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RESEARCH WRITING

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“Research writing” nomli ushbu qo’llanmada xorijiy til va adabiyot yo’nalishi 4 bosqich talabalariga maqola, ilmiy ish yozish, ilmiy ishni boshlash bosqichlari, yozish uslublarini to’g’ri qo’llash va ilmiy matnni tahrirlashni o’rgatishda foydalanilishi mumkin bo’lgan uslubiy ko’rsatmalar berilgan. Shu bilan birga, berilgan ma’lumotlar va mashqlar orqali ilmiy ish rejasini tuzish, ilmiy ishga daxldor adabiyotlarni tanlash va tahlil qilish, annotatsiya yozish, plagiatning oldini olish kabi ko’nikmalarni shakllantirishga yordam beradi.

Qo`llanma ishchi dasturda ko’rsatilgan soatga mo’ljallangan mavzularni qamrab olib, har bir mavzuga doir misollar, mustahkamlovchi mashqlar va uy vazifalari o’rin olgan.

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CONTENT

UNIT 1. INTRODUCTION TO THE COURSE AND ANALYSIS OF A SUCCESSFUL RESEARCH PAPER

Discuss the following questions:

- How to analyze? Scan the paper.
- How to examine the content?
- Check the format?
- How to critique and evaluate?

While completing this type of assignment, your key aim is to critically analyze a research article. An article from a serious scientific journal would be a good choice. You can analyze and interpret either quantitative or qualitative research.

This analysis will be beneficial for you since it develops your critical thinking and research skills. Below, figure out what an analysis paper should include. There are several essential elements the reader should identify:

- logical reasons for conducting the study;
- the description of the methodology applied in the research;
- concise and clear report of the findings;
- a logical conclusion based on the results.

You can use free paper samples before you work with your own writing to get a feel of how the analyzing process goes.

Step 1: Scan the Paper

First, briefly look through the found paper and evaluate whether it's appropriate for your research. Scanning helps you to start the content analysis and get the general idea of the study.

To scan the paper effectively, follow these simple steps:

1. Get familiar with the title, abstract, and introduction. Carefully read these parts and make sure you got the author's point.
2. Read the headings of each section and sub-section. But don't spend time to get familiar with the content.
3. Look through the conclusions. Check the overall one and the last sentence of each section.
4. Scan the references. Have you read any of these sources before? Highlight them and decide whether they are appropriate for your research or not.

Quiz

If you completed these steps of your research paper's critical analysis? Now, you should be able to answer these questions:

1. What kind of a paper is it (qualitative research, quantitative research, a case study, etc.)?
2. What is the research paper topic? How is it connected to your subject of study?
3. Do you feel like the findings and the conclusions are valid?
4. How can the source contribute to your study?
5. Is the paper clear and well-written?

After completing this step, you should have a clear image of the text's general idea.

Step 2: Examine the Content

The next step leads to a deeper understanding of the topic. You can try the following course of action to take the maximum benefit from the evaluation of the source.

1. Find the author's thesis. A thesis statement is usually the last sentence of the introduction (or several sentences). It is an essential part of the paper since it reflects the author's main point. Make sure you determined the thesis statement and understood it.
2. Consider the author's arguments. How does the author support his position? What are the key arguments they present in their research paper? Are they logical? Evaluate whether the points are clear and concise enough for any reader to get. Do they support the author's thesis?
3. Check the evidence. Try to find all the proof provided by the writer. A successful research paper should have valid evidence for every argument. These can be statistics, diagrams, facts taken from documentaries or books, experiments hold by researchers, etc.
4. Determine the limits of the study. An author is supposed to set limits to avoid making their research too broad. Find out what are the variables the writer relied on while determining the exact field of study. Keep them in mind when you decide whether the paper accomplished its goals within limits.
5. Establish the author's perspective. What position does the author take? What methods are applied to prove the correctness of the writer's point? Does it match with your opinion? Why/ why not?

Step 3: Check the Format and Presentation

At this stage, analyze the research paper format and the general presentation of the arguments and facts. Start with the evaluation of the sentence levels. In the research paper, there should be a hierarchy of sentences. To trace the research paper structure, take a look at the tips:

1. First-level sentences. They include only general statements and present the ideas that will be explored further in the paper.
2. Middle-level sentences. These sentences summarize, give a narrower idea, and present specific arguments.
3. Deep-level sentences. They contain specific facts and evidence that correspond to the arguments stated in middle-level sentences.

Your research paper analysis should also include format evaluation. This task might be challenging unless you have the formatting style manual open in front of your eyes.

Figure out what citation style the author applied and check whether all the requirements are met. Here is a mini checklist you have to follow:

- ✓ in-text citations
- ✓ reference list
- ✓ quotations
- ✓ title page
- ✓ font style and size, spacing
- ✓ abstract (if needed)
- ✓ appendix (if needed)

Step 4: Critique & Evaluate

This step requires attention to every detail in the paper. Identify each of the author's assumptions and question them. Do you agree with the author's evidence? How would you support the arguments? What are your opinions regarding the author's ideas?

For starters:

Try to re-implement the entire paper from your perspective and see how your version differs from the initial work. This trick will help you to determine the strong and weak sides of the work.

Then, move on to criticism. An effective way to evaluate a research paper consists of asking the right questions and assessing the crucial aspects, like:

1. The author's objective and whether it was reached. Did you get the author's main idea? Did the writer reach their aim and explain the arguments in great detail? Remember that even if the reader is not majoring in the study field, they should understand the objective. Is there something that remained unclear for you? In your opinion, what is the cause of your inability to comprehend the material?
2. The role in the broader context. Make sure the author's arguments and evidence sound adequately in the larger context. Do the writer's ideas contradict social norms. If so, why? Also, check the sources the author uses for their research. Make sure they are reliable and not outdated.
3. Grammar and organization. A professional research paper should not contain any mistakes. Make sure the text is flawless regarding grammar and structure. The ideas have to follow the logical flow; the tone should be academic; the paper should include transitions, summaries should be on point (which is easier to achieve with the help of a paper summarizer) and so on.
4. What the reader learns. The primary aim of an author is to deliver useful information to the reader. Did you, as a reader, find some new insights? Were they relevant and valuable? Consider whether you've read something similar before and how the data fit within limits set by the author.

Here is list of questions you should ask while analyzing a research paper. Use them as a ground for critical reading and evaluation.

Research Paper Section	Questions to Ask
Abstract	• Does the abstract clearly describe the paper's objectives? • Does the abstract correspond to the info presented in the research paper?

	• Does the abstract contain any information that is not investigated in the paper?
Introduction	• Does the author present the reasons for conducting the study? • Does the into include background information? • Is there a clear thesis statement in the introduction?
Methods	• Are the methods presented clearly enough? • Were the standard or modified methods used? • If modified, were the changes explained effectively? • Did the author indicate the limitations and the problems that arose while using the chosen methods? • Are the selected methods appropriate for the given research paper?
Results	• Are the findings adequate and logical? • Is the data presented precisely? • If there are any tables or diagrams, are they easily-understandable? • Are the results helpful for the understanding of the topic?
Discussion	• Did the author meet the objectives? • If the author did not meet the objectives, do they provide any explanation for that? • Do the findings interpreted adequately? • Is the author biased? • Does the author discuss the percent of errors that might occur while conducting the research?
References	• Are all of the outside sources cited? • Does the author cite their own work in the research paper? • Do the reference list and in-text citations correspond to the chosen formatting style?

Task 1.

Read the statement below and fill in the gaps with the percentages that you think are possible. Say which group of researchers you belong to and explain why.

1 ______________ per cent of researchers prefer first to write an article and then edit it according to the guidelines for authors. However, 2 ______________ per cent prefer to read the authors' guidelines first and then follow them when they write their manuscript for submission.

Task 2.

Read the quotation below. Do you agree with it? Why? / Why not? What might be in these instructions, do you think?

Careful preparation before starting to write will save you time and spare you frustration later on. In publishing, as in everything else In life, it pays TO READ THE INSTRUCTIONS. (Ann M. Ko'nner)

UNIT 2. ARTICLE STRUCTURE

Discuss the following questions:

- What are types and structure of academic articles?
- How to choose a journal in which to publish an article?
- Prepare a title and abstract for an academic article in your own subject area.

The success or failure of an academic article is determined long before the first word is written or the first letters are typed. It all begins with the initial conceptualization and design of a study. This is confirmed by Summers (2001:405-406) who lists four main reasons why articles are rejected by leading academic journals:

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

• The conceptual framework (i.e., the literature review) is not well developed. It lacks precise definitions of the core constructs and compelling theoretical motivation for the stated hypotheses.

• The methodology used in the study is seriously flawed (e.g., the sample is too small or the reliability and validity of the measures used are questionable).

• The author's writing style is disorganized and the article is not structured properly.

The focus of our discussion will primarily be on addressing the last reason mentioned above - a disorganized writing style that leads to a poorly structured article. We will, in other words, assume that the study has been properly designed to address the other three problems.

Articles in most academic journals are roughly 20 to 25 A4 pages (1½ line spacing) or 4000 to 7000 words in length. An academic journal article in which the findings of quantitative research are reported will typically have the structure outlined in Table 1.

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

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

Of the aforementioned elements, the title, keywords, abstract, introduction and discussion are perhaps the most important as these are the “doors and windows” through which a reader are most likely to access the article. It is, therefore, extremely important to use effective keywords, a title that grabs the attention and an engaging abstract in order to lure the reader to delve deeper into the introduction and discussion. The introduction and discussion should then entice the reader to read the rest of the article (Perry, Carson & Gilmore, 2002:657).

Task I.

Work in pairs. Put the headings for the sections of a good research article in the diagram. Compare your answers with another pair.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8

a References
b Discussion
c Title
d Material and methods
e Introductions
f Results
g Conclusion
h Abstract

Task II.

Match the sections of a research article (a-h) in task 1 with their purposes (1-8).

1. It summarizes the research study and result of the study; it is included in article databases and is usually free to a large audience.
2. It describes both specific techniques and the overall experimental strategy used by researchers.
3. It clearly indicates the content of the article and helps interested readers to find the article quickly in a database.
4. It explains research findings and often deals with their applications.

5. It summarizes the data collected and calculates totals and trends, statistically significant findings, etc.
6. It describes the theoretical background, indicates why the works is important, states a specific research question, and poses a specific hypothesis to be tested.
7. It states implications and recommends further research.
8. It lists the sources cited by the author(s) of the article.

Task III.

Identify which section of a research article statements 1-8 come from. Write *I* (Introduction), *M* (Materials and Methods), *R* (Results), or *D* (Discussion) next to them. The firs one has been done for you.

1. We can suggest two reasons why some students persisted in their dislike of the technique. **D**
2. The search was limited to a five-year period from January 2007 to December 2011.
3. Frequency of use of the word "children" is also noteworthy, considering that the search was targeted at reports concerning "young people". This suggests that children are increasingly being considered in discourse on depression and young people.
4. The average word length of the reports was 644.2 words (SD=431,4)
5. All the articles were read and any article found not to be primarily about depression, specifically in young people, was excluded.
6. Despite great accessibility to information through the media, many people report difficulties finding relevant information on mental health.
7. Tables 2 and 3 highlight the frequent use of the words "depression" and "suicide" in the corpus.
8. Results suggest less emphasis in these Irish newspapers on the various symptoms (e.g. sleep problems, appetite issues) and treatment options available, which might make it difficult for parents to identify whether their child is depressed.

UNIT 3. ABSTRACT AND TITLE

Outcome: by the end of the lesson students will be able to:
-define the types of abstract
-write the main elements of abstract
- construct an appropriate title
-identify the aim of writing abstract

An abstract is a self-contained, short, and powerful statement that describes a larger work. Components vary according to discipline. An abstract of a social science or scientific work may contain the scope, purpose, results, and contents of the work. An abstract of a humanities work may contain the thesis, background, and conclusion of the larger work. An abstract is not a review, nor does it evaluate the work being abstracted. While it contains key words found in the larger work, the abstract is an original document rather than an excerpted passage.

When do people write abstracts?

- when submitting articles to journals, especially online journals
- when applying for research grants
- when writing a book proposal
- when completing the Ph.D. dissertation or M.A. thesis
- when writing a proposal for a conference paper
- when writing a proposal for a book chapter

Most often, the author of the entire work (or prospective work) writes the abstract. However, there are professional abstracting services that hire writers to draft abstracts of other people's work. In a work with multiple authors, the first author usually writes the abstract. Undergraduates are sometimes asked to draft abstracts of books/articles for classmates who have not read the larger work.

Types of abstracts

There are two types of abstracts: descriptive and informative. They have different aims, so as a consequence they have different components and styles. There is also a third type called critical, but it is rarely used

Descriptive abstracts

A descriptive abstract indicates the type of information found in the work. It makes no judgments about the work, nor does it provide results or conclusions of the research. It does incorporate key words found in the text and may include the purpose, methods, and scope of the research. Essentially, the descriptive abstract describes the work being abstracted. Some people consider it an outline of the work, rather than a summary. Descriptive abstracts are usually very short—100 words or less.

Informative abstracts

The majority of abstracts are informative. While they still do not critique or evaluate a work, they do more than describe it. A good informative abstract serves as a surrogate for the work itself. That is, the writer presents and explains all the main arguments and the important results and evidence in the complete article/paper/book. An informative abstract includes the information that can be found in a descriptive abstract (purpose, methods, scope) but also includes the results and conclusions of the research and the recommendations of the author. The length varies according to discipline, but an informative abstract is rarely more than 10% of the length of the entire work. In the case of a longer work, it may be much less. The two most common abstract types—descriptive and informative—are described and examples of each are provided.

Informative abstract:

Abstracts present the essential elements of a longer work in a short and powerful statement. The purpose of an abstract is to provide prospective readers the opportunity to judge the relevance of the longer work to their projects. Abstracts also include the key terms found in the longer work and the purpose and methods of the research. Authors abstract various longer works, including book proposals, dissertations, and online journal articles. There are two main types of abstracts: descriptive and informative. A descriptive abstract briefly describes the longer work, while an informative abstract presents all the main arguments and important results. This handout provides examples of various types of abstracts and instructions on how to construct one.

Perry *et al.* (2003:658) recommend that an abstract should include the following seven elements:

- Element 1: The abstract has to start with a brief theme sentence to orientate the reader about the overall issue addressed in the article. This sentence should grab the reader’s attention.
- Element 2: The abstract should then indicate the main aim or purpose of the study.

• Element 3: Next, the academic and/or practical importance of the study should be explained.
• Element 4: The methodology used in the study should also be briefly described.
• Element 5: The main findings of the study should be summarized.
• Element 6: A statement of conclusions should indicate the contribution made by thestudy in filling gaps in the literature.
•Element 7: Finally, the practical or managerial implications of the study's findings should be highlighted where appropriate.

These seven elements are highlighted in bold in the following examples:

Abstract: [Element 1] Most research on business relationships and networks concentrates on social bonds, such as trust and commitment. Little research considers technical bonds and how they interact with social bonds within a relationship. **[Element 2 & 3]** Thus, this research investigates how technical bonds of information technology link with social bonds in the relationship between two organizations in a business system, in particular, between a franchisor and franchisees within a franchise system. **[Element 4]** First, a conceptual framework of the structure of a relationship between business alliance partners was synthesized from the business- to-business marketing literature. Then Australian franchisors were surveyed about the effects of their investments in information technology upon their franchisor-franchisee relationship. Structural equation modelling techniques were used to analyse the data. **[Element 5]** The results provided support for the conceptual framework, with the franchisor's increased technical competence from information technology improving the social bonds in a relationship but those bonds being secondary to further technical investment. **[Element 7]** An implication for managers is that investments in information technology operate through the social bonds within their business.

