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**ИСКУССТВО РЕЧИ НА АНГЛИЙСКОМ
ЯЗЫКЕ**

ЮНИТА 3

СОСТАВЛЕНИЕ СООБЩЕНИЯ

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Рекомендовано Министерством
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ИСКУССТВО РЕЧИ НА АНГЛИЙСКОМ ЯЗЫКЕ

Юнита 1. Написание эссе.

Юнита 2. Публичное выступление как форма коммуникации.

Юнита 3. Составление сообщения.

ЮНИТА 3

Рассматриваются: техника сообщения (report), правила оформления письменных работ, в том числе и диплома (thesis), техника устного выступления с сообщением на определенную тему.

Для студентов факультета лингвистики СГУ

Юнита соответствует профессиональной образовательной программе №1

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

ТЕМАТИЧЕСКИЙ ПЛАН

The problem of report writing. Types of business reports. Preliminary content and structure analysis. Formulating the topic.

Chapter and section structure. Using a tree diagram. Criteria of a good report structure. Phrasing the titles.

Paragraph structure. Links between paragraphs. Using linking words and sentences. Signals of relations between paragraphs.

Outward appearance of a manuscript. Parts of a report. Notes. Bibliography. Appendices.

Preparing Speeches. Organising thoughts. Introductions and conclusions.

Verbal supporting materials: quotations, repetition, analogy, etc.

Non-verbal supporting materials: illustrations, statistics, diagrams, etc.

ЛИТЕРАТУРА

Базовый учебник

1. Bowman J.P., Branchaw, *Business Report Writing*. Chicago, 1984.

Дополнительная литература:

2. Braas, Geest, Linden, Ogg, Pas, *Reporting*. Utrecht, 1991.
3. Comfort, Revel, Scott, *Business Report in English*. Cambridge, 1984.
4. Cutts M., *The Plain English Guide*, Oxford, 1996.
5. Gibson J., *Speech Organization: a Programmed Approach*. San-Francisco, 1971.
6. Hayakawa S.I., *Language in Thought and Action*. NY, 1989.
7. Linden, Ogg, *Writing and Planning*. Utrecht, 1991.
8. Phillips, Zolten, *Structuring Speech*. Indianapolis, 1976.
9. Struck, White, *The Elements of Style*. Macmillan Publishing Co., 1979.
10. Taylor, Meyer, Rosegrant, Sample, *Communicating*. Prentice Hall, 1992.
11. Timm, Jones, *Business Communication. Getting Results*. Prentice Hall, 1983.

Примечание. Знаком (*) отмечены работы, на основе которых составлен научный обзор.

ПЕРЕЧЕНЬ УМЕНИЙ

№	Умение	Алгоритм
1	Оформление пункта из списка литературы.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Определите автора(ов) произведения. 2. Определите название произведения. 3. Определите место издания, издательство и год издания. 4. Расположите все части в следующем порядке: имя автора (ов), запятая, название произведения (можно выделить курсивом), точка, место издания, двоеточие, издательство, запятая, год издания, точка.
2	Определение типа предложения, содержащего проблему.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Прочитайте предложение, содержащее проблему, и переведите его на русский язык. 2. Вспомните три типа предложений, содержащих проблему. 3. Определите, что описывается в предложении: приводятся (1) точные факты, (2) чье-то мнение или (3) шаги, которые необходимо предпринять для решения проблемы. 4. В первом случае это описательный (descriptive) тип, во втором – оценочный (evaluative), а в третьем - направленный на разрешение проблемы (policy-making).

ПРИМЕРЫ ВЫПОЛНЕНИЯ УПРАЖНЕНИЙ НА УМЕНИЯ

1. Оформите соответствующим образом следующий пункт из списка литературы: Business Reports in English; J. Comfort, R. Revel and C. Scott; 1984; Cambridge; Cambridge University Press.

1. Авторы: J. Comfort, R. Revel and C. Scott.

2. Наименование: Business Reports in English.

3. Место издания: Cambridge. Издательство: Cambridge University Press. Год издания: 1984.

4. Comfort, R. Revel and C. Scott, *Business Reports in English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1984.

2. Определите тип предложения, содержащего проблему: *What must we do to prevent our market share from dropping in the next three years?*

1. What must we do to prevent our market share from dropping in the next three years? Что мы должны сделать (какие шаги предпринять), чтобы предотвратить снижение нашей доли рынка в ближайшие три года?

2. Три типа: описательный (descriptive), оценочный (evaluative) и направленный на решение проблемы (policy-making).

