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ЖИТОМИРСЬКИЙ ДЕРЖАВНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ імені ІВАНА ФРАНКА
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Кафедра слов'янської і германської філології та перекладу

ОСНОВИ ПРОФЕСІЙНОЇ КОМУНІКАЦІЇ ІНОЗЕМНОЮ МОВОЮ

Навчально-методичний посібник для здобувачів другого (магістерського) рівня освіти

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Основи професійної комунікації іноземною мовою: навчально-методичний посібник для здобувачів другого (магістерського) рівня освіти / укладачі: Велика А. М., Нікішова Т. Є., Прищепа О. В. Житомир, 2024. 69 с.

Навчально-методичний посібник з основ професійної комунікації іноземною мовою дає можливість здобувачам другого (магістерського) рівня вищої освіти отримати важливий і цікавий матеріал щодо професійної комунікації англійською мовою на рівні письма та читання, який можливо використати також для говоріння та слухання. У посібник включено теоретичний матеріал, завдання до практичних занять, рекомендовані джерела та рекомендовану літературу для самостійної роботи.

Для здобувачів вищої освіти другого (магістерського рівня) за усіма освітніми програмами ННІ філології та журналістики.

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Вступ

Навчально-методичний посібник містить матеріали, спрямовані на розвиток навичок мовлення, які необхідні для вивчення програмного освітньої компоненти «Основи професійної комунікації іноземною мовою».

Основною метою посібника є надати студентам сучасний та адекватний у мовному відношенні матеріал для засвоєння тем, що вивчаються. Текстовий матеріал передбачає створення можливості для розвитку навичок усного і писемного мовлення, актуалізуючи розвиток комунікативних вмінь студентів: обговорення прочитаного, проектних роботах.

Посібник спрямовано на розвиток вмінь студентів самостійно отримувати необхідну інформацію, співставляючи її із власним досвідом, застосовуючи у різноманітних комунікативних ситуаціях та в процесі професійної діяльності.

Підбір текстових матеріалів здійснювався за критеріями стилістичноїрізноманітності, інформативності, проблемно-мотиваційної спрямованості та відповідності вимогам програмної документації.

Метою вивчення освітньої компоненти є оволодіння студентами необхідним та достатнім рівнем комунікативної компетенції, удосконалення умінь та навичок міжкультурної професійної комунікації іноземною мовою, що покликано підвищити їх конкурентоспроможність на ринку праці.

Основними **завданнями** вивчення освітньої компоненти є:

- вивчення основ сучасної іноземної мови у професійній діяльності;

- ознайомлення з міжкультурними особливостями;

- підвищення рівня лінгвістичної й комунікативно-діяльнісної професійної підготовки;

- підготовка студентів-магістрів до використання англійської мови як засобу міжкультурної комунікації та засобу професійної діяльності.

Компетентності та програмні результати навчання:

Компетентності

Змістовно освітня компонента спрямована на формування здобувачами вищої освіти здатності розв'язувати складні спеціалізовані задачі у галузі 03 Філологія професійної діяльності.

ІК. Здатність розв'язувати складні задачі і проблеми в галузі лінгвістики, літературознавства, фольклористики, перекладу в процесі професійної діяльності або навчання, що передбачає проведення досліджень та / або здійснення інновацій та характеризується невизначеністю умов і вимог.

ЗК 1. Здатність спілкуватися державною мовою як усно, так і письмово.

ЗК 2. Здатність бути критичним і самокритичним.

ЗК 4. Уміння виявляти, ставити та вирішувати проблеми.

ЗК 5. Здатність працювати в команді та автономно.

ЗК 6. Здатність спілкуватися іноземною мовою.

ЗК 7. Здатність до абстрактного мислення, аналізу та синтезу.

ЗК 8.Навичкивикористанняінформаційних і комунікаційних технологій.

ЗК 9. Здатність до адаптації та дії в новій ситуації.

ЗК 10.Здатність спілкуватися з представниками інших професійних груп різного рівня (з експертами з інших галузей знань/видів економічної діяльності).

ЗК 11. Здатність проведення досліджень на належному рівні.

ЗК 12. Здатність генерувати нові ідеї (креативність).

СК 1. Здатність вільно орієнтуватися в різних лінгвістичних напрямках і школах.

СК 2.Здатність осмислювати літературу як полісистему, розуміти еволюційний шлях розвитку вітчизняного і світового літературознавства.

СК 3.Здатність критично осмислювати історичні надбання та новітні досягнення філологічної науки.

СК 4. Здатність здійснювати науковий аналіз і структурування мовного / мовленнєвого й літературного матеріалу з урахуванням класичних і новітніх методологічних принципів.

СК 6.Здатність застосовувати поглиблені знання з обраної філологічної спеціалізації для вирішення професійних завдань.

СК 7. Здатність вільно користуватися спеціальною термінологією в обраній галузі філологічних досліджень.

СК 8.Усвідомлення ролі експресивних, емоційних, логічних засобів мови для досягнення запланованого прагматичного результату.

СК 9.Здатність компресувати різноманітні за змістом та жанром тексти державною та іноземною мовами, виділяючи основну інформацію, з використанням різних методів реферування та анотування.

СК 10.Здатність ефективно застосовувати перекладацькі трансформації (компресія, компенсація, генералізація, конкретизація, антонімічний переклад, описовий переклад, логічний розвиток понять тощо) для досягнення еквівалентності у перекладі різноманітних за змістом та жанром текстів державною та іноземною мовами.

Програмні результати навчання

ПР 1. Оцінювати власну навчальну та науково-професійну діяльність, будувати і втілювати ефективну стратегію саморозвитку та професійного самовдосконалення.

ПР 2. Упевнено володіти державною та іноземною мовами для реалізації письмової та усної комунікації, зокрема в ситуаціях професійного й наукового спілкування; презентувати результати досліджень державною та іноземною мовами

ПР 12. Дотримуватися правил академічної доброчесності.

ПР 13. Доступно й аргументовано пояснювати сутність конкретних філологічних питань, власну точку зору на них та її обґрунтування як фахівцям, так і широкому загалу, зокрема особам, які навчаються.

Освітня компонента «Основи професійної комунікації іноземною мовою» викладається на І курсі, в І семестрі.

На вивчення освітньої компоненти відводиться 120 годин 4,0 кредити ECTS.

Форма проведення занять: практичні заняття.

Academic writing: Introduction

Writing is necessary for all students in higher education. It is a process. It starts from understanding your task. It then goes on to doing the research and reading. The next stage is planning and writing various drafts. This is followed by proof-reading and editing. All this should lead to the final text.

Academic writing is a social practice. By a social practice we mean that it is what people do together. This means that you always write with a readership in mind. You always write with a purpose: to explain, to persuade etc. It also means that what is right and wrong, appropriate or inappropriate is defined by the users in the social community. In your case these are other students, lecturers or examiners. There is nothing natural about the organisation and the way language is used in a scientific report, for example. It is as it is because that is the way it has developed through centuries of use by practitioners. For that reason it has to be learned. No-one speaks (or writes) academic English as a first language. It must be learned by observation, study and experiment.

Academic writing in English is clearly defined by having an obvious audience; a clear purpose, either an exam question to answer or a research project to report on. It is also clearly structured.

Academic writing in English is linear: it starts at the beginning and finishes at the end, with every part contributing to the main line of argument, without digression or repetition. This line of argument must be made clear whatever kind of writing you are producing and you, the writer, are responsible for making this line of argument clear and presenting it in an orderly fashion so that the reader can follow.

Your written work should have the following sections:

Preliminaries

Main text

End matter

The preliminaries and end matter will depend on the kind of text you are writing. Typically, the main body of a text consists of three parts: an introduction, a main body, and a conclusion.

The introduction sets the stage by providing background information and explaining the purpose and approach of the writing. It should be closely aligned with the essay or research question.

The main body presents data, which could be experimental, theoretical, or derived from existing literature, along with supporting arguments.

Finally, the conclusion revisits the introduction and demonstrates how the purpose has been fulfilled. The structure and content of the main body may vary depending on the specific type of writing..

Essays in English

Most students will inevitably encounter the task of composing an essay or similar argumentative pieces, such as reviews or discussion sections, within longer written works. In English, an essay typically consists of several paragraphs dedicated to exploring a single topic, often drawing upon prior reading. The essay's objective should be derived directly from the title or prompt, clearly defined at the outset. Its purpose lies in expressing your own insights using the subject's concepts, presenting learned ideas in a personal manner. While it's crucial to engage with others' ideas, it's equally important to maintain your unique voice. Proper referencing is essential to acknowledge the sources of ideas and individuals mentioned in the essay.

According to Linda Flower "students are reading to create a text of their own, trying to integrate information from sources with ideas of their own, and attempting to do so under the guidance of a purpose."

Your essay should have the following sections:

1. Preliminaries	Title page
2. Main text	Introduction, Main body, Conclusion
3. End matter	References

1. Preliminaries

Prior to commencing the primary content of your essay or assignment, it is essential to have a title page. This page serves to provide pertinent information for your lecturer and departmental office to precisely identify the nature of your work. It should feature details such as your name and course, the assignment title and relevant references, as well as the lecturer's name. It's advisable to consult your department for specific guidelines on title page formatting.

2. Main text

English essays follow a linear structure, progressing from the beginning to the end in a coherent manner, with each part serving to advance the main argument without veering off-topic or repeating information. It is the responsibility of the writers to ensure clarity in their argument's progression and present it in a well-organized manner, facilitating easy comprehension for the reader. Each paragraph focuses on a single significant point and seamlessly transitions to the next. An introduction and conclusion serve to bind the paragraphs together, providing cohesion to the essay.

The main text of the essay has three main parts:

An introduction

A main body

A conclusion

I. The introduction.

The introduction consists of two parts:

It should include a few general statements about the subject to provide a background to your essay and to attract the reader's attention. It should try to explain why you are writing the essay. It may include a definition of terms in the context of the essay, etc.

It should also include a statement of the specific subdivisions of the topic and/or indication of how the topic is going to be tackled in order to specifically address the question.

It should introduce the central idea or the main purpose of the writing.

II. The main body.

The main body consists of one or more paragraphs of ideas and arguments. Each paragraph develops a subdivision of the topic. The paragraphs of the essay contain the main ideas and arguments of the essay together with illustrations or examples. The

paragraphs are linked in order to connect the ideas. The purpose of the essay must be made clear and the reader must be able to follow its development.

III. The conclusion.

The conclusion includes the writer's final points.