Also consider the following principles when writing the abstract (McLean, 2001:3):

- Since the abstract is a **summary** of the article, nothing

should be in it that it not also included in the main text.
- An abstract is not an introduction. The article should be complete without the abstract. One way to ensure this is to write the abstract after you have completed therest of the article.
- The abstract is normally written as a single paragraph. It is self-contained (i.e., it should be understandable without requiring the reader to read something else).
- The abstract should not contain any figures, tables or in-text references, just normal text. In-text references may, however, be included when one is replicating a previous study and this is specifically mentioned in the abstract.

The title, with a maximum of 8-15 words, is the first piece of bait that could lure a potential reader to notice and explore your research. Perry *et al.* (2002:657) offer the following general recommendations regarding the title:
- A title should attract the reader's attention.
- Journal editors prefer formal titles that are not too "clever" or "cute". Although it grabsthe attention, the title "*More than a one night stand*" would, for example, not be appropriate for a journal article on relationship marketing.
- The title should clearly reflect the main theme, issue or position discussed in the article. Because it creates expectations about the contents of the article, the title should accurately reflect the nature and focus of the study and not create false expectations (Feldman, 2004:2).
- The title should be as specific as possible given the restrictions on length.
- Some of the keywords listed after the abstract should appear in the title (also see section 5 below).
- A title should preferably answer the following questions:
- **What** will be researched?
- **How** will the topic be researched?
- **With whom?** – Describes the research population and units of measurement
- **Where / in what context** will the study be conducted?

In order to answer these questions, Grobler (2003) suggests

the following basic structure for a title:
Main theme or research topic: Research design + population + geographical area

Task I.

Read the following samples of abstracts and analyze them by using the checklist below.

#		**Abstract I**	**Abstract II**
1.	Write the sentence that states the objective of the experiment.		
2.	The purpose of research.		
3.	List the sentences that describe how the investigation was carried out.		
4.	Write the sentence that describes the significance of the results and impact to the field of study.		
5.	The practical or managerial implications of the study's findings		
6	The main findings of the study		
7	The sample of the research		

Abstract 1

In recent years, a number of studies have attempted **to assess the English vocabulary knowledge** of high-school students and undergraduate university students in contexts where English is a foreign language (EFL). The present paper explores **the lexical development of Arab undergraduates** at a Saudi University where EFL is the medium of instruction. The study employed **a quantitative methodology**. The lexical knowledge of **150 participants** from different **college years and fields** of specialization was assessed both receptively and productively. The assessment focused on the participants' knowledge of the General Service List (GSL) and the Academic Word List (AWL) due to their prime importance for lexical competence in English. The results confirmed earlier findings that **the lexical competence of EFL Arab university students is below the required level** for coping with the demands of studying in an English-medium university. Findings also showed **that production-based instruction may accelerate lexical development on the short-term**, but **on the long-term both input-based and production-based instruction support lexical developmen**t of EFL learners. The study concludes that lexical development of EFL learners **needs to be carefully assessed to ensure the learners' ability to cope**with the lexical demands of their educational programs. Hence, the study highly emphasizes **the importance of enhanced English language support** for students at all levels in Saudi universities.

Abstract 2

Academic vocabulary knowledge and use are critical for students' language proficiency and academic achievement. Through the constructs of lexical competence and performance, the multidimensional nature of academic vocabulary and its interrelated components could be described better so that students' development of academic vocabulary knowledge through their education could be revealed effectively. Considering this, the present study aimed to examine the university students' academic lexical competence and performance combing all main dimensions, namely receptive (size; how many words), and productive (use) dimensions. In that way, it was aimed to reveal 371 ELT majors' academic vocabulary development in English as Foreign Language environment through cross-sectional evaluation. Applying multi-test approach, the receptive and productive sub-dimensions were investigated. The results indicated that both academic lexical competence and performance developed through the years. Particularly, a salient jump of size of academic vocabulary from the 1st year to the 2nd year indicated the effect of proficiency and education. In spite of promising increase in the students' academic lexical competence, limited use of academic vocabulary in the essays drew attention. It was observed that the students tend to avoid using academic vocabulary while writing. In this study, the reasons underlying these findings were discussed within related literature.

Task II.

Read the question below and write the answers coming from your research.

1 Why do you care about the problem and the results?

____

2 What problem is your paper trying to solve and what is the scope of the work?

____

3 What was done to solve the problem?

____

4 What is the answer to the problem?

5 What implications does the answer imply?

Grobler, A. 2003. *Finding an appropriate research topic: some practical guidelines*. Lectureto the EBW 801 class on 2003-03-15.
Feldman, D.C. 2004. The devil is in the details: Converting good research into publishable articles. *Journal of Management,* 30(1):1-6. [Online] Available from the ScienceDirect database: http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/B6W59-49MX0ND-1/2/57089d6a19a6f75c34568333676d60a4. [Accessed: 2004-11-26].

UNIT 4. WRITING AN INTRODUCTION OF A RESEARCH PAPER

Discuss the following questions:

- What are the parts of the scientific article?
- What is the purpose of each part of the article?
- What does introduction include?
- What are the main elements in writing introduction?

Introduction is one of the most difficult parts to write. It has several tasks: to develop the background of research, indicate the importance of the problem, and formulate the aim, hypothesis, and rationale of the research. In brief, the introduction should establish the problem, the body should present the evidence, and the conclusion should arrive at answers, judgments, proposals, and closure.

The introduction (recommended length: 500-1000 words) can be described as "… an executive summary that gives the reader and enticing glimpse of what is to come" (Perry *et al.*, 2003:658). As such, the introduction must grab the reader's attention by stimulating attention, interest, desire and action (Perry *et al.*, 2003:658). In other words, the introduction must effectively "sell" the study (Summers, 2001:410). Unfortunately, the introduction is often the most difficult part of an article to write (Feldman, 2004:2). This section deals with three issues related to the drafting of an introduction. The six elements that are generally found in an introduction are first listed. This is followed by two examples of well-written introductions. Finally, the six elements of an introduction are discussed in more detail.

An introduction generally consists of six elements:

- Element 1: The writer first has to state the broad theme or topic of the study.
- Element 2: Once the broad theme/topic has been introduced, its academic and practical importance (if applicable) has to be explained. In short, you should provide a convincing answer to the question: "Why should anyone give a damn about this article?" (Bem, 2003:3-4).
- Element 3: The author next summarises the available literature and cites the most important previous studies that are relevant to the current research. If an existing study were replicated, this

should be clearly stated here. One should also include an in-text reference to the study that was replicated.

- Element 4: Next, the author indicates the most important gaps, inconsistencies and/or controversies in the literature that the current study will address. The author also explains the study's *main contribution* in such a way that the benefits to the reader are accentuated.
- Element 5 of the introduction must always provide a clear indication of the following:
  - 5.1 the *core research problem/question* to be addressed in the study,
  - 5.2 the *specific research objectives* that will guide your research,
  - 5.3 the *context* in which the study will be conducted, and
  - 5.4 the *units of analysis* of the study.
- Element 6: Finally, one has to provide the reader with an outline of the structure ofthe rest of the article.

(Perry *et al.*, 2003:658; Summers, 2001:410; Varadarajan, 1996:3)

Task I. Read the text with explanation of the elements of "Introduction"

INTRODUCTION

[Element 1] Today's fast-paced world is becoming increasingly characterised by technology-facilitated transactions. Growing numbers of customers interact with technology to create service outcomes instead of interacting with a service firm employee. Self-service technologies (SSTs) are technological interfaces that enable customers to produce a service independent of direct service employee involvement. Examples of SSTs include automated teller machines (ATMs), automated hotel checkout, banking by telephone, and services over the Internet, such as Federal Express package tracking and online brokerage services.

[Element 2 & 3] Although extensive academic research has explored the characteristics and dynamics of interpersonal interactions between service providers and customers (Bettencourt & Gwinner, 1996; Bitner, Booms & Tetreault, 1990; Clemmer & Schneider, 1996; Fischer, Gainer & Bristor, 1997; Goodwin, 1996; Goodwin & Gremler, 1996; Hartline & Ferrell, 1996; Rafaeli, 1993), much less research has investigated customer interactions with technological interfaces (Bitner, Brown & Meuter, 2000; Dabholkar, 1996). The continuing proliferation of SSTs conveys the need for research that extends beyond the interpersonal dynamics of service encounters into this technology-oriented context. This need is illustrated in many ways: For example, almost half of all retail banking transactions are now conducted without the assistance of a bank teller (Lawrence & Karr, 1996). In addition, although some SSTs have become commonplace (e.g., ATMs and pay-at- the-pump terminals), more innovative SSTs continue to be introduced. For example, the Internet enables shoppers to purchase a wide variety of products without having to visit a retail outlet or converse with a service employee. In some states, users can file for divorce or evict a tenant using an automated kiosk rather than go through the traditional court system. Electronic self-ordering is currently being developed by fast-food restaurants, and self-scanning at retail stores has been tested and is projected to become widely available in the future (Dabholkar, 1996; Gibson, 1999; Merrill, 1999).

[Element 4] It is increasingly evident that these technological innovations and advances will continue to be a critical component of customer-firm interactions. These technology-based interactions are expected to become a key criterion for long-term business success. Parasuraman (1996) lists the growing importance of self-service as a fundamental shift in the nature of services. Although many academic researchers have acknowledged a need for greater understanding in this area (Dabholkar, 1996; Fisk, Brown & Bitner, 1993; Meuter & Bitner, 1998; Schneider & Bowen, 1995), little is known about how interactions with these technological options affect customer evaluations and behaviour.

[Element 5.1] To further our understanding, we explored service encounters involving SSTs to identify sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. **[Element 5.2]** The research questions driving this study are as follows:

- What are the sources of customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction in encounters involving SSTs?
- Are the sources of customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction with SST encounters similar to or different from the sources of customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction with interpersonal encounters?

- How are satisfying and dissatisfying encounters with SSTs related to attributions, complaining, word of mouth communication and repurchase intentions?

To investigate these questions, we combined the critical incident technique (CIT), originally developed by Flanagan (1954), with quantitative measures of attributions, complaining behaviour, word of mouth communication and repurchase intentions.

[Element 6] The rest of the article is structured as follows: First, the extant literature on service encounters, self-service technologies and customer responses to SST encounters are reviewed. This is followed by a description of the research methods and procedures used in the study. The results of our enquiry are then discussed. Finally, implications, limitations, and directions for future research are offered.

Task II. Identify the aforementioned six elements of an introduction in the following example. Write the sentences in the table.

INTRODUCTION

Numerous market trends suggest a growing role for product packaging as a brand communication vehicle. These include a reduction in spending on traditional brand-building mass media advertising (Belch & Belch, 2001), an increase in non-durable product buying decisions at the store shelf (Prone, 1993; Rosenfeld, 1987; Vartan & Rosenfeld, 1987), and growing management recognition of the capacity of packaging to create differentiation and identity for relatively homogenous consumer non-durables (Spethmann, 1994; Underwood, 1999). As with all point-of- purchase communication vehicles, the primary role for product packaging at the shelf is to generate consumer attention by breaking through the competitive clutter. Although managerial focus toward packaging has increased of late, a review of the marketing literature reveals relatively little theoretical work in the area of packaging, and specifically, few efforts examining its impact on consumer attention. Early packaging research focused on the general characteristics and role of package design (Cheskin, 1971; Faison, 1961; Schucker, 1959; Schwartz, 1971), including packaging as a means of communication (Gardner, 1967; Lincoln, 1965) and as a variable influencing product evaluation (Banks, 1950; Brown, 1958; McDaniel &Baker, 1977; Miaoulis & d'Amato, 1978). Additional research integrated packaging with other extrinsic cues (e.g., price, brand name) to examine the influence on product quality perceptions (Bonner & Nelson, 1985; Rigaux-Bricmont, 1982; Stokes, 1985). Other packaging-related research includes studies examining the veracity and communicative competence of packaging (Polonsky *etal*., 1998; Underwood & Ozanne, 1998); ethical packaging issues (Bone & Corey, 2000); and research measuring the impact of package size on consumer usage (Wansink, 1996). More recently, research examining the visual impact of packaging includes studies measuring the impact of relative package appearance (e.g. typical, novel, colour) on consumer attention, categorization and evaluation (Garber *et al*., 2000; Plasschaert, 1995; Schoorsman *et al*., 1997); and Pieters and Warlop's (1999) examination of visual attention during brand choice. Despite these works, little is known about the specific type and amount of product information (e.g. visual and/or verbal information) that is appropriate for the package stimulus in order to maximise its communication effectiveness at the point of purchase. The purpose of this paper is to contribute to the theoretical understanding of package design and buyer behaviour by examining one major design component; that is, the effects of incorporating visual product imagery (i.e., product pictures) on the package. Because the existence of product pictures on packages varies within and across product categories, we chose to examine whether brands containing visual information realise a strategic advantage over competitive brands containing only verbal information. If brands gain attention and consideration on the basis of their point of purchase appearance, an understanding of the impact of package design elements is crucial to enhance point of purchase communication. These issues may be particularly important in the case of brand repositioning, new brand introductions, the signalling of product changes, brand extensions, and in categories in which the use of pictures on packages would provide a strategic method of differentiation (Garber *et al*., 2000). A second important issue to address is whether the effects of product pictures vary across products and/or brands. For example, would visual product imagery be more advantageous for high-equity national brands or for less familiar private label and/or second tier national brands whose brand perceptions have historically been more problematic? This article provides a theoretical framework to address these packaging issues and explores some contingencies under which package pictures are more or less effective. We hypothesise that the effects of package pictures are moderated by the degree of brand familiarity and by the degree to which product benefits are experiential. Thus, the paper's central research objectives are:

- To determine whether the inclusion of a picture of the product on a package significantly influences attention to the brand and product choice.
- To determine whether the effects of placing a product picture on a package differ according to the degree of consumer familiarity with the brand.
- To determine whether the effects of placing a product picture on a package differ for products that vary in the level of experiential benefits they provide.

Information generated from this research should provide managers with a greater understanding of the package's ability to communicate and the nature of its effects on consumer attention and product choice. The remainder of the article is structured as follows: First, a conceptual framework explaining the effect of package design on two dependent variables, namely attention to the brand and brand choice, is presented. Next, the procedures used to test the hypothesized effects of package design, brand familiarity, and level of experiential benefits on attention and choice in an experiment is described. The findings of the study are then presented. The article concludes with a summary of the study's research contributions and directions for future research.

Element 1	**Element 2**	**Element 3**	**Element 4**	**Element 5**	**Element 6**

Task III.

A sample of Introduction on the topic "Formative and summative assessment" is given below. It is divided into five parts. Read five descriptions and match them with Introduction paragraphs. Identify what information does each paragraph provides.

1) Scriven (1967) is the first scholar who tried to differentiate formative and summative assessment in context of program evaluation (Black and Wiliam 2003; William and Thompson 2008). Scriven mentioned that summative evaluation helps to judge overall value of educational program, while formative evaluation mainly focused on continuously program improvement.
2) Later, Bloom (1969) used the same terminology and explained formative assessment in the following way: '… to provide feedback and correctives at each stage in the teaching-learning processes'. Summative assessment was used to justice what a learner had achieved at the end of whole course.
3) For many years, many scholars have discussed Bloom's distinction; much work was done by Assessment Reform Group in Australia and (Sadler 1989) and United Kingdom. Even so, Bloom's distinction does not lose its essence today, though 'formative assessment' has been substituted to connote a focus on learners instead of study program.
4) Later, scholars have divided into two subdivisions. On one hand, most of test publishers considered formative assessment as an 'interim' assessment or an item bank that teachers can create those tests in order to use it like diagnostic test. William and Thompson (2008) believe that this kind of formative assessment produces one or several scores and will generally require cycle times suited more to instructional units and marking periods than to daily lessons.

