Современный
Гуманитарный
Университет

Дистанционное образование

Фамилия, имя, отчество _____
Факультет _____
Номер контракта _____

АНГЛИЙСКИЙ ЯЗЫК

АННОТИРОВАНИЕ И РЕФЕРИРОВАНИЕ

ЮНИТА 1

МОСКВА 1999

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Рекомендовано Министерством общего и профессионального образования Российской Федерации в качестве учебного пособия для студентов высших учебных заведений

АНГЛИЙСКИЙ ЯЗЫК

АННОТИРОВАНИЕ И РЕФЕРИРОВАНИЕ

Юнита 1. Работа с информацией. Реферирование.
Юнита 2. Написание эссе. Аргументация.

ЮНИТА 1

Рассматриваются проблемы, связанные с работой над информацией и реферирования текстов.

Для студентов факультета лингвистики СГУ

Юнита соответствует профессиональной образовательной программе №1

ОГЛАВЛЕНИЕ

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* Глоссарий расположен в середине учебного пособия и предназначен для самостоятельного заучивания новых понятий.

ТЕМАТИЧЕСКИЙ ПЛАН

Writing as a process. Aspects of writing.

Working with information: finding information, catalogue cards, source cards, parts of a book and the information they contain.

Taking and making notes: criteria for good notes, note-cards, types and patterns of notes.

Writing a summary: working with one source of information.

Writing a definition: types, methods, grammar in writings.

Writing a classification: methods, principles, grammar in writing.

Reporting: types of reports, structure of a report, working out a tree diagram.

Writing a report.

Сопровождается заданиями и упраженениями.

ЛИТЕРАТУРА

Базовый учебник

1. Аракин В. Д. Практический курс английского языка, М., 1989.

2. Braas, Geest, Linden, Ogg, Pas, *Reporting*, Utrecht, 1998.

3. Coe, N., Ernest, P., Rycroft, R*., Writing Skills*, Cambridge, 1996. (Student's Book + Teacher's Book)

4. Cutts, M., *The Plain English Guide*, Oxford, 1997.

5. Hamp-Lyons, L., Heasley, B., *Study Writing*, Cambridge, 1997.

6. Waters, A., Waters, M., *Study Tasks in English*, Cambridge, 1995. (Student's Book + Teacher's Book).

ПЕРЕЧЕНЬ УМЕНИЙ

№ п/п	Умение	Алгоритм
1.	Составление формального определения (formal definition) из набора слов.	1. Прочитайте набор слов. 2. Вспомните основную структуру формального определения. 3. Определите, какое из перечисленных слов соответствует каждой части формального определения. 4. Расположите слова в порядке, соответствующем структуре формального определения.
2.	Составление naming definition из formal definition.	1. Прочитайте формальное определение. 2. Определите структуру формального определения. 3. Вспомните структуру naming definition. 4. Определите части формального определения, соответствующие частям naming definition. 5. Расположите слова (части формального определения) в порядке, соответствующем структуре naming definition.
3.	Составление расширенного определения к формальному	1. Прочитайте формальное определение. 2. Вспомните структуру, используемую для расширения формального определения. 3. Составьте предложение в соответствии со второй частью структуры, описывающей, каким образом может быть использовано понятие формального определения. 4. Добавьте составленное предложение к формальному определению.

ПРИМЕРЫ ВЫПОЛНЕНИЯ УПРАЖНЕНИЙ НА УМЕНИЯ

1. *Составьте формальное определение из набора слов:* figure, is a, which has four equal sides and four right angles, a square.

1. Figure, is a, which has four equal sides and four right angles, a square.

2. (*Concept*) is a {form of, species of, etc.} (*class*) which (*special feature(s)*).

3. Concept - a square
Class - a figure
Special feature - has four equal sides and four right angles.

4. A square is a figure, which has four equal sides and four right angles.

2. *Составьте naming definition из formal definition:* a dentist is a person who takes care of people's teeth.

1. A dentist is a person who takes care of people's teeth.
2. Concept - a dentist
Class - a person
Special feature - takes care of people's teeth.
3. (*Class*) {who, which} (*special feature(s)*) is {called, known as, etc.} (*concept*).
4. Class - a person
Special feature - takes care of people's teeth
Concept - a dentist
5. A person who takes care of people's teeth is a dentist.

3. *Составьте расширенное определение к формальному:* Aluminum is a metal which is light in weight.
1. Aluminum is a metal which is light in weight.
2. *Definition* {Therefore, Consequently, As a result} *it is used / one of its main uses is.*
3. Therefore, it is used in the manufacture of aircraft.
4. Aluminum is a metal which is light in weight. Therefore, it is used in the manufacture of aircraft.

1. WRITING

It is natural to think of writing for study purposes in terms of the finished product, i.e. the actual words on the page. However, in reality, writing is first and foremost a process. The final result is only one of several stages. It is the "invisible" steps which come before this which hold the keys to successful writing.

YOU AS A WRITER

'THE HARDEST PART IS GETTING STARTED.'

Writing is a complex process. However, probably the most important element is the writer, i.e. you! In other words, what you know about writing and what your attitude to writing is will have a strong effect on how well you write. Therefore, before looking in detail at how to construct a piece of writing, it makes sense first of all to find out as much as possible about yourself as a writer.

Exercise 1.

Writing is made up of a large number of skills. Which ones have you already learned? Which ones do you need to develop further?

a) *Look at the list of "academic writing skills" below. With two or three other students, discuss what you think each of them involves. Then check your ideas with your teacher.*

ACADEMIC WRITING SKILLS	IMPORTANCE	LEVEL	SCORE
1. making an outline			
2. narrowing down the topic			
3. reading around the topic			
4. selecting relevant ideas			
5. ordering ideas logically			
6. making headings, subheadings, etc.			
7. describing tables, charts and diagrams			
8. writing an introduction			
9. writing a conclusion			
10. constructing a bibliography			
11. including references			

ACADEMIC WRITING SKILLS	IMPORTANCE	LEVEL	SCORE
12. proof-reading			
13. keeping the audience in mind			
14. getting the tone right			
15. being concise			
16. sticking to the point			
17. being clear			
18. quoting			
19. summarising			
20. paraphrasing			
21. spelling correctly			
22. using appropriate vocabulary			
23. using correct grammar			
24. punctuating correctly			

b) *Decide how important you feel each of the skills is for you in your studies. Give each of them a number out of 5 : 5 = very important, 1 = not very important.*

c) *For all the skills you feel are the most important ones (those you rated 5 or 4), assess your present level out of 5 : 5 = I have mastered this skill, 1 = I don't know how to do this.*

d) *For each skill, subtract the score for your level from the score for importance. Skills with a result of 4 or 3 are the ones you need to concentrate on most. You will need to find out more about them either by working through this and the next unit or by looking them up in the index.*

2. FINDING INFORMATION

Study Tasks

An important feature of further and higher education is that you are expected to find much of the information you need by yourself. This means you need to be able to use study resources such as libraries and books as independently as possible.

FINDING YOUR WAY AROUND THE LIBRARY

The first step in making good use of a library is to find out what it contains. In most cases there is a great deal more than just textbooks. All of these other items are also vital aids for successful study.

Exercise 2.

Most English-speaking libraries use one of two systems for arranging items in the library:

- a decimal system in which items on a specific topic have the same number. For example, all the items on bees would be located together. Items are filed on the shelves numerically.

- an alphabetical (or mixed letter and number) system in which items are arranged alphabetically, with items on a related subject area located together. Under this system, a book on the biology of the bee would not be located with a book on bee-keeping, as one is a biology book and the other is an agricultural one. Larger libraries tend to use variations of this approach.

With two or three other students, discuss how the books are arranged in your library or in ones that you have used. Have you usually been able to find the book you need? Have you been able to locate related books by looking at those nearby? What kinds of problems have you had, if any?

Exercise 3.

The card catalogue tells where all the books in the library are located. In many libraries there are at least three cards for each book - a title card, an author card, and a subject card. Title cards are alphabetised by the title, author cards by the author, and subject cards by the subject. In many libraries these cards are mixed together and then alphabetised. For example, The Hobbit by J.R.R. Tolkien may be located in the card catalogue under Hobbit (The), Tolkien, or Fairy Tales.

1

JSea.MN

Hutton, Jean
Reed, Bruce

Freedom to study: requirements of overseas students in the UK: by B. Reed, Jean Hutton and John Bazalgette.

Overseas Students Trust. 1978. 171p
ISBN OX 50093770.

2

TQH

History of Accounting
Scovell, Clinton H.

Interest as a cost. (History of Accounting)

Arno. 1976. 254p

ISBN 0 405 07565 0

4

YHL

Ford, Boris, ed.

From Dickens to Hardy. (Pelican Guide to English Literature, 6)

Penguin. 1958. 517p
ISBN 014 020413 X
4 copies.

3

RMOW

Female Soldiers
Goldmen, Nancy L. ed.

Female soldiers: combatants or non-combatants? (Contributions in women's studies, 33)

Greenwood Press.1982.307p.
ISBN OX 0313 23117 6

Use the sample cards opposite to answer these questions.

1. Card 1 is an author card. How many authors does the book have? Who are they? What is the name of the book? Where is it located in the library?

---

2. Card 2 is a subject card. What is the subject of the book? What is the title of the book? Who wrote the book? Where is it located?

---

3. Card 3 is a title card. What is the title? Is the author given? Why not? Who published this book? Where is it located in the library?

4. Look at Card 4. Who edited From Dickens to Hardy? What is its ISBN? What series of books is it part of? When was it published?

Most academic books have certain features in common. You need to know what these are and how to use them. It can save you a lot of time and worry.

Exercise 4. The title page.

Peter E. Murphy

Tourism

A community approach

METHUEN
New York and Lond

Look at the title page opposite and locate these parts of the book.
a) title of book

b) subtitle of book

c) author

d) publisher

e) place of publication

f) ISBN

Exercise 5. The table of contents.

The table of contents can help you decide whether a book has the information you need and, if it does, where it is likely to be found.

a) *You are writing a project on tourism and need to locate information on the topics which follow. You saw Tourism by Peter Murphy in the library and thought it might be useful. Use its table of contents to determine whether the following information is likely to be in the book, and, if it is, where.*

1. planning tourism
2. local places of interest for tourists in Scotland
3. economic benefits of tourism
4. tourism in the 1960s
5. social changes resulting from tourism
6. local decision making
7. long-term financial loss
8. political influences of tourism
9. what makes a good holiday
10. influence on marine life of large-scale seaside hotels

Contents

b) *With two or three other students, compare your answers. Are there any differences? Justify your answer.*

c) *Discuss when and how you usually use the table of contents.*

Exercise 6. The index.
The index is useful if you are looking for specific details or information. The information is always listed alphabetically at the back of the book.

In your essay on tourism, you need specific information on the following questions:

1. What are the effects of population growth on tourism?
2. Are safari parks an effective use of land resources?
3. What is REKA?
4. What examples are there of parks improving the tourist industry?
5. How does train travel affect tourism?
6. What is the difference between recreation and play?
7. How can different occupations influence the tourist trade?
8. How can outdoor recreation be educational?
9. How do package tours affect the over 60s?
10. How have the Olympic Games affected tourism?

From: Murphy, P. E. Tourism: A Community Approach. *Methuen, 1985.*

From: Cheek, N. H. and Burch, W. R. The Social Organisation of Leisure in Human Society. *Harper and Son, 1976.*

a) *Often the hardest part of using an index is thinking of the word to look up in the index. What words could you look up in an index in order to find the answers you need to the questions above?*

---

b) *With two or three other students, compare the lists of word headings you made. Are there any differences?*

c) Now, use the excerpts, opposite and above, from indexes from two books on tourism to locate where the answers might be found. Compare your answers. *Which pages are the most likely?*

d) *Discuss when you usually use an index, how you tend to use it and any problems you may have had.*

Exercise 7. Getting the most out of a book.
One problem for foreign students studying in English is how to cope with
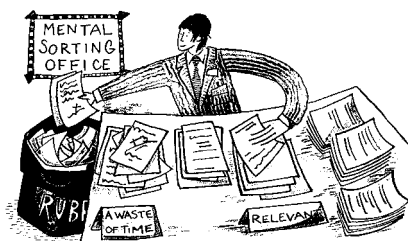
the vast amount of reading material. You will need to learn how to determine quickly whether or not a book has the information you need and where it is located. Otherwise, you may find yourself reading a whole chapter or book, whereas you may have needed to read only a few pages. In your own language, this may have been interesting, and you may have had the time. This is unlikely to be the case in English.

a) *Match the part of the book with the kind of information it contains. Some may have more than one answer.*

1. the preface	a) when the book was published
2. title page	b) the publisher
3. back of the title page	c) what the book is generally about
4. table of contents	d) data that supports the information
5. index	in the book
6. appendices	e) whether or not a specific topic is in
7. introduction	the book
8. back cover "blurb"	f) the point of view of the author
	g) the general topics covered in the book

h) title and author
i) where the book was published

1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8	

b) *With two or three other students, make sure you know what is the full range of information that there can be in each part. The list above is not comprehensive.*

Exercise 8.
In addition to textbooks, journals are widely used in further and higher education as a further source of essential information. Journals are academic and professional magazines on specific subjects. They may also be referred to as serials or periodicals in some libraries.

Think about the journals you have read or seen in libraries and elsewhere. Then look at the statements below. Which statements apply primarily to textbooks; to journals; to both? With two or three other students, compare your answers.