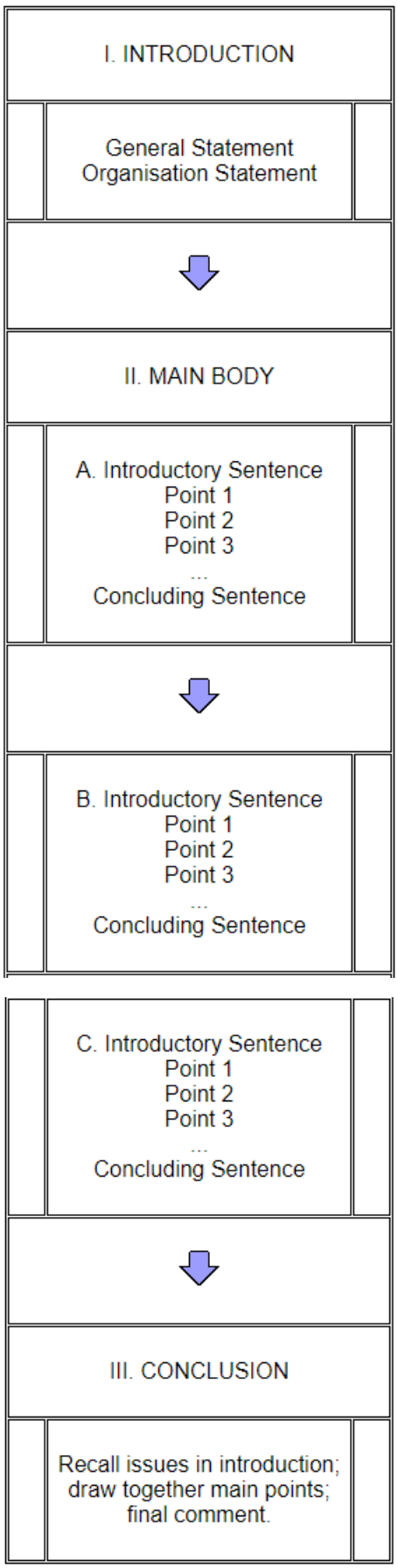
It should recall the issues raised in the introduction and draw together the points made in the main body

and explain the overall significance of the conclusions. What general points can be drawn from the essay as a whole?

It should clearly signal to the reader that the essay is finished and leave a clear impression that the purpose of the essay has been achieved.

3. End Matter

At the end of the essay, there should be a list of references. This should give full information about the materials that you have used in the assignment.


I. INTRODUCTION
General Statement
Organisation Statement
II. MAIN BODY
A. Introductory Sentence
Point 1
Point 2
Point 3
...
Concluding Sentence
B. Introductory Sentence
Point 1
Point 2
Point 3
...
Concluding Sentence
C. Introductory Sentence
Point 1
Point 2
Point 3
...
Concluding Sentence
III. CONCLUSION
Recall issues in introduction; draw together main points; final comment.

Reports in English

Many students, particularly science and business students, will at some time be expected to write a report.

Your report should have the following sections:

1. Preliminaries	Title page
	Abstract
	Contents
2. Main text	Introduction
	Methodology
	Findings/Results
	Discussion
	Conclusion
3. End matter	References
	Appendices

1. Preliminaries

Prior to delving into the main content of your report, it is imperative to include a title page. This page must furnish necessary details for your lecturer and departmental office to accurately identify the nature of your work. It should encompass essential information such as your name, course, assignment title, pertinent references, and the respective lecturer's details. Be sure to consult your department for specific guidelines. Additionally, a report typically includes an abstract and a contents page. The abstract provides background information, articulates the primary purpose of the report, outlines the methodology employed, and summarizes the key findings and conclusions. The contents page lists the page numbers corresponding to the main sections of the report..

2. The main text

The main section comprises multiple paragraphs containing ideas, data, and arguments. Each segment elaborates on a specific aspect of the report's objective. The

introduction provides contextual information supporting the report's rationale along with an outline of its structure. The methodology segment elucidates the process by which the report's information was gathered. Findings and results present the collected data, while the discussion section interprets how these findings contribute to the explicitly stated conclusion. These sections are interconnected to maintain coherence and flow of ideas. It's imperative to ensure clarity regarding the report's purpose and enable readers to track its progression..

I. The introduction.

The introduction consists of three parts:

1. It should include a short review of the literature to provide a background to your report and to attract the reader's attention. It may include a definition of terms in the context of the report, etc.

2. It should try to explain why you are writing the report. You need to establish a gap in current knowledge.

3. It should also include a statement of the specific subdivisions of the topic and/or indication of how the topic is going to be tackled in order to specifically address the question.

It should introduce the central idea or the main purpose of the writing.

II. Methodology.

The methodology section gives details of how the information in the report was obtained. It may give details of the materials and procedures used. In any kind of experimental report, details of the people involved will need to be included.

III. Findings/Results.

The findings and results give the data that has been collected. This may be shown in the form of tables, graphs or diagrams. In all cases, reference must be made to the location of the information, the main details of the data and any comments on this.

IV. Discussion.

The main purpose of the discussion is to show that the results lead clearly to the conclusion being drawn. This may include any limitations that might cause problems with any claims being made as well as any possible explanations for these results.

V. The conclusion.

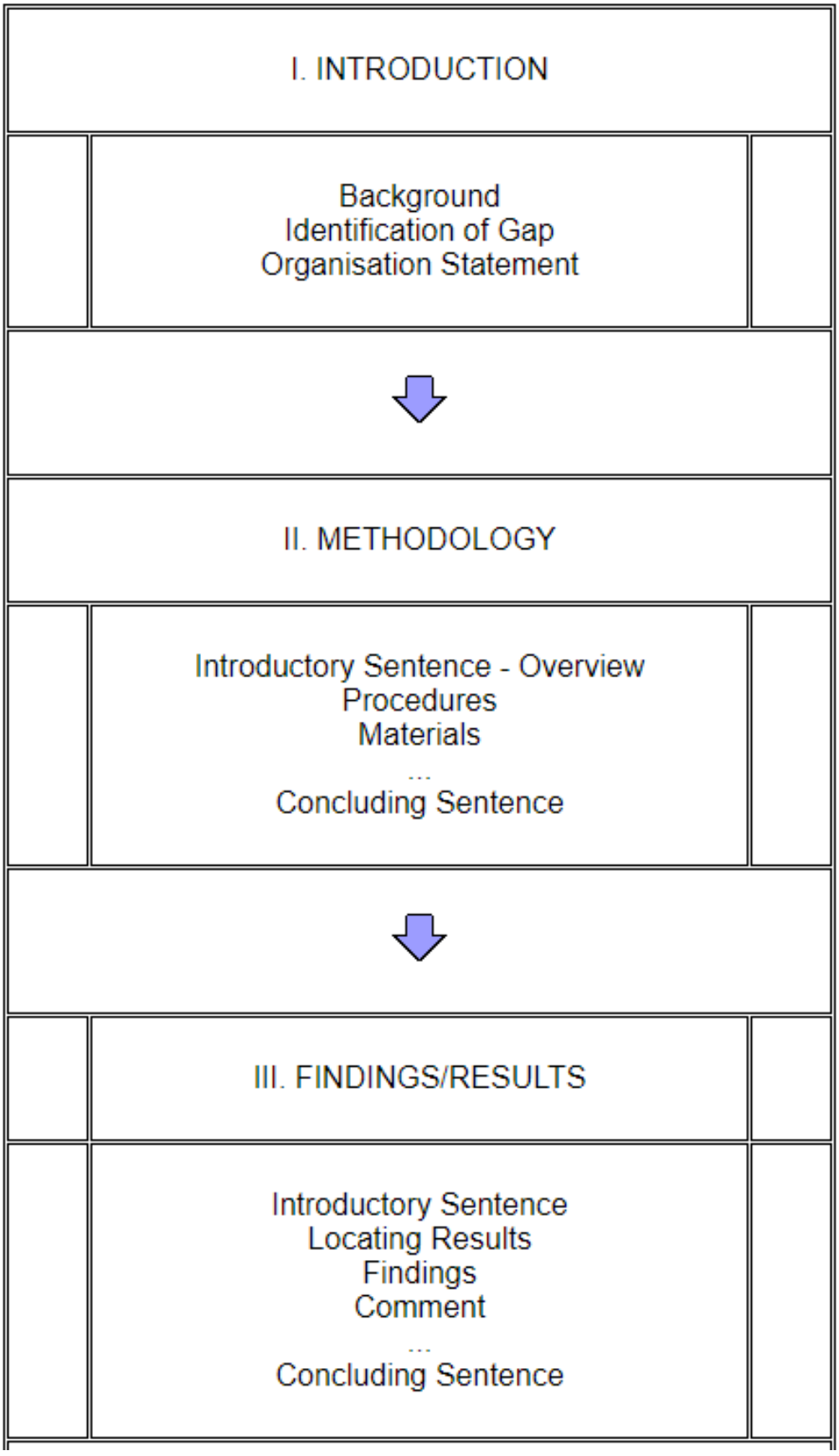
The conclusion includes the writer's final points.

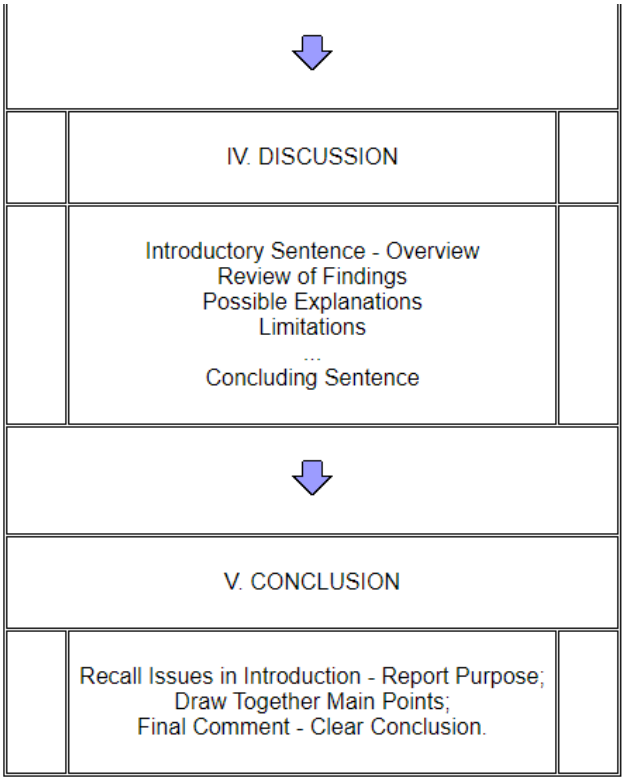
It should recall the issues raised in the introduction and draw together the points made in the results and discussion and come to a clear conclusion.