5) The current study helps us understand how formative and summative assessment is important to evaluate learners achievements and progress. Therefore, using rubrics which will lead to the objective assessment, and demonstrate that giving positive feedback, raises the effectiveness of language learning.

a) The researcher supplies background information by discussing past research on the topic.
b) Referencing to other scholars to establish support for the discussion.
c) Introductory paragraph sets the topic to be examined in the context of evaluation.
d) The sentence summarizes and synthesizes information, and state the researcher's hypothesis.
e) Source used to provide information

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.

UNIT 5. BOOK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Outcomes

By the end of this topic, the learner will be able to:

• Clarify the purpose of a literature review

• Develop familiarity with the steps for a literature review

• Categorize and locate sources of information.

Discuss the following questions:

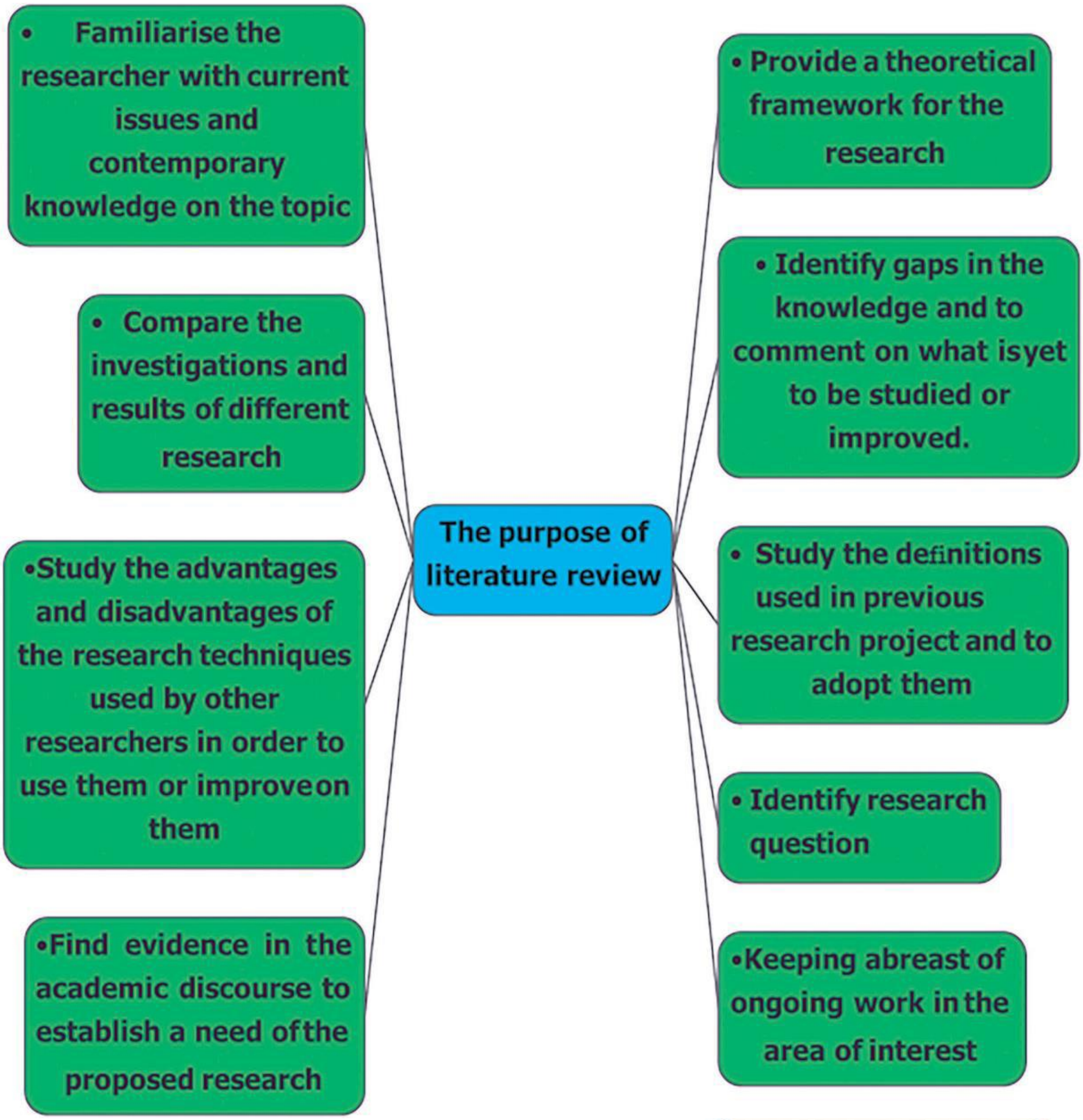
- What parts does a research paper consist of?
- What is the purpose of each of the parts?
- What is a secondary and what is a primary research?
- What is Literature Review and why is it necessary in a research work?
- Which aspects should I include in a literature review?
- How should I go about to synthesize information in a literature review?
- How should I structure a literature review?
- What writing style should I use when compiling a literature review?

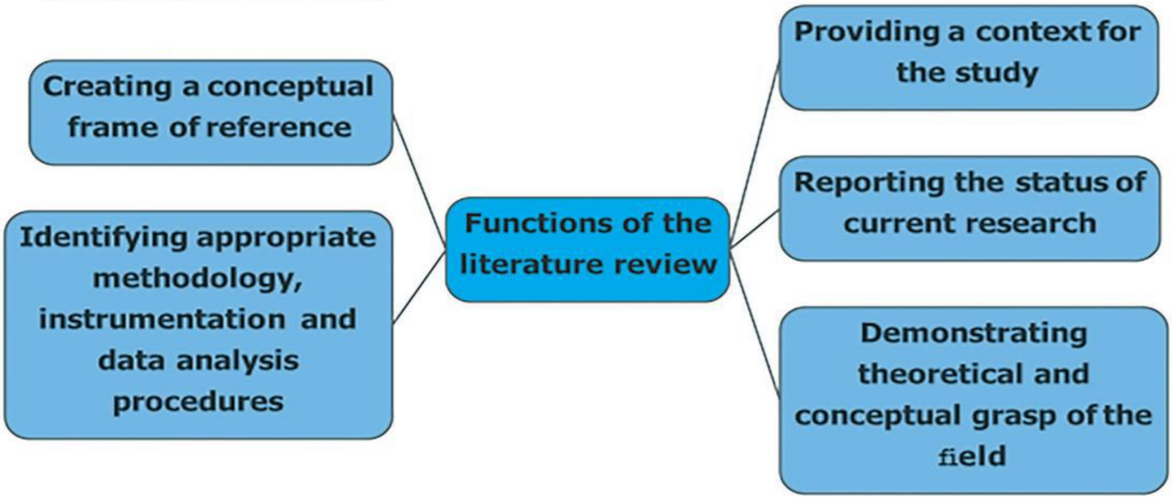
According to Bloomsburg University guide on literature (2018), a literature material is the general account or summary of a previous research topic. The types of scholarly fields may be empirical, theoretical, critical/analytical or methodological in nature. A literature review seeks to describe, summarise, evaluate, clarify or integrate the content of primary reports. A literature should give a theoretical base for the research and assist the author to determine the nature or the components of the research. The researcher's work contributes in some small but significant way to pushing the boundaries of knowledge in the field. The literature review should acknowledge the work of previous authors and in doing so, assures the reader that the research work has been well conceived. In addition, a literature review can purge the researcher of potential theories that have already been disproved. Each researcher therefore has to be thoroughly familiar both with the major theoretical constructs in the field and all research literature that is available. A logical, systematic and critical review of the body of knowledge provides the backdrop for the research being undertaken. To demonstrate this through familiarity with earlier work in the field, all

researchers are required to include a literature review in their study.
The process of the literature review requires the researcher explore the literature to establish the status quo, formulate a problem or research enquiry, defend the value of pursuing the line of enquiry, and compare the findings and ideas with their own.
• The product involves the synthesis of the work of others in a form to demonstrate the accomplishments of the exploratory process.

In the context of the study, a thorough literature review can be described in terms of process and product. The literature review is basically a short survey of relevant work done by other theorists, researchers, academics, etc. in the same field. The literature review process is an integral part of research planning. It provides a foundation for the researcher /student's research and triggers creative thinking. It also assists in identifying appropriate research methods and techniques, and helps in formulating a discussion about the implications of the research.

Task I. Look at the maps describing the purpose and function of literature review and discuss with your pairs.





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

First time researchers often battle with four main questions when compiling a literature review:

- Which aspects should I include?
- How should I go about to synthesize information?
- How should I structure a literature review?
- What writing style should I use?

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

- A brief discussion of where the specific topic under consideration fits into the "**biggerpicture**" of the overall academic discipline (e.g., where does nudity appeals fit into the "bigger picture" of advertising appeals).
- **Conceptual definitions** all the key concepts/constructs included in the study
- A focused and synthesized **discussion of relevant previous research findings** involving the constructs/concepts relevant to your study. Previous research may indicate:
  - possible relationships between the chosen constructs (e.g., a correlationbetween communication satisfaction and job satisfaction),
  - possible mediating (intervening) and/or moderating variables that influence therelationship between the chosen constructs,
  - possible differences between groups on the chosen constructs (e.g.,differences between males and females with regard to sensation seeking),
  - the contexts in which the constructs and relationships have previously beentested (e.g., among MBA students or in a specific industry),
  - possible gaps, inconsistencies, controversies and/or unanswered questions inthe literature that could form the basis of a new study,
  - the results of previous hypothesis tests involving the selectedconstructs/concepts or relationships, and
  - possible untested hypotheses or propositions involving the chosen constructs.

- Many of the theoretical constructs in Marketing, Communication and Tourism Management are abstract, complex and multi-dimensional. Think of constructs such as perceived value, perceived service quality, brand loyalty, brand image, perceived risk, variety seeking tendency, corporate reputation, corporate social responsibility, communication satisfaction, and two-way symmetric communication style. A literature review must always provide a **summary of existing approaches to the measurement of the relevant constructs**. In other words, you must explain how other researchers have measured the constructs that you intend to measure.
- Finally, a literature review must provide sufficient **theoretical support for the hypotheses to be tested** in a research project.

Task II. Read the following article. Answer the questions given below.

Just like most academic papers, literature reviews also must contain at least three basic elements: an introduction or background information section; the body of the review containing the discussion of sources; and, finally, a conclusion and/or recommendations section to end the paper.

Introduction: Gives a quick idea of the topic of the literature review, such as the central theme or organizational pattern.

Body: Contains your discussion of sources and is organized either chronologically, thematically, or methodologically (see below for more information on each).

Conclusions/Recommendations: Discuss what you have drawn from reviewing literature so far. Where might the discussion proceed?

Organizing the body

Once you have the basic categories in place, then you must consider how you will present the sources themselves within the body of your paper. Create an organizational method to focus this section even further.

To help you come up with an overall organizational framework for your review, consider the following scenario and then three typical ways of organizing the sources into a review:

You've decided to focus your literature review on materials dealing with sperm whales. This is because you've just finished reading *Moby Dick*, and you wonder if that whale's portrayal is really real. You start with some articles about the physiology of sperm whales in biology journals written in the 1980's. But these articles refer to some British biological studies performed on whales in the early 18th century. So you check those out. Then you look up a book written in 1968 with information on how sperm whales have been portrayed in other forms of art, such as in Alaskan poetry, in French painting, or on whale bone, as the whale hunters in the late 19th century used to do. This makes you wonder about American whaling methods during the time portrayed in *Moby Dick*, so you find some academic articles published in the last five years on how accurately Herman Melville portrayed the whaling scene in his novel.

Chronological

If your review follows the chronological method, you could write about the materials above according to when they were published. For instance, first you would talk about the British biological studies of the 18th century, then about Moby Dick, published in 1851, then the book on sperm whales in other art (1968), and finally the biology articles (1980s) and the recent articles on American whaling of the 19th century. But there is relatively no continuity among subjects here. And notice that even though the sources on sperm whales in other art and on American whaling are written recently, they are about other subjects/objects that were created much earlier. Thus, the review loses its chronological focus.

By publication

Order your sources by publication chronology, then, only if the order demonstrates a more important trend. For instance, you could order a review of literature on biological studies of sperm whales if the progression revealed a change in dissection practices of the researchers who wrote and/or conducted the studies.

By trend

A better way to organize the above sources chronologically is to examine the sources under another trend, such as the history of whaling. Then your review would have subsections according to eras within this period. For instance, the review might examine whaling from pre-1600-1699, 1700-1799, and 1800-1899. Under this method, you would combine the recent studies on American whaling in the 19th century with Moby Dick itself in the 1800-1899 category, even though the authors wrote a century apart.

Thematic

Thematic reviews of literature are organized around a topic or issue, rather than the progression of time. However, progression of time may still be an important factor in a thematic review. For instance, the sperm whale review could focus on the development of the harpoon for whale hunting. While the study focuses on one topic, harpoon technology, it will still be organized chronologically. The only difference here between a "chronological" and a "thematic" approach is what is emphasized the most: the development of the harpoon or the harpoon technology.

But more authentic thematic reviews tend to break away from chronological order. For instance, a thematic review of material on sperm whales might examine how they are portrayed as "evil" in cultural documents. The subsections might include how they are personified, how their proportions are exaggerated, and their behaviors misunderstood. A review organized in this manner would shift between time periods within each section according to the point made.

Methodological

A methodological approach differs from the two above in that the focusing factor usually does not have to do with the content of the material. Instead, it focuses on the "methods" of the researcher or writer. For the sperm whale project, one methodological approach would be to look at cultural differences between the portrayal of whales in American, British, and French art work. Or the review might focus on the economic impact of whaling on a community. A methodological scope will influence either the types of documents in the review or the way in which these documents are discussed.

Once you've decided on the organizational method for the body of the review, the sections you need to include in the paper should be easy to figure out. They should arise out of your organizational strategy. In other words, a chronological review would have subsections for each

vital time period. A thematic review would have subtopics based upon factors that relate to the theme or issue.
Sometimes, though, you might need to add additional sections that are necessary for your study, but do not fit in the organizational strategy of the body. What other sections you include in the body is up to you. Put in only what is necessary. Here are a few other sections you might want to consider:
Current Situation: Information necessary to understand the topic or focus of the literature review.
History: The chronological progression of the field, the literature, or an idea that is necessary to understand the literature review, if the body of the literature review is not already a chronology.
Methods and/or Standards: The criteria you used to select the sources in your literature review or the way in which you present your information. For instance, you might explain that your review includes only peer-reviewed articles and journals.
Questions for Further Research: What questions about the field has the review sparked? How will you further your research as a result of the review?

(retrieved from http://writingcenter.unc.edu/handouts/literature-reviews/)

1. What is the purpose of introduction?
____
____
____
2. How can the body be organized?
____
____
____
3. What is the difference between "chronological" and "by publication" organization?
____
____
____
4. What is methodological organization of the literature review?

5. What additional information can be included into the literature review?

UNIT 6. CITATION AND REFERENCES

The aim of a citation is to provide enough bibliographic information for the reader to be able to identify and, if necessary, obtain the original resource. Complete, correct and consistent citations are therefore very important. You may reference a wide variety of resources in your assignment, including books, e-journal articles, checklists and websites. By using citations and references, you acknowledge the work of others and show how their ideas have contributed to your own work. It is also a way of demonstrating that you have read and understood key texts relating to the area you are writing about.

The terms reference list and bibliography are usually used interchangeably, although strictly speaking, a bibliography refers to all the reading you have undertaken for your assignment, not just the work you have referred to in your writing. The terms reference and citation are also often used to refer to the same thing although a citation tends to mean the part of the text within your assignment where you acknowledge the source; whilst a reference usually refers to the full bibliographic information at the end.

Why bother to reference?

Whenever you produce academic work you will be asked to provide references for your ideas. You will find this easier to do if you understand why it is seen as so important in British universities. Referencing is essential to:

- Acknowledge other peoples' ideas
- Allow the reader of your work to locate the cited references easily, and so evaluate your interpretation of those ideas
- Avoid plagiarism (i.e. taking other peoples' thoughts, ideas or writings and using them as though they are your own)
- Show evidence of the breadth and depth of your reading
- Avoid losing marks!