1. an up-to-date source of material _____
2. detailed reports on research _____
3. reviews of published material _____
4. an on-going debate of a specific issue _____
5. a brief explanation or summary of a topic or idea _____
6. a bibliography of related information _____
7. extensive, developed argument or idea drawing on a variety of resources
_____
8. a variety of opinions on a topic _____
9. a detailed analysis of a topic _____

Exercise 9. A review of the research and thinking on a topic.
The reference section of a library contains a variety of books that cannot usually be taken from the library. These books contain a wide range of facts and statistical data, bibliographies, maps, and similar information. In addition, in larger libraries, reference material on specific subjects is located throughout the library. It is a good idea to look at what reference material is available in the library you use. It can save you a lot of searching at a later date.

a) *What kinds of information are in the following references? Be specific. Remember that many references provide a wide variety of information. It would be helpful to visit the library for this task.*
1. Atlas
_____
2. Dictionary

_____

3. Encyclopaedia

_____

4. Books in Print

_____

5. Thesaurus

_____

b) *What other references are in your library? List four or five you feel might be useful to you in your studies.*

_____
_____

Exercise 10. Writing source cards.
Once you have found the information you need, it is helpful to keep an accurate record of where you found it. It is not uncommon to find students frantically trying to find the reference for the information they used in some assignment or essay (all the books and articles used must be accurately listed in the bibliography at the end of the work).

One way to keep a record of your sources is to put them on small filing cards (approximately 8 cm by 12 cm). This makes it easy to select and alphabetise the references you have actually used - and without having to sort through your notes, teacher handouts and other bits of paper, or having to go back to the library to search for the actual reference.

Source cards such as these are quite different from notes, as source cards only contain bibliographic information, whereas notes contain the information obtained from the source.

- Source cards are similar to catalogue cards: you may wish to annotate the source card with a brief description of what the source is about and how useful it may be.
- Notes contain the detailed information found in the source and may take the form of notes written on cards, photocopies, extended notes on lined paper, and so on. You will need to write out the source on each set of notes unless you develop a card code that serves the same purpose. Remember that each set of notes should also have the page number that the information was taken from.

Look at the two sample source cards. With two or three other students, discuss:
1. What information is given (or omitted) on each card, and why?

_____
_____

2. What system do you use at the moment? Have you had any problems with it?

_____

_____

3. Do you think you would find using cards for source references helpful? Why or why not?

_____

_____

_____

card codes

John K. Walton ③
The English Resort: A Social
History 1750-1914
Leicester Univ. Press.
1983   KDQUJ
            ea3w
            pop./oan

Stanley Parker ⑥
The Sociology of Leisure
George, Allen & Unwin Ltd
London
1976
            KDQU
            P
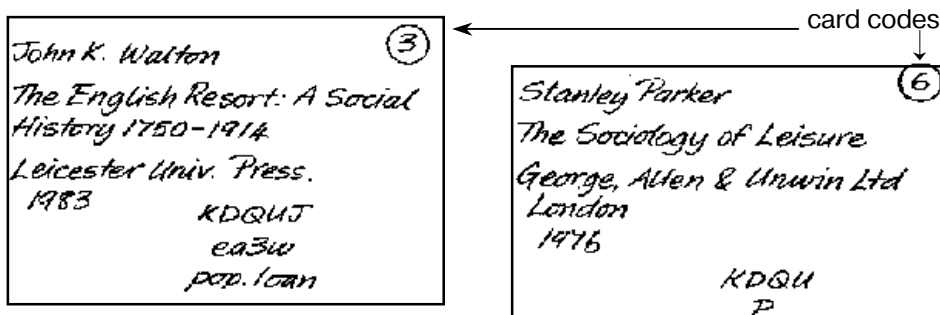
READING BIBLIOGRAPHIC REFERENCES AND NOTES

The bibliography is a list of all the references the author used in writing the book or article. Sometimes this information is located in a section headed "notes" or "references". This information can be helpful in indicating additional sources of information that you may wish to refer to. For example, a book may briefly refer to someone's work that you would like to know more about. The bibliography will give the original source and perhaps other relevant sources on the topic.

Brownrigg, M. and Greig, M.A. (1976) Tourism and Regional Development. *Fraser of Allander Institute Speculative Papers, 5. Glasgow, Fraser of Allander Institute.*

Bryan, A. (1973) *Much* Is Taken. Much Remains. *North Scituate, Mass., Duxbury Press.*

Bryan, W.R. (1981) "Improved mileage, discretionary income, and travel for pleasure." Journal of Travel Research, *20, 28-9.*

Bryden, J.M. (1973) Tourism and Development. *Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.*

Buck, R.C. (1977) "Making good business better: a second look at staged tourist attractions." Journal of Travel Research, *13, 3, 30-2.*

Buck, R.C. and Alleman, T. (1979) "Tourist enterprise concentration and old order Amish survival: explorations in productive coexistence." Journal of Travel Research, *13, 1. 15-20.*

Budowski, G. (1977) "Tourism and conservation: conflict, coexistence and symbiosis," Parks. *1, 3-6.*

Burde, J.H. and Lenzini, J. (1980) "Timber harvest and aesthetic quality: can they coexist?," in Havens, D.E., Shafer, E.L., and Rovelstad, J.M. (eds) Tourism Planning and Development Issues. *Washington, DC, George Washington University Press, 121-32.*

Burkart, A.J. and Medlik, S. (1974) Tourism: Past. Present and Future. *London. Heinemann.*

Burt. J. and MacKinnon, W.C. (1977) "Convention centres - their development and outlook." Tourism Development: Approaches for the Future. *Proceedings of The Travel Research Association, Canadian Chapter. Ottawa, 137-55.*

Chadwick, G. (1971) A Systems View of Planning, *London, Pergamon.*

Chadwick, R.A. (1981) "Some notes on the geography of tourism: a comment." Canadian Geographer. *25. 191-7.*

University of New England.

Coppock, J.T. (1977a) "Second homes in perspective." in Coppock, J.T. (ed) Second Homes: Curse or Blessing?. *Oxford, Pergamon, 1-15.*
Coppock, J.T. (1977b) "Issues and conflicts." in Coppock, J.T. (ed) Second Homes: Curse or Blessing?. *Oxford, Pergamon, 195-215.* Coppock, J.T. and Rogers, A.W. (1975) "Too many Americans out in the wilderness." Geographical *Magazine. 47. 8. 508-13.* Coppock, J.T. and Sewell, W.R.D. (eds) (1977) Citizen Participation in Planning. *Chichester, Sussex, John Wiley.*

Corsi, T.M. and Harvey, M.E. (1979) Changes in vacation travel in response to motor fuel shortages and higher prices. Journal of Travel Research, *17,4. 7-11.*

Cosgrove, I. and Jackson, R. (1972) *The* Geography of Recreation and Leisure. *London, Hutchinson.* Countryside Commission (1972) The Goyt Valley Traffic Experiment. *London, Countryside Commission. Countryside Commission (1974)* farm Recreation and Tourism. *London, HMSO. Countryside Commission (1976) The* Lake District Upland Management Experiment. *London, HMSO.*

Cowan, G. (1977) "Cultural impact of tourism with particular reference to the Cook Islands." Finney, B.R. and Watson, K.A. (eds) A New Kind of Sugar. *Santa Cruz, Calif., Center for South Pacific Studies, University of Santa Cruz, 79-85.* Cox, D.F. (1964) "Clues for advertising strategies." in Dexter, L.A. and White, D.M. (eds) People Society.

Cybriwsky, R.A. (1970) "Patterns of

mother tongue retention among several selected ethnic groups in western Canada." Papers in Geography 5. *University Park, Penn., Department of Geography, Pennsylvania State University.*

D'Amore, L. (1983) "Guidelines to planning harmony with the host community." in Murphy, P.E. (ed.) Tourism in Canada: Selected Issues and Options. *Victoria, BC. University of Victoria, Western Geographical Series 21. 135-59.*

Dann, G. (1976) "The holiday was simply fantastic." Tourist Review, *31, 3, 19-23.*

Darlington, J.W. (1981) "Railroads and the evolution of the Catskill Mountain resort area, 1870-1920." The Impact of Transport Technology on Tourism Landscapes *(Hugill, P.J., organizer), papers presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association of American Geographers. Los Angeles, 7-12.*

Dartington Amenity Research Trust (1974) Farm Recreation and Tourism in England and Wales. *Countryside Commission Paper 83. London. HMSO.*

Dasmann, R.r. (1973) Classification and Use of Protected Natural and Cultural Areas, *IUCN Occasional Paper 4.*

Davidson, A.T. (1979) "Public participation in national park planning: reply." Canadian Geographer, *23, 176-9.*

Davis, W.A. (1981) "The slipways are loaded with a new wave of ships." Vancouver Sun. October 24.

Dearden, P. (1983) "Tourism and the resource base." in Murphy, P.E. (ed.) Tourism in Canada: Selected Issues and Options. *Victoria BC, University of Victoria, Western Geographical Series 21, 75-93.*

Exercise 11. Books.

a) *Answer the following questions which refer to several books listed in the bibliography extracts above.*

1. What is the name of the book A. Bryan wrote?

_____

2. When was Much is Taken, Much Remains written?

_____

3. What is the name of the publisher of Much is Taken, Much Remains?

_____

4. Where was Much is Taken, Much Remains published?

_____

5. What book did J. M. Bryden write?

_____

6. What edition of the book by F. S. Chapin was used?

_____

7. Where was the book by Burkart and Medlik published?

_____

8. When was the book edited by Coppock and Sewell published?

_____

b) *With two or three other students decide how the following information is indicated, e.g. location, variety of type, punctuation.*
1. the name of the author(s)
2. publisher
3. date of publication
4. place of publication
5. two authors
6. if the book is an edited collection of articles

Exercise 12. Articles in journals.
Look at the article by R. C. Buck. It was printed in the Journal of Travel Research, Volume 13, Number 3, pages 30 to 32. The words volume, issue, and pages have been omitted.

Answer the following questions about the journals in the bibliography extracts opposite.
1. When did S. Chasis write the article about coastal zone management?

_____

2. What volume of the journal of American Planning Association did Chasis' article appear in? On what pages? _____

_____

3. What is the name of the article by Coppock and Rogers?

_____

4. Where can you find the article by Coppock and Rogers?

_____

5. In what issue of the Tourist Review did G. Dann write an article about good holidays? _____

_____

b) *With two or three other students decide how the following information was indicated.*

1. the name of the article
2. the name of the journal
3. the year the article was published
4. the volume of the journal it appears in
5. the page numbers it is printed on

Exercise 13. Referring to other sources of information.

Sources often include books of collected articles, pamphlets and papers published by universities or the government, and notes from conferences.

a) *What kind of publication is being referred to in each of the references to these authors?*

1. J.T. Coppock (1977a) _____
2. Countryside Commission (1974) _____
3. R.A. Cybriwsky (1970) _____
4. W.A.Davis (1981) _____
5. G. Cowan (1977) _____

b) *With two or three other students, discuss how you decided what kind of source was being referred to. How can you tell whether a book, journal, collection of articles, or some other publication is being referred to?*

Exercise 14. Varieties of bibliographies.

Not all bibliographies are written in the same way. Different authors and publishers present the information in bibliographies in different formats. You will need to be able to find information in a variety of formats. Most bibliographies are arranged alphabetically, by author.

Study the bibliographic excerpts below. With two or three other students, list what the bibliographies have in common and how they are different.

Monkin, D. "Work and Leisure in a Zero-Growth Society" paper presented at 8st Annual Convention Anencon Psychology Association. Montreal, 1973.

Morrell, J. G., Business Forecasting for Finance and Industry *(London, Gower Press, 1969)*

Ohermeyer, C. "Final Observations", in M. Kaplan and P. Boysseman, eds, Technology, Human Values and Leisure *(Nashville, Abingdon Press, 1971),* p. 222.

Clarke, J. and Critcher, C. (1985) The Devil Makes Work: Leisure in Capitalist Britain, *London, Macmillan. Yeo, E. and Yeo, S. (1981) "Ways of Seeing: Control and Leisure versus Class and Struggle" in Yeo, E. and Yeo, S. (eds)* Popular Culture and Class Conflict 1890-1914: Explorations in History of Labour and Leisure *Brighton, Harvester* Press.

Collins, L. R. (1978) «Review of hosts and quests: an anthropology of tourism» Annals of Tourism Research, 5: 278-80.

Rojek, Chris (1985) Capitalism and Leisure Theory *Tavistock*

Wrong, D. (1977) Skeptical Sociology *Heinemann*

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Exercise 15. Organising a bibliography.

All the sources referred to in an essay or project must be listed in the bibliography. In addition, you need to include those books which you have read and used ideas from in your writing. You do not need to include all the books on the topic you are writing about.

Answer these questions.

1. How are the sources generally arranged?
_____

2. If an author writes two articles in the same year, how are they noted?
_____

3. If an author writes two articles in different years, which comes first?
_____

4. If a book has two authors, which generally comes first?
_____

5. If there is no author (e.g. it is written by a commission or some other body), where is it listed? _____
_____

3. TAKING AND MAKING NOTES

Taking and making notes is a part of every student's life. This does not mean that students are like secretaries, writing down every word they hear or read. Note-taking involves actively deciding what to note, how it should be noted, and later, how the notes are to be used.

WHAT MAKES GOOD NOTES?

Good notes help you to study more effectively by cutting down the amount of information in English you need to handle. They also help you to think actively about what you are reading or listening to.

Exercise 16.

What are notes for? With two or three other students, discuss what you think the uses of note-taking are. How can notes help your studying while you are taking them? What can they be used for after you have taken them?

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Exercise 17. What should good notes be like?

a) *With two or three other students, think about when you have taken effective notes (e.g. when you didn't have to borrow someone else's later on!). What were the features that made them effective?*

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b) *Compare your results with the list of characteristics of good notes. Were your ideas similar? Are there any differences?*

c) *Which aspects of good notes have you already mastered? Which aspects do you need to improve?*

Exercise 18. *Compare your results on what good notes are.*

1. They are accurate.

2. They contain the essential information only: they are not too detailed, nor too brief.

3. They show the overall organisation of ideas clearly.

4. They are concise, i.e. they use abbreviations and other techniques for shortening information whenever possible.

5. They help you listen or read more successfully.

6. You can use them effectively later on, e.g. for exam revision.

7. They include follow-up points, i.e. your own comments on or reaction to ideas.

Exercise 19.

Good notes need to be organised appropriately. There are two main methods for this:

1. *linear* notes: the topic is outlined one point after another, using numbers and letters to organise information in order of importance, sequence, etc. Important features may include indentation, spacing, numbering and/or lettering, ans so on.