It should clearly signal to the reader that the report is finished and leave a clear impression that the purpose of the report has been achieved.

3. End Matter

At the end of the report, there should be a list of references. This should give full information about the materials that you have used in the report. The appendices may contain full details of data collected.


I. INTRODUCTION
Background
Identification of Gap
Organisation Statement
II. METHODOLOGY
Introductory Sentence - Overview
Procedures
Materials
...
Concluding Sentence
III. FINDINGS/RESULTS
Introductory Sentence
Locating Results
Findings
Comment
...
Concluding Sentence



Matching exercise

Report Structure. Choose the correct meaning from the definitions in the box

Title Page	A short summary explaining what you set out to do, what you did and what you found.
Abstract	Shows how you move from your results to your conclusions.
Table of contents	Summarises the research findings and analyses its conclusion and significance.
Introduction	Why the report was written. Background information and organisation
Methodology	What the research found. It includes tables and charts etc.
Findings/Results	Detailed description of what exactly you did, and why.
Discussion	Gives full details of the questionnaires and results.
Conclusion	The title of the report, name of writer, date, course, group, and lecturer.
References	Gives a list of materials used.
Appendices	The sections on the report and the page numbers.

Examinations in English

Almost all students will at some time be expected to write an examination. Examinations need to be prepared for and revision needs to be done. Finally examinations need to be taken.

Introduction

Institutions use many different forms of examinations, but the two *main types* are:

Closed examinations, where students are not allowed to refer to books or notes. They usually a given time to complete a certain number of questions;

Open examinations, where students can refer to books and notes during the examination period. In some cases, it and may even be possible to take the question paper away and return it at a later time.

You may:

Take the examination in the traditional way using a pen and paper.

Take the examination using a computer, either in an examination room or at home or a public library.

The *types of written examinations* questions that students may be expected to complete are:

Short answer questions: These questions may require anything from a few words to a paragraph or more.

Multiple-choice questions: In a multiple-choice question, you are given a number of possible responses, from which you have to choose one or more answer.

Essay-type questions: These are questions that require an essay-type answer. Essay-type answers can be anything from a few paragraphs to a few pages.

Problems/mathematical questions: This type of question requires you to solve a problem using calculations.

Exam preparation

Be well organised and prepare well.

Organise your time: make a revision timetable and use it.

Make sure you know the exam date, time and place.

Look at past exam papers if they are available.

Look at your course specifications to check the aims and objectives.

Re-read lecture and seminar notes, making sure you have covered everything.

Practise writing by hand - you might not have had much experience recently!

On the examination day:

Make sure you know the examination date, time and place.

Check that you have all the equipment you need.

Ensure that you have the necessary ID.

Taking the examination

Listen carefully to the invigilator's instructions at the beginning of the examination.

Read all the questions carefully. Check if there are any compulsory questions. Check the number of questions you need to answer. Choose the questions you will answer, that is the ones you can obtain the best marks from. Cross out the ones you do not intend to do. Decide how much time you will allow for each question.

Re-read the examination paper to ensure you understand the questions. Focus on the exact question that has been set. Be clear exactly what the questions are asking you. Highlight any key terms in the question.

Start with familiar, well-known topics.

Quickly plan your answers, making sure the structure you choose will answer the question. Make quick notes to help you to remember. Write down any formulas or theories you may need to use.

Start to write. Be well organised to quickly find the data, quotations, examples and arguments that you plan to use in your answers. Privide quality not quantity.

Leave a space after any questions which you think you could write more on later.

Provide relevant evidence from your lecture notes.

Watch the time during the examination.

Continue to check that you are answering the question that has been set, not just writing down everything you know.

Write clearly so that your answers will be easy to read.

Make sure you leave enough time to check, edit and proofread your work.

Check that you answer all the questions required of you.

Advice

<u>Short answer questions</u>

Keep your answers short – do not rewrite the question.

Quickly plan your answers before you start to write.

Do not give more information than you are asked for.

Mark the questions you are not sure of so that you can come back to them at the end, if you have time.

Answer all the questions.

Multiple-choice questions

Quickly read through all the questions and the choices before you start doing the examination.

Mark the questions you are not sure of so that you can come back to them at the end, if you have time.

Start by answering the questions you are sure about.

Then do the others questions. Start by deleting the obviously wrong answers.

Be careful of negative questions: "Which ... does not ...?"

Keep to your time allocation.

Usually, answer all the questions even if you have to guess. Check whether marks are deducted for incorrect answers.

Essay-type questions

Read the questions carefully and then analyse each question so that you know what they mean.

Underline the instruction words and make sure you know exactly what yoyu are required to do.

Plan your answer.

Write down some key words.

Start your answer by paraphrasing the question in a few words.

Leave a few empty lines between paragraphs in case you want to add information later.

Leave wide margins.

Keep to your allocated time.

If you run out of time, list main ideas and key words. You might get some marks in this way.

Problems/mathematical questions

Read the questions and the instructions very carefully.

Underline the instruction words and make sure you know exactly what is required.

Once you have decided what you have to do, write down the formulas or methods you need to use.

Always show your workings; if your answer is wrong or not finished, you may still get some marks for showing you understand the process.

Use a pencil for drawings and diagrams so you can change them later if necessary.

Label drawings and diagrams and include headings.

On-Line Tests

Before the examination day:

Make sure your computer, especially if you are working at at home, is technically capable with regard to: security settings, screen display, internet connection, browser options, etc.

Understand the login process to access the examination. Check that you have the required passwords, ID etc.

Make sure you know:

whether the time you take to complete the examination is measured and if is there a clock;

whether you can save your examination and come back if you are interrupted;

whether you must answer the questions in the sequence given;

whether or not you can change your answers later;

whether or not you can check your work, or check for unanswered questions;

whether you can type your answer in a familiar word-processing program and past the answer into the examination page.

When you have finished answering your questions, make sure you know:

how to save your work and exit.

The questions will probably be short-answer questions or multiple-choice.

Short answer questions

Keep your answers short – do not rewrite the question.

Quickly plan your answers before you start to write.

Do not give more information than you are asked for.

Note the questions you are not sure of so that you can come back to them at the end, if you have time.

Answer all the questions.

Multiple-choice questions

Quickly read through all the questions and the choices before you start doing the examination, if you can.

Note the questions you are not sure of so that you can come back to them at the end, if you have time.

Start by answering the questions you are sure about.

Then do the others questions. Start by deleting the obviously wrong answers.

Be careful of negative questions: "Which ... does not ...?"

Keep to your time allocation.

Usually, answer all the questions even if you have to guess. Check whether marks are deducted for incorrect answers.

Avoiding plagiarism

Definitions

The concise Oxford dictionary (6th edition) (1976)

Plagiarise - Take and use another person's (thoughts, writings, inventions) as one's own.

The Cambridge international dictionary of English (1995)

Plagiarise - To use (another person's idea or part of their work) and pretend that it is your own.

The Oxford advanced learner's dictionary (5th edition) (1995)

Plagiarise - To take somebody else's ideas or words, and use them as if they were one's own.

The Oxford advanced learner's dictionary (6th edition) (2000)

Plagiarise - To copy another person's words or work and pretend that they are your own.

Collins COBUILD English language dictionary (1987)

If you plagiarise someone else's ideas, or part of a piece of writing or music by someone else, you use it in your own work and pretend that you thought of it or created it.

Funk and Wagnalls' new standard dictionary (1921)

Plagiarism is the act of appropriating the ideas, writings, or inventions of another without due acknowledgement; specifically, the stealing of passages either for word or in substance, from the writings of another and publishing them as one's own.

Collin's pocket English dictionary (1987)

Plagiarism is the taking of ideas, writings, etc. from another and passing them off as one's own

University of Hertfordshire Policies and Regulations, 17.7, 5.2.

Plagiarism is the representation of another person's work as the student's own, either by extensive unacknowledged quotation, paraphrasing or direct copying.

MLA handbook for writers of research papers (1995)

To use another person's ideas or expressions in your writing without acknowledging the source is to plagiarise.

Plagiarism is taking another person's words or ideas and using them as if they were your own. It can be either deliberate or accidental. Plagiarism is taken very

seriously in UK Higher Education. If even a small section of your work is found to have been plagiarised, it is likely that you will be assigned a mark of '0' for that assignment. In more serious cases, it may be necessary for you to repeat the course completely. In some cases, plagiarism may even lead to your being expelled from the university.

Reasons for plagiarism

Plagiarism can happen for many reasons.

Deliberate plagiarism.

This is when you make the decision to steal someone else's work. For example, this could be either:

because you do not have the time to do the work yourself;

because you do not have the energy to do the work yourself;

because you think your lecturer will not notice;

because you think your lecturer will not care;

or, perhaps, because you are not able to do the work yourself.

It can involve:

copying another student's work;

copying another person's work from a book or a journal;

copying another person's work from a web-site;

asking another person to do the work for you;

downloading the complete text from the Internet;

buying the text from the Internet;

or even paying for someone to do the work for you.

In all cases, if you do not do the work yourself, you are unlikely to learn from it. It is therefore not useful and a waste of your time. Do not do this. There are many

ways your lecturer can check whether or not you have plagiarised. It is not worth the risk.

Accidental plagiarism.

This is when you accidentally, through carelessness or lack of skill, use another person's words without acknowledging it. This can happen for several reasons:

you do not know that you must not copy a person's words directly;

you do not have the skill for expressing another person's ideas in your own words;

you do not know the correct systems for indicating that you are using another person's words or ideas;

when you take notes from a book or journal, you copy out some sections and do not make this clear in your notes. Later when you re-read the notes, you forget that they are not your words or ideas;

you forget to acknowledge another person's words or ideas;

you do not have time to include the acknowledgments and list of references;

you feel your written work is not good enough;

you borrow your friend's notes, not realising that some of the words are plagiarised.

Types of Plagiarism

Outright copying is when a student uses exactly the same words as the original author without using quotation marks or saying where the words are from.

Paraphrase plagiarism is changing some of the words and grammar but leaving most of the original text the same.

Patchwork plagiarism is when parts of the original author's words are used and connected together in a different way.

Stealing an apt term is when a short phrase from the original text has been used in the students work, possibly because it is so good.

Advice

Plagiarism is the representation of another person's work as your own.