The difference between the reference list and the bibliography

Within your piece of written work, you will have cited a number of books, journals, newspaper articles (or whatever), using the author's name and the date of publication. At the end of the piece, you provide a list of all those authors, giving full details of what their work is called, and where it was published. This list is headed **References**, and provides all the information about the published works you have mentioned in your text, ALPHABETICALLY by the names of the authors (or originators). This list can be subdivided by year and letter if necessary. Also, during the course of your preparatory reading, you may use material that has been helpful for reading around the subject, but which you do not make specific reference to in your own work. It is important to acknowledge this material. Under the heading **Bibliography**, list all these items, again alphabetically by author, regardless of whether it is a book or journal, and include this list separately after the reference list. The **Bibliography** indicates to your reader or examiner that you have read more widely than was strictly necessary to produce the piece of written work, and that you therefore have a better grasp of the area or the topic than if you had only used the works cited in your text and your reference list. Everything you cite (i.e. mention) in your piece of written work will be listed once alphabetically by author and subdivided by year and letter, if necessary, in your References.

This section discusses in text reference with examples.

Citing a single author

The author and the date of publication are provided.

For example:

Seymour (2005) discusses learning emotion rules in service organizations.

or

Some commentators suggest that, in service organizations, it is necessary to learn emotion rules (Seymour, 2005), while others believe this is not the case.

Note the comma after Seymour in the second example.

Citing more than one author

If there are two authors, the names of both should be given in the text and in the reference list. If there are **more than two authors**, the name of the first author only should be given, followed by the abbreviation *et al.* (meaning ‘and others’ in Latin).

For example:
O'Donovan *et al.* (2004) showed that motivation…
Note that *et al.* is in italics and is followed by a full stop because it is an abbreviation.
In your reference list, however, you will list **all** the authors who compose the *et al.*
For example:
O'Donovan, B., Price, M. and Rust, C. (2004) 'Know what I mean? Enhancing student understanding of assessment standards and criteria', *Teaching in Higher Education*, Vol. 9, No. 3, pp. 325-336.
Or, if the full name has been used in the publication,
O'Donovan, Berry, Price, Margaret and Rust, Chris. (2004) 'Know what I mean? Enhancing student understanding of assessment standards and criteria', *Teaching in Higher Education*, Vol. 9, No. 3, pp. 325-336.

The required information

You will find all the information that you need to build up the reference from the title page of the book or document you are citing. Remember to:

- Keep the *order* of authors' names
- Cite the first named *place* of publication

And note that edition dates are *not* necessarily the same as reprint dates (new editions will have new text and must be cited as such). The copyright sign will often indicate the date of production. Occasionally, a source (for example, papers presented at conferences, but not 'published') has not originated from a commercial publisher and lacks obvious title page data. If that is the case, try to find use as much information as you can from any part of the source.
A book's editor is referenced exactly as an author.

For example:
Harris, P.J. and Mongiello, M. (eds.) (2006) *Accounting and Financial Management: Developments in the International Hospitality Industry*. Oxford: Butterworth Heinemann
Note that the title of a book is in italics and uses upper and lower case.

Distinguishing an author's several publications in the same year

Occasionally, authors publish two or more book or journal articles in any given year. This would make the text citation identical for both. To distinguish between different publications, letters (a, b, c etc.) are used *with* the date in the text:

For example:
Bowen (2001a) has researched tourist satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and consumer satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Bowen, 2001b).

Within the reference list, the articles are presented alphabetically: 2001a, then 2001b, etc.

For example:

Bowen, D. (2001a) 'Research on tourist satisfaction and dissatisfaction: Overcoming the limitations of a positivist and quantitative approach', *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, Vol. 7, No. 1, pp. 31-40.
Bowen, D. (2001b) 'Antecedents of consumer satisfaction and dissatisfaction on long-haul inclusive tours - a reality check on theoretical considerations', *Tourism Management*, Vol. 22, No. 1, pp. 49-61.

Now that we have discussed how to mention the authors you have referred to in your text, this section tells you how to set out the reference list and bibliography at the end of your work.

Books

Author/editor surname, initials or full name if you have it. (Year) *Title*. Edition. Place of publication: Publisher.

For example:
Brown, Reva Berman. (2006) *Doing Your Dissertation in Business and Management: The reality of researching and writing*. London: Sage Publications. **Note**

Usually, the title of the book is written using capital letters for each **significant** word. However, it is also acceptable to use a capital letter for only the first word of the title.

✓ There is a full stop at the end of the title.
✓ The title is in italics.
✓ The date is the year of publication **not** printing.
✓ The edition is only mentioned if other than the first edition.

✓ The place of publication is the City **not** the Country (normally the first stated).

Journal articles

Author surname, initials. (Year) 'Title of article', *Journal name*, Vol. Volume number, No. Issue number, pp. first and last page numbers.

For example:
Whyatt, G. (2004) 'Town centre management: How theory informs strategy', *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management*, Vol. 32, No. 7, pp. 346-353.

Note

✓ The title of the paper is between single quotation marks and in lower case, with a comma following

✓ Journal name is italicised, not the article title

✓ There are a number of other ways you could set out the volume no., issue no. and page nos., depending on the University or journal you are writing for (for example, **32**(7), 346-353, or 32, (7):346-52). It is because this is the case that we have suggested that you use the vol., no., pp. layout consistently. If you do so, then you won't get confused and you won't inadvertently mix up the various layouts, and thus you won't lose marks

✓ p. indicates only one page and pp. indicates a range of pages.

Newspapers

Journalist name, initial. (Year) 'Title of news item'. *Name of newspaper*. Date, Page number.

For example:
Mintz, A. (2006) 'House prices continue to rise'. *Financial Times*. 4 June, p. 28.
Note that the name of newspaper is italicized.
If it is a news article and does not attribute an author, the newspaper name is used in the text and instead of the author in the reference list
For example:
The Guardian (2005) 'Lottery for breast cancer help'. *The Guardian*. 21 March, p. 10.

Websites

NOTE: For journal articles and reports retrieved from library databases such as EBSCO, you do not need to include the full web address if your reference provides all the standard information relevant for the print-version of the article or report. For websites, in addition to the usual information (such as name of author, date, title, and name of journal/newspaper if there is one) you also need to include:

Retrieved from: + the full web address
[Accessed + date of access]

Sometimes the word 'retrieved' is used instead of 'accessed'. Both are equally correct. You should also include the phrase [Online] as shown below. Note that square brackets are used with web references.

For webpages which are not from a newspaper or journal, the title is shown in italics, as shown in the two examples below.

For printed material, if you use a quotation, you include a page number in your reference. For webpages, there are no 'page numbers'. If you use a quotation from a webpage, please give as much information as possible so that the reader can find the quotation; for example, you could mention the section of the webpage containing the quotation.

If a Web page does not appear to have an individual author, use the corporate author (e.g. BBC). If there is no corporate author, use the title. The following examples have corporate authors.

- **Library & Information Services (2003) *Electronic Resources: finding resources by subject* [Online]. Nottingham: The Nottingham Trent University. Retrieved from: http://www.ntu.ac.uk/LLR/e_resources/index.html [Accessed 3 July 2003].**
- **Tesco Plc (2002) *Annual report and financial statements 2002* [Online]. Tesco PLC. Retrieved from: http://81.201.142.254/presentResults/results2001_02/Prelims/Report/ pdfs/Tesco_Report2002.pdf [Accessed 30 June 2003].**

If you cannot find the organization responsible for the site, firstly consider whether it is wise to use information if you're not sure who is responsible for it, but if you must, use the first few words of the title page of the website and publication date.

Do NOT use the full web address in the citation in the body of the text. Instead, use (author, date); for example

- (BBC, 2004)
- (Greenpeace, 2006)

Task I. **CITATION SEARCH**

Look for the following details on each of your sources. Can't find it? Look hard, then leave it blank.

SOURCE 1:

1. Author:

____

____

2. Title of Source:

____

____

3. Publisher:

____

____

4. Publication Date:

____

____

5. City of Publication:

____

____

SOURCE 2:

1. Author:

____

____

2. Title of Source:

____

____

3. Publisher:

____

____

4. Publication Date:

____

____

5. City of Publication:

____

____

SOURCE 3:

1. Author:

____

____

2. Title of Source:

____

____

3. Publisher:

____

____

4. Publication Date:

____

____

5. City of Publication:

____

____

SOURCE 4:

1. Author:

____

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2. Title of Source:

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3. Publisher:

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4. Publication Date:

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5. City of Publication:

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Task II. Write out your citations!
Using the format in your **Field Guide for Research**, write out a **citation** for each of your sources, using the correct format. Don't forget the punctuation! If there are other details that you need in order to write your citation properly (for example, a periodical article requires both the title of the article *and* of the magazine), don't forget to look at your source again.

SOURCE 1:

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SOURCE 2:

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SOURCE 3:

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SOURCE 4:

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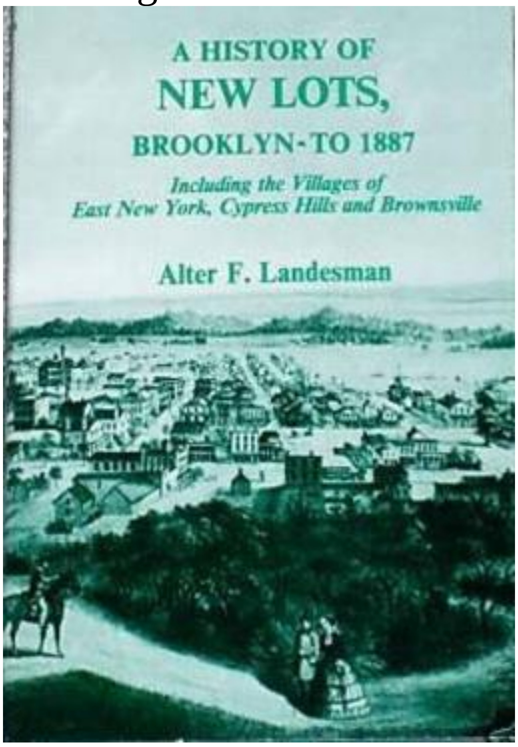
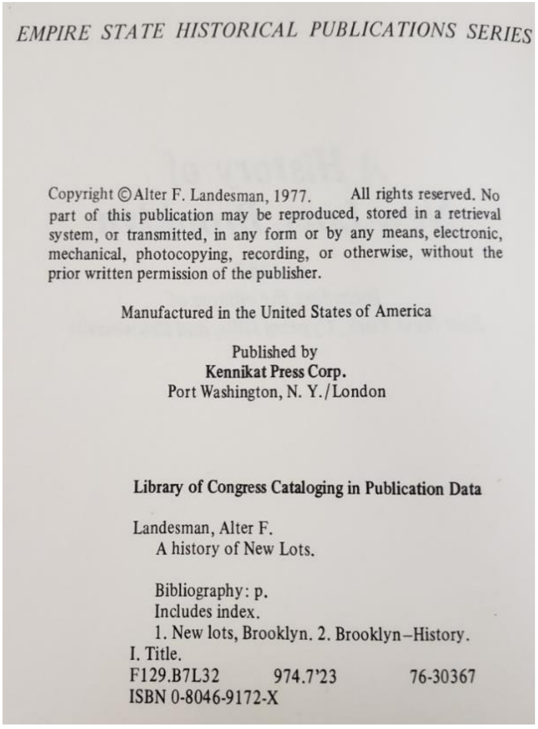
When you do a research project, you will list all the sources you used on a page at the end of your project. This is called a **works cited** list.

Source 1: Book

Book Cover Book Title Page





EMPIRE STATE HISTORICAL PUBLICATIONS SERIES

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Port Washington, N. Y./London

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A history of New Lots.

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Includes index.
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I. Title.
F129.B7L32 974.7'23 76-30367
ISBN 0-8046-9172-X

1.Title: ____

____

2.Author: ____

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3.Publisher:

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____

4.PublicationDate:

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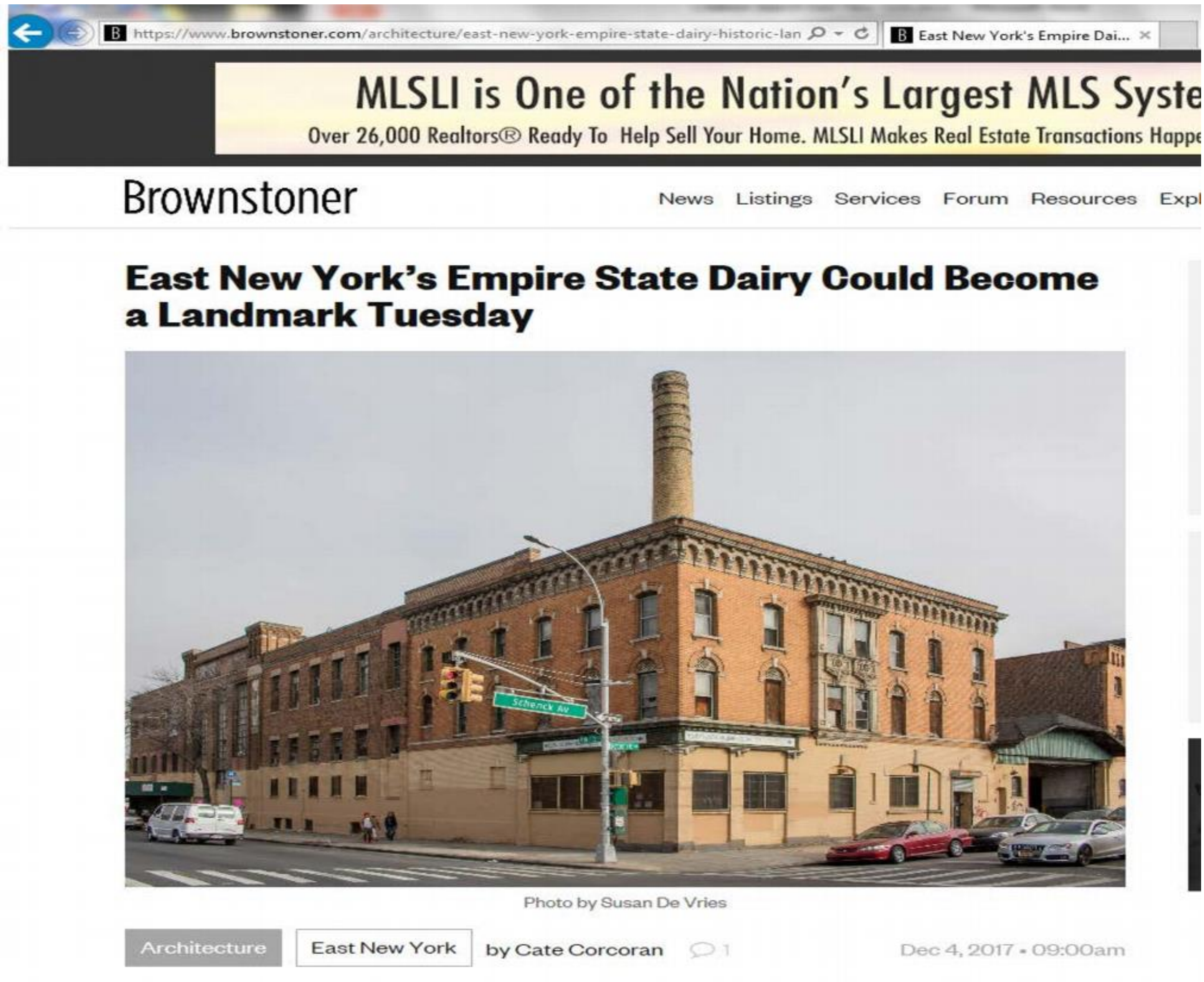
Source 2: Website



1. Website/ URl Name: ____
2. Title of Website/URL Page: __________________________________
3. Author: ____
4. Publication Date: ____
5. Website/URL Address: ___________________________________

Durdona

Source 3: Periodical

THE BROOKLYN DAILY EAGLE. NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 26, 1916. ...11

New Home of the Empire State Dairy Company

Atlantic Avenue, Schenck Avenue and Barbey Street

Just about a month ago we moved into the splendid new building shown in the center picture. Here we have the finest, most complete and largest dairy plant of its kind in the city. It is especially equipped to give to our customers what they have learned to expect from the Empire State Dairy Company since 1869—PROMPT SERVICE.