2. *pattern* notes: the shape of the notes shows how the main ideas are related and reflects the organisation of the information. Notes of this kind take the form of flow charts, diagrams, spider-like drawings and so on. They include circles, arrows, lines, boxes, etc.

Copy the table that follows and complete it using the examples of notes which follow. What kind of information is being noted in each? What are the important features of each?

example	kind of note	information being recorded	main features
a)	linear and pattern	3 main ideas about how languages originated	1. indentations 2. tree diagrams 3. symbols 4. abbreviations 5. headings

a) **Origin of language**
Was there ever an original language?
- 3 main views

only one original
- **monogenesis** ~~is there was once one~~ / *language* ® *migration, etc.* ® *many languages, i. e.:*

Original language

(L = language)
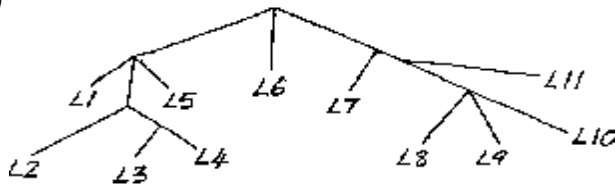
- **polygenesis**: i. e. several different original langs at the same time

Original language
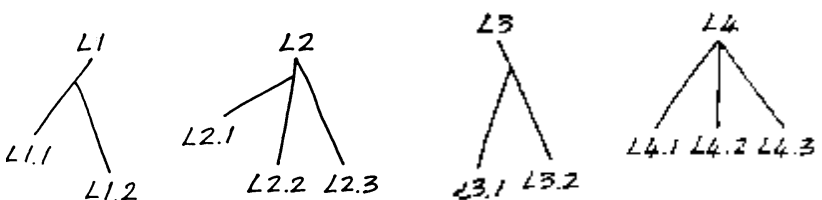
-**third possibility**: several original languages, but only one main family extant (i.e. others now extinct)

Original language

b) Electromagnetic spectrum

radio waves grouped in bands each band has special use

carries messages & pictures at speed of light

TV/radio waves

length = between infra-red & radio waves

microwaves

used in microwave ovens

radar uses microwaves: waves fired at distant object → time to return → distance

given off by e.g. uranium

shortest e-m waves

Gamma rays (shortest)

dangerous (damage body cells)

electromagnetic spectrum

longer wavelength than red light

infra-red radiation

invisible but felt as heat

discovered by Röntgen (1895)

too much → burns skin

visible light

X-rays

produced

ultra-violet waves

produced by firing electron beam at target e.g. tungsten

rays pass through less dense parts of body e.g. bone → shows as shadow

visible to most insects, but not humans

mostly from sun: ozone layer absorbs

c) Pros & cons of whaling
- Norway & Japan want annual quota so can kill minke whales (smallest kind)

For	Against
- numbers are increasing → low quota would not endanger species - some whales eat fish → threaten income of fishermen - too many small whales reduce the food needed by larger whales - whales are no more intelligent than other animals which can be killed - whaling part of traditional national way of life of some countries such as Norway & Japan → foreign interference unjustifeid	- overfishing is main reason for lower quantities of fish make - whales make more money alive → increasing income from whale watching by tourists - whales live longer than humans, live in families, are specialised and intelligent animals; emotional part of brain well-developed - methods of killing are cruel (can take 30 mins. to die) - groups of whales migrate around the world; are: not property of any single nation - lack of scientific evidence about whether numbers of whales are really increasing - just because there is a tradition of whaling in a country does not justify it

d) Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs
- Maslow identified number of basic human needs
- Seen as being in a hierarchy, i. e., lower ones must be satisfied before individual motivated by higher ones, viz:

Type of need	Example
Self-realisation	- Achievement - Psychological growth
↑	
Ego	- Station - Respect - Prestige
↑	
Social	- Friendship, group acceptance - Love
↑	
Security	- Freedom from danger - Freedom from want
↑	
Physiological	- Food, drink, shelter, sex, warmth, physical
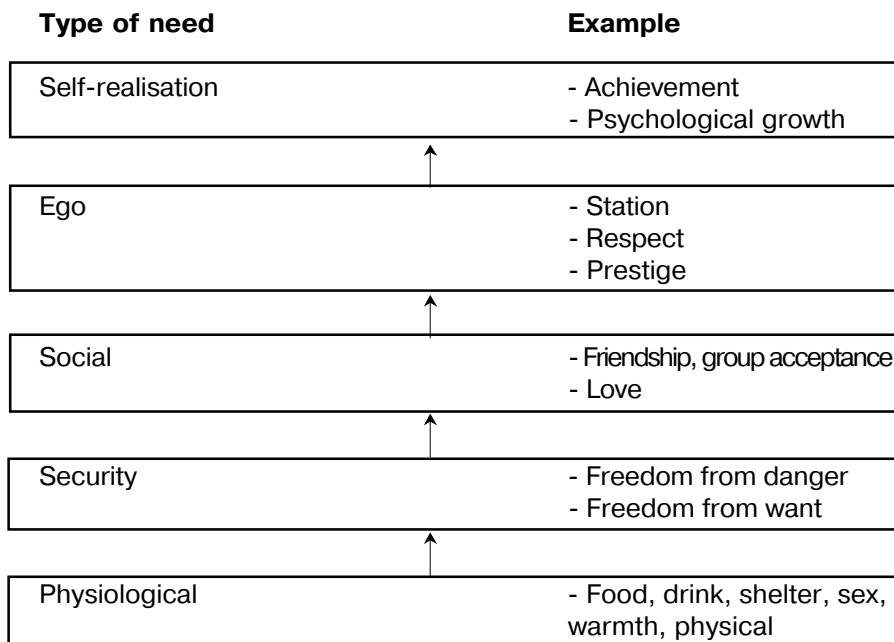
e) Causes of the collapse of communism in Europe & S. Union
- complicated set of reasons why comm. collapsed in E. & S. U.

1. Political
- Gorbachev in S. U. (1985) encouraged public criticism (glasnost) ® emerge rise of political opposition & independence movements in e. g. Baltics.
- effect also felt in E. E.

2. Economic
- perhaps largest single factor
- communist parties failed in main aim, i. e., improve living standards of whole pop. S. U.
- centralised economy ® prices set by govt.
® in 20s and 30s (Stalin) state ownership of most companies, «collectivisation» of farms
® produced industrialisation, full employment, etc. but no long-term development, lack of incentives to innovate

- diff. industries concentrated in diff. areas (e. g. Ukraine: iron, steel, coal, etc.) ® high cost of transporting raw mats
- low agric. productivity & high transport costs
- focus on military production ® fewer resources for other areas
- in 1980s, communist began to spend more on imports than earned from exports; also, ban by West on trading in new technology
- prices of food and consumer goods rose faster than wages
- from 1987, Gorbachev opened up economy to international & private trade

Exercise 20.

Notes must be significantly shorter than the original. Thus, abbreviations and symbols should be used whenever possible.

a) *Look at the abbreviations used in the notes in Exercise 19. What do they stand for?*

_____
_____
_____
_____

b) *Make abbreviations or symbols for the following:*

1. equal to _____   8 therefore _____
2. approximately _____   9. that is to say _____
3. does not equal _____   10. this is important_____
4. especially _____   11. greater than _____
5. for example _____   12. degrees _____
6. compare _____   13. as a result _____
7. century _____   14. less than _____
15. because _____   18. reference _____
16. number _____   19. similar to _____
17. equivalent to _____   20. and _____

c) *What other abbreviations and symbols do you know? What do they mean?*

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Exercise 21.
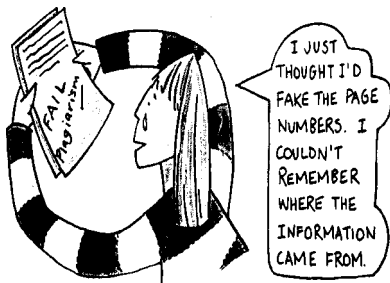
A final note on note-taking! We advise you always to write down where your notes have been taken from. It will save you hours of searching for some detail you need for your work or bibliography. In lecture notes, make sure you note the name of anyone quoted and where the quote has been taken from. You can then find it if you wish to make more detailed use of the information.

Look at the notes that follow. Which have adequately noted where the information can be found? List the items you think are essential to a good reference note.

1. "Black Holes" — Journal of Physical Sciences, 3/6
2. Hoggart on D. H. Lawrence (BBC), audio tape 53
3. Kennedy Macroeconomics (1985)
4. Moore Greenhouse Effect, (2nd edition) p 35-38

_____

TAKING NOTES WHEN READING

An important part of effective reading for study purposes is the ability to take concise, precise notes. This means asking yourself why you are taking the notes (for an essay, exam, background information, ...), what is the best method to use for the information (outline, flow chart, spidergraph, linear notes, ...) and what method is most convenient for yourself.

Exercise 22.

Albert has been making notes on the article on "Global Warming" (opposite) for his Environmental Sciences course.

a) *Evaluate Albert's notes. Discuss your findings with two or three other students.*

Greenhouse effect
great threat - need solution: first causes and effects
1. CO_2 from burning forests and oil and coal; chlorofluorocarbons 23%?
24 bill. tons carbon di. every year
×2 = 1740
20 C
temperature > $1/20$
      oceans > 10 cms
kettle boils 30 years Present g.w. thus from 60s
2030 = +1.3   2070 = +3
effects: flooding in Egypt and on islands (my country)
b) less rain > smaller harvests (20%)
c) Britain warmer
CO_2 in ice and sea > escape > more warming (positive feedback!)

b) *With two or three other students, make any improvements in Albert's notes that you feel are necessary.*

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Exercise 23.
It is easy for notes to become more detailed than they need to be. One technique for coping with this problem is to highlight (or underline) the most important information or ideas in your notes. This technique can also be used with your own books and photocopies, and this helps to cut down on note-taking as well.

a) *Take your notes on the passage «Global Warming - The Green house Effect». Use whatever method of note-taking you feel is the most suitable and comfortable for you.*

Global Warming - The Greenhouse Effect

It is generally agreed that the greatest threat facing the world today is the warming up of the earth's atmosphere, commonly called global warming or the greenhouse effect. It is the
5 world's biggest problem because it is truly a world-wide problem. It involves everything in the world, from the North to the South Poles, from the bottom of the oceans to the edge of the atmosphere. We
10 therefore obviously need to find a solution to it. But first of all, we need to be clear about what it is that causes the greenhouse effect, and what the likely future consequences of global warming will be, if it is allowed to go on
15 happening unchecked. This should help us to see more clearly why we need to do something about it, and what we might do.

First, then, the causes. Basically, we have been producing too many of the gases which, when
20 they are released into the earth's atmosphere, trap heat, and thus raise its temperature. There are several gases involved, but the main ones are carbon dioxide and chlorofluorocarbons - often called
25 CFCs. The carbon dioxide comes from burning forests and from burning fossil fuels such as oil and coal. The CFCs are given off by refrigerators and air-conditioning systems. Carbon dioxide is to blame for 56% of the greenhouse effect,
30 and CFCs for 23%.

We now dump 24 billion tonnes of carbon dioxide into the atmosphere every year. If this figure were to double, the average
35 global temperature could go up between 1 to 4 degrees C. That may not sound like much, but a two degree rise would make the world hotter than it has ever been in human history. Unfortunately, to make matters worse, the
40 warming effect may not make itself apparent until it is too late. The temperature of the world has risen by more than half a degree this century, and the oceans have risen by at least 10 cms. But just as it takes time for a kettle of water to boil, so it may have taken
45 30 years or so for the oceans to swell. This means that the global warming we are experiencing now is only a result of the carbon dioxide and other gases we have
50 dumped into the atmosphere up to the 1960s. Since then, our use of fossil fuels has increased rapidly. In other words, the damage may have already been done. Temperatures are expected to increase by at least 1.3°C by
55 2030, and 3°C by the year 2070.

What will such rises in global temperature mean for the peoples of the world? A warmer climate will increase sea levels. In Western Europe, the Dutch and the people in some eastern parts
60 of England will have to build more effective sea defences. But the

effects will be much greater for the developing countries. Egypt will lose land in the Nile Delta, a food producing area. Millions of people

65 could lose their homes in the Ganges Delta of India and Bangladesh. The same is likely to happen to the dwellers on the hundreds of low-lying islands in the Pacific and Indian oceans.

70 Another effect will be to threaten food supplies. There have been reports which show that if the world becomes warmer and drier, crop harvests in parts of Europe, North America, North Africa and the southern CIS will be cut. The famine problem in

75 northern Africa will also worsen, since rainfall in the Sahara and beyond will fall by 20%.

But rising seas and falling harvests will only be the start. The world will not necessarily become warmer at the same rate

80 everywhere. The tropics could still experience the same temperatures, but the poles could heat up by an extra 10 or 12 degrees. This could cause changes in the routes of the ocean currents, such as the Gulf Stream, which warms Britain. This

85 could have a drastic effect on the climate of the countries affected.

Also, the land between the temperate zones and the North Pole area contains a lot of carbon dioxide, which, at present, cannot

90 escape because it is frozen. If this region warms up, however, the gas will escape into the atmosphere, warming it still further. Another similar effect may take place as the seas become warmer. Cold seas dissolve carbon; warm seas

95 release it. At present, more carbon is stored by the seas than released. But suppose warmer seas started giving off more carbon than they absorb? This is called positive feedback - each

100 change further increases the rate of change. In other words, the greater the warming of the atmosphere, the greater the chance that other changes will occur which will also warm the

105 atmosphere further, and so on. This is the ultimate nightmare: that the greenhouse effect may reach a critical mass, as in a nuclear chain reaction, where it is no longer possible to control.

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b) *With two or three other students, compare the content of your notes. Which parts do you have in common? Do you feel these are the most important parts? See if you can agree on what is the most important information, and then highlight or underline it.*

Exercise 24.
It is helpful to be able to take notes using a variety of techniques in order to choose the one most suitable for a particular reading.

a) *Read this passage and write linear and pattern notes on it.*

Sick Work Places

It is being increasingly recognised that the way many modern buildings are constructed and maintained is leading to poorer health among the people who work in them.