There are three main reasons why you should not do this:

It is not helpful.

Engaging in plagiarism involves claiming someone else's work as your own, which is detrimental for several reasons. Firstly, it inhibits your learning process, as you're not genuinely absorbing and comprehending the material. Moreover, it jeopardizes your academic performance, as plagiarized work typically receives poor marks. To excel in higher education, it's crucial to take ownership of the ideas and information you utilize. Providing evidence and proper citation for these concepts is essential. By acknowledging your sources through citation, you strengthen your arguments and enhance your academic writing. Additionally, it demonstrates to your instructors that you've thoroughly engaged with and comprehended the required readings.

You need to come to your own conclusions.

Demonstrating comprehension and forming independent conclusions based on your engagement with the material is essential. Simply copying from textbooks or pasting content from the internet into your work is insufficient. Much of your writing will indeed be informed by the ideas of others—from textbooks, lectures, seminars, and discussions with peers. This is fundamental to academic inquiry. However, it's imperative that you develop your own insights based on your reading, listening, and discussion. The objective of an essay is to articulate your own perspective using the ideas you've studied, presenting them in your own unique manner. While it's crucial to engage with others' ideas, the focus should be on interpreting and integrating them into your own arguments, rather than merely reproducing their exact words.

It is against the regulations.

Utilizing another person's words or ideas without proper attribution is strictly prohibited by university regulations and is considered a severe transgression. Not only is this practice detrimental to your academic progress, but it also inhibits your own learning process. If you engage in plagiarism, your lecturer will be unable to accurately gauge your understanding of the course material, thus impeding their ability to offer constructive feedback and support. Moreover, this lack of genuine comprehension will be apparent in any written examinations you undertake.

However, there exists a nuanced challenge in this regard. As a student, it is essential to draw upon the knowledge acquired through readings and lectures when completing assignments. Indeed, this skill is indispensable for every student. Striking the right balance between adequately incorporating the ideas of course authors and avoiding over-reliance on their work to the point of plagiarism can be challenging. As a student, one of your initial tasks is to develop a sense of how to navigate this delicate balance.

A significant portion of your writing will be influenced by the insights of others, derived from textbooks, lectures, seminars, and discussions with peers. This collaborative exchange of ideas is integral to the academic pursuit. However, it is imperative to transparently acknowledge the sources of these ideas and individuals through proper referencing. When incorporating another person's ideas or words into your work, it is essential to provide attribution. This not only safeguards you against accusations of plagiarism but also bolsters the credibility of your own arguments and viewpoints.

Unless an idea is widely recognized as common knowledge within your field, it is necessary to attribute its source. Determining what constitutes common knowledge in your subject area can be challenging, but if your lecturer, textbooks, or course materials do not acknowledge the source, it can generally be assumed to be common

knowledge. While concepts and ideas widely accepted within your specialization typically do not require referencing, it is prudent to err on the side of caution and provide a citation when uncertain.

Take notes in your own words. A good strategy is: read, put away your books and think, and then write your notes.

Acknowledge quotations, even in your own notes. This will help you avoid accidental plagiarism when you copy from your own notes, not realising the words were copied from a textbook.

If you use ideas of other people, be explicit about it. That is to say, cite the relevant author at the relevant point in your writing. It is then not possible for anyone to accuse you of cheating or stealing someone else's work. It will also help you by showing that you know the background.

Exercise 1

Which of these do you consider to be unacceptable?

Change some of the words and sentences in a text, but keep the overall structure of the text and the vocabulary the same as in the original text.

Take some short fixed phrases from several different sources and put them together with some of your own words.

Copy a paragraph directly from the source with no changes.

Copy a paragraph making only small changes. For example, replace some words with words with similar meanings.

Copy out an article from a journal or textbook and submit it as a piece of your own coursework.

Cut and paste a paragraph: use the sentences of the original but put one or two in a different order and leave one or two out.

Paraphrase a paragraph: rewrite the paragraph but change the language, organisation and detail, and give your own examples.

Quote a paragraph by placing it in quotation marks and acknowledge the source.

Rewrite a passage from another writer and present it as your own work.

Take just one word or phrase from a text because it is very well expressed.

Use another author's organisation and way of arguing.

Exercise 2

Types of Plagiarism

Indentify the types of plagiarism (outright copying, paraphrase plagiarism, patchwork plagiarism, stealing an apt term)in the following texts:

Text 1.

Original Text:

You have to tread quite a fine line between being accused, on the one hand, of not making enough use of the writers you have been reading on the course, and, on the other, of having followed them too slavishly, to the point of plagiarising them. One of your early tasks as a student is to get a feel for how to strike the right balance.

Student's text:

You have to tread quite a fine line between being accused, on the one hand, of not making enough use of the writers you have been reading on the course, and, on the other, of having followed them too slavishly, to the point of plagiarising them. One of your early tasks as a student is to get a feel for how to strike the right balance.

Text 2.

Original Text:

You have to tread quite a fine line between being accused, on the one hand, of not making enough use of the writers you have been reading on the course, and, on the other, of having followed them too slavishly, to the point of plagiarising them. One of your early tasks as a student is to get a feel for how to strike the right balance.

Student's text:

You must be careful of being blamed for not using the information you have read on your course, and, in contrast, of having used the information too much so that it looks like you have plagiarised. One of your first jobs as a student is to learn how to balance these two extremes.

Text 3.

Original Text:

You have to tread quite a fine line between being accused, on the one hand, of not making enough use of the writers you have been reading on the course, and, on the other, of having followed them too slavishly, to the point of plagiarising them. One of your early tasks as a student is to get a feel for how to strike the right balance.

Student's text:

When you are writing you need to be careful to use the information you have read well. At one extreme you may be blamed for not making enough use of the writers you have been reading on the course.While at the other extreme, you may be accused of having followed them too slavishly, to the point of plagiarising them. Early on as a student you need to balance these two extremes.

Text 4.

Original Text:

You have to tread quite a fine line between being accused, on the one hand, of not making enough use of the writers you have been reading on the course, and, on the other, of having followed them too slavishly, to the point of plagiarising them. One of your early tasks as a student is to get a feel for how to strike the right balance.

Student's text:

When you are writing you need to be careful to use the information you have read well. However, there is a difficult area here because, as a student, when you are doing assignments, you need to use what you have read or been taught in your

lectures. It is important, however, not to make too much use of this information or you may be accused of having followed them too slavishly. Early on in your life as a student, you need to balance these two extremes.

Exercise 3

Read the following text

The study presented here takes an unusually comprehensive look at one critical point of entry into academic performance. It shows a group of freshmen in the transition into the academic discourse of college, looking at the ways in which they interpret and negotiate an assignment that calls for reading-to-write. On such tasks, students are reading to create a text of their own, trying to integrate information from sources with ideas of their own, and attempting to do so under the guidance of a purpose they must themselves create. Because these reading-to-write tasks ask students to integrate reading, writing, and rhetorical purpose, they open a door to critical literacy. Yet this same interaction often makes reading-to-write a difficult process for students to learn and to manage.

The following texts have used Flower's ideas and words. Which of them do you consider to be acceptable?

A

On such tasks, students are reading to create a text of their own, trying to integrate information from sources with ideas of their own, and attempting to do so under the guidance of a purpose they must themselves create. Because these reading-to-write tasks ask students to integrate reading, writing, and rhetorical purpose, they open a door to critical literacy. Yet this same interaction often makes reading-to-write a difficult process for students to learn and to manage.

B

The study presented here (Flower, 1990) takes an unusually comprehensive look at one critical point of entry into academic performance. It shows a group of freshmen

in the transition into the academic discourse of college, looking at the ways in which they interpret and negotiate an assignment that calls for reading-to-write. On such tasks, students are reading to create a text of their own, trying to integrate information from sources with ideas of their own, and attempting to do so under the guidance of a purpose they must themselves create. Because these reading-to-write tasks ask students to integrate reading, writing, and rhetorical purpose, they open a door to critical literacy. Yet this same interaction often makes reading-to-write a difficult process for students to learn and to manage.

C

According to Flower (1990), on such tasks, students are reading to create a text of their own, trying to integrate information from sources with ideas of their own, and attempting to do so under the guidance of a purpose they must themselves create. Because these reading-to-write tasks ask students to integrate reading, writing, and rhetorical purpose, they open a door to critical literacy. Yet this same interaction often makes reading-to-write a difficult process for students to learn and to manage.

D

In English, an essay is a piece of argumentative writing several paragraphs long written about one topic, usually based on your reading. The purpose of an essay is for you to say something for yourself using the ideas of the subject, for you to create a text of your own by integrating information from sources with ideas of your own. The emphasis should be on working with other people's ideas, rather than reproducing their words, but your own voice should show clearly. The ideas and people that you refer to need to made explicit by a system of referencing.

E

In English, an essay is a piece of argumentative writing several paragraphs long written about one topic, usually based on your reading. The purpose of an essay is for

you to say something for yourself using the ideas of the subject, for you to create a text of your own by integrating information from sources with ideas of your own (Flower, 1990). The emphasis should be on working with other people's ideas, rather than reproducing their words, but your own voice should show clearly. The ideas and people that you refer to need to made explicit by a system of referencing.

F

On these tasks, students are reading in order to make a text of their own, trying to integrate facts from texts with their own ideas, and trying to do this with a purpose they must make themselves. As these reading-to-write tasks require students to combine reading, writing, and purpose, they provide a route to critical literacy. However, this same combination can make reading-to-write a complicated process for students to learn and to carry out.

G

In English, an essay is a piece of argumentative writing several paragraphs long written about one topic, usually based on the student's reading. The purpose of an essay is for the student to say something for themselves using the ideas of the subject, for them to present ideas they have learned in their own way. The emphasis should be on working with other people's ideas, rather than reproducing their words, but the student's own voice should show clearly. This is a very difficult task for students in the transition into the academic discourse of college.

H

When students start higher education, they have a great deal to learn about academic writing. In school academic writing usually consists of writing about things they have already learned about with no reference to how this was learned. In higher education, however, students will need to learn to negotiate an assignment that calls for reading-to-write. This involves reading sources and then trying to understand information from them. They then need to create their own texts by integrating this

information with ideas of their own. All this must be done under the guidance of a purpose they must themselves create.