Up-to-date machinery, hygienic processes, superior delivery facilities and five convenient distributing stations insure our patrons the very best—always.

Sanitation is our watchword. Every bottle of Empire State Milk is CLEAN. The milk is pure when it reaches the bottle, and is kept pure after bottling by a special sealed, covered hood. Our concern is the only one in New York using this hood without additional charge.

Our Grade "A" Pasteurized Milk is known as the purest and the most nourishing for infant and adult. Physicians prescribe our Certified Milk for babies. The sale of our Grade "B" Pasteurized Milk runs (annually) into the millions of quarts.

We are proud of our big new plant on Atlantic Avenue. We think there is cause for this pride, and if you care to pay us a visit we shall try to show you why. The plant is always open for public inspection, and we invite you to come and see it.

MAIN OFFICE: Atlantic Av., Schenck Av. and Barbey St.

The Empire State Dairy Company

BRANCH OFFICES:

1. Title of Periodical: ____________________
2. Title of Article: ____________________
3. Author: ____________________
4. Publication Date____________________
5. Page Number____________________

NA

Source Four: Interview

Excerpt from Oral History Interview with Douglass Bibuld (DB), May 31, 2004.
Interviewed by Brian Purnell (BP).
This excerpt is taken from the start of a conversation about Operation Cleansweep, which Douglas Bibuld participated in as a child.
BP: What do you remember of that demonstration?

DB: I remember I followed eight, ten, it might have been more cars with U-Hauls driving around Gates Avenue in Bedford Stuyvesant, going into yards, picking up box springs and all kinds of junk and throwing it on the back of the U-Haul - - driving across, I think it was Brooklyn Bridge, into Lower Manhattan - - driving up on City Hall steps, dumping all of that stuff out, [Laughs] and then driving quickly on before the police could get there. I remember doing all of that. And I remember the explanation for it was that they had cut garbage collection I think from two a week to once a week, and garbage was piling up. It was the summer time. That happened I think at the end of the summer. But people had complained, there had been complaints about rats going crazy and so forth and I knew it was to dramatize the need to resume garbage collection. And I think it was cut in Bedford Stuyvesant, specifically it wasn't cut in other areas, and that it was a protest against that.
BP: Wow I didn't know that you had participated; I didn't know that children were there.
DB: Yes. Because I mean there was no place to leave us. [Laughs] At least I certainly, and Carl and Melanie, we participated in a lot of what was going on.

1. Name of Interviewer (person asking the questions):

____

2. Name of Interviewee (person being interviewed)

____

3. Date of Interview:

____

4. Interview type (email, phone, personal interview):

____

UNIT 7. PLAGIARISM. HOW TO AVOID PLAGIARISM

Discuss the following questions:

- Have you ever written an article? If yes, how did you do it?
- What steps are included in article writing?
- What problems do you face in the process of writing articles?
- What is plagiarism and how can it be avoided?

When you use someone else's words or ideas in your research paper, you must give credit. Otherwise, you're stealing their work. And whether the theft is intentional or accidental, the effect is the same—failure, humiliation, and perhaps even expulsion. Learn how to avoid literary theft by documenting your sources correctly. What Is Plagiarism? Plagiarism is the technical name for using someone else's words without giving adequate credit.

Plagiarism is

1. Using someone else's ideas without acknowledging the source.
2. Paraphrasing someone else's argument as your own.
3. Presenting someone else's line of thinking in the development of an idea as if it were your own.
4. Presenting an entire paper or a major part of it developed exactly as someone else's line of thinking.
5. Arranging your ideas exactly as someone else did—even though you acknowledge the source(s) in parentheses.

Quiz.

Read the questions below and check your knowledge on Plagiarism.

1. Copying and pasting from the Internet can be done without citing the Internet page, because everything on the Internet is common knowledge and can be used without citation.
   a) True b) False
2. No need to use quotation mark when you quote an author as long as you cite the author's name at the end of the paragraph.
   a) True b) False
3. We don't have to cite famous proverbs because they are common knowledge.
   a) True b) False

4. Using a few phrases from an article and mixing them in with your own words is not plagiarism.
   a) True b) False
5. No need to cite the source in which you found the information on common knowledge.
   a) True b) False

To avoid plagiarism, you should

- Never use someone else's ideas without acknowledging the source.
- Never paraphrase someone else's argument as your own.
- Never present someone else's line of thinking in the development of an idea as if it were your own.
- Never turn in an entire paper or a major part of it developed exactly as someone else's line of thinking.
- Never arrange your ideas exactly as someone else did—even though you acknowledge the source(s) in parentheses.

You present original ideas in an original way. You give credit for any research that is not your own. Ways to avoid plagiarism include always documenting quotations, opinions, and paraphrases and recognizing the difference between fact and common knowledge. You must always set off direct quotes with quotation marks and give credit to your original source. It is considered plagiarism if you copy a part of the quotation without using quotation marks—even if you give credit.

You must also document the way an author constructs an argument or a line of thinking. In addition, it is considered plagiarism if you try to fob off someone else's opinions as your own.

Look at the given examples:

Original Source: Probably the most influential novel of the era was Uncle Tom's Cabin (1852). More polemic than literature, Uncle Tom's Cabin nonetheless provided the North and South with the symbols and arguments they needed to go to war (Levin 125)

Plagiarism: Uncle Tom's Cabin, published in 1852, was likely the most important novel of the pre-Civil War era. Even though the book was more of a debate than a novel, it nevertheless gave the Confederate and Union sides the push they needed to start the Civil War.

Not Plagiarism: As, Harold Levin argues in his book Roots of the Civil War, Uncle Tom's Cabin, published in 1852, provided America with the impetus it need to plunge into the Civil War. Likely the most important novel of the era, Uncle Tom's Cabin cannot be regarded as "literature"—it is too strident for that. Nonetheless, its influence cannot be denied. (125)

UNDERSTAND THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN FACTS VS. COMMON KNOWLEDGE

By now you're probably thinking that you have to document every single word in your research paper—or pretty close! Not really. You have to document another person's words, ideas, or argument, and everything that is not common knowledge. It's not difficult to document quotations, opinions, and paraphrases, but differentiating between facts and common knowledge can be tricky. "Common knowledge" is defined as the information an educated person is expected to know. People are expected to know general facts about many categories of common knowledge, including art, music, history, geography, literature, films, language, science, social studies, cultural facts, computer science, mathematics.

How can you tell if something is common knowledge? If the fact is presented in several sources, odds are good that your readers are expected to know it. This means that you do not have to document it.

Examples of Common Knowledge

- The Civil War started in 1861 and ended in 1865.
- Abraham Lincoln was the president during the Civil War.
- He was assassinated by John Wilkes Booth.
- Andrew Johnson became the new president

Task I.

There are several ways to avoid plagiarism. One of them is paraphrasing original source. Look at the given examples. What are the methods to paraphrase the text?

1.Original "If they have some help, most people can paraphrase effectively. However, practice is important because paraphrasing is difficult."

Paraphrased"Most people can paraphrase effectively, if they have some help. Paraphrasing is difficult, however, so practice is important."

Method____

2. Original"Writing essays can be a challenging task."
Paraphrased "Writing essays can be a task which is challenging."
Method____

3.Original "The most effective way to build your English skill is to study regularly."
Paraphrased "The most effective way of building your English skill is to do studying on a regular basis."
Method____

4. Original "To improve English, you should learn new vocabulary on a daily basis."
Paraphrased "To improve English, new vocabulary should be learned on a daily basis."
Method____

Task II.

The next way of avoiding plagiarism is summarizing. Summary is a short and concise paragraph that contains the main information of a piece of writing. The process of writing a summary can be divided into two parts- preparation stage and the actual process. Discuss in groups what should be done in each stage and fill in the table with your ideas.

Preparation	**Process**

Now, compare your ideas with the information given in the table below.

Preparation	**Process**
Finding - the main background details (title, topic, publication year, author, etc.)	- group the ideas - always start with author's name(s)

- basic notions and key words - thesis statement and topic sentences - supporting details	- at the beginning of the summary- give own thesis statement - provide each main idea in a separate paragraph - there is no need to use specific details, such as dates or statistics

Task III.

Work in pairs. Read the article given below. Following the tips discussed in the previous exercise, write a summary.

Key Issues in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) Curriculum Development

Based on insights gained from developing the curriculum for Language Preparation for Employment in the Health Sciences and a review of the literature on ESP, this paper is intended to offer theoretical support for ESL instructors developing ESP curricula for ESL contexts.

Background Information and Statement of Purpose

In late 1999, I was asked to develop a content-based curriculum for a ten-week course for a select group of immigrants living in Ottawa, Canada. The course was held at Algonquin College of Applied Arts and Technology and was funded by the Language for Employment Related Needs Project (LERN). The curriculum consisted of two distinct phases: language delivery and employment awareness. Although the employment awareness phase (independently developed and delivered by Local Agencies Serving Immigrants) was an integral component of the program, the focus of this paper is on insights gained from the language-delivery phase.

Dudley Evans and St. John (1998) identify five key roles for the ESP practitioner:

- teacher
- course designer and materials provider
- collaborator
- researcher
- evaluator.

It is the role of ESP practitioner as course designer and materials provider that this paper addresses. The premise of this paper is based on David Nunan's observations about the teacher as a curriculum developer.
It seems fairly obvious that if teachers are to be the ones responsible for developing the curriculum, they need the time, the skills and the support to do so. Support may include curriculum models and guidelines · and may include support from individuals acting in a curriculum advisory position. The provision of such support cannot be removed and must not be seen in isolation, from the curriculum (Nunan, 1987, p. 75).
Nunan recognized that issues of time, skills and support are key for teachers faced with the very real task of developing curricula. The intent of this paper is to provide the ESL instructor as ESP course designer and materials provider with theoretical support. This paper begins with a discussion of the origins of ESP.
Somekeynotionsabout ESP arethenaddressed:

- absoluteandvariablecharacteristics
- typesof ESP
- characteristicsof ESP courses
- the meaning of the word 'special' in ESP

Key issues in ESP curriculum design are suggested: a) abilities required for successful communication in occupational settings; b)content language aquisition versus general language aquisition; c) heterogeneous versus homogenous learner group; and d) materials development.

The Origins of ESP

Certainly, a great deal about the origins of ESP could be written. Notably, there are three reasons common to the emergence of all ESP: the demands of a Brave New World, a revolution in linguistics, and focus on the learner (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).
Hutchinson and Waters (1987) note that two key historical periods breathed life into ESP. First, the end of the Second World War brought with it an " ... age of enormous and unprecedented expansion in scientific, technical and economic activity on an international scale · for various reasons, most notably the economic power of the United States in the post-war world, the role [of

international language] fell to English" (p. 6). Second, the Oil Crisis of the early 1970s resulted in Western money and knowledge flowing into the oil-rich countries. The language of this knowledge became English.

The general effect of all this development was to exert pressure on the language teaching profession to deliver the required goods. Whereas English had previously decided its own destiny, it now became subject to the wishes, needs and demands of people other than language teachers (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.7).

The second key reason cited as having a tremendous impact on the emergence of ESP was a revolution in linguistics. Whereas traditional linguists set out to describe the features of language, revolutionary pioneers in linguistics began to focus on the ways in which language is used in real communication. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) point out that one significant discovery was in the ways that spoken and written English vary. In other words, given the particular context in which English is used, the variant of English will change. This idea was taken one step farther. If language in different situations varies, then tailoring language instruction to meet the needs of learners in specific contexts is also possible. Hence, in the late 1960s and the early 1970s there were many attempts to describe English for Science and Technology (EST). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) identify Ewer and Latorre, Swales, Selinker and Trimble as a few of the prominent descriptive EST pioneers.

The final reason Hutchinson and Waters (1987) cite as having influenced the emergence of ESP has less to do with linguistics and everything to do psychology. Rather than simply focus on the method of language delivery, more attention was given to the ways in which learners acquire language and the differences in the ways language is acquired. Learners were seen to employ different learning strategies, use different skills, enter with different learning schemata, and be motivated by different needs and interests. Therefore, focus on the learners' needs became equally paramount as the methods employed to disseminate linguistic knowledge. Designing specific courses to better meet these individual needs was a natural extension of this thinking. To this day, the catchword in ESL circles is learner-centered or learning-centered.

Key Notions About ESP

Absolute and Variable Characteristics of ESP

Ten years later, theorists Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) modified Strevens' original definition of ESP to form their own. Let us begin with Strevens. He defined ESP by identifying its absolute and variable characteristics. Strevens' (1988) definition makes a distinction between four absolute and two variable characteristics:

I. Absolute characteristics:

ESP consists of English language teaching which is:

- designed to meet specified needs of the learner;
- related in content (i.e. in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities;
- centred on the language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics, etc., and analysis of this discourse;
- in contrast with General English.

II. Variable characteristics:

ESP may be, but is not necessarily:

- restricted as to the language skills to be learned (e.g. reading only);
- not taught according to any pre-ordained methodology (pp.1-2).

Anthony (1997) notes that there has been considerable recent debate about what ESP means despite the fact that it is an approach which has been widely used over the last three decades. At a 1997 Japan Conference on ESP, Dudley-Evans offered a modified definition. The revised definition he and St. John postulate is as follows:

I. AbsoluteCharacteristics

- ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learner;
- ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves;
- ESP is centred on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities.

II. Variable Characteristics

- ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines;
- ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English;

- ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be for learners at secondary school level;
- ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students;
- Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners (1998, pp. 4-5).

Dudley-Evans and St. John have removed the absolute characteristic that 'ESP is in contrast with General English' and added more variable characteristics. They assert that ESP is not necessarily related to a specific discipline. Furthermore, ESP is likely to be used with adult learners although it could be used with young adults in a secondary school setting.

Types of ESP

David Carter (1983) identifies three types of ESP:

- English as a restricted language
- English for Academic and Occupational Purposes
- English with specific topics.

The language used by air traffic controllers or by waiters are examples of English as a restricted language. Mackay and Mountford (1978) clearly illustrate the difference between restricted language and language with this statement:

... the language of international air-traffic control could be regarded as 'special', in the sense that the repertoire required by the controller is strictly limited and can be accurately determined situationally, as might be the linguistic needs of a dining-room waiter or air-hostess. However, such restricted repertoires are not languages, just as a tourist phrase book is not grammar. Knowing a restricted 'language' would not allow the speaker to communicate effectively in novel situation, or in contexts outside the vocational environment (pp. 4-5).