The main problem is the way that air is handled. In the past, it was possible to open a window for relief from the smoker at the next desk. Nowadays, however, many buildings are sealed because air-conditioning and ventilation are supposed to eliminate problems. But, as the frequent black streaks on the ceiling near air vents show, much of the dirt in the air is merely being recirculated and therefore constantly breathed by the inhabitants of the building.

Most office blocks have air ducts and vents running right through them. These can become full of dust and pollutants such as fumes from cigarettes and photocopiers and chemicals like formaldehyde leaking from carpets or adhesives from materials used to construct the building, and so on. These substances can stay in the air for years.

Unfortunately, energy conservation can make the problem worse. Switching off air-conditioning and heating at night causes condensation. This creates the damp conditions that help bacteria and fungi to grow. When the system comes on again in the morning, they are sprayed into the building. One third of buildings operate on perpetually recycled air.

One study has claimed that 80% of air-conditioned office blocks are "sick" - in other words, staff complain of headaches, allergies, rashes, nausea and lethargy. However, other studies have shown that workers in normally ventilated offices sometimes have the same symptoms. Thus, there must be factors other than air-conditioning which are also to blame.

Some researchers feel that stress may be important in understanding the causes of sick building syndrome. For example, it may be that with the change from typewriters to word processors in many offices, workers are "chained" to their desks and driven at the speed of their machines. These working conditions cause stress, and people under stress are much more aware of physical discomfort and are much more likely to suffer from backache, eyestrain, sore throats and other symptoms of sick building syndrome.

Some scientists have found that another possible cause of the problem is sensitivity to everyday materials such as

carpet fibres and furniture adhesives. An international conference on health and buildings in Stockholm last year was told that 40% of people in Sweden had some form of

60 common allergy to such materials. When many people are put in a building full of such materials, it is therefore natural that some of them will react negatively.

Finally, another view is that the

65 problem stems not from air-conditioning but air changing. According to this explanation, managers of buildings are so incompetent or ignorant about them that they do not ensure workers have enough clean air.

70 Normal maintenance, such as cleaning ducts regularly. Is neglected, and air is constantly recycled instead of being exchanged.

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b) *In groups, compare the different notes you took. Did everyone include the same details? Did the different methods of taking notes lead to different information being recorded? Is the relationship between ideas the same in both sets of notes? Which method did you feel make you more actively involved in the text? Which method do you feel is best suited to this passage? To you?*

MAKING NOTES FOR WRITING OR SPEAKING

Writing and speaking for study purposes require you to put your ideas into note form - to make notes, often drawing from different sets of notes you have previously taken when reading and listening. You will need to use this skill in the units on discussions and writing later in this book.

Exercise 25.
One way to organise specific notes that are likely to be used in future note-making is by using note cards. These can be filed according to topic, and then be shuffled or rearranged when making notes. Note cards usually contain important quotes, points, summaries of main ideas or statistics - one quote/ topic to a note card. This is important: if a note card contains three or four different topics or quotes, it becomes like a piece of paper and difficult to rearrange ideas as needed. The topic of the card should be at the top of each note card so that you can store similar cards together and know roughly what is on the card without reading it in detail. If you do decide it is helpful to put your notes on cards, remember to record the source and page on each card.

a) *Use the two note cards above as models for making your own note cards, one on global warming and one on the characteristics of the world's main religions. You will need to use your original notes for reference.*

b) *Do you feel that making note cards could be useful in your studies? Discuss.*

focus ———

topic ———

WWII: Arnhem: beginning   source: 5 ← reference to smaller <u>source cards</u> for bibliography

page: 311 ← page where found

Airborne landing – <u>surprise</u>
  Date: 17.9.44
  Cover: 1,200 Allied fighter aircraft.
  – 82nd took Grave Bridge - success
  – Nijmegen Bridge - no immediate success
              (surprise lost)
  – 101 achieved objectives except
     Wilhelmina Bridge.   (1 of 3) ←

facts on a single topic (narrow focus)

3 notecards on this topic from this source

topic ———

reminder about book/chapter for later reference, if needed ———

European Hegemony: "Civilisation" source 14 ←

PP. 28-44 – good history
          + <u>analysis</u>

page: 28 ←

Hoggart & Johnson

focus

people being quoted

single quote likely to be used

"There was a time when the word 'civilization' was taken to mean 'European civilization' or, more precisely, 'Western European civilisation.'" ... "Europe conquered the world. Europe imposed its mentality, its culture, its economics and its politics upon lands which were far distant & strikingly different from it." ...

4. WRITING A SUMMARY

SUMMARY

A summary is a clear concise orderly retelling of the contents of a passage or a text and is ordinarily about 1/3 or 1/4 as long as the original.

The student who is in the habit of searching for the main points, understanding them, learning them, and reviewing them is educating himself. The ability to get at the essence of a matter is important. The first and most important step in making a summary is reading the passage thoroughly. After it write out clearly in your own words the main points of the selection. Subordinate or eliminate minor points. Retain the paragraphing of the original, unless the summary is extremely short. Preserve the proportion of the original.

Change direct narration to indirect whenever it is possible, use words instead of word combinations and word combinations instead of sentences. Omit figures of speech, repetitions, and most examples. Don't use personal pronouns, use proper names.

Do not introduce any extra material by way of opinion, interpretation or appreciation.

Read the selection again and criticize and revise your words.

Study Tasks

Exercise 26.

By now, you will be gathering more and more information from readings. To make this mass of information more manageable, it is important

to develop an outline of your ideas which can be used to indicate how the bits of information are related - where they might fit into your writing.

a) You are doing Educational Studies. You have been asked to examine some aspect of educational practice in the 1990s. You have narrowed down the topic of your paper to "Rote learning: does it have a place in the 1990s?" (Rote learning is a teaching or learning method based on telling students information directly, which they then memorise and reproduce in the examination.)

Listed below are some of the main ideas (or headings) you wish to include in your writing. Organise the statements into an outline of a paper by putting the main ideas into a logical sequence.

1. define rote learning
2. describe present thinking about how learners learn best
3. define learning generally
4. discuss why rote learning is unpopular among educationalists today
5. describe-past thinking about how learners learn best
6. describe how rote learning could have a place in education today
7. develop purpose of education to meet demands of society

_____
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b) *Compare your ideas with those of two or three other students. What order is easier for the reader to follow, and best conveys the message? Justify your answer.*

_____
_____
_____

Exercise 27.
As you develop the shape of your paper in outline form, you need to fit in the notes you make as a result of your reading and thinking. As a result, you may need to modify your outline, especially if you feel you need to include information that just does not seem to fit. Your aim should be to lend up with a piece of writing that presents your argument or point of view as a unified, consistent whole.

a) *Look at the notes that follow. Decide where they might fit into your outline on Rote learning. You may feel you need to alter your outline to make a more cohesive whole.*

1. Rote learning means memorising without necessarily understanding.

2. People need to be able to recall information quickly.

3. Children used to have to memorise long passages.

4. Learning involves the whole person.

5. Information needs to be understood to be useful.

6. Education standards are declining, and children are able to recall fewer facts.

7. The world is more complex, and people need to be flexible.

8. Rote learning is easier to assess.

9. The role of education is to provide the skills needed for tomorrow's world.

10. Rote learning is boring.

b) *You have just found this article on rote learning. What is the main idea of the article? Where and how could you use some of its ideas in your paper? Decide how you may need to alter your outline, if necessary.*
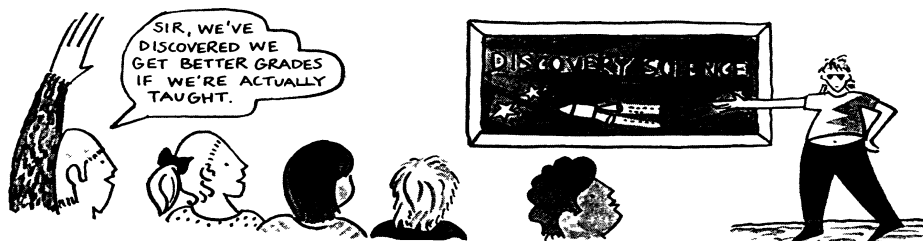
Rote Learning Was a Winner

by Greg Hadfield Education Correspondent

GENERATIONS of children who sat through endless lessons of «chalk and talk» in front of a bossy teacher can take some consolation. It helped them achieve better exam results.

Modern classroom techniques may make school days a good deal happier, but contentment was not the road to success at 0-level, according to university researchers.

Their three-year study, monitoring the progress of 2,000 teenagers, tried to measure the influence of the «boredom factor» in 17 selected schools in the north of England. Surprisingly, the academics discovered it may have been a blessing in disguise.

The Newcastle University team also found that the old-fashioned approach of teachers ordering pupils about is still alive and producing results.

Their conclusions were welcomed yesterday by educationists worried by the shift to less formal lessons.

The fifth-formers in the latest study were asked to award teachers marks to measure how frequently they followed or ignored today's fashion for «child-centred» education, the sort used on GCSE courses to develop problem-solving skills and teamwork.

A five-point scale was devised to spot the teachers who always told them what they should know and what to write down. «It was significant and not something you would get by chance or accident. Certainly, when you compare the pupils' interest and attitudes to school, there is a quite definite and highly significant difference,» one of the researchers said.

But the rankings were turned upside down when the team of four researchers looked at how the children fared in 0-levels and CSEs.

The sort of methods now frowned upon actually improved, if only marginally, the final grades.

«It is fair to say the improvement was only about the equivalent of a fifth of a grade, but that is after allowing for the different ability levels the children started from,» the researcher said.

«There is nothing wrong with old-fashioned, didactic teaching in the right place, even if it isn't the flavour of the month at the moment.»

However, he insisted the best teachers had always mixed the two techniques to match the needs of pupils, although 0-levels forced some to concentrate more on dictation and learning by rote.

c) *Write a summary of the text «Rote Learning Was a Winner».*

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5. WRITING A DEFINITION

Introduction

When we write we have to take into account the fact that our reader may not always understand the meaning of the more specialized words and expressions we wish to use. If we think this is the case, we will supply the reader with our definition of these terms. Here are some examples of writers defining terms for the reader:

1. In writing a paper on noise pollution, the writer needs to define the technical term "perceived noise decibels" (PNdB):

> . . . aircraft noise is measured in PNdB (perceived noise decibels) - a unit which measures all the different sounds that make up a noise, and gives most importance to those that people actually find most annoying when they hear them.

2. Some words have different meanings in different special subjects, or have different meanings in different areas of one subject. These are often particularly difficult for the reader. In this example, the fairly common word 'interaction' is defined by the writer to make sure that both he and his readers are talking and thinking about the same thing:

> It will be convenient to end this introduction with some definitions that are implied in what has gone before and required for what is to follow. For the purpose of this report, interaction (that is, face-to-face interaction) may be roughly defined as the reciprocal influence of individuals upon one another's actions when in one another's immediate physical presence.

Study Writing

Exercise 28.
Discuss the following sentences with a partner and decide which are acceptable definitions. Try to work out why the other definitions are not acceptable.

a) A capital city is like London.

b) A man is an animal with eight fingers and two thumbs.

c) Biochemistry is the study of biochemistry.

d) Socialism is what they had in the former USSR.

e) Rust is a reddish brown coating formed on iron by the action of water and air.

Defining concrete terms is usually relatively easy. Such terms as "copper", "thermometer", etc. can usually be defined in the following way:

concept   *class*   *special feature(s)*

.... is a $\begin{cases} \text{form of} \\ \text{species of} \\ \text{(etc.)} \end{cases}$ .... which ....

device
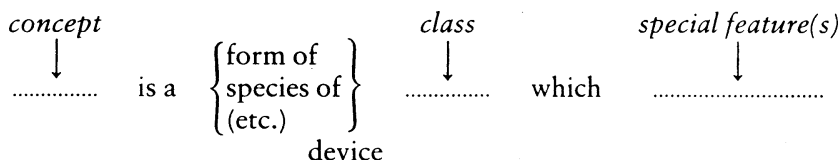
This definition structure is known as a *formal definition*.

Exercise 29.
These formal definitions have their parts mixed up. See if you can rewrite them correctly. Check your rewritten sentences with one or two other students.

	concept	is	a/an/ the	class	wh-word. . .
a)	a dentist	is	a	place	which is used in the manufacture of cloth
b)	copper	is	a	political system	which has four equal sides and four right angles
c)	an atom	is	a	plant	who takes care of people's teeth
d)	cotton	is	a	figure	which aims at public ownership of the means of production
e)	a restaurant	is	a	person	where food is bought and eaten
f)	a square	is	a	substance	that still has the same qualities, and can combine with other substances
g)	socialism	is	the	smallest piece of a simple substance	which is easily shaped, and allows heat and electricity to pass through it

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Another definition structure, the naming definition, has the same parts but in a different order:

class   **special feature(s)**   **concept**

↓   { **who**   ↓   { **called**   ↓
......{ **which** }   .... **is**   { **known as** }   ....
                                                { **(etc.)**

e.g. A person who studies living organisms is called a biologist. A book which has soft covers and is relatively cheap is known as a paperback.

Many definitions can be written both ways.

Exercise 30.

Not all the formal definitions in Exercise 29 can be rewritten as naming definitions. Rewrite those that can and suggest reasons why the remainder would make unsatisfactory naming definitions.

Exercise 31.

Think of three ordinary subjects that you use or see every day. For each of them write both kinds of definition. Test them out on another student by blanking out the "concept" word(s) and seeing whether she or he knows what you have defined.

e.g. A writing instrument which contains a lead and can be erased by a rubber is called a ...   *(pencil)*

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Study Writing

We have seen that to define something we need to name it, classify it, and state its most important (i.e. defining) characteristics. Because definitions are used to explain words we need, they are almost always only part or a text and not a whole text. We find definitions inside most serious writing, usually when something is being introduced for the first time.

