are very happy to take on postdoctoral students. The postdoc, as he is sometimes called, is like an advanced graduate student in that he does research under the general direction of an older man. But he usually needs much less direction of an older man and he can therefore be much more helpful to an experienced scientist who is eager to see his work pushed forward as rapidly as possible... Postdoctoral trainees can have the further advantage of serving a professor as a middleman in his dealing with his graduate students. For young scientists themselves, a year or two of postdoctoral study and research has many attractions. For some it is a chance to make up for what they didn't learn in graduate school. For scientists whose graduate training has been good, the chief advantage of doing postdoctoral research is that it gives them a couple of years in which they can put all their effort into research. A postdoctoral fellowship can also be a relatively tranquil interlude between the pressures and intellectual restrictions of life as a graduate student, and the competition and distractions of life as an assistant professor. Many scientists go abroad, not because the training they get will necessarily be better than they would get in the United States, but because a postdoctoral fellowship gives them a chance to travel – often for the first time in their lives.

Topics for scientific research

- 1.Schools of pedagogical thoughts.
- 2.Outstanding Ukrainian scholars.
- 3.Objects of intellectual property rights.
- 4.The vocabulary of the English language.
- 5.Professional and scientific terminological vocabulary.
- 6.Professional idiomatic expressions, clichés, abbreviations.
- 7.Grammatical features of scientific style.
- 8.Stylistic features of scientific style.
- 9.Organizations of a scientific conference, parts of a conference, conference procedure.
- 10.Scientific journals. Professional pedagogical journals.

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Навчальне видання

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**методичні рекомендації до практичних занять з дисципліни
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для здобувачів другого (магістерського) рівня вищої освіти
спеціальності 053 Психологія.**

Методичний посібник