The second type of ESP identified by Carter (1983) is English for Academic and Occupational Purposes. In the 'Tree of ELT' (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987), ESP is broken down into three branches: a) English for Science and Technology (EST), b) English for Business and Economics (EBE), and c) English for Social

Studies (ESS). Each of these subject areas is further divided into two branches: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). An example of EOP for the EST branch is 'English for Technicians' whereas an example of EAP for the EST branch is 'English for Medical Studies'.
Hutchinson and Waters (1987) do note that there is not a clear-cut distinction between EAP and EOP: "· people can work and study simultaneously; it is also likely that in many cases the language learnt for immediate use in a study environment will be used later when the student takes up, or returns to, a job" (p. 16). Perhaps this explains Carter's rationale for categorizing EAP and EOP under the same type of ESP. It appears that Carter is implying that the end purpose of both EAP and EOP are one in the same: employment. However, despite the end purpose being identical, the means taken to achieve the end is very different indeed. I contend that EAP and EOP are different in terms of focus on Cummins' (1979) notions of cognitive academic proficiency versus basic interpersonal skills. This is examined in further detail below.
The third and final type of ESP identified by Carter (1983) is English with specific topics. Carter notes that it is only here where emphasis shifts from purpose to topic. This type of ESP is uniquely concerned with anticipated future English needs of, for example, scientists requiring English for postgraduate reading studies, attending conferences or working in foreign institutions. However, I argue that this is not a separate type of ESP. Rather it is an integral component of ESP courses or programs which focus on situational language. This situational language has been determined based on the interpretation of results from needs analysis of authentic language used in target workplace settings.

Task IV.

The last way of avoiding plagiarism is referencing and citing. There are several guidelines to do it. One of them is **APA style**. Look at the following examples or APA style referencing and match them with categories provided after.

1. None to claim their bones: Relics of an old Brooklyn graveyard. (1888, April 12). *New York Times*, pp. 3-4. Retrieved from http://www.nytimes.com/
2. Knowles, A. (n.d.). *House of dust* [Collage]. Retrieved from Oxford Art Online database.
3.Reitzes, D. C., &Mutran, E. J. (2004). The transition to retirement: Stages and factors that influence retirement adjustment. *International Journal of Aging and Human Development*, *59*(1), 63-84. Retrieved from http://www.baywood.com/journals/PreviewJournals.asp?Id=0091-4150
4. Hughes, J. C., Brestan, E. V., & Valle, L. A. (2004). Problem-solving interactions between mothers and children. *Child and Family Behavior Therapy*, *26*(1), 1-16.
5. Smith, A. J. (2001). Child development. In B. Strickland (Ed.), *TheGale encyclopedia of psychology*. Retrieved from http://www.gale.cengage.com/

Task V.

Read the following examples and by referring to the information above on avoiding plagiarism decide which is acceptable and which is plagiarism. Write the reason of plagiarism and the way used to avoid plagiarism.

Examples	Reason	Ways used to avoid plagiarism
According to Leslie Bernstein (2003), the Middle Eastern water pipe known as the hookah recently "has been resurrected in youth-oriented coffeehouses, restaurants and bars, supplanting the cigar as the tobacco fad of the moment" (p. 10).		
Men in the Mid-East have used hookahs to puff smoke for centuries. The "hookah" has been resurrected today in coffeehouses, restaurants and bars "supplanting the cigar as the tobacco fad of the moment."		

UNIT 8. METHOD AND THE PROCESS

The methodology section of your paper describes how your research was conducted. This information allows readers to check whether your approach is accurate and dependable. A good methodology can help increase the reader’s trust in your findings. First, we will define and differentiate quantitative and qualitative research. Then, for each of these types of research, we will look at the kinds of information that a methodology should provide. This handout has annotated examples of both quantitative and qualitative methodologies.

What are Quantitative and Qualitative Research?

Quantitative research involves collecting numerical data and conducting mathematical analyses to observe trends, make predictions, run experiments, and test hypotheses. Qualitative research involves collecting non-numerical data and identifying patterns in language, theme, and structure, among other features, to understand human experiences. Instruments for qualitative research include questionnaires, interviews, and observations.

The goal of your methodology is to increase the credibility of your research by making your process transparent and reproducible. Your methodology should begin by describing your research question and the type of data you used in answering it. You want to indicate why this type of data is appropriate, relevant, and important to the question being asked. You will then explain your process of data collection. This is the place to state the tools and materials that were used to collect data, the process and criteria you used to sample subjects, and the size of your sample. If your research was quantitative, you will specify how your data was measured. If your research was qualitative, you will describe how data was recorded and how you observed and/or participated in the study. You want to provide enough detail for readers to be able to replicate your procedure. If you used existing data sets instead of collecting new data, you can elaborate on where you found the data sets, how the set was originally produced, and what criteria you used to select the data. Remember to explain why you made these decisions. After describing data collection, you will elaborate on data analysis. This includes how you prepared the data for analysis and what tools you used to analyze it. If your research was quantitative, you will outline the mathematical calculations you performed. You will also explain why your calculations were appropriate for the data and the research question in hand. If your research was qualitative, you will describe your process of interpreting, labeling, and analyzing data. When working with personal or sensitive data, you should describe the steps you took to protect the privacy of your sources. Finally, you will justify the approach you took. You should show that your approach was appropriate to answering your research question. If your approach is unconventional, you should explain why your approach was more effective than other methods. This is the place to mention any difficulties or challenges you encountered in your approach and to explain how you addressed these issues.

The methodology or methods section (recommended length: 500-1000 words) describes the steps followed in the execution of the study and also provides a brief justification forthe research methods used (Perry *et al.*, 2003:661). It should contain enough detail to enable the reader to evaluate the appropriateness of your methods and the reliability and validity of your findings. Furthermore, the information should enable experienced researchers to replicate your study

(American Psychological Association, 2001:17). It is extremely important that you describe your methodological choices in all the sub-sections in enough detail so that a reader who is not involved in your study will know exactly what you did and why. You should also motivate and justify ("reversing") your methodological choices so that the reader can see that your choices are appropriate and scientifically sound.

One could justify methodological choices in several ways:

- Explain that the choices made are the most practical / feasible given the study's objectives, the nature of the target population and available resources, BUT do not use resource constraints as your only motivation.
- Indicate that other leading researchers have used a similar approach (i.e., cite other articles to justify your choices).
- Indicate that the methodological choices are appropriate and scientifically sound given the "best practice" guidelines or requirements that apply to the specific research approaches (e.g., qualitative research, survey research, experimental research, etc.) used in your study. Cite sources to support your arguments in this regard. WARNING! Do not try to apply the "best practice" guidelines that apply to survey research to other forms of research, such as qualitative research!

Task I. Look at the given table about sections of methodology and discuss with your pair.

Section of the methodology	Definitions of Sections
Sampling - Description of target population, research context and units of analysis - Sampling - Respondent profile	Clearly describe the target population(-s) of and context(-s) in which the study was conducted. Also remind the reader about the units of analysis of the study.

Data collection - Data collection methods	Describe the sampling method used in detail. This description should,where possible, include: - A description of and motivation for the specific sampling method used, - An indication of any disadvantages associated with the use of the specific sampling method (e.g., disadvantages in term of the generalizability of the findings), - A description of the sampling frame used (if applicable), - A description of how sampling units were selected, and - An indication of: • the target sample size, • how this was determined, • the realized sample size (i.e., how many questionnaires were received back), • the response rate (i.e., realized sample size the number of questionnaires handed out or respondents approached), and • the number of usable questionnaires that were analyzed (realized sample size - any questionnaires excluded from data analysis because of a high incidence missing responses).
Measures (Alternatively: Measurement)	Provide a demographic and/or behavioral profile of the respondents who participated in

	the study. This profile can also be included at the start of the results section. If possible and applicable, present evidence that the sample size is sufficiently large and that the respondents are representative of the target population.

Guidelines regarding Element 1:

- If your study involved more than one target population, context and/or unit of analysis(e.g., foreign visitors to game lodges in South Africa AND the marketing managers of these game lodges), this should be clearly indicated under Element 1.
- You should always motivate why it is academically valuable, necessary and/or appropriate to investigate your topic among the members of your chosen target population(s) and in the context(s) specified for your study. Such a motivation can be contained in the introduction or as part of Element 1 of the section on sampling.
- The fact that a study was conducted solely among students, in most cases, represents a major limitation. You should justify the use of a student population and student samples by motivating that students are an important market segment given the topic of your study and/or that a study among students can be scientifically justified.

Guidelines regarding Element 2:

- If you have followed a two-stage design, you should discuss the components of Element 2 separately for the two different stages of your study. You may use bulleted4th level headings to structure your discussion.
- Students doing qualitative research should show that the sampling method and targetsample size proposed for their study are scientifically justifiable from the perspective of the specific qualitative research approach(-es) used. Cite relevant sources to support

your arguments in this regard.

- Where possible, the minimum required sample size for a quantitative study should becalculated on statistical grounds (see any introductory Statistics textbook for guidelines in this regard). However, as we are not going to use a statistical approach for calculating sample size in this course, you may adapt the following phrase for use in this section:
- One should always acknowledge the use of a non-probability sampling approach as a limitation of a quantitative study and highlight the negative consequences of theuse of such an approach. One of the most important negative consequences is the fact that the findings of a study based on a non-probability sample cannot be generalized to a larger population.

Your discussion of sampling should be in the form of normal paragraphs; not in the form of a bulleted list. Do not include a "textbook" discussion of sampling theory in this section. Limit yourself to a concise description of the specific sampling approach used in your study and a motivation of why this approach is appropriate. You can motivate your decisions regarding a sampling method and sample size by:

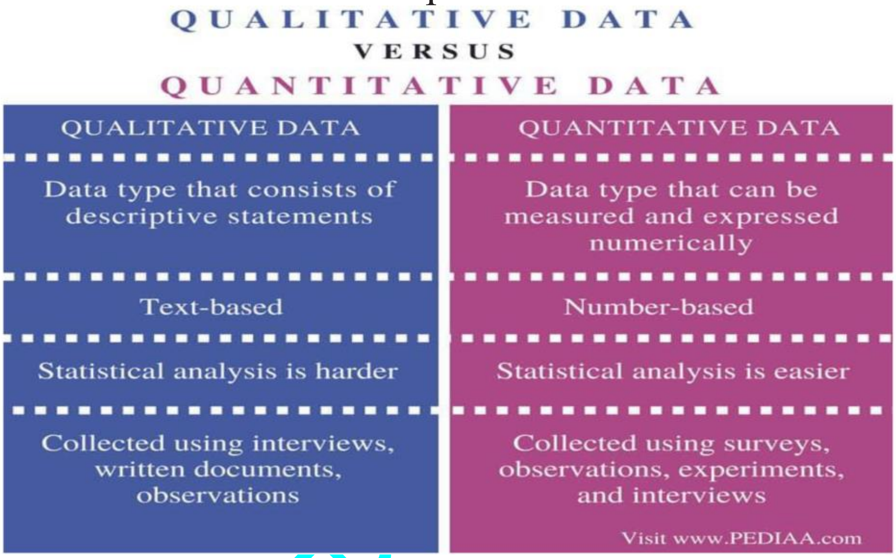
- indicating that these are the only feasible options given the unique circumstances ofyour study; and/or
- showing that other experienced researchers have used a similar approach in studies on the same or a related topic (cite relevant sources to support your arguments inthis regard).

Qualitative research is characterized by its **aims**, which relate to **understanding** some aspect of social life, and its **methods** which (in general) generate words, rather than numbers, as data for analysis.

For researchers more familiar with quantitative methods, which aim to **measure** something (such as the percentage of people with a particular disease in a community, or the number of households owning a bed net), the aims and methods of qualitative research can seem imprecise.

Common criticisms include:

- samples are small and not necessarily representative of the broader population, so it is difficult to know how far we can generalize the results;
- the findings lack rigor;
- it is difficult to tell how far the findings are biased by the researcher's own opinions. Loo


QUALITATIVE DATA
VERSUS
QUANTITATIVE DATA

QUALITATIVE DATA	QUANTITATIVE DATA
Data type that consists of descriptive statements	Data type that can be measured and expressed numerically
Text-based	Number-based
Statistical analysis is harder	Statistical analysis is easier
Collected using interviews, written documents, observations	Collected using surveys, observations, experiments, and interviews

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Task II. Look at the given example with the element of method section and discuss it with class.

[Element 1] The target population for this study consisted of American leisure travelers who had taken a vacation on board a cruise liner during 2000 or 2001. The unit of analysis was the individual passenger. **[Element 2]** A computer-generated random list of 1500 cruise vacationers was purchased from a well-known US mailing list company that specializes in the collection of addresses for research purposes. This list served as the sampling frame. To account for the impactof the low response rate normally associated with mail surveys, a mail-survey questionnaire (see Annexure A) was sent to all 1500 respondents on the sampling frame. This was done in order to realize a large enough sample for the use of structural equation modelling based on the recommendations by Tabachnick and Fidell (1996), and Kline (1998). The final realized sample included a total of 392 usable questionnaires, representing a 26% response rate. All 392 questionnaires were analyzed. **[Element 3]** Table 8 provides a socio-demographic profile of the respondents who participated in the study. The sample was slightly dominated by female respondents (54%) and the majority of therespondents fell in the 36–55 age group. Approximately 80% of the respondents had at least some college education, with 56% having earned a college degree. Twenty-six percent of the respondents reported an annual household income between $40,000 and $79,000.

Task III. Find the elements of method section examples and write in the table.

Section of the methodology	Sentence from the extract 1	Sentence from the extract 1
Sampling - Description of target population, research context and units of analysis - Sampling - Respondent profile		
Data collection - Data collection methods		
Measures (Alternatively: Measurement)		

Extract 1.

The population for this study consisted of franchisors across all franchised industries in Australia. The unit of analysis was the franchisor-franchisee relationship. The sampling frame was a list of all Australian franchisors maintained over ten years by Mr. Col McCosker that has been used in many previous surveys of franchisors. There is no alternative sampling frame available because there is no required registration of all franchisors in Australia. A mail survey (see Annexure A) was sent to the complete list of 693 franchisors in 1998. Fully 175 franchisors replied, giving a satisfactory response rate of 25% for this type of survey of business people where response rates below 15% become questionable (Malhotra, 1993). Only 113 of the 174 respondents were able to answer the questions about investment in information technology, because the others had not invested. This figure of 113 respondents who had invested in information technology is within the normal bounds of 100 to 200 for structural equation modelling (Hair *et al.*, 1995). The resulting sample can be described as a convenience sample. The respondents provided a reasonably representative profile of all Australian franchisors. Replies were obtained from all states, with franchises starting between 1967 and 1996, and with turnovers ranging from $17,000 to $9,000,000. Moreover, the respondents provided a picture of information technology emerging as an important issue in franchise systems. Of the 174 respondents, 28.9% saw no need for information technology linking franchisor and franchisees, but others had started to do this and fully 19.1% had complete information technology links between franchisor and franchisees. Indeed, as many as 53.7% had implementation and use of franchise-wide information technology systems written into contracts for new franchisees and in renewals of existing franchises. The franchisors were split 60.6% between services and 39.4% retail, with 50.4% of the services using or contemplating information technology for their franchise system, and 43.1% of retail.

Extract 2.

The method used was descriptive analysis, especially documentary analysis. Written data were taken from text of Bible, New Testament called Janji Baru especially in Gospel of Luke using Kupang Malay language. This written text consisted of 24 chapters. All data were specified on the textual meaning in which were realized by logical clauses relationship. Those data then were analyzed by following analytical procedure techniques. Data then were studied and analyzed based on SFL theory (Halliday (1994, Halliday and Martin 2004; 2014;

Eggins,1994) especially on the part of clauses relation. Therefore, this type of study can be classified as documentary analysis in which data were analyzed descriptively by using matching method. There were also some quantitative data that was used just to give more explanation or support qualitative data. The results of the analysis were presented by using formal, informal method and combining formal and informal.

UNIT 9. WRITING THE DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION SECTIONS.

Discuss the following questions:

- How to Write a Discussion Section?
- What not to include in your discussion section?

The discussion section is where you delve into the meaning, importance, and relevance of your results.

It should focus on explaining and evaluating what you found, showing how it relates to your literature review and paper or dissertation topic, and making an argument in support of your overall conclusion. It should not be a second results section.

There are different ways to write this section, but you can focus your writing around these key elements:

Summary: A brief recap of your key results

Interpretations: What do your results mean?

Implications: Why do your results matter?