I

In English, an essay is a piece of argumentative writing several paragraphs long written about one topic, usually based on the student's reading. The purpose of an essay is for the student to say something for themselves using the ideas of the subject, for them to present ideas they have learned in their own way. The emphasis should be on working with other people's ideas, rather than reproducing their words, but the student's own voice should show clearly. Students should be, as Flower (1990, p. v) points out: "reading to create a text of their own, trying to integrate information from sources with ideas of their own, and attempting to do so under the guidance of a purpose they must themselves create. "

J

When students start higher education, they have a great deal to learn about academic writing. In school academic writing usually consists of writing about aspects they have already learned about with no reference to how this was obtained. In higher education, however, students will need to learn to read and explicitly use the results of their reading to carry out the writing task. They will need to "negotiate an assignment that calls for reading-to-write" (Flower, 1990, p. v). This involves reading sources and trying to understand information from them, and then, according to Flower (1990, p. v) "create a text of their own" by "integrating information ... with ideas of their own."

K

According to Flower (1990, p. v) "On such tasks, students are reading to create a text of their own, trying to integrate information from sources with ideas of their own, and attempting to do so under the guidance of a purpose they must themselves create. Because these reading-to-write tasks ask students to integrate reading, writing, and

rhetorical purpose, they open a door to critical literacy. Yet this same interaction often makes reading-to-write a difficult process for students to learn and to manage."

Rhetorical functions in academic writing

Students are asked to write many different kinds of texts. Depending on your subject, these could be essays, laboratory reports, case-studies, book reviews, reflective diaries, posters, research proposals, and so on and are normally referred to as genres. These different genres, though, can be constructed from a small range of different text types.

If, for example, you are asked to write an essay to answer the following question:

Discuss possible solutions to the problem of international credit control.

You could answer it in the following way:

Define credit control, say what it is and give an example;

Explain why international credit control is a problem in business today, support your explanation by evidence from your reading;

Describe some possible solutions to the problem of credit control in an international context, again support your suggestions with evidence from your reading;

Describe the advantages and disadvantages of each of the possible solutions;

Decide which solution you would prefer and give reasons.

So in order to answer the question you need to be able to write texts to do the following:

Define

Give an example

Explain why

Support your explanation with evidence

Describe a solution

Describe advantages and disadvantages

Choose

Explain why

These various texts are calledcognitive genres or *Rhetorical Functions*.

Typical rhetorical functions used in academic writing are:

Descriptive

1. Describing objects, location, structure and direction
2. Reporting and narrating
3. Defining
4. Writing instructions
5. Describing function
6. Describing processes, developments and operations
7. Classifying / categorising
8. Giving examples
9. Including tables and charts

Critical

10. Writing critically
11. Arguing and discussing
12. Evaluating other points of view
13. Comparing and contrasting: similarities and differences
14. Generalising
15. Expressing degrees of certainty
16. Expressing reasons and explanations / cause and effect
17. Expressing feelings
18. Analysing
19. Planning action
20. Providing support
21. Application

22. Working with different voices and finding your own

23. Taking a stance

24. Using theory

25. Persuading

26. Introducing

27. Using previous research

28. Indicating a gap

29. Presenting findings from statistical analyses

30. Presenting findings from interviews

31. Presenting findings from mixed methods

32. Discussing limitations

33. Drawing conclusions

34. Recommendations

35. Implications

Reflective

36. Writing reflectively

Reporting and narrating

Language

Past tense is common.

Chronological order is also common, but when we are writing about past events, it is necessary to be explicit about the order in which things happened. To make the order clear, we mention dates and time, and we also use various links and connectives.

Time

In 1942, ...

During the 20th century, ...

Yesterday, ...

Twenty five years ago, ...

Sequence

before

Before this, …

For the previous X years, …

Prior to this, …

Previously, …

X years previously, …

Before…

… before which …

… prior to which …

after

For the following X years, …

X years later, …

After …

Following this, …

When …

Subsequently, …

Soon/Shortly/Immediately afterwards, …

… following which …

… after which …

while

During this period, …

Throughout this period, …

… during which…

… throughout which…

Exercise 1

Read the following text and, using it as a model, use the pictures by Robert Crumb below to write a history of Crumland.

The Town of Huntington traces its origins back to April 2nd, 1653, when Richard Holbrook, Robert Williams, and Daniel Whitehead, residents of Oyster Bay, acquired a piece of land known as "the First Purchase" from Raseokan, Sachem of the Matinecock tribe. This initial transaction encompassed an area bordered by Cold Spring Harbor to the west, Northport Harbor to the east, Old Country Road to the south, and Long Island Sound to the north. Subsequently, additional land was acquired from the indigenous population, gradually expanding the town's boundaries from Long Island Sound in the north to Great South Bay in the south, and from Oyster Bay in the west to Smithtown and Islip in the east. In 1872, the town underwent division, with the southern segment forming the Town of Babylon.

The majority of early settlers in Huntington were English immigrants who migrated via Massachusetts and Connecticut. Consequently, they identified more closely with New England than with their Dutch counterparts in New Amsterdam to the west. In fact, in 1660, the town decided to affiliate itself with Connecticut to gain protection from Dutch influence. Reflecting the customs of New England, Huntington initially adopted a Town Meeting as its primary form of governance. These meetings were convened as necessary, where free men of the town gathered to allocate town-owned land, settle disputes, regulate cattle pasturing on communal land, employ schoolmasters, appoint individuals to manage public houses, maintain roads, and address other communal concerns. For instance, the community's commitment to education was evident shortly after its establishment. In 1657, the Town Meeting voted to hire Jonas Houldsworth as the first schoolmaster, and in 1660, it approved the construction of a schoolhouse.

In 1664, when the Duke of York gained control over the territory once known as New Netherland, conveyed through Governor Richard Nicholls, he notified Connecticut that, according to his royal patent, they no longer had any claim to land on Long Island. Governor Nicholls convened representatives from each town on Long Island to gather in Hempstead in early 1665. These representatives were instructed to bring evidence of their land ownership and were subsequently granted new deeds affirming their titles. Additionally, the Hempstead Convention ratified the "Duke's Laws," which governed various aspects of daily life. Concurrently, Long Island, Staten Island, and Westchester were amalgamated into a collective entity referred to as "Yorkshire," segmented into three divisions known as "ridings," mirroring land divisions in England. Suffolk County, inclusive of Huntington, was encompassed within the East Riding. This governmental structure, with some adjustments such as the dissolution of "Yorkshire" and the ridings, persisted in New York until the Revolution.

Governor Thomas Dongan issued a patent in 1688 that ratified the earlier Nicholls Patent and mandated the establishment of "Trustees" to oversee and allocate town-owned land. These Trustees, along with other town officials, were elected during Town Meetings. The Dongan Patent also sanctioned the adoption and usage of a seal, which remains in use to this day.

During the period between the town's initial settlement and the onset of the American Revolution, Huntington evolved into a well-established community. The earliest settlers congregated around what would later be termed the "town spot," situated at the present location of the Village Green. As the town flourished and expanded, residents began to populate the surrounding areas. Alongside numerous farms established throughout both rural and central regions of the town, Huntington boasted various amenities, including a school, a church, flour mills, saw mills, brickyards, tanneries, a town dock, and a fort.

Huntington's advantageous harbor played a pivotal role in the region's economy, as shipping emerged as a significant sector. The harbor bustled with activity, accommodating vessels not only from nearby ports along the Sound but also from as far away as the West Indies. Shipbuilding and related maritime industries thrived, as water remained the most efficient mode of transportation for goods and passengers for many years. During the first half of the nineteenth century, Cold Spring Harbor emerged as a bustling whaling hub, second only to Sag Harbor on Long Island.

In June 1774, Huntington adopted a "Declaration of Rights," asserting the inviolability of every freeman's property and condemning taxation without representation as a violation of British subjects' rights. The declaration also urged the colonies to unite in boycotting trade with Great Britain. Two years later, the news of the Declaration of Independence was met with jubilation in Huntington, albeit short-lived. Following the rebel forces' defeat at the Battle of Long Island on August 27, 1776, Long Island fell under British occupation. Residents were compelled to swear allegiance to the Crown, facing eviction and confiscation of property if they refused. In 1782, the occupying British forces established a camp in Huntington's Old Burying Ground, desecrating tombstones to clear the area. Unsurprisingly, many residents resisted, engaging in guerrilla warfare until the war's end and the departure of British forces in 1783.

In 1776, Nathan Hale arrived in Huntington, having traveled by boat from Norwalk, Connecticut, on a spying mission for George Washington. His objective was to gather intelligence about British forces in Long Island and New York City. However, he was apprehended and subsequently executed in New York City in September 1776. A memorial now stands at the approximate site of his landing in Huntington, which is currently known as Halesite.

Slavery persisted in Huntington until the early nineteenth century, with farmers relying on enslaved labor for agricultural assistance. Owning black slaves as domestic servants was considered a status symbol, although it was uncommon for individuals to

own more than a few slaves. For instance, according to a 1755 census, there were 81 slaves distributed among 35 families in Huntington. Unlike the Southern states, the local economy was not heavily reliant on slave labor. The New York State Legislature passed an act in 1799, initiating the gradual abolition of slavery.

The War of 1812 did not have as significant an impact on Huntington as the Revolution, although the town remained vigilant. On one occasion, a contingent of 200 militiamen marched from Huntington to Lloyd's Neck based on a false report that the British were preparing to land in force there. In November 1814, the Town Meeting allocated $207.86 for expenses incurred in preparing the town's defense.

Huntington's most renowned figure, Walt Whitman, was born in West Hills in 1819. Although his family relocated to Brooklyn during his childhood, he returned to Long Island in his youth. At the age of 19, he established The Long-Islander, a Huntington newspaper that continues to operate today.

The extension of the railroad from Syosset to Northport in 1867 marked a turning point for Huntington. This development signaled the beginning of the decline of the maritime industry, although shipping remained significant until around the early 20th century. Given the town's historical reliance on maritime commerce, Huntington had long maintained connections with the wider world. With the advent of steamboats, trains, and eventually automobiles, Long Island became more accessible, reducing its physical isolation. This accessibility facilitated easier visits from New York City residents, which had been challenging in earlier times. Cold Spring Harbor emerged as a popular summer destination.

Following the conclusion of World War II in 1945, Huntington, like the rest of Long Island, experienced a population boom. After nearly two centuries of gradual growth, the town's population skyrocketed. In 1940, Huntington had approximately 32,000 residents. By 1960, this figure had surged to 126,000, surpassing 200,000 by the 1980s. This exponential growth brought about significant changes to the town's

rural landscape, as farmland and open spaces were replaced by residential areas, schools, highways, recreational facilities, and a burgeoning business and industrial sector.