Exercise 32. *Read this text and find the definitions in it. Write them out.*
The type of electricity that discharges from a solid material after it has been rubbed with another material is known as static electricity. One of the most common methods of demonstrating static electricity is by simply combing your hair. After it has passed through dry hair, a comb acquires the ability to attract small pieces of paper and similar objects to its surface. Two types of charge exist: no electrical phenomena are known that suggest the existence of more than these two types. Benjamin Franklin is responsible for the convention that an electrical charge is negative when it has been generated by rubber rubbed with fur, while the charge is positive when it has

been generated from glass nibbed with silk. A charge generated in any other fashion can then be compared to these two results.

The force of attraction, or the force of repulsion, of one type of charge for another one is called an electrostatic or coulombic force. Charles Coulomb first reported the results of such observations as a statement that has become known as Coulomb's law. Like charges repel: unlike charges attract.

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Exercise 33. *Rewrite Coulomb's law as a formal definition.*

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Exercise 34. *Write formal definitions of:*
a) static electricity;
b) positive charge,
c) electrostatic force.

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Using Grammar in Writing

It is often necessary to expand the defining description of a concept by adding extra information to the definition. This can be done by using brackets or dashes. Study the examples.

1. A prehistoric animal is an animal which lived in a time before recorded history. A prehistoric animal (a brontosaurus, a pterodactyl, a mammoth, etc.) is an animal which lived in a time before recorded history.

2. Courtship is an innate pattern of behaviour which certain vertebrates carry out before mating.

Courtship is an innate pattern of behaviour - such as dancing, preening, or bringing nesting materials - which certain vertebrates carry out before mating.

The additional information should be placed near the main information it clarifies.

Exercise 35.

Use the information below these sentences to write expanded definitions of each underlined concept.

a) *Tungsten* is a metal which retains hardness at red heat.

add: used in filaments in electric light bulbs

b) A *conversation* is a social event.

add: two or more people speaking to each other

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Exercise 36.

Expand these definitions by adding your own examples; discuss the possibilities with another student.

a) Cereal is a plant which is grown to produce food. b) A gas is a substa
nce which is neither solid nor liquid.

A definition can also be expanded by giving an example of the use of the object or idea being defined, as in the example below:

Aluminium is a metal which is light in weight. Consequently, it is used in the manufacture of aircraft.

When you expand a definition by giving an example of its use, you can use the following pattern:

Definition   **Marker**

Therefore,   it is used …
Consequently,
As a result,   one of its main uses is …
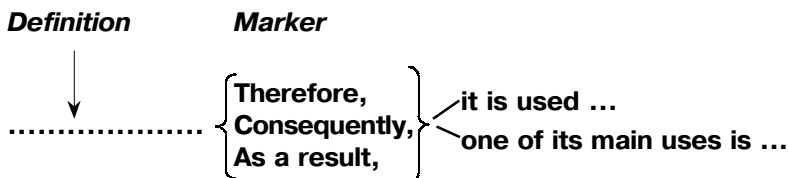
The decision whether to use a marker or not will depend on whether or not you think the reader needs to be explicitly told of the relationship between the definition and its use: in this case, that one is an effect of the other.

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Exercise 37.
Expand the following definitions by giving an example showing how the item being defined is used.

a) Glass is a substance which has the property of being transparent.
b) Stainless steel is an alloy which is resistant to corrosion.
c) A thermometer is a device for measuring temperature.

A definition can also be expanded by stating the main characteristics of the object or concept, as in the example below:

Aluminium is a metal which is used in the manufacture of aircraft. It is very light and resistant to corrosion.

When you expand a definition by stating its characteristics, you may use explicit markers to show the relationship between the definition and its expansion: *Aluminium is a metal which is used in the manufacture of aircraft because it is very light and resistant to corrosion. In this case, one is a reason for the other.*

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Exercise 38.

Expand the following definitions by stating the main characteristics of each item being defined.

a) Tobacco is a drug which is commonly used by human beings.

b) Cloth is a material made by weaving fibres such as wool, silk or cotton.

c) Binocular vision is that type of vision which allows distances to be judged and shapes to be perceived in depth.

In writing expanded definitions, relative clauses are very useful. Relative clauses allow a writer to avoid writing a series of very short sentences. They also allow the writer to show clearly which information she or he thinks is the most important and which is secondary. The information in the relative clause is always the secondary information. Look at these examples:

1. Aluminium, which is light and resistant to corrosion, is used in the manufacture of aircraft.

2. Aluminium, which is used in the manufacture of aircraft, is light and resistant to corrosion.

In the first example the use is the most important aspect for the writer, while in the second example the characteristics are most important.

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Exercise 39.

Use the notes, and other information if you wish, to write expanded definitions of each of the items in italics, using relative clause structures.

a) *caffeine* — substance — addictive — powerful effect on the heart — found in coffee

b) *substance* — not animal or plant — naturally occurring — includes ores, petroleum, natural gas and coal — often obtained by mining — mineral

c) *spacecraft* — vehicle — rocket engine — for travelling in space — capable of carrying astronauts — also known as spaceship — may carry missiles

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Exercise 40.

Complete the following short texts with the alternative that seems preferable to you.

a) Experimental psychology traditionally was interested in relationships between events. As a matter of fact.

    i) the forming of associations between one stimulus and another was defined by such psychologists as learning.

    ii) learning was denned by such psychologists as a matter of forming associations between one stimulus and another.

b) People should use potassium bromide only under a doctor's direction because this form of bromide may cause skin rashes. It can also disturb the mind.

    i) Silver bromide is a form of bromide used in photography to make plates and film more sensitive to light.

    ii) In photography, a form of bromide called silver bromide is used to make plates and film more sensitive to light.

c) Brocade designs are woven by hand or machine into cloth to make fabrics for bedspreads, curtains, etc.

    i) Cloth that has designs woven into it with heavy yarns is called brocade.

    ii) Brocade is a cloth that has designs woven into it with heavy yarns.

d) Bubble gum (. . .) is a major cause of tooth decay among children.

    i) bubble gum is a form of chewing gum

    ii) a form of chewing gum

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WHAT DO THE WORDS MEAN?

Exercise 41.

> "When I use a word," Humpty Dumpty
> said,... "it means just what I choose it to
> mean." Lewis Carroll:
> Alice Through the Looking Glass.

Words are symbols representing ideas and experiences - but the ideas and experiences of the people using words often differ. As a result, the same word can mean different things to different people.

Write the meaning of the following words, or groups of words, and what you associate with them. Then, with two or three other students, compare your answers. Were there any differences. Why?

1. study skills
2. peace
3. typical house
4. good English
5. democracy
6. marriage
7. freedom
8. discipline
9. fluent in English
10. endangered
11. conservative
12. happiness
13. successful students
14. scientist
15. a good party

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Exercise 42.

It is often helpful to define words by stating what is included and excluded in the meaning of the word. For example, suppose you read that boys are better than girls at football. You might want to ask which boys and girls are being referred to. Is it:

- boys and girls in a secondary school where girls are not taught football;
- boys and girls in nursery school;
- boys and girls who play football regularly;
- boys and girls attending private, single-sex schools;
- all children between the ages of five and sixteen years?

a) In each of the following statements, the word in italics is not specific and can therefore have more than one meaning. On your own, define the word in italics so that its meaning is precise. It must be clear both what is included and excluded by the word.

1. *Tall* buildings are safer in earthquakes.
2. Few *working-class* children go on to higher education.
3. *Large* classes are difficult to teach.
4. *Thin* people live longer.
5. *Old* houses are more expensive than modern ones.

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b) *With two or three other students, compare your answers. What can you conclude?*

6. WRITING A CLASSIFICATION

Introduction

People try to organize the world around them. One of the ways they do this is by looking for relationships among objects or ideas, and classifying them into groups according to their similarities and differences.

Exercise 43.
The following is a set of English words given in no particular order (i.e. a list). Turn this list into a classification by ordering the words into groups. Be prepared to explain why you grouped them as you did:

lecturer	sleep	manager
son	intelligent	happy
enthuse	dream	scientist
old	sick	printer

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You may have noticed that these data can be classified in several ways. The way you classify depends on what characteristics you think are important. In biology particular characteristics, such as the possession of bones, are used to define groups. Thus, for instance, animals with bones are generally classified as vertebrates. However, if we decided on some other characteristic (e.g. the possession of eyes) we should define a completely different group that included most (but not all) vertebrates, most insects, most crustaceans, some molluscs and some other invertebrates. A common way of classifying data is through a tree diagram.

Exercise 44.

The following sentences form a text. However, except for the first sentence, they are not in the most logical order. Work with another student to try to agree on the best order for the numbered sentences, to form a complete text which fits the organization of the classification chart.

There are two classes of sugars, natural sugars and processed sugars.

1) Fructose and glucose are difficult to buy on their own.

2) Raw cane sugar, white sugar and soft brown sugar are produced at different stages in the refining process.

3) The most widely consumed sugars are the end-product of the process, the white sugars.

4) Maple syrup, which is mostly sucrose and water, is very popular in North America. In Britain, you can buy it in health food shops.

5) Soft brown sugar is made from either raw cane or white sugar, with molasses, treacle or syrup added.

6) Natural sugars are, however, of little significance to the consumer compared with the processed sugars.

7) There are two types, Barbados and demerara.

8) Honey is available in many forms, but they are all essentially the same, varying only in flavour and price.

9) Processed sugars can be classified according to the stage in the process at which they are produced.

10) Raw cane sugar is an early stage in the process of making white sugar.

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sugars
- natural
  - glucose
  - fructose
  - maple syrup
  - honey
- processed
  - raw cane
    - barbados
    - demerara
  - soft brown
  - white
    - cube
    - icing
    - granulated
    - caster
    - preserving
    - crystal
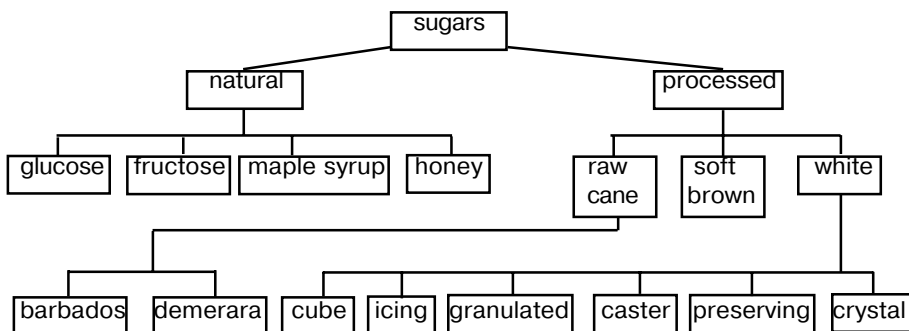
About Writing

Decisions about what characteristics to use in forming a classification are usually partly based on convention (how others did it), and mainly based on your purpose in making the classification.

Exercise 45.
When we think about education we usually think about formal schooling. But there are quite a variety of ways of becoming better educated.
a) *Work with another student to add data of your own to the following list:*

Channels of Education
1) full-time schooling
2) correspondence courses
3) television broadcasts
4) ....
5) ....
6) ....
(etc.) ....

b) *Arrange the data logically into groups according to different criteria, e.g. cost, intensity, etc. Label each grouping clearly. Discuss your groupings with a partner.*

In English, when we classify data and ideas, we divide all the information into categories. We do this in a logical way, but the logical ordering we choose depends on our purpose in making the classification. Some types of logical ordering are: time order (oldest to newest); general to particular hierarchy; and scale (examples of scales are importance (most important to least important), size (largest to smallest), familiarity (best-known to least-known)).

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Exercise 46.

What method of logical ordering (i.e. classification basis) was used in the diagram and text about sugars (Exercise 44)?

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Exercise 47.

What logical ordering is used here?
Ms Alice Smith
414 Oldfield Street
Wilmington-on-Sea
Blahshire England

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Exercise 48.

Choose a set of data about which you know quite a lot (e.g. difficulties of learning English; social, political or religious groups in your country) and classify these data according to a classification basis of your choice. Display the data in a logical diagram (like the Sugars' diagram). Show your diagram to a partner and ask her or him to identify the classification basis you used. Put down the diagram.

Using Grammar in Writing

You should have noticed in this unit so far that when we classify, we arrange members of a group, rather than parts relative to a whole. The tables below show some of the most common language used in sentences which have classification as their purpose.

There are / The	Y	types / kinds / classes / categories	of X	: A, B and C. / These are A, B and C. / are A, B and C.

X	consists of / can be divided into	Y	categories / classes / kinds / types	These are A, B and C. / : A, B and C.

A, B and C are	classes / kinds / types / categories	of X.

Exercise 49.

The table shows three major types of headaches and their symptoms. Write a text classifying the headaches, using the language of tables 1—3 above.

High Blood Pressure	Pain in forehead, sweating, anxiety, nausea, vomiting, confusion.
Allergy	Pressure on both sides of head, in forehead and behind eyes, sneezing, watery eyes.
Sinus	Frontal sinuses (forehead behind eyebrows): pain in forehead, temples, eyes; maxillary sinuses (cheekbones): pain in face, then forehead, upper jaw.

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7. REPORTING

Introduction

A common problem for writers of texts of some length, such as theses or reports, is finding the right structure. Many books on written reports provide the reader with little more than very general instructions, and some examples of how it should -or should not- be done. Concrete instructions on how to get the required 'clear' and 'logical' structure are usually hard to find.

That is why we intend to give a number of practical instructions that will help you to devise a structure quicker and better.

The structure of a report becomes visible in the chapter and (sub) section structure. It is easy to see this structure when you have a look at the table of contents. That is why we use words like structure, chapter division, chapter and (sub) section structure more or less as synonyms.

We will pay a lot of attention to the definition of the problem. That is because in our opinion it is impossible to carry out good research or have a clear structure without a good definition of the problem. That is why we will first deal with the requirements that a definition of the problem must meet, and with the part that the definition of the problem can play when you are devising a general structure for your report. Once this structure is ready, a

clear presentation is required. That is why we will pay attention to the phrasing of the definition of the problem and of chapter and section titles.

Types

We distinguish three types of definitions of the problem, depending on their purpose:

descriptive
evaluative
policy making

Descriptive

Descriptive reports present facts in an objective way. The writer's opinion is of minor importance. His/her main task is putting all the information together and presenting it in a clearly structured way. A descriptive report describes a situation, usually a problem.