Limitations: What can't your results tell us?

Recommendations: Avenues for further studies or analyses

There are a few common mistakes to avoid when writing the discussion section of your paper.

Don't introduce new results: You should only discuss the data that you have already reported in your results section.

Don't make inflated claims: Avoid over interpretation and speculation that isn't directly supported by your data.

Don't undermine your research: The discussion of limitations should aim to strengthen your credibility, not emphasize weaknesses or failures.

Step 1: Summarize your key findings.

Start this section by reiterating your research problem and concisely summarizing your major findings. Don't just repeat all the data you have already reported—aim for a clear statement of the overall result that directly answers your main research question. This should be no more than one paragraph. Many students struggle with the differences between a discussion section and a results section. The crux of the matter is that your results sections should present your results, and your discussion section should subjectively evaluate them. Try not to blend elements of these two sections, in order to keep your paper sharp.

Examples: Summarization sentence starters

The results indicate that…

The study demonstrates a correlation between…

This analysis supports the theory that…

The data suggest that…

Step 2: Give your interpretations

The meaning of your results may seem obvious to you, but it's important to spell out their significance for your reader, showing exactly how they answer your research question.

The form of your interpretations will depend on the type of research, but some typical approaches to interpreting the data include:

- Identifying correlations, patterns, and relationships among the data
- Discussing whether the results met your expectations or supported your hypotheses
- Contextualizing your findings within previous research and theory
- Explaining unexpected results and evaluating their significance
- Considering possible alternative explanations and making an argument for your position

You can organize your discussion around key themes, hypotheses, or research questions, following the same structure as your results section. Alternatively, you can also begin by highlighting the most significant or unexpected results.

Examples: Interpretation sentence starters

In line with the hypothesis…

Contrary to the hypothesized association…

The results contradict the claims of Smith (2022) that…

The results might suggest that x. However, based on the findings of similar studies, a more plausible explanation is …

Step 3: Discuss the implications

As well as giving your own interpretations, make sure to relate your results back to the scholarly work that you surveyed in the literature review. The discussion should show how your findings fit with existing knowledge, what new insights they contribute, and what consequences they have for theory or practice.

Your overall aim is to show the reader exactly what your research has contributed, and why they should care.

Examples: Implication sentence starters

These results build on existing evidence of…

The results do not fit with the theory that…

The experiment provides a new insight into the relationship between…

These results should be taken into account when considering how to…

The data contribute a clearer understanding of…

While previous research has focused on x, these results demonstrate that y.

Task I.

Answer to the questions given below.

1. What goes in the discussion chapter of a dissertation?
2. What is the difference between results and discussion?
3. What is the difference between discussion and conclusion?

Answers: 1)In the discussion, you explore the meaning and relevance of your research results, explaining how they fit with existing research and theory. Discuss:

Your interpretations: what do the results tell us?

The implications: why do the results matter?

The limitations: what can't the results tell us?

2) The results chapter or section simply and objectively reports what you found, without speculating on why you found these results. The discussion interprets the meaning of the results, puts them in context, and explains why they matter.

In qualitative research, results and discussion are sometimes combined. But in quantitative research, it's considered important to separate the objective results from your interpretation of them.

3) In a thesis or dissertation, the discussion is an in-depth exploration of the results, going into detail about the meaning of your findings and citing relevant sources to put them in context.

The conclusion is more shorter and more general: it concisely answers your main research question and makes recommendations based on your overall findings.

Discussion vs. conclusion

While your conclusion contains similar elements to your discussion section, they are not the same thing.

Your conclusion should be shorter and more general than your discussion. Instead of repeating literature from your literature review, discussing specific research results, or interpreting your data in detail, concentrate on making broad statements that sum up the most important insights of your research.

As a rule of thumb, your conclusion should not introduce new data, interpretations, or arguments.

How long should your conclusion be?

Depending on whether you are writing a thesis or dissertation, your length will vary. Generally, a conclusion should make up around 5–7% of your overall word count.

An empirical scientific study will often have a short conclusion, concisely stating the main findings and recommendations for future research. A humanities dissertation topic or systematic review, on the other hand, might require more space to conclude its analysis, tying all the previous sections together in an overall argument.

Task II.

Match the answers with the question about conclusion sections.

1)What is the difference between discussion and conclusion?	a) While it may be tempting to present new arguments or evidence in your thesis or dissertation conclusion, especially if you have a particularly striking argument you'd like to finish your analysis with, you shouldn't. Theses and dissertations follow a more formal structure than this. All your findings and arguments should be presented in the body of the text (more specifically in the discussion section and results section.) The conclusion is meant to summarize and reflect on the evidence and arguments you have already presented, not introduce new ones.
2)What does not go in a dissertation conclusion?	b) The conclusion of your thesis or dissertation shouldn't take up more

	than 5–7% of your overall word count.
3)Can I present a new arguments in the conclusion of my dissertation?	c)In a thesis or dissertation, the discussion is an in-depth exploration of the results, going into detail about the meaning of your findings and citing relevant sources to put them in context. The conclusion is more shorter and more general: it concisely answers your main research question and makes recommendations based on your overall findings.
4)How long is the thesis dissertation conclusion?	d) The conclusion of your thesis or dissertation should include the following: A restatement of your research question A summary of your key arguments and/or results A short discussion of the implications of your research
5)What should I include in a thesis or dissertation conclusion?	e) For a stronger dissertation conclusion, avoid including: Important evidence or analysis that wasn't mentioned in the discussion section and results section Generic concluding phrases (e.g. "In conclusion …") Weak statements that undermine your argument (e.g., "There are good points on both sides of this issue.") Your conclusion should leave the reader with a strong, decisive impression of your work.

*Answers:*1-c 2-e 3-a 4-b 5-d

UNIT 10. USING ONLINE RESOURCES AND BOOKS FOR RESEARCH

I.The technological developments and day-to-day changes in the resources availability have amplified the teaching and learning processes to higher degrees. The technology has changed the educational processes to develop and use innovative and contemporary methodologies. The learning processes have become easier due to this development.

Here suggested some ideas to optimally use the internet resources in knowledge acquisitions. The paper concentrates the processes and usages of the resources with respect to learning processes.

1.1.Statement of Problem

The technology has developed various gadgets and tools to assist the educational processes. The major developments are in internet resources. The learners need to use the full potentials of the resources by applying critical thinking and selective methodologies. Due to various reasons, the internet resources could not be used fully in learning processes. The innovative and constructive search techniques could not be clearly understood by the learners to use the internet resources in their learning processes. The developed nations are clearly guiding the students to utilize the online resources from school level itself. But, the developing and underdeveloped nations are lacking at some point with respect to the utilization of these resources in educational processes, in particular, learning processes. The paper identifies the gap between the potential requirements, availability and utilization of the internet resources in learning processes with respect to Middle East countries. The learners do show very poor interest in using the internet resources constructively in their learning processes.

1.2. Research Questions

1) What are the learning resources that shall be potentially safe to use in educational processes?

2) What are the flaws in utilizing the full potentials of the internet resources in learning processes?

2. **Literature review**

Using the online resources in educational processes had started in early 90s itself.

3. **Research methodology**

For this research purpose, both qualitative and quantitative analyzes were conducted. For qualitative analysis, different literatures related to online resource usages were studied intensively. The research outputs were analyzed as considering the internet resources as learning tool. Various secondary data available in the internet were analyzed thoroughly. For primary data purposes, a focus group study was conducted. 94 students of Sur University College studying Artificial Intelligence at bachelor level and Mathematics for IST at diploma level were observed in the classroom for their various learning processes.

4. **Online Resources as Self-Learning Tool**

The following ideas shall be applied which may help utilize the online resources optimally.

1. Be specific in search terms.
2. Be clear in selecting the proper search engines. 3. Select the resource only after examining randomly regarding the contents.
4. Check the currency and update of the materials.
5. Check the corresponding book publisher website for the detailed resource availability.
6. Improve vocabulary skills which will benefit to select the search terms.
7. Consult with the senior students and friends to identify the apt resources.
8. Discuss with the instructors to understand the main contents on the subject matters.
9. Do not hurry in selecting the resources.

II. Throughout the research process, you'll likely use various **types of sources**. The source types commonly used in academic writing include:

- Academic journals
- Books
- Websites
- Newspapers
- Encyclopedias

The type of source you look for will depend on the stage you are at in the writing process. For preliminary research like definitions and broad overviews, you might consult an encyclopedia or a website. For original insights or an in-depth analysis of your topic, you might consult scholarly books and journal articles.

Academic journals

Academic journals are the most up-to-date sources in academia. They're typically published multiple times a year and contain cutting-edge research. Consult academic journals to find the most current debates and research topics in your field.

There are many kinds of journal articles, including:

- **Original research articles:** These publish original data (primary sources)
- **Theoretical articles:** These contribute to the theoretical foundations of a field.
- **Review articles:** These summarize the current state of the field.

Credible journals use peer review. This means that experts in the field assess the quality and credibility of an article before it is published. Journal articles include a full bibliography and use scholarly or technical language.

Academic journals are usually published online, and sometimes also in print. Consult your institution's library to find out what academic journals they provide access to.

Books

Academic books are great sources to use when you need in-depth information on your research or dissertation topic.

They're typically written by experts and provide an extensive overview and analysis of a specific topic. They can be written by a single author or by multiple authors contributing individual chapters (often overseen by a general editor).

Books published by respected academic publishing houses and university presses are typically considered trustworthy sources. Academic books usually include a full bibliography and use scholarly or technical language. Books written for more general audiences are less relevant in an academic context.

Books can be accessed online or in print. Your institution's library will likely contain access to a wide selection of each.

Websites

Websites are great sources for preliminary research and can help you to learn more about a topic you're new to.

However, they are not always credible sources. Many websites don't provide the author's name, so it can be hard to tell if they're an expert.

Websites often don’t cite their sources, and they typically don’t subject their content to peer review.
For these reasons, you should carefully consider whether any web sources you use are appropriate to cite or not. Some websites are more credible than others. Look for DOIs or trusted domain extensions:

- URLs that end with **.edu** are specifically educational resources.
- URLs that end with **.gov** are government-related

Both of these are typically considered trustworthy.

Newspapers

Newspapers can be valuable sources, providing insights on current or past events and trends.
However, news articles are not always reliable and may be written from a biased perspective or with the intention of promoting a political agenda. News articles usually do not cite their sources and are written for a popular, rather than academic, audience.
Nevertheless, newspapers can help when you need information on recent topics or events that have not been the subject of in-depth academic study. Archives of older newspapers can also be useful sources for historical research.
Newspapers are published in both digital and print form. Consult your institution’s library to find out what newspaper archives they provide access to.

Encyclopedias

Encyclopedias are reference works that contain summaries or overviews of topics rather than original insights. These overviews are presented in alphabetical order.
Although they’re often written by experts, encyclopedia entries are not typically attributed to a single author and don’t provide the specialized knowledge expected of scholarly sources. As a result, they’re best used as sources of background information at the beginning of your research. You can then expand your knowledge by consulting more academic sources.
Encyclopedias can be general or subject-specific:

- **General encyclopedias** contain entries on diverse topics.
- **Subject encyclopedias** focus on a particular field and contain entries specific to that field (e.g., Western philosophy or molecular biology).

They can be found online (including crowdsourced encyclopedias like Wikipedia) or in print form.

Primary, secondary, and tertiary sources

Every source you use will be either a:

- **Primary source:** The source provides direct evidence about your topic (e.g., a news article).
- **Secondary source:** The source provides an interpretation or commentary on primary sources (e.g., a journal article).
- **Tertiary source:** The source summarizes or consolidates primary and secondary sources but does not provide additional analysis or insights (e.g., an encyclopedia).

Tertiary sources are often used for broad overviews at the beginning of a research project. Further along, you might look for primary and secondary sources that you can use to help formulate your position.

How each source is categorized depends on the topic of research and how you use the source.

III. The types of sources you need will depend on the stage you are at in the research process, but all sources that you use should be credible, up to date, and relevant to your research topic.

There are three main places to look for sources to use in your research:

Research databases

Your institution's library

Other online resources

Table of contents

Research databases

You can search for scholarly sources online using databases and search engines like Google Scholar. These provide a range of search functions that can help you to find the most relevant sources.

If you are searching for a specific article or book, include the title or the author's name. Alternatively, if you're just looking for sources related to your research problem, you can search using keywords. In this case, it's important to have a clear understanding of the scope of your project and of the most relevant keywords.

Databases can be general (interdisciplinary) or subject-specific.

You can use subject-specific databases to ensure that the results are relevant to your field.

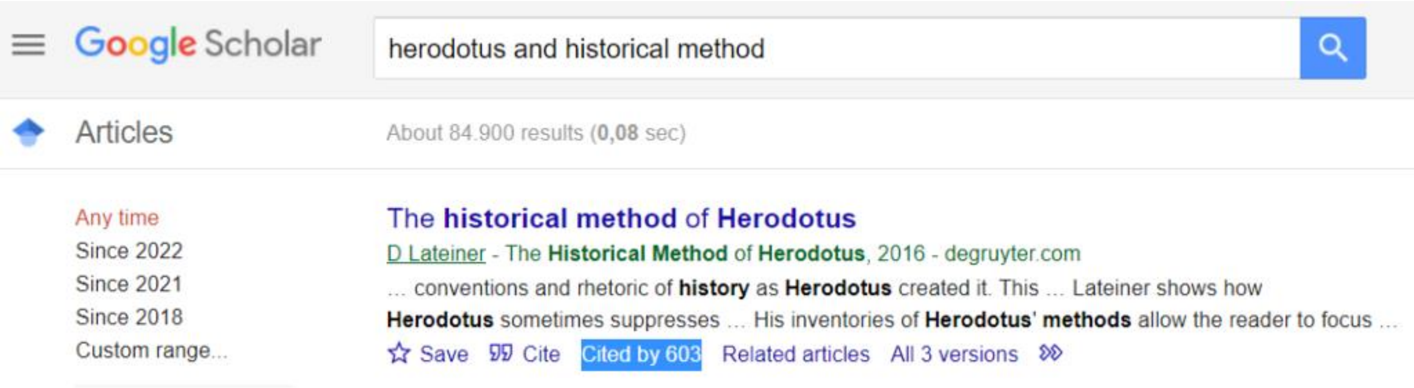
When using a general database or search engine, you can still filter results by selecting specific subjects or disciplines.

Example: JSTOR discipline search filter
Filtering by discipline
Check the table below to find a database that's relevant to your research.
Research databases by academic discipline
Interdisciplinary
JSTOR
Oxford Academic
Microsoft Academic
Cornell University Library
SAGE Publishing
Taylor and Francis Online
Academic Journals
OAIster
Directory of Open Access Journals
Wiley Online Library
Science & mathematics
OMICS International
American Association for the Advancement of Science
Public Library of Science
Medline
PubMed
Inspec
Springer Publications
American Mathematical Society
Social sciences & humanities
Project Muse
American Comparative Literature Association
PhilPapers
Tip
Your institution's library may have access to a range of academic databases and journals that are behind paywalls. Consult the library's website to see if they have memberships with any journals relevant to your research.