1. 1800

2. 1875

3. 1890

4. 1900

5. 1910

6. 1920

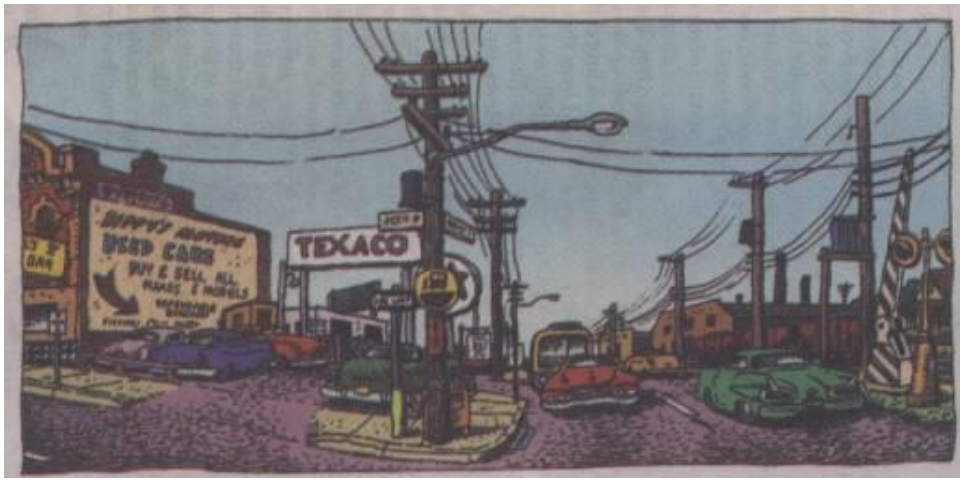
7. 1925

8. 1930

9. 1935

10. 1955

11. 1975



12. 1990

Spelling

It is often suggested that the English spelling system is illogical, irregular and out of date. It is true that there are some idiosyncratic features of English spelling - often with historical explanations - but in general, most English words are spelled quite logically. It is only if an attempt is made to draw a 1:1 correspondence between sound and spelling that these features seem to be irregular. English spelling is not a direct representation of sounds. Some features of English spelling are only irregular when attempts are made to relate letters to sounds. If other factors are considered they are much more regular. Here are some examples:

The English spelling system is related to grammar.

The words "dog", "cat" and "horse" can all be made plural by adding an "s" - "dogs", "cats" & "horses". But if the words are spoken, then the plural "s" is pronounced in different ways - /dɒgz/, /kæts/, /hɔ:sɪz/. The written plural "s" is pronounced in a different way - /dɒgz/, /kæts/, /hɔ:sɪz/.

Should they therefore be spelled differently?

The written "s" might not tell you how to pronounce the words, but it does give you important grammatical information. In this case it indicates that the word is a plural.

Similarly, the words "walk", "show" and "want" can all be put into the past by adding "ed" - "walked" "showed" & "wanted" but again these words are then pronounced differently - /wɑ:kt/, /ʃəʊd/, /wɒntɪd/. The written past tense "ed" is pronounced differently - /wɑ:kt/, /ʃəʊd/, /wɒntɪd/. Once more, the "ed" might not tell you how to pronounce the words, but it does give you important grammatical information.

English spelling also gives grammatical information. For example many abstract nouns are spelled with "tion" - "imagination" and "pronunciation".

The English spelling system is related to meaning.

If we take related words like "medicine" and "medical"- /medsɪn/ and /medɪkl/. Both of these words have a "c" in them: "medicine" and "medical". However in one case, the "c" is pronounced /s/ and in the other /k/ - /medsɪn/ and /medɪkl/.

In English, words that look the same tend to mean the same, even if they are pronounced differently. Other examples are the "a" in "nation" and "national"; the "i" in "crime" and "criminal"; the "o" in "democrat" and "democracy" etc.

There are also pairs of words like "sign" and "signal", "knowledge" and "acknowledge", "academic" and "academy", and "bomb" and "bombardier". Being aware of the relationship can help spelling.

Conversely "there" and "their" have different meanings. "There" and "their" are homophones - same pronunciation but different meanings and, therefore, spellings. Other examples are: "pare", "pair" and "pear"; "male" and "mail"; "cue" and "queue"; "ewe" and "you"; "plane" and "plain"; "summery" and "summary"; "formerly" and "formally" etc. In English words that look different tend to have different meanings.

Click here for a homophone exercise.

The English spelling system is related to position in the word.

George Bernard Shaw argued that the word /fɪʃ/ could be spelled "ghoti" in English. /f/ could be spelled "gh" as in "enough"; /ɪ/ could be spelled "o" as in "women", and /ʃ/ could be spelled "ti" as in "nation". Was he right? No. 'gh' is only

pronounced /f/ at ends of words - "tough" "cough" etc. or after vowels as in "draught." At the beginning of words "gh" as in "ghost" and "ghetto" can only be pronounced /g/. "o" is only pronounced /ɪ/ in "women" and "ti" is only pronounced /ʃ/ with "on" in /ʃn/ as in "nation". It cannot be separated.

Therefore /fɪʃ/ could not be spelled "ghoti". It can also be argued that "fish" cannot be spelled any other way.

These are a good example of how the spelling of English words is more closely related to aspects of language other than the pronunciation. It is related to meaning and grammar. Taking this into account can help with spelling in English.

Advice

Think about the meaning of the word.

Is it related to another word you know and can spell?

If you can spell one word, a related word will probably be spelled similarly.

Use a dictionary.

If you can't find the word you want in your dictionary, click here for some help.

It is also worth learning the system used for showing pronunciation.

Use your computer spell-checker actively. Don't just accept what the computer suggests - computers are often wrong. Make sure it is correct. If it is a word you know you cannot spell, write it down and remember it.

Exercise 1

Choose the correctly spelled word from the list

accademic academic acedemic acaddemic

acess acsess accessacces

accommodation acommodation accomodation acomodation

acheiveacheve achive achieve

acuaintance acquaintance aquaintance acquaintence

acros accross accrosacross

aggressive agressive aggresive agresive

alege alledge aledge allege

annual anual annuall annuel

appliccable appliceble aplicable applicable

artic arctic arcctic arttic

asassin assassin asasin assasin

biginning beginning begining beggining

behaveour behaviour behaviur behavior

benefited benefitted beneffited benifited

busnessbusines business bisness

calender calendar callendar callender

changable changeabel changeable changabel

caracteristics charachteristics carachteristics characteristics

choclate chocolate chocolete choclete

conel colnel colonel collonel

comitted commited committed comited

comittee commitee committee comittee

consientious conscientious conscientous consciensious

conscious conscous concious concous

contempory contemporary contemprary contemporery

coridor corriddor corridor coriddor

criticism critisism critiscism criticicm

cristal crystal crystle cristle

definately definitely definitly definatly

deterirate deterorate deterioreit deteriorate

developement development divelopment divelopement

disapeared dissappeared dissapeared disappeared

discussion discusion discushon discusson

dividid	devided	diveded	divided
embarass	embbarrass	embarrass	embbarass
empheses	emphasis	emphisis	emphesis
exagerate	exxaggerate	exaggerate	exxagerate
fasination	fascination	fascinasion	fasinasion
Febuary	Febrary	February	Febary
foregner	foreigner	forigner	foriegner
friquently	frequantly	frecuently	frequently
goverment	government	governement	goverement
guard	gard	gaurd	guad
harrass	harras	haras	harass
heigt	height	heigth	hieght
humorous	humerous	humorus	humourous
hypothisis	hypothessis	hypothesis	hypotesis
immediately	imediately	immedietely	immediatly
inaudable	inaudible	inaudeble	inauduble
increasingley	increaseingly	increasingly	increasingely
independant	independent	indipendent	indipendant
inocelate	inoculeate	inoculate	inocculate
insufficient	insuficient	insufficcient	insufficiant
interogate	interrogate	interregate	interegate
interveiwed	interviwed	interviewed	intarviewed
knowledge	nowledge	knowlege	knoledge
labratory	laborotory	labrotory	laboratory
laborers	labourers	laburers	labourers
libary	libry	library	librery
literature	litrature	litereture	literatur
maintaining	maintening	maintianing	mantaining

maintainance maintenance maintianance mantainance

medisine medecine medesine medicine

miscellaneous miscelaneous misellaneous miscellanious

necessary necesary neccessary neccesary

occassion occasion ocassion ocasion

occuppation occupation ocupation ocuppation

occurred ocurred occured ocured

occurrence ocurrence occurence ocurence

opress oppres opres oppress

paraffin parafin parraffin parraffin

parrallel paralel parallel parralel

parliment parliament parliamant parlimant

particulaly particuarly particularly paticularly

peddalled peddaled pedalled pedaled

personnel personel perssonnel persennel

predominatly predominently pridominantly predominantly

prefferred prefered preffered preferred

prosdeed proseed proceed procede

riased rised raised rased

really realy reelly raelly

recieve receive riceive ricieve

reconise recegnise recognise recognaise

reccommend recomend reccommend recommend

reccurrence reccurence recurence recurrence

refferring refering referring reffering

regretable regrettable rigrettable regretteble

reserch research reaserch risearch

resourses resources risources resorses

rhyme rhym ryme rhymne

rythm rhythm rhithm rithm

scools scools sckools schools

sentance sentence sentince sentense

seperate seperete separate separete

sergent seargent sergeant seargeant

sinserely sincerely sincerly sinsereley

stuyding studing studying studiing

sucessful succesful successfull successful

techniques technics technicues teckniques

temprament temprement temperament temperamant

temprary temporery temprery temporary

thorough thorugh thorogh thorouhg

truley truly truely trueley

vacinate vaccinnate vacinnate vaccinate

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writeing writting writing wraiting

Reading and Analysing Academic Articles

by Amanda Graham

Introduction

This guide aims to teach you the art of comprehending scholarly articles, a skill that greatly aids in managing assigned readings. Understanding the writing styles and motivations of academics can also enhance your own papers. It's worth noting that none of the techniques discussed here are unique; you can find further information on them in writing manuals or academic skills guides.

All forms of writing adhere to conventions. Whether it's cookbooks, letters, novels, or dictionaries, they all rely on specific language and presentation styles to ensure clarity and ease of use. Thanks to these writing conventions, we can quickly discern the nature of a book simply by flipping through its pages. With practice, reading academic articles and essays can become just as straightforward as reading other types of materials.

Academic fields also adhere to specific conventions that authors must follow for their ideas to be comprehensible to other scholars. Moreover, these disciplines often dictate the style and tone authors must adopt for their articles to be deemed acceptable within their respective fields.