Examples (descriptive definitions of the problem)

How has absenteeism in department X developed in the past five years?
What is the market share of product Y?

In a descriptive report the facts that are described may be related to each other. The writer may try to explain them or to predict a development. That is why we distinguish three subcategories of descriptive definitions of the problem:

purely descriptive
analytic
predictive

You might argue that an analysis or prediction adds a personal element to a descriptive report. The writer interprets the facts in a certain way. Another writer might present another analysis or prediction based on the same facts. Nevertheless, in a descriptive report a writer tries to stick to the facts as much as possible and he avoids personal interpretations.

In evaluative and policy making reports, however, personal views are essential. The writer gives his own opinion or an advice, based on certain facts. In these reports the facts are less important than the way in which the writer has reached his conclusions.

Purely Descriptive Reports

In purely descriptive research the most important activities are gathering and arranging data, facts and figures. Purely descriptive reports do not occur often, although every research should have a purely descriptive phase. A purely descriptive report is an inventory of data that have not been systematically compiled or made accessible before.

Example (purely descriptive definition of the problem)

"How has the American market for company software developed in the past ten years and how big is the market share of the ten most important manufacturers?"

A lot of market research is purely descriptive. As we said before, purely descriptive research is usually part of a broader definition of the problem. If a Dutch software house, for example, wants to investigate its possibilities on the American market (evaluative or policy making research), the report will have to contain descriptions of the nature, structure and development of this market and of the main competitors.

Analytic Descriptive Reports

In analytic descriptive research the description of a development/ situation is not as important as the explanation of the development/situation. The writer tries to find possible causes for the situation he describes, and must make the reader accept them.

Example (analytic descriptive definition of the problem)

What is the cause of the current drop in the market share of Buckler (a low-alcohol beer)?

Predictive Descriptive Reports

By means of predictive descriptive research a researcher tries to forecast a future development on the basis of facts. A lot of market research results in a prognosis concerning the development of the market. Very often a prognosis is based on analyses of the past current situation. The development in the past is then extrapolated to the future. In a predictive report argumentative structures are very important. We will not deal with them here.

Example (predictive descriptive definition of the problem)

How will Philips' national market share for television sets develop in the next five years?

Evaluative

If the purpose of your research (and report) is evaluative, then you must try to give you own opinion. You must try to find out why a certain matter - a situation/organisation/procedure, etc.- is good/bad or better/worse than another situation/organisation/procedure, etc. You can do this by evaluating it. In order to evaluate a matter, you must look into its current or future consequences. This means that you assess how bad/undesirable a matter is or how much better it could be.

In the conclusions of your report -stating the answer(s) to the evaluative definition of the problem — it is possible to express the evaluation by means of 'absolute' labelling: good, bad, favourable, profitable, waste of energy, dangerous, competitive, etc. But in many cases 'comparative' labelling is necessary: better, cheaper, more successful, etc. (than something else).

Example (evaluative definition of the problem)

To what extent has absenteeism in department X reached an unacceptable level in the past five years?

The personal element in the above example is in the word 'unacceptable', for it is the writer who will have to determine what is acceptable and what not. He defines the limits. So, in an evaluative report, the definition of the problem boils down to: what is my opinion on this subject?

Policy Making

In a policy making report you try to tell your client what he should do in a certain situation or what steps he should take to solve a problem. A policy-making definition of the problem, therefore, is a question that can be answered with a proposal for any kind of policy or action.
There are two types of policies:
* policies to initiate or stimulate a desired situation;
* policies to end or diminish an undesired situation.

Examples (policy-making definitions of the problem)

What measures must NS (Dutch Railways) take to reduce delays during peak hours?
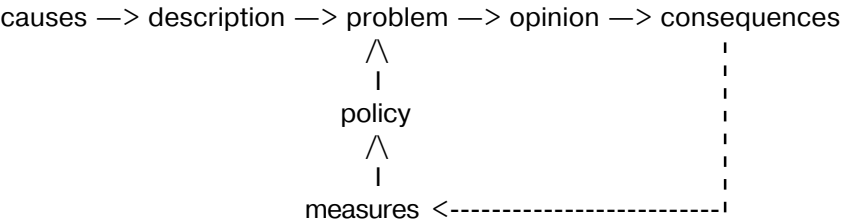What must we do to prevent our market share from dropping in the next three years?
Policy making reports indicate what should (not) be done in a certain

situation. The answer to a policy-making definition of the problem is an advice to the client/reader. This advice is of course based on previous descriptive and evaluative phases of research.

Links Between the Types

It is important to see the links between the three types of definitions of the problem we discussed above. You simply cannot write a policy making report without going through descriptive and evaluative phases of research. If you fail to do this, you will be unable to give your client well-founded advice. As most of the theses written by fourth-year students are policy making reports, it is very important to be made familiar with all three types of reports. The figure below demonstrates the links between the three.

Figure 1.

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causes —> description —> problem —> opinion —> consequences
                            /\                            ¦
                            ¦                             ¦
                          policy                          ¦
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                            ¦                             ¦
                        measures <-----------------------¦
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This figure shows that a description of the causes may prove to be a problem if the writer thinks (opinion) it has negative consequences. In that case the writer should propose measures to improve the situation, in other words he should propose a policy.

As you can see, there is always a connection with policies. Of course in a descriptive report the link is not as immediate as in a policy making report, but the connection with a policy must be there. Many writers of descriptive reports fail to make this connection clear, and write reports without any purpose. Such reports are mere collections of information, the relevance of which is hard to detect.

As we said before, a policy making report is based on description and evaluation. But when writing a policy making report you must see to it that your introductory descriptive parts do not take up too much room. Do not include unnecessary information. Keep your purpose and your reader in mind: a report for your immediate superior need not have much descriptive or evaluative parts. He or she will probably know as much about them as you do.

8. CHAPTER AND SECTION STRUCTURE

This chapter tells you how to design a clear and logical preliminary structure for your report. As we explained you cannot do this without a definition of the problem. We will assume that you have defined the problem and now want to make a chapter and section structure. You are supposed to do this before actually writing the text. We will explain why, and show you how you can outline the structure on the basis of your definition of the problem.

The Importance of a Good Structure

The structure of a report must be clear. The reader must be able to see and understand the structure at once.

Furthermore, a good structure helps you as the writer of the report to select your material. That is why you are to outline your chapter and section structure before writing your report. On the whole we can say that you should not include information that does not fit in with your framework (i.e. your chapter and section structure). But if you are left with important information that does not fit in, then you may have to change your chapter and section structure. This does not mean that your initial framework was useless. It prevented you from gathering even more information, and it made you see at an early stage that the structure was inappropriate. It will be fairly easy to change the framework, easier than rewriting (parts of) the text.

The chapter and section structure may also serve as a reminder. It will prevent you from forgetting parts that should be included to make the report complete.

The clarity of the structure is determined by three factors:
* the logic of the structure
* the phrasing of chapter and section titles
* the visual presentation of the structure

Making a Preliminary Structure

In our introduction to this chapter we said that the structure was preliminary. In the course of writing the report you are very likely to adapt or alter the original framework. The time you spend drawing up a good chapter and section structure is not lost; you win it back because it is so much easier to select the necessary information. There are reports that do not require a preliminary structure: standardised reports have a fixed structure. We leave such reports aside.

Our approach will probably suit some students better than others. It depends on your own approach to writing. Some people tend to plan their tasks. They think in advance of the information they want to include in their report. They risk thinking too much, without actually writing anything. Others prefer writing immediately, without thinking too much about it. In the course of the writing process they think about what should be included and what not. They risk getting swamped by the material.

Obviously, our approach suits the first category of students better. We want you to form a global impression in advance of the final results your research and writing are aiming at.

But for those who dislike planning in advance there is certainly scope for alterations during the writing process. The preliminary chapter and section structure offers them a useful framework of which certain parts may be changed, transferred or added during the writing process.

The Tree

Having collected some material about the subject you are going to write about you need to structure the information. The tree will provide a good device to create a structure.

Description

A tree is a diagram that, by means of its branches, indicates the relationships between pieces of information. It can help you to structure the main subjects of your report. You must realise, however, that its use is limited. A tree does not produce a ready-made chapter and section structure. It provides you with a complete and structured survey of the main subjects which you can use very well when creating a preliminary chapter and section structure. But usually not all elements of the tree occur as a chapter or (sub) section.

Before discussing the rules for using the tree we want to make some 'technical' remarks;
* 'read' the tree from left to right
* every start of a new branch is called a joint
* use short phrases -catchwords- and avoid questions. The catchwords refer to the subjects about which your text should answer possible questions.

Figure 2.

(a tree)
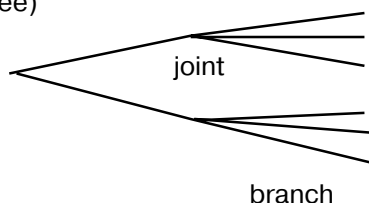
Rules for Use

Rule 1: use only one principle of classification per joint

If you use more than one principle of classification, you risk creating an overlap. The structure will become obscure.

Example (more than one principle of classification per joint)

In a first-year report on brand forgery in the clothing industry the writers want to find out what measures have been taken so far, and their effects. They also want to examine possible future measures.

The tree on the Figure 3 is their starting point for a preliminary chapter and section structure.

Figure 3.
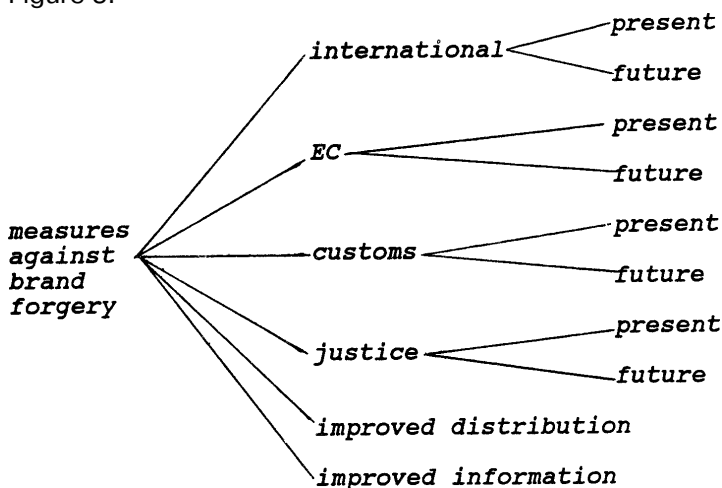
As you can see, more than one principle of classification has been used at the first joint. There are even three!
- legal reach of the measures (international/EC)
- enforcement of the laws regarding brand forgery (customs/justice)
- actual measures to be taken by manufacturers (improved distribution/ improved information).

The writers made the mistake of using three principles of classification at the same level. Besides their divisions are not always complete, e.g. 'national' is missing.
There are many ways to improve this tree. We present one on the following page.

Example (one principle of classification per joint)

Figure 4.
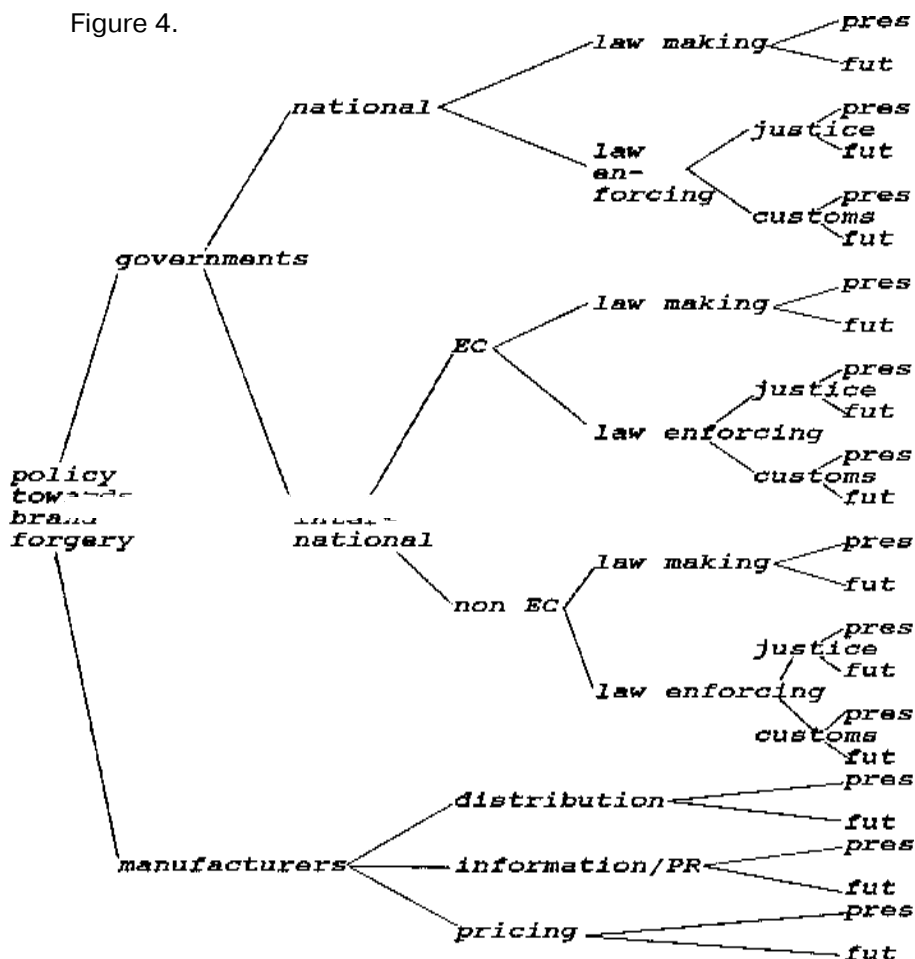
The change in the starting point of the tree - policy instead of measures makes a subdivision present/future possible throughout the report. Other trees are possible too, depending on the writer's view (or the client's).

It is possible, for example, to change the order of the principles of classification used in the tree.