Google Scholar

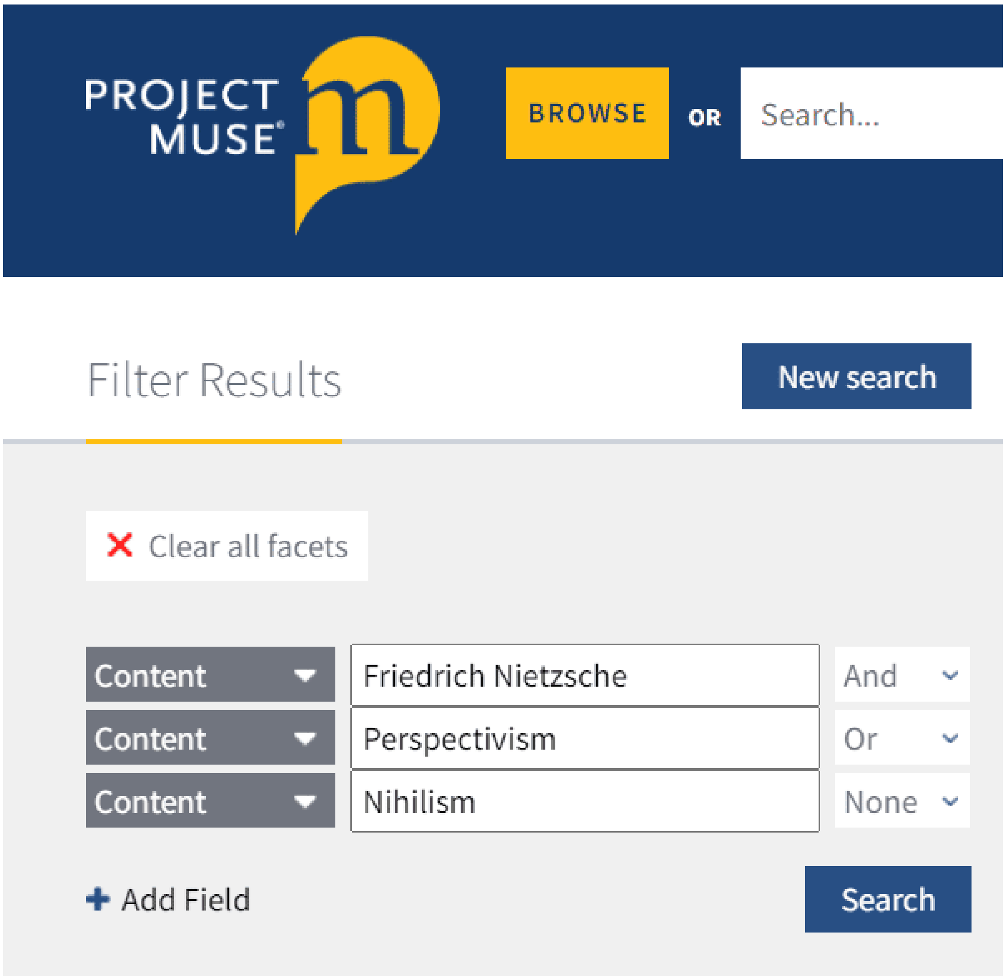
To get started, you might also try Google Scholar, an academic search engine that can help you find relevant books and articles. Its "Cited by" function lets you see the number of times a source has been cited. This

can tell you something about a source's credibility and importance to the field.
Example: Google Scholar "Cited by" function



Boolean operators

<u>Boolean operators</u> can also help to narrow or expand your search.
Boolean operators are words and symbols like **AND**, **OR**, and **NOT** that you can use to include or exclude keywords to refine your results. For example, a search for "Nietzsche NOT nihilism" will provide results that include the word "Nietzsche" but exclude results that contain the word "nihilism."
Many databases and search engines have an **advanced search** function that allows you to refine results in a similar way without typing the Boolean operators manually.



Library resources

You can find helpful print sources in your institution's library. These include:

- Journal articles
- Books
- Encyclopedias
- Newspapers and magazines

Make sure that the sources you consult are appropriate to your research.

You can find these sources using your institution's library database. This will allow you to explore the library's catalog and to search relevant keywords. You can refine your results using Boolean operators.

Once you have found a relevant print source in the library:

- Consider what books are beside it. This can be a great way to find related sources, especially when you've found a secondary or tertiary source instead of a primary source.

- Consult the index and bibliography to find the bibliographic information of other relevant sources.

TipMany libraries have an inter-library loan system that allows you to request specific books that the library does not stock. Consult a librarian if you are looking for a specific book that's not available from your institution's library.

Other online sources

You can consult popular online sources to learn more about your topic. These include:

- Websites
- Crowdsourced encyclopedias like Wikipedia
- Blogs

You can find these sources using search engines. To refine your search, use Boolean operators in combination with relevant keywords.

However, exercise caution when using online sources. Consider what kinds of sources are appropriate for your research and make sure the sites are credible.

Look for sites with trusted domain extensions:

- URLs that end with **.edu** are educational resources.
- URLs that end with **.gov** are government-related resources.
- DOIs often indicate that an article is published in a peer-reviewed, scientific article.

Other sites can still be used, but you should evaluate them carefully and consider alternatives.

UNIT 11. ARTICLE SUBMISSION

It is time to evaluate your own research. The following questions will guide you to evaluate your paper. Write answers to the question, thus, these answers will help you to make improvements.

#	Questions	Answers
1.	Is the appearance of the paper neat and appropriate? Can you recommend any format changes that would improve the appearance or make the paper easier to read?	
2.	Is the title appropriate? Why or why not?	
3.	Did the writer cover the subject in enough detail to give you a thorough understanding of it? Was the approach well-rounded, or did the writer take a one-sided view of the subject? Explain.	
4	What did you learn that surprised you?	
5.	What did you like about the paper? Why?	
6.	If your partner wanted to improve the paper, what suggestions would you make?	
7.	Reread all the comments you have made about your partner's paper. How can these	
8.	Read the introduction. Put yourself in the place of your audience. Would you want to continue reading? Try to make	

	the introduction more engaging. (Remember, although the style of a research paper is formal, it doesn't have to be dry or boring.)	
9.	Read the rest of the paper. Try to find any examples of misplaced or unnecessary information. Identify areas in your paper where you would relocate misplaced information.	
10.	Remember that your reader doesn't have the benefit of all the background research you have done. All he or she knows is what you put into the paper. Identify any unexplained terms or hazy concepts that you need to explain more clearly.	
11.	Evaluate the style of your paper. Do you need to vary your vocabulary or sentence structure? Did you use too many linking verbs and not enough action verbs? Are your sentences too short and choppy or too long and rambling? Give examples of sentences that can be improved.	
12.	Have you remembered to put in your own words everything except direct quotations from your sources? Have you correctly referenced all	

	information taken from your sources? Reread your paper and list any sections that may need additional source information.	

When you submit your article to a journal, you often need to include a cover letter. This is a great opportunity to highlight to the journal editor what makes your research new and important. The cover letter should explain why your work is perfect for their journal and why it will be of interest to the journal's readers.

When writing for publication, a well-written cover letter can help your paper reach the next stage of the manuscript submission process – being sent out for <u>**peer review**</u>. So it's worth spending time thinking about how to write a cover letter to the journal editor, to make sure it's going to be effective.

There is a sample to explain how to write a cover letter for journal article submission. You will receive cover letter instructions of what you should include and what you shouldn't, and a word template cover letter.

Sample cover letter

[Your Name]
[Your Affiliation]
[Your Address]

[Date]

Dear [Editor name],
I/We wish to submit an original research article entitled "[title of article]" for consideration by [journal name].
I/We confirm that this work is original and has not been published elsewhere, nor is it currently under consideration for publication elsewhere.
In this paper, I/we report on / show that _______. This is significant because __________.

*We believe that this manuscript is appropriate for publication by [journal name] because it… **[specific reference to the journal's Aims & Scope]**. __________.*
[Please explain in your own words the significance and novelty of the work, the problem that is being addressed, and why the manuscript belongs in this journal. Do not simply insert your abstract into your cover letter! Briefly describe the research you are reporting in your paper, why it is important, and why you think the readership of the journal would be interested in it.]

We have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

Please address all correspondence concerning this manuscript to me at [email address].
Thank you for your consideration of this manuscript.
Sincerely,
[Your name]

What is peer review?

The peer review process starts once you have submitted your paper to a journal.
After submission, your paper will be sent for assessment by independent experts in your field. The reviewers are asked to judge the validity, significance, and originality of your work.
Peer review is the independent assessment of your research paper by experts in your field. The purpose of peer review is to evaluate the paper's quality and suitability for publication.
As well as peer review acting as a form of quality control for academic journals, it is a very useful source of feedback for you. The feedback can be used to improve your paper before it is published.
So at its best, peer review is a collaborative process, where authors engage in a dialogue with peers in their field, and receive constructive support to advance their work.

Why is peer review important?

Peer review is vitally important to uphold the high standards of scholarly communications, and maintain the quality of individual journals. It is also an important support for the researchers who author the papers.

Every journal depends on the hard work of reviewers who are the ones at the forefront of the peer review process. The reviewers are the ones who test and refine each article before publication. Even for very specialist journals, the editor can't be an expert in the topic of every article submitted. So, the feedback and comments of carefully selected reviewers are an essential guide to inform the editor's decision on a research paper.

There are also practical reasons why peer review is beneficial to you, the author. The peer review process can alert you to any errors in your work, or gaps in the literature you may have overlooked. Researchers consistently tell us that their final published article is better than the version they submitted before peer review. 91% of respondents to a ***Sense about Science peer review survey*** said that their last paper was improved through peer review. A ***Taylor & Francis study*** supports this, finding that most researchers, across all subject areas, rated the contribution of peer review towards improving their article as 8 or above out of 10.

PRELIMINARY FINDINGS

Playing an active role in the community is top of reasons to review: 90% say they review because they believe they are playing an active role in the community; only 16% say that increasing their chances of having future papers accepted is a reason to review.

Researchers want to improve, not replace peer review:

84% believe that without peer review there would be no control in scientific communication, but only a third (32%) think it is the best that can be achieved; 20% of researchers believe that peer review is unsustainable because of too few willing reviewers.

91% say that their last paper was improved through peer review; the discussion was the biggest area of improvement.

73% of reviewers (a sub-group) say that technological advances have made it easier to do a thorough job than 5 years ago. Whilst 86% enjoy reviewing, 56% say there is a lack of guidance on how to review; 68% think formal training would help. On average, reviewers turn down two papers a year.

Just 15% of respondents felt that 'formal' peer review could be replaced by usage statistics.

61% of reviewers have rejected an invitation to review an article in the last year, citing lack of expertise as the main reason – this suggests that journals could better identify suitable reviewers.
High expectations: 79% or more of researchers think that peer review should identify the best papers, determine their originality and importance, improve those papers and, though lower scoring, also determine whether research is plagiarised or fraudulent.
While 43% of respondents thought peer review was too slow, 65% of authors (a further sub-group) reported that they had received a decision on their most recent paper within 3 months.
Reviewers want anonymity: 58% would be less likely to review if their signed report was published. 76% favour the double blind system where just the editor knows who the reviewers are.
Understanding of peer review: Researchers agree that peer review is well understood by the scientific community but just 30% believe the public understands the term.
Papers aren't recognising previous work: 81% think peer review should ensure previous research is acknowledged; 54% think it currently does. This reflects current concerns in the research community[5].
Detecting plagiarism and fraud might be a noble aim but is not practical: A majority think peer review should detect plagiarism (81%) or fraud (79%) but fewer (38% and 33%) think it is capable of this.
Reviewers divided over incentives: Just over half of reviewers think receiving a payment in kind (e.g. subscription) would make them more likely to review; 41% wanted payment for reviewing, but this drops to just 2.5% if the author had to cover the cost. Acknowledgement in the journal is the most popular option.

COMMENTS

Robert Campbell, Wiley-Blackwell & Chairman, Publishing Research Consortium: "Most researchers give up time to review papers for no charge. The whole scholarly communication system is dependent on this. Why do they do it? This study helps us to answer the question. And I take heart in the finding that 85% of the around 4000 respondents quite simply do it because they enjoy being able to improve papers. "
Sir Brian Heap, Vice Chairman, European Academies Science Advisory Council: "These latest insights from researchers show why the peer review process continues to be so important – and enjoyable!"

Adrian Mulligan, Associate Director of Research and Academic Relations, Elsevier: "I'm impressed by the vast amount of responses to the study – it tells us just how engaged the scientific community is with peer review. Not only do they greatly value it, but they have a strong desire to enhance it. Elsevier in partnership with editors, plays an active role in developing peer review, and we are moving forward with initiatives such as Crosscheck, a pan-publisher plagiarism detection tool. We are keen to look at other ways to respond to the views raised in this survey."

Irene Hames, Managing Editor, The Plant Journal, Author 'Peer Review and Manuscript Management in Scientific Journals: guidelines for good practice': "It's very important to know what authors and reviewers actually think about the current status of peer review. Too many commentators make broad generalizations that are not evidence based. So I welcome this large-scale survey from Sense about Science. Once again, the importance with which peer review is viewed comes through, with the great majority of researchers believing that without peer review there would be no control in scientific communication. That is not to say there aren't problems – there clearly are, and improvements and innovative solutions are needed. Crucial in this is the need to professionalize this area of activity, which too often is put in the hands of people who may have great academic reputations and research expertise, but no experience of running a peer-review system."

GLOSSARY

Analyze
The ability to analyze and evaluate information.
Annotate
To put notes in a piece of writing in order to explain parts of it.
Argument
A discussion or debate between people with different views, opinions etc.
- *We can win this argument if we present the facts clearly.*
- *The party is involved in an argument over economic policy.*

Article
A paper in an academic journal (see journal)
APA (American Psychological Association)
The world's largest association of psychologists, focused on advancing the creation, communication, and application of psychological knowledge

APA Style
A set of editorial and stylistic guidelines on writing and publishing in the social and behavioral sciences, as detailed in the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association.
Bibliography
A list of the books, articles etc. that someone has used for finding information for a piece of work they have written.
Case study
A descriptive, exploratory, or explanatory analysis of a person, group, or event within the social sciences and life sciences; in the medical sciences, sometimes used interchangeably with case report.
Copyright
The legal right to have control over the work of a writer, artist, musician etc. If you own the copyright on something, it is your **intellectual property**, and other people must pay you to broadcast, publish, or perform it.
Citation
The information which identifies a book or article. The citation for a book usually includes the author, title, place of publication, publisher

and date. The citation for an article includes the author, title of the article, title of the periodical, volume, page(s) and date.

Data

Facts or information used for making calculations or decisions: can be followed by a plural verb in scientific English, in which case the singular is datum.
The analysis was based on data collected in the field.

Database

Generally, data or information that is entered into a computer program and organized by searchable fields for authors, titles, subject headings, etc.

Journal

A magazine containing articles relating to a particular subject or profession. *A scientific journal.* A written record of your experiences in which you write about what happens every day.

Literature review

An account or discussion of what has been published in scholarly journals on a given topic, including substantive findings and theoretical and methodological contributions to the topic; sometimes includes a new interpretation of old material or combines new with old interpretations.

MLA Style Manual

The style manual of the Modern Language Association of America, which offers guidance on writing scholarly texts, documenting research sources, submitting manuscripts to publishers, and dealing with legal issues surrounding publication.

Paragraph

A section of a piece of writing that begins on a new line and contains one or more sentences.

Paraphrase

To express what someone else has said or written using different words, especially in order to make it shorter or clearer.

Plagiarism

The act of copying the words, thoughts, or ideas of another author and using it in one's own work, without citing or crediting the original author.

Quotation
Words from a book, play, film etc that you mention when you are speaking or writing.
A famous quotation from the Bible.

Referencing styles
There are very many different referencing styles used in academic study. They vary by discipline and Schools and departments at Sussex will expect you to use a recommended style. Although most styles require you to include the same information, depending on the style you have to present that information in different ways. On the Foundation Year the following referencing styles are recommended:
- Chicago footnotes for History
- MLA for literature
- Harvard style for MFM, Business and Social Sciences
- APA for Psychology

Research article or Research paper
A scholarly or scientific paper written to compile the findings of a study and published in a journal within a specific academic discipline.

Research question
The central question (or hypothesis) that a researcher seeks to address, which will then define the specific objectives that the study will address.

Theoretical
Based on theories or ideas instead of on practical experience; relating to theories or ideas.
The course is designed to be practical rather than theoretical.

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RESEARCH WRITING

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