For instance, scientists in rigorous disciplines often prioritize highlighting the experiment and its outcomes while downplaying the role of the individuals conducting the experiment (e.g., using phrases like "the experiment was conducted" and "the results suggest"). Social scientists may vary in their approach, mentioning experiment conductors in certain sections but not in others (e.g., "the data were collected," versus "we note that"). In the humanities, scholars typically refrain from inserting themselves into their work, although there are exceptions. However, it's important to note that these are broad observations, and writing styles within

disciplines can evolve over time. For example, in anthropology, particularly ethnography, there's a noticeable shift towards more personal and less formal writing styles.

Academic writing typically adheres to established structures. Scientific papers, whether in social sciences or hard sciences, often feature clearly delineated sections covering the problem statement, review of existing literature, experiment methodology, results, and implications of the findings.

In contrast, humanities articles may not use section headings as prominently, but they typically comprise three primary sections: an introduction providing background and framing the issue, a body presenting the author's argument and supporting evidence, and a conclusion summarizing the author's conclusions.

Understanding these standard conventions is crucial for effectively reading and comprehending academic articles. Moreover, awareness of these conventions can be beneficial when writing across different disciplines. Just as one wouldn't wear formal attire to a casual event, recognizing the expected style of academic writing allows writers to better grasp the author's message and integrate similar techniques into their own work.

Let’s Get Started

Depending on your purpose for reading the article or chapter, it might be beneficial to start with a photocopy, allowing you to annotate and highlight important sections. Regardless of your approach, it's valuable to document your responses to the questions provided in each section of this guide. This summary can greatly aid in exam preparation or discussions about assigned readings.

Keep in mind that your goal is to comprehend the author's message. By understanding their argument, you can effectively analyze the text, its content, presentation, and draw conclusions regarding its relevance to your research or course objectives.

Step 1 – Consider the article as a whole

Before diving into the article, take a holistic approach by assessing its purpose, target audience, and content. Look for hints in the title, subtitle, acknowledgments (if available), author's affiliation, initial footnotes or endnotes, and any biographical information provided. Here are some guiding questions to assist you in evaluating the article as a whole:

Who is writing the article?

What information can you gather about the author from the document? Look for details like name, qualifications, and institutional affiliation. If possible, explore other works authored by the individual to understand their position within the academic community and their field of expertise.

What are the author's qualifications?

Understanding the author's qualifications is crucial for assessing the credibility, significance, and potential biases of the article's conclusions. This information is typically provided within the article, such as through university or research affiliations. Look for clues at the beginning or end of the article, often found in footnotes, or in a separate author biography section if available.

What audience is the author addressing?

Who is the intended audience of the article? Understanding this is crucial because it heavily influences the style, content, and approach adopted by the article. Clues about the target audience can often be inferred from the publication venue, such as the journal or book in which the article is published. You can also gauge the audience by examining the reference list or by skimming through the initial paragraphs. Typically, the opening paragraphs provide the rationale for the research, offering insight into the paper's focus and scope. Generally, the more specialized and detailed the focus, the more specialized and expert the intended audience is likely to be.

In other instances, audience must be determined by assessing the amount of background information and unexplained references the author includes (less suggests an audience of experts, more, an audience of general readers).

What is the article about?

Examine the initial paragraphs of the article. Well-crafted papers typically use these paragraphs to establish the paper's topic and purpose. Additionally, the title of the article should provide clues about its main focus, interpretation, and sometimes the timeframe or period under consideration. Some disciplines may include an abstract before the main text, offering an unbiased summary of the paper's contents if properly written.

Another valuable source for a brief overview of the article or chapter is the conclusion. Often longer than the introduction, spanning two to four paragraphs depending on the article's length, the conclusion typically summarizes the argument and contextualizes it within a broader framework.

What sources does the author use?

Examine the footnotes or endnotes, or review the reference list. Understanding the sources the author utilized and where they obtained their information can provide insight into whether the author is presenting new data (such as interviews, letters, archival or government documents, etc.), offering a fresh perspective on existing material (books and articles), or merging new and existing sources to contribute to the discourse on the subject. Analyzing the sources can also reveal if the author has focused on a specific type of information or viewpoint.

Step 2 – Determine the purpose, structure and direction of the article

After examining the article holistically, begin reading with a balanced approach between thorough reading and skimming. By doing so, you can aim to identify the author's statement of purpose or thesis statement within the introduction. Additionally, you should be able to discern the evidence the author intends to utilize to bolster their position. Moreover, the author may outline any constraints imposed on the article, such as the timeframe or period under consideration, the geographic scope, the extent of information to be utilized, and the theories to be employed.

Additionally, you should endeavor to discern the author's perspective. Remember, research is not devoid of values and is not culturally neutral. Through careful examination, you may uncover the values that the author upholds or advocates for.

Furthermore, scrutinize the conclusion. If it lacks clear labeling, it will likely comprise the last two or three paragraphs. Generally, the conclusion does not include quoted material (i.e., no references or note numbers) and should solely consist of the author's remarks directed at the reader.

It can be advantageous to peruse the conclusion before delving into the entire paper because it offers the author's summary of the discourse. If you're unable to pinpoint the thesis statement (as they are often not explicitly stated), reviewing the conclusion can provide insight. Understanding where the author concludes often sheds light on their initial standpoint. Additionally, in many cases, the conclusion serves as a comprehensive recapitulation of the entire paper, mirroring the thesis statement's purpose.

Some questions to guide you in determining the purpose, structure and direction of the article:

What is the author's main point, or thesis?

Occasionally, this can be readily identifiable; the author might explicitly state something like "the purpose of this article is to" or "in this paper, my aim is to

demonstrate/argue that." At times, you may need to search for a concise declaration that echoes the title, employing similar phrases or words, along with succinct statements outlining the argument supporting the assertion: "Contrary to the assertions of other scholars, I contend that [the topic] is indeed the case, supported by [supporting point #1], [supporting point #2], and [supporting point #3]."

If the paper is well-crafted, the section headings of the paper (when there are any) will contain some allusion to the supporting points.

What evidence has the author used?

This question often finds its initial answer in the first step, but the introduction also serves to elaborate on your understanding of the evidence. Academic papers typically adopt an argumentative structure, akin to constructing a case in a courtroom trial. The author begins by stating their position on a particular subject, situation, or event. Then, to convince the reader, they provide facts or evidence that bolster their stance.

In this analogy, a set of sources (or witnesses) provides information to the author (or lawyers), leading to an understanding. Subsequently, the author elucidates how they arrived at that conclusion and presents the evidence that supports it. It's essential to consider what information might be absent. Was the trial fair even if a crucial witness wasn't called to testify? Similarly, has the author selectively presented only those facts that support their thesis in the article? You could explore this further by examining additional sources or conducting further research.

Is the evidence “primary,” “secondary” “traditional,” or “non-traditional”?

What limits did the author place on the study?

Authors of articles typically avoid tackling expansive topics due to space constraints. There's insufficient room in an article to delve into comprehensive subjects such as the history of the world or significant global issues. Instead, articles are usually crafted to incrementally advance understanding. This incremental progress may stem from either exploring previously unexamined subjects or making complex

topics more accessible, especially when considering readers who may find longer works, like a student's thesis, cumbersome to navigate.

Moreover, articles tend to narrow their focus to specific periods, events, changes, individuals, or ideas, often imposing further limitations. This focused approach becomes particularly noteworthy if the author aims to draw generalizations from their findings. For instance, insights into education practices in 1940s Yellowknife might not necessarily apply to education elsewhere or at different times. Conversely, a broader discussion of subsistence strategies spanning a longer timeframe may offer more universal relevance.

Furthermore, articles sometimes serve as critiques of literature within a specific field, providing a condensed alternative to reading multiple books. In educational settings, articles are frequently assigned to exemplify particular research methodologies, as a repository of high-quality information on specific topics, or as a means of synthesizing a wealth of existing literature on a given subject.

What is the author's point of view?

Identifying the author's stance can vary in clarity depending on the type of essay. In "polemical" essays, authors often critique various points, truisms, or arguments before presenting their own perspective, making their position obvious. However, in other cases, discerning the author's stance might require a more nuanced approach. Sometimes, you have to gauge it by assessing the tone or observing the use of negative or positive adjectives. For instance, phrases like "as so-and-so said in their excellent essay, 'Nuke'em Now!'" or "who shows a wrongheaded insistence" can serve as cues to understand the author's position. These linguistic clues can help unravel the author's standpoint.

Step 3 – Read the article; pay attention to writing and presentation

As you read, watch not only for what the author is saying, but how it is said. This step requires that you read the article to gain an understanding of how the author

presents the evidence and makes it fit into the argument. At this stage of the exercise, you should also take the time to look up any unfamiliar words or concepts.

Although you are somewhat off the hook critically in this stage, you should be aware that there are tricks the author can use to make sure you're following the argument. Some of them are standard ways to keep the author's argument separate from the evidence. Look for clues like: "for example," "as Professor Source said," or "in my study area (or time), I found that." Also, look for transition words and phrases ("however," "despite," "in addition," etc.) and the various words clues writers leave when they switch from their own voice to that of their sources. Others may be less honest attempts to make you agree.

Consider the varying "levels" of sentences and paragraphs within the text. At the outset, you'll encounter overarching, broad statements that establish context or facts essential for the paper's subsequent discussion. Be cautious of unsupported generalizations lacking examples or references, as they indicate weak reasoning, especially if the author expects unquestioning agreement without providing evidence.

Mid-level sentences delve into summarizing or discussing specific aspects introduced earlier in the paper. The deepest level of discussion is the most focused, dealing with specific events, situations, or artifacts that lead to broader conclusions. Pay attention to the level at which the author addresses you. The progression should start with general statements, move to mid-level specifics, fluctuate between narrower and broader points as needed to guide the reader through the argument, and conclude by returning to the general context..

Take notice of the language authors will sometimes use when they are speculating about things or hoping you won't realize that the evidence is weak: "it is probable or likely that," (is it probable?) "clearly, this is so" (is it clear?), "it should be obvious by now" (is it obvious?), "this undoubtably means" (is it undoubtable?) Remember that forceful words don't necessarily make a weak argument any more convincing.

Also, observe how the author transitions from explaining how the evidence supports their argument to summarizing the paper. The final paragraphs should effectively wrap up the discussion, demonstrating how everything aligns cohesively, indicating areas for further research, or highlighting the article's contribution to the field. Additionally, adhering to conventions, there should be some reference to the thesis statement and possibly a callback to the title, particularly if it contained a memorable phrase.