Example (different order of principles of classification)

Figure 5.


```
                                              national
                            governments                    EC
                                              international
                                                           n o n
                                                           EC
                present
                                              national
                            manufacturers                  EC
policy                                        international
towards                                                    non
brand                                                      EC
forgery
                                              national
                            governments                    EC
                                              international
                                                           n o n
                                                           EC
                future
                                              national
                            manufacturers                  EC
                                              international
                                                           n o n
                                                           EC
```
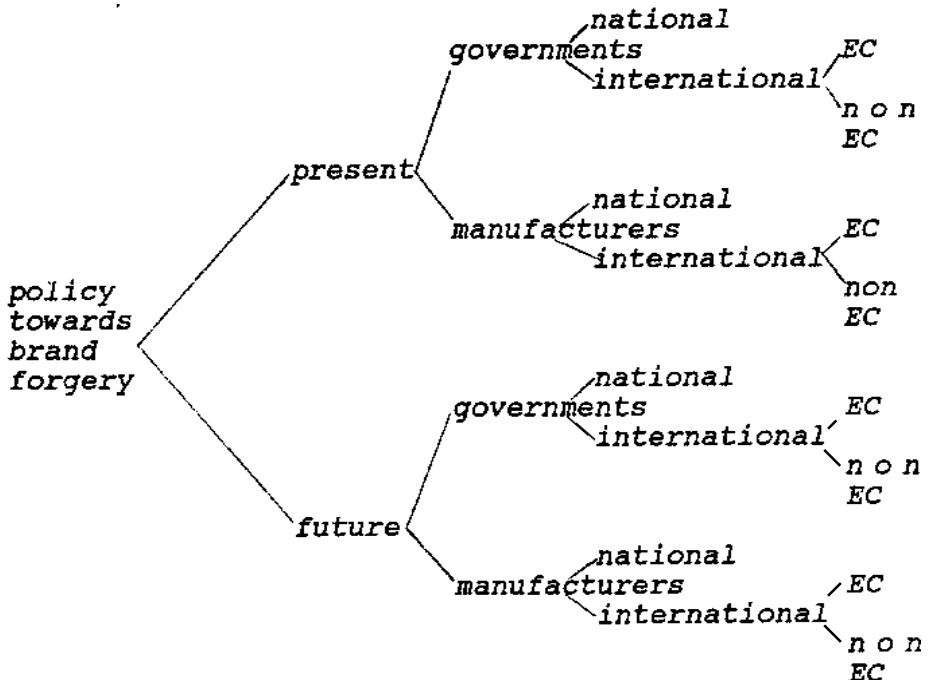
In this tree the comparison between present and future policies in the primary principle of division. In the ensuing report this comparison will be the main feature as well.

It is possible that in the course of your research and/or writing you wish to change your original tree in this way. That is no problem, provided that you keep in mind that it may have consequences for the main question in your definition of the problem.

Rule 2: each joint should have a complete set of branches that are mutually exclusive and do not overlap

If you do not obey this rule, the following may happen:
a) The elements do not exclude each other.

Example (overlapping division in a tree)

In a report the suitability of certain media for promoting a new crisp in the Netherlands is examined.
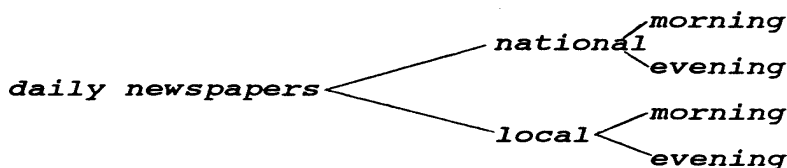The joint below is part of the tree.

Figure 6.

```
                                    national
daily newspapers ←──────────local
                                  evening
```

The branches overlap (rule 1 has been disobeyed as well), for both national and regional papers may be published in the evening. A complete (and mutually exclusive) enumeration would be: national/local. The other principle of classification (moment of publication) may be applied as well, but at a different level:

Example (correct division)

Figure 7.

```
                                          morning
                            national
                                          evening
daily newspapers
                                          morning
                            local
                                          evening
```

b) The tree shows an incomplete enumeration of elements.
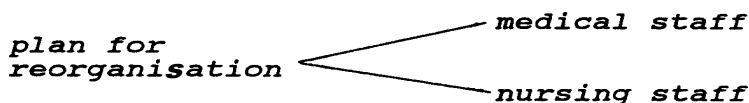
Example (incomplete division in a tree)

A student is investigating the feasibility of a plan for hospital reorganisation. He examines whether the personnel is willing to carry out the proposals. His tree contains the following division:

Figure 8.

```
                              medical staff
plan for
reorganisation
                              nursing staff
```

This division is incomplete. There are other categories of personnel in a hospital such as administrative, catering and technical personnel. Their opinions should be investigated as well. As you can see, an incomplete division may seriously distort the results of the research.

**Rule 3:** the tree should be as symmetrical as possible

Do not apply this rule too strictly. Absolute symmetry is hardly ever possible. Apply symmetry only if it is useful and possible.

By aiming at symmetry you may come across elements you would not have thought of otherwise, or even elements you do not wish to include. This does not mean that you are obliged to pay attention to them in your report. But you must realise that they are elements the reader will expect to find in it. Therefore you must inform the reader that you are leaving out certain elements, and explain why. Such remarks are to be made in the general introduction to your report or at the beginning of a chapter or (sub) section.

In the example regarding the newspapers you may decide not to include the local evening papers in your report, for example because there are no food advertisements in the evening editions. This means that in your report you apply an incomplete tree.

Example (incomplete tree)

Figure 9.
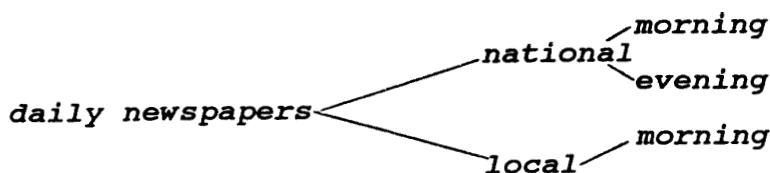
This is no problem, provided that you tell the reader that — and explain why — you are leaving out the local evening papers. After all, the reader is right in expecting the local papers to be subdivided in the same way as the national papers.

Having obeyed these three rules you will create a tree that you can use for your chapter and section structure. Make sure that you subdivide the tree as much to the right (horizontally) as you can, but avoid creating too many vertical levels. If you do, the ensuing sections will take up very little room, so that one page in your report may contain several sections. This does not make easy reading. The reader gets lost in a multitude of (sub) sections. Try, on the whole, to avoid section numbers of more than four figures.

A possible chapter and section structure based on the tree regarding brand forgery is presented below. Please note that not all the elements of the tree need to be used in the chapter and section structure.

Note also that chapter 1 is a general chapter introducing the subject. It is not part of the tree. This is usually the case; the tree applies only to the central chapters of the report.

Example (chapter and section structure)

- Foreword

- Introduction
1. Brand forgery in clothing
1.1. Types
1.2. Estimated size
1.3. Causes

2. Current policy of Dutch government
2.1. Law making
2.2. Law enforcing
2.2.1. Justice
2.2.2. Customs

3. Current international government policy
3.1. EC
3.1.1. Law making
3.1.2. Law enforcing
3.1.2.1. Justice
3.1.2.2. Customs
3.2. non EC
3.2.1. Law making
3.2.2. Law enforcing
3.2.2.1. Justice
3.2.2.2. Customs

4. Current policy of manufacturers
4.1. Distribution
4.2. Information/PR
4.3. Pricing
5. Possible future policy
5.1. Dutch government
5.2. International governments
5.2.1. EC

5.2.2. non EC
5.3. Manufacturers

- Conclusion
- Summary
- Bibliography
- Appendix

9. WRITING A REPORT

Study Tasks

ESTABLISHING YOUR FOCUS

The first stage in writing for academic purposes is to decide on your focus. The general essay topic set by a teacher is intended to produce as many different responses as there are students in the class. There is no single correct response. You therefore have to decide what your response should be, within the confines set.

It is all too easy for students to give a mechanical response which lacks Creativity, a personal point of view, and so on, and is therefore so general really to say nothing.

The process you need to go through is similar to focusing a telescope. In order to see clearly, you have to adjust the lens until the image is clear to the viewer's eye - there is no single, set focus. Similarly, when planning a piece of academic writing, you have first of all to focus on the topic, i.e. decide exactly what it is about, what your general approach is going to be, and so on.

Exercise 50.

One step in focusing on a writing topic is to make sure you understand what certain key words in the title or question imply about how you should approach the topic.

a) *The following words are typically found in the titles of academic writing assignments. Match them with their meanings.*

Words	Meanings
1. account for	a) consider all sides of an issue
2. analyse	b) make a critical survey
3. argue	c) bring out the meaning
4. compare	d) explain the causes of
5. criticise	e) show the path of development

6. define   f) show the faults

7. discuss   g) describe without details

8. evaluate   h) give the main features and organisation

9. examine   i) look at carefully

10. illustrate   j) break into parts and look at the detail

11. interpret   k) provide satisfactory reasons

12. justify   l) look for similarities and differences

13. outline   m) make clear with examples

14. review   n) decide on the value of something

15. summarise   o) present the case for or against

16. trace

1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8	
9		10		11		12		13		14		15		16	

b) *Are there any other words like this that you have come across? How would you define them?*

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Exercise 51.

The key to focusing on your writing topic is to ask questions so that you get as clear a picture as possible about exactly what you are going to do. The questions will probably be to do with:

a) the criteria for the writing assignment

b) the focus, slant or position

c) the information you need to develop your focus

Classify the following questions according to each of the three main categories mentioned above.

1. How long should it be?

2. What does analyser mean?

3. Who is the audience?

4. What is the main purpose of the assignment, i.e. what kind of knowledge am I expected to show?

5. How much detail will be appropriate?

6. Why am I writing on this topic?

7. What do I already know about the topic?

8. What aspects of the topic should I focus on?

9. In what depth or breadth should I treat the topic?

10. What do I think about the topic?

11. What books and/or articles could be helpful to read?

12. How does the assignment relate to the rest of the course?

13. Is there a set format for the work, i.e. are there certain aspects of the topic that must be covered?

14. Am I expected to present information and ideas only, or critically evaluate them as well?

15. How will the work be assessed?

16. What books must I read?

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Exercice 52.

IT'S ALL A MATTER OF HOW THE PIECES FIT TOGETHER

Another part of adopting an active approach to dealing with extended English is to look for the way ideas are connected together. Study information is always organised into some kind of pattern or framework. Actively looking for this pattern helps you to understand the information better, because you can see how the parts fit together.

Match the following types of information with the ways you would expect them to be organised. More than one type of organisation may be used with the same information.

Information	Organisation
1. how a general election takes place	a) comparison/contrast
2. studying in the UK vs. US	b) cause > effect

3. experiment with different materials   c) list of points
4. how AIDS is spread   d) series of steps
5. reasons for developing a town centre   e) points for and against
6. evaluation of alternative methods   f) less > more important
    of transport
7. description of an aspect of language   g) general > particular
8. survey of opinion about the United   h) hypothesis > procedure >
    Nations   result > conclusion
9. discussion of different concepts of history i) chronological order
10. causes of global warming   j) set of examples
11. explanation of a computer program   k) categories
12. ideas for overcoming inflation   l) hierarchy
13. study of the influence of a novelist
14. how the US is governed
15. wildlife in a nature reserve
16. study of child development

1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8	
9		10		11		12		13		14		15		16	

Exercise 53.

The following sentences go together to form a newspaper report, but they are in the wrong order. Working in groups of two or three, put them in the right order. Then compare your answers with those of other groups.

Ship Accident in Channel
No Casualties

a) In spite of this damage the two ships managed to reach the nearby port of Dunkirk under their own steam.

b) However, because of the weather conditions, the captains did not realise the danger until only seconds before the collision took place.

c) One was a cargo boat carrying fruit, and apparently bound for London.

d) The official added that British experts would be invited to join the committee.

e) Fortunately, there were no casualties among the crews or the passengers, but both ships were holed close to the water-line.

f) According to eye-witnesses neither of the vessels was going very fast at the time of the accident.

g) Yesterday evening two ships collided in thick fog in the English Channel.

h) Consequently, there was insufficient time for them to take avoiding action.

i) The other was a British Rail crosschannel ferry on its regular run from Dover to Dunkirk.

j) A spokesman for the port authorities said that a committee of enquiry would be set up to ascertain the cause of the collision.

Exercise 54.

There are three suggestions for the first paragraph of the report that follows. Working in groups of two or three, decide which is the most appropriate, and why. Then compare your answer with those of other groups.

FEASIBILITY OF FLEXIBLE WORKING HOURS

a) We on the committee have spent a lot of time and effort on the question of hours. I mean, different people have different opinions, obviously, and it doesn't matter whether you ask people here or outside, they all have their own opinions about whether it's a good idea or not. And since you get so many different opinions, it's not easy for a committee to come to a final decision, but we have done what we think is right, and we hope that if anybody is not completely happy, they won't take our ideas personally.

b) Since 1976 everybody in this firm has worked 40 hours per week - previous to that the total was 44 hours for some people and 42,5 for others - and we have no intention of changing the total. In any case, a change in the total number of hours would only be possible after proper negotiations between management and union representatives, and this is not the place to anticipate any such negotiations in the near or distant future.

c) This report concerns the feasibility of allowing members of staff to start and stop work at the times that suit them best; the obvious proviso is, of course, that everyone should still work a total of 40 hours per week, as we do now. The suggestion of flexible working hours was put forward to the directors by certain members of staff, particularly those who have young children at school.

The Personnel Officer was asked to look into the question, and his study had two aspects. First, he looked at the experience of other firms; he managed to contact four firms of similar size to ours, all of which have, or have tried, some variation of staff hours. While most of their comments were favourable, all of them had noted certain minor drawbacks. Some of these problems were connected with factors that are irrelevant to our particular case.

The second part of the investigation was to look carefully at our own working arrangements. Here, as you know, we began by asking everybody to predict the hours they would probably choose to work. This information was then circulated to all heads of department for comment, in particular with

regard to potential problems and their solution.