3. Предложение связано с описанием тех шагов, которые необходимо предпринять для решения проблемы.

4. Предложение относится к типу, направленному на решение проблемы.

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 exercises at the back are an essential element.

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 in chapter three we will pay attention to the phrasing of the definition of the problem and of chapter and section titles. In chapter four we will have a look at paragraphs, and chapter five is devoted to the requirements regarding the outward appearance of the report.

1. Definition of the Problem

It is becoming more and more important for the students to be aware of and have experience in research. Policy making decisions in a firm are often based on research.

Good research is impossible without a clear definition of a problem. This is the starting point. Some students prefer to define their problem during

or even after their research. This is not wise: they tend to do too much. And what they do is often irrelevant.

The definition of the problem is not only a starting point for the research itself, but also for the structure of the report that is written about it.

We deal with practical policy making research. A firm has a certain problem that needs to be solved, a decision that must be taken, etc. The findings of our research should contribute to the solution, decision, etc. Therefore, we consider 'policy' to be: a justified plan - i.e. a plan that is accounted for - to change an existing situation. So, the plan in itself is not sufficient, it must be motivated as well.

That is why you must be able to account for not only the results of your research, but also for the way you acquired them: your approach.

1.1. Definition

The definition of the problem is, basically, a question stating a problem or a situation. It is the main question that you as a writer should answer in the course of your report. The conclusions of your report must consist of your answer(s) to the question you have posed.

The definition of the problem has two functions:

- a) It is the starting point and directive of the research that is to be carried out.
- b) But later on it is also the guideline for the reader of the report. The definition of the problem should be stated in the introduction to your report. It will help the reader to determine whether the report is of interest to him. And it will create certain expectations in the reader.

1.2. Creating the Definition of the Problem

So far we have explained why it is necessary to start your research with the definition of the problem you intend to investigate (and perhaps solve). This section will deal with the way you can devise a good definition of the problem. If the definition of the problem is wrong, the structure of the ensuing report tends to be faulty as well. Therefore you must take into account that formulating the definition of the problem takes a lot of time.

In reality there is hardly ever one definition of the problem. Usually there is a series of definitions which are -sometimes slightly- altered in the course of the research and during the writing process. Gradually the

definitive version is created. This is the definition of the problem that you mention in your report. The previous stages are irrelevant for the reader.

Inexperienced researchers often make the mistake of staling the definition of the problem by merely mentioning the subject, the theme, they want to investigate, and phrasing it as a question. If you do no more than that, you will find that you have no criteria for selection of the appropriate literature, data, etc. This often leads to irrelevant and vague results.

Examples of such an aimless approach are questions such as:

What is the market position of brand X like?

What is involved in telemarketing?

These questions do not make clear what the researcher wants to investigate. The reader does not know what aspects of the subject will be dealt with. Neither is it clear whether the research -and therefore the report- will be merely informative, or whether the writer will give his opinions as well.

Of course you very often start with no more than a subject: usually you have only a vague idea of what you are going to investigate. But you should try to specify this vague starting point as soon as possible. You should not work with themes, but with questions about themes. And your research is a way to find the answers to these questions.

It is inevitable that the first question on a theme is a rather vague one. This is no problem, provided that you specify it during the first stage of your research. This stage is often called *exploratory research*. *Exploratory research* usually involves some interviews, research of specialist literature, and sometimes a small-scale enquiry. Its main purpose is to explore what exactly you will have to investigate in your research. Another important matter is that you must find out whether the problem you want to investigate has been investigated before. If so, doing the same thing again would be useless.

An example of an exploratory question is:

"What are possible factors causing the current drop in our turnover?"

There are usually so many factors involved, that it is impossible to investigate them all. Exploratory research will give you an impression of the most important ones, or the ones that the company may be able to change. By looking at other reports on similar situations and at other books and

magazines on this field of research, you may be able to specify this question so that you get a good “definition of the problem”. This should be practical enough to enable you to start your research. Exploratory research will not present you with answers to your exploratory question(s), perhaps it will make it possible to formulate some hypotheses.

1.3. Component Parts

A definition of a problem should state explicitly:

- * a point of view / purpose
- * a question (ending in a question mark!)
- * a clear, unambiguous definition of all the terminology used in that question.

As we stated before, the definition of the problem must refer to a practical situation. Therefore, it is important to indicate precisely what your -practical- purpose is. We will come back to that later, since there is another matter -closely related to the purpose of the report- that we want to go into first: the point of view.