Step 4 – Criticism and evaluation of the article

Once you've completed reading, reflect on your initial reaction. Initial impressions are often surface-level: "I enjoyed it," or "It was challenging to comprehend." These impressions are typically subjective and not thoroughly reasoned. While they can serve as a starting point, remember that they represent your personal reaction to the task of reading the article. Rarely do initial impressions provide the most insightful evaluation of the article or its content. Dense or technically intricate material isn't inherently negative, and simplicity doesn't necessarily equate to quality; it could simply be a concise summary.

Subsequent reflections should delve much deeper. Pondering the author's intended message, considering the target audience, identifying the article's purpose in filling a gap in knowledge, and posing similar questions lay the groundwork for a critical assessment. Even if you lacked prior knowledge of the topic, you can still evaluate the article and assess how effectively the author presents their argument.

Assessing an article can be challenging. In academic contexts, evaluation involves judging the merit of a work, often by comparing it to established standards. When evaluating an article, these standards typically include other articles within the same discipline or journal. If you're unfamiliar with these other articles, it may be difficult to evaluate effectively. However, you can still make a reasonable assessment by considering the stylistic and structural conventions of similar articles. Does the

article adhere to these conventions? Does it meet the academic standards in terms of writing quality, presentation, organization, citation of sources, and so on? While answering these questions can be tough, it's important to make the effort as it provides valuable insights for your critique.

Some questions to guide you in critiquing and evaluating the article:

Was there anything that was left unfinished? Did the author raise questions or make points that were left orphaned in the paper?

These questions are to make you think about what was in the article and what was left out. Since, by looking at the thesis statement, you should have a good idea of what the author is going to say, you should also be able to tell if any of the points weren't explored as fully as others. In addition, in the course of the paper, the author might have raised other points to support the argument. Were all of those worked out thoroughly?

Did it make its case?

Even if you were not a member of the intended audience for the article, did the article clearly present its case? If the author crafted the paper well, even if you don't have the disciplinary background, you should be able to get a sense of the argument. If you didn't, was it your reading or the author's craft that caused problems?

What does the point made by the argument mean in or to the larger context of the discipline and of contemporary society?

This question prompts you to consider the broader implications of the article. Academic articles are crafted to contribute to the advancement of knowledge incrementally. They typically aim beyond mere summarization, often highlighting gaps in existing knowledge and suggesting avenues for further research. So, where does this specific article stand in this continuum? Can the information provided potentially benefit individuals in real-world contexts? Does it add to the body of knowledge available to other scholars? Asking these types of questions helps you

better understand the significance of the article and integrate it into your existing understanding of the subject.

Is the organization of the article clear? Does it reflect the organization of the thesis statement?

It should be and it should. Go back and check if you're not sure.

Does the author's disciplinary focus lead her or him to ignore other ideas?

This sort of thing may be hard to determine on the face, but ask if the author has adequately supported his or her interpretation of the evidence? Are there any other explanations that you can think of? Have you read anything else on the same subject that contradicts or supports with this author is saying?

Were there any problems with grammar, sentence structure, or word usage?

Even if you're not particularly adept at writing or grammar, did you observe any mistakes in the paper? It's important to note that errors may not always be the author's responsibility. Editors are typically tasked with preparing the text for publication and should have collaborated with the author to rectify any errors. Some spelling issues might be mere typos, while word usage problems often stem from the author and persist despite the editing process. Careless editing may indicate rushed peer review, a concerning lack of attention to detail, and possibly premature publication. These are significant flaws in an academic work, underscoring the importance of clearly establishing the type of work involved for precisely these reasons.

What did you learn? What are you going to do with this information?

Indeed, much of this text focuses on the author and various methods to thoroughly analyze a published academic work. However, the overarching purpose of academic writing is to disseminate information into the scholarly realm, aiming to advance knowledge and understanding. Authors aspire for readers to engage with their work and discover something valuable, captivating, or thought-provoking in their ideas, interpretations, or findings. Reflecting on your experience of reading this article, consider whether it has prompted any shifts in your perspective. Has it

deepened your comprehension of a topic you're studying? What significance does this newfound information hold for you personally?

Conclusion

This step-by-step guide offers a practical approach to navigating through an academic article. By responding to the questions provided in each section, you gather sufficient information to craft a comprehensive review of the article. Even if you're not tasked with writing a formal review, completing an analysis sheet serves as a valuable resource. It documents the article's contents and your evaluation, serving as a study tool for exams or fuel for seminar discussions.

Additionally, the guide aims to illustrate that academic articles follow a consistent and predictable structure (the convention). By familiarizing yourself with these conventions, you can apply them to your own papers. Using the questions at each step as a checklist helps ensure that your papers align well with these conventions..

Glossary

Convention: General (often implicit) consent; practice based on this; accepted social behaviour especially if artificial or formal; accepted method of conduct used to convey information (Oxford Concise Dictionary).

Critiquing: This activity goes beyond merely highlighting flaws or negatives within an article, and it isn't achieved by simply defending your opinion of the article. Critiquing a piece of writing entails examining what the author explicitly states or implies they intend to accomplish (such as proving, explaining, or interpreting) in the article, and assessing how effectively they achieve those goals. Additionally, a critique can elucidate for readers how the article contributes to advancing knowledge in the field, or conversely, how it falls short in doing so. In this context, it entails a thoughtful evaluation and analysis of literature (both articles and books) within a specific field.

Implications: In this context, when we discuss implications, we're referring to the broader significance that the research or idea presented by the author might carry. When academics undertake and document research, they aim for it to have an impact, even if it's modest. Readers might contemplate how to apply the results or new knowledge presented in the paper, potentially incorporating it into their own work, influencing their perspectives, or even sparking further research and discussion in the field.

Looking things up: Encountering unfamiliar terms or words is a common aspect of the academic journey. The most effective method for enhancing your understanding of the subject you're studying is to consult dictionaries, textbook glossaries, or encyclopedias. There's absolutely no shame in utilizing reference materials; in fact, it's considered a normal and encouraged academic practice. It could be beneficial to create a personal glossary as you read, where you record words or concepts you've researched for future reference.

Non-traditional evidence: I'm using this term to refer to sources of information that have typically not been deemed "acceptable" by many academics. This issue is increasingly concerning, particularly in the social sciences and interdisciplinary areas like Women's Studies, First Nations Studies, or Northern Studies. In these fields, there's a growing utilization of personal narratives, oral testimonies, biographies, and even the researcher's own reflections and experiences, sparking debates about the "validity," "bias," or "suitability" of such sources.

Primary evidence: Facts and specifics derived from original documents rather than from later interpretative articles or books. The key difference lies in the fact that primary materials are the documents or non-textual evidence (such as newspapers, media programs, interviews, coins, etc.) created contemporaneously. They are also commonly known as "primary sources."

Secondary evidence: Information sourced from articles, magazines, or books rather than directly from original documents, often housed in archives. The typical

differentiation lies in the fact that secondary evidence typically comprises someone's analysis or interpretation of primary sources. However, there is a potential complication: depending on how an author employs the evidence, articles, books, newspapers, radio or TV programs can serve as either primary or secondary sources for an article.

Structure: Manner in which a building or other complete whole [like an academic paper] is constructed, supporting framework or whole of the essential parts of something (the structure of a poem, sentence, etc.) (Oxford Concise Dictionary).

Style: Refers to the way a writer expresses his or her ideas. Oxford Concise Dictionary: "manner of writing, speaking, or doing, in contrast to the matter to be expressed or thing done; collective characteristics of the writing or diction or way of presenting things."

Thesis: According to The Writer's Brief Handbook, a thesis is "a controlling idea." The authors (Rosa, Eschholz and Roberts) explain that "The thesis is often expressed in one or two sentences called a thesis statement". An article's thesis statement is usually in the first or second paragraphs, after some description or discussion of the article's context or the gaps in the discipline's knowledge the article is addressing.

Traditional evidence: I'm using this term to denote the established sources of information endorsed by the discipline. For instance, historians are expected to rely on contemporary documents like letters, diaries, government records, and newspapers. Social scientists, on the other hand, often utilize data derived from large, anonymized surveys as evidence, adhering to a different tradition. There's no strict constraint on such evidence. Typically, "traditional evidence" refers to data considered somewhat objective, which the author then interprets or elucidates.

Voice: A stylistic element that pertains to the selection of words and sentence structures that evoke the "voice" of the author in the reader's mind; incorporating slang may cultivate a conversational tone. Conversely, adhering to formal vocabulary

and structured sentences typically produces a tone reminiscent of lecturing or explaining.

Рекомендована література

Основна:

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2. Яхонтова Т.В. Основи англомовного наукового письма: Навч. посібник для студентів, аспірантів і науковців. Вид. 2-ге. Львів: ПАІС, 2003. 220 с.

3. Anker S. Real Writing with Readings: Paragraphs and Essays for College, Work, and Everyday Life. Boston, MA: Bedford/ St. Martins, 2012. 688 p.

4. Bailey S. Academic Writing. A Handbook for International Students. Londonand NewYork: Routledge, 2018. 312 p.

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11. Семенюк О. А. Основи теорії мовної комунікації: навч. посіб. / О. А. Семенюк, В. Ю. Паращук. – К. : ВЦ «Академія», 2010. – 240 с.

Додаткова:

1. Center for Communication Practices Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, Troy, NY. URL: http://www.ccp.rpi.edu/resources/

2. Driscoll Dana Lynn, Brizee Allen. Quoting, Paraphrasing, and Summarizing. URL: http://owl.english.purdue.edu/

3. How to write an abstract: links and tips. URL: http://research.berkeley.edu/ucday/abstract.html

4. The Writing Center. University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. URL: http://writingcenter.unc.edu/handouts/abstracts/

Інтернет ресурси:

1. Gillett A. Using English for Academic Purposes. URL: http://www.uefap.com/writing/

2. Graham A. A Guide to Reading and Analysing Academic Articles (1997-2004). URL: https://unialc.uni.edu/sites/default/files/reading_analyzing_academic_articles.pdf

3. Guide lines for the Preparation of Your Master's Thesis. URL: https://www.unk.edu/academics/gradstudies/admissions/grad-files/Grad%20Files/ThesisGdlnsFinal08.pdf

4. How to Read Scholarly Articles: Strategies for reading. URL: https://researchguides.ccc.edu/c.php?g=516083&p=3571315