All this experience and information was then studied by a committee which included a representative from every department. The committee was unanimous in its view that the advantages of flexible working hours in firms like ours will almost certainly outweigh the disadvantages. We have therefore decided on a trial period of 3 months, starting 1 April; at the end of that period the committee will take a final decision. Full details will be circulated to all staff in about one week's time.

Exercise 55.

The following are two suggestions for the first paragraph of a report on breastfeeding which is intended to encourage mothers to breastfeed their babies. Working in groups of two or three, decide which you prefer, and why. Then discuss your decision with other groups.

a) There are various reasons why breastfeeding — as even the manufacturers of baby foods admit — is best for mother and baby. In the first place, the milk comes ready-mixed, germ-free, and at the right temperature. Secondly, the supply is portable, readily available and inexpensive. And finally, the quality and quantity of the milk adjust automatically to the baby's needs, as long as the mother eats and sleeps well and cultivates a quiet mind. Moreover, both mother and baby derive great satisfaction from this shared pleasure, and it also builds up the baby's defences against disease. Let us look at each of these points in some detail.

b) There are various reasons why breastfeeding is best for mother and baby — as even the manufacturers of baby foods admit. First, there are the all-important health factors: breast milk is germ-free, and moreover, it builds up the baby's defences against disease. Then there is the question of convenience, since-breast milk is available when and where you want it, is ready-mixed, and comes at the right temperature. Thirdly, there is the cost: while mother may have to eat a little more, she obviously does not have to buy bottles, sterilizing equipment or packets of manufactured milk. Last but not least, there is the psychological side, for both mother and baby derive great emotional satisfaction from this shared pleasure. Let us look at each of these points in some detail.

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Exercise 56.

In Great Britain the Guide Dog Association provides some 300 dogs a year for blind people, enabling them to get out of their homes and to move about more freely. Each owner is expected to send a report at certain intervals, detailing his or her experiences. Here is a conversation between a blind person and a friend who is going to write a report to the Association for her to sign.

A: Well, shall we get down to what you want to go into the report, Mary?

M: Yes, good idea. I'm supposed to send my first report after about a month, and tomorrow it will in fact be thirty days since I came home with Sheila.

A: Right. And what's the report supposed to say?

M: Well, obviously, they want to know the changes the dog has made in your life. For instance, in my case, I can now do for myself a lot of things that I couldn't do before.

A: Like what?

M: Well, as you know, you or my sister used to come and take me to work each morning, and someone from work used to bring me home in the afternoon. Now I can do all that on my own. Or rather, Sheila does it for me.

A: What else?

M: Well, of course, shopping is a lot easier now, and I feel a lot safer, too, especially on Saturday mornings when there's so much traffic about.

A: Does Sheila carry your shopping basket?

M: Oh, no, she has to keep all her concentration for the traffic and the other pedestrians. Anyway, apart from shopping, I've been out to do other things. I've been to the cinema once with you, haven't I? But you didn't have to come and fetch me this time. And another time with my mother to see, oh I can't remember now what it was called. And another time when I just went on my own. It was that film about Eva Peron. They'd said it was good at work, so I just went.

A: You didn't tell me about that.

M: No, that's the point, you see. I can just go without having to trouble anyone else.

A: It's no trouble, Mary. You know that.

M: No, I know, but it's different not to have to rely on someone to help you. You feel more independent. Anyway, I've also been to two concerts. One with the London Symphony Orchestra, I think it was, and the other was a folk music evening, mostly singers from South America.

A: O.K. Any other differences?

M: Yes. I get to talk to people more than before. As you know, apart from her work looking after me, Sheila also has to go out and play. So I always go to the park in the evening and let her have a good long run. She really enjoys that.

A: Yes, but you were saying something about meeting people.

M: Yes, exactly. You see, when I went everywhere with my sister or with you, I talked to you but I never started talking to other people. Now I get out more often anyway, and since I'm not with anyone except Sheila, people are more likely to come up and ask me if I need a hand. Of course, with Sheila at my side, the answer is usually 'no', but we get talking. That's why I mentioned taking Sheila for a walk in the park. You see, there are always several other dog owners who take their dogs for a walk at the same time, and I've got quite friendly with several people that way.

A: And do you want to put anything about drawbacks? It can't all have been positive, can it?

M: Well, one thing that worries me is whether I'm giving Sheila enough food. I've never had a dog before, and perhaps we ought to ask how I can be sure she's eating enough. I'm sure they must have told me, but I've forgotten.

A: O.K. I'll ask.

M: The only other thing is, well, silly perhaps, but I'd like to mention it. It's that Sheila, you know, avoids all dangers, like cars and holes in the road, and so on. But she doesn't avoid puddles! So every time it rains I get my feet soaking wet because she doesn't bother to walk round any water there is about.

A: But otherwise no complaints.

M: No, none at all. Only thanks. Now I get more exercise because, as I said, I have to take Sheila out for a walk. And, then, with meeting new people and everything I feel a lot happier. You know that I sometimes used to get quite depressed, sitting here on my own night after night. Now I can go out and cheer myself up, and even if I stay at home, I don't feel alone because Sheila keeps me company.

Now, working in groups of two or three, prepare and write the report in the form of a letter to the Guide Dog Association. First, read through the conversation again, and underline the points that are important enough to include in the report. Then group the points together, and write a separate paragraph for each group of points. Finally, write a suitable introductory paragraph and a suitable concluding paragraph to complete the report.

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Exercise 57. *Compare your report with this one. Explain its strong and weak points.*

Dear Sirs,

This is my first report to the Association; it is the result of my experience during the first month of having a guide dog. On the whole, I must say that my dog, Sheila, has changed my life for the better; she has made me happier and more independent.

The most important point, perhaps, is my new independence. Previously I had to rely on other people to take me everywhere. Now I not only go to work on my own, but I can easily go to the shops, or to the cinema or a concert, without troubling anyone else. I feel confident in going out like this because Sheila makes me feel quite safe in traffic.

More independence was what I had expected from my guide dog, but one thing I didn't expect was that Sheila would lead me to make new friends. When I'm out with her, people often start talking to me, especially when I take her to the park. In this way I've got to know several people that I'd never talked to before. I do not feel alone at home, either, because Sheila is always there to keep me company. Incidentally, you pointed out to me that Sheila would need plenty of exercise, but this also means that I myself get more exercise than I used to, and I feel a lot better for it.

There are only two points that worry me, and I wonder if you could help me with them. One is the question of Sheila's food. How can I make sure that I'm giving her enough? The other problem is that when she's out walking, Sheila doesn't mind getting her legs wet, so she walks straight through puddles and so on. This means, of course, that I get my feet wet, too. Is there anything I can do about this?

Apart from these two minor problems, I am, as I said, very happy with Sheila, and I am sure that we will continue to get on very well together.

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Exercise 58.

Choose one of the following topics, or any other topic that interests you.

First, write down in ten minutes as many ideas on the subject as you can, (except in (f), where you will have to carry out a survey).

Then look through all the ideas, and decide if there are some that are not particularly important or relevant, and can therefore be left out.

After that, group the ideas that you have, and decide on the best order, both within each group and among the groups.

Finally, bearing in mind the content of the whole report, write a suitable introduction and also a suitable conclusion.

a) A report on flexible study hours in your school.

b) A report on eating habits intended to encourage people to eat more sensibly.

c) A report by an invalid on his or her first month using an invalid car provided by the Invalids' Transport Society.

d) A confidential report on someone who wants to become a social worker.

e) A report on the progress of a journey that you made, or of a historically famous journey, or of an imaginary journey.

f) Survey three books available in your country for teaching English to beginners. Write a report on them.

g) Report the various stages of a labour dispute, from early discontent through to a satisfactory solution.

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Appendix 1. Types of Linking Words and Expressions

cause/effect	comparison	contrast	addition	examples	conclusion	time
as	likewise	although	also	for example	accordingly	as soon as
as a result	similarly	but	and	for	in brief	at the same time
because		besides	in addition	instance	in short	as long as
consequently		however	moreover	in other	in conclusion	at length
hence		nevertheless	too	words	on the whole	meanwhile
since		on the		in effect	to sum up	secondly
so		other				

thus	hand	in this	first of all
therefore	on the	case	finally
	contrary	in	
	otherwise	particular	
	while	specifically	
	in contrast		
	and yet		

Appendix 2. Study Abbreviations and Latin Terms

AD: since the beginning of the Christian era
a posteriori: reasoning from effect to cause
a priori: reasoning from cause to effect
ad hoc: not arranged beforehand
approx: approximately
BC: before the beginning of the Christian era
c.: approximately
cf.: compare
ed.: editor
edn.: edition
e.g.: for example
et al.: and others (used when a work has several authors)
f., ft: and the following pages, e.g. 10 ft. refers to page 10 and
following pages
fig.: figure, i.e. drawing, table, chart, etc.
ibid.: in the same place/work previously referred to
i.e.: that is
MS, MSS: manuscript(s)
NB: this is important
no.: number
op. cit.: in the work already quoted
p.: page
pp.: pages re: concerning
ref.: with reference to
stet: as it was originally
sic; exactly as it is (used when the original has a mistake)
viz.: namely
vol.: volume (of a journal, etc.)

Appendix 3. Official Terms and Their Plainer Alternatives

PLAIN ENGLISH LEXICON

If you overuse the words in the left-hand column of the table, your writing could be perceived as pompous, officious and long-winded. Not that anyone should forbid you from ever using them, but judicious use of the alternatives will help you to be shorter, simpler and more conversational. The alternatives are not always synonyms, so use them with a proper care for meaning and for the job they have to do in the sentence.

Official terms	Plainer alternatives
accede	agree, grant, allow
accordingly	so
accustomed to	used to
acquaint yourself	find out, read
additional	more, extra
address (sense 'consider')	tackle, deal with, consider
advices	information, instructions
advise (sense 'inform')	inform, tell
aforementioned, aforesaid	[omit or be specific]
aggregate (noun)	total
alleviate	ease, reduce, lessen
apprise	inform, tell
as a consequence of	because
ascertain	find out
assist, assistance	help
attain	reach
attribute (verb)	earmark
calculate	work out, decide
category	group
cease	stop, end
cognizant of	aware of, know about
commence	start, begin
component	part
concept	idea
concerning	about
consequently	so
constitute	make up, form
construe	interpret

Official terms	Plainer alternative
corroboration	evidence, proof, support
deduct	take away, take off, subtract
deem	treat as, consider
defer	put off, postpone
desist	stop
despatch	send
despite the fact that	although, despite
determine	decide
disburse	pay
discharge (verb)	pay off, settle
disconnect	cut off
discontinue	stop, end
due to the fact that	as, because
dwelling, domicile	home, property
select; election	choose; choice
emanate from	come from, stem from
endeavour	try, attempt
entitlement	right
envisage	expect, imagine
equitable	fair
erroneous	wrong, mistaken
establish	set up, create, form
eventuate	result, occur, happen
expedite	hasten, speed up
expenditure	spending
expiration	end
facilitate	help
failure to	if you do not
for the duration of	during, while
for the purpose of	to
forward (verb)	send, give
furnish	give, provide
henceforth	from now on
heretofore	until now
herewith	with this
hitherto	until now
hypothecate	earmark
if this is not the case	if not

Official terms	Plainer alternative
if this is the case	if so
impart	give, pass on, tell, inform
implement (verb)	carry out, do
in accordance with	in line with
inasmuch as	because, in that
incidence	rate of occurrence, how often
in conjunction with	with
increment	step, increase
indebtedness	debt
initiate	begin, start
in lieu of	instead of
in order to	to
in receipt of	get, have, receive
in regard to	about, concerning, on
insofar as	as far as
institute (verb)	begin, start
interim (noun)	meantime
in the event of	if, when
in the eventuality of	if, when
in view of the fact that	as, because
manner	way
monies	money, amounts of money
necessitate	need, have to, require
nevertheless	even so, however, yet
nonetheless	even so, however, yet
not less than (ten)	at least (ten)
not more than [ten]	[ten] or less, [ten] or fewer
notwithstanding	even if, despite, still, yet, but
obtain	get, receive
other than	except
particulars	details, facts
persons	people
peruse	read, study
polemical	controversial
principal (adjective)	main, chief
prioritize	rank
prior to	before
provenance	source, origin

Official terms	Plainer alternative
provisions [of a law, policy]	the law, the policy
purchase	buy
purport (verb)	pretend, claim, profess
pursuant to	under
reduction	cut
regarding	about
reimburse	repay
remittance	payment
remuneration	pay, wages, salary
remunerative employment	paid work
render	send, make, give
reside	live
residence	home, property, address
save (co-ordinator)	except
shall [legal obligation]	must
stipulate	state, set, lay down
sufficient	enough
supplementary	extra, more
terminate	end, stop
the law provides that	the law says
thereafter	then, afterwards
timeously	in good time
tranche	slice, portion, share, chunk
utilize	use
verify	check, prove
whensoever	when, whenever
whereby	by which, because of which
whilst	while
wilfully	deliberately
with reference to	about, concerning
with regard to	about, concerning
with respect to	about, for, concerning

Latin or French [F] phrase	Meaning or alternative phrase
ad hoc	for this purpose or occasion
carte blanche [F]	a free hand, freedom
ceteris paribus	other things being equal
cf (conferre)	compare

circa	about
deminimis	trivialities, small amounts
eg (exempli gratia)	such as, for example
en bloc [F]	as a whole, together
etc (et cetera)	and so on, and the rest
ex officio	by virtue of the office held
ibid (ibidem)	in the same place, book, etc.
ie (id est)	that is
inter alia/alios	among other things/people
modus operandi	way of working, method
mutatis mutandis	with the necessary changes
op cit (opus citatum)	work quoted
per annum	per year, a year, annually
per capita	per head, per person, each
per diem	per day, a day, daily
perse	as such, by or in itself, essentially
pp (per procurationern)	on behalf of, by the agency of
pro forma	aform
qv (quod vide)	see
seriatim	one at a time; in the same order
sic	thus! (drawing notice to error)
sine die	indefinitely
vis-a-vis [F]	as regards, regarding, on, about
viz (videlicet)	namely
vs (versus)	v, versus, against
vs (vide supra)	see above