In your research -and also in your report- you must approach your subject from a certain point of view. This may be:

- * a client, e.g. a firm or organisation, who is experiencing a problem;
- * an imaginary client who might have an -imaginary- problem.

For you the latter will be the case, as there are no real clients to give you an assignment. In fact you are in an exceptional situation: you are free to choose your own subject of research and a point of view.

Example (points of view)

Suppose that your subject of research is vandalism. It is possible to approach this subject from different angles, different points of view. Depending on the point of view that you adopt, you can create various definitions of the problem:

<u>Point of view</u>	<u>Definition of the problem</u>
town council	How serious is the problem of vandalism in the city of Utrecht?
police	What must we do to stop vandalism in Utrecht?
psychologist	What are the causes of vandalism in Utrecht?
insurance company	In what cases do we insure against damage resulting from vandalism?

victim

What must I do to prevent acts of vandalism against my person?

Your point of view also affects the structure of your report. A report on absenteeism from the point of view of a Personnel Manager will have a different structure than a report on the same subject from the point of view of the head of a department.

In the case of business reports the client is usually also the reader of the report. But this is not always the case. For example, you will write your thesis for a client -usually the company or organisation where you spent your work placement- but your report will have two very different types of readers: the client and the examiner (usually a teacher). Their knowledge of the subject and their interests will differ. As a writer you will have to take these differences into account.

The above illustrates the importance of a clearly defined point of view. Your definition of the problem should state the point of view/reader of your report exactly, and the structure of your report should make sense from the point of view of your client/reader.

Having dealt with the point of view, we now turn to the purpose of the report. You will understand that in this context the purpose depends on the client/reader. Stating the purpose of your report implies that you indicate what your client/reader might do after reading your report. As you can see, in our opinion a purpose must be practical.

1.4. Types

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

descriptive

evaluative

policy making

1.4.1. 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?

1.4.2. Evaluative

If the purpose of your research (and report) is evaluative, then you must try to give your 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?

1.4.3. 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?

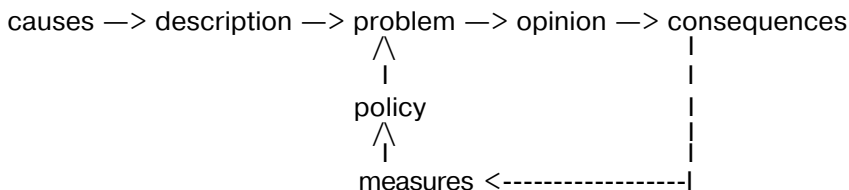
Policy making reports indicate what should (not) be done in a certain situation. The answer to a policy-making definition of the problem is an advice to the client/reader. This advice is of course based on previous descriptive and evaluative phases of research.

1.5. 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.



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.

2. Chapter and Section Structure

This chapter tells you how to design a clear and logical preliminary structure for your report. As we explained in chapter one you cannot do this without a definition of the problem. In this chapter 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.

2.1. 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 also 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

The first factor is discussed in this chapter. The other two will be dealt with later.

2.2. 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.

2.3. 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.

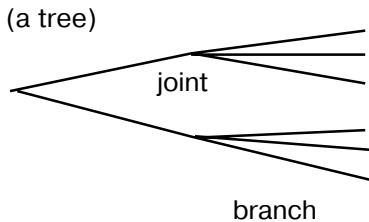
2.3.1. Description

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. We will come back to this later.

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.



2.3.2. Rules for Use

In this section we will explain the basic rules for using the tree. With each rule we will show you what happens if you do not obey it.

Rule 1: use only one principle of classification per joint

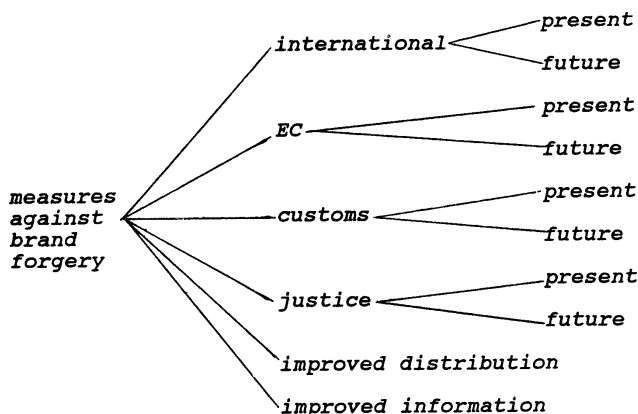
If you use more than one principle of classification, you risk creating an overlap. The structure will become obscure.

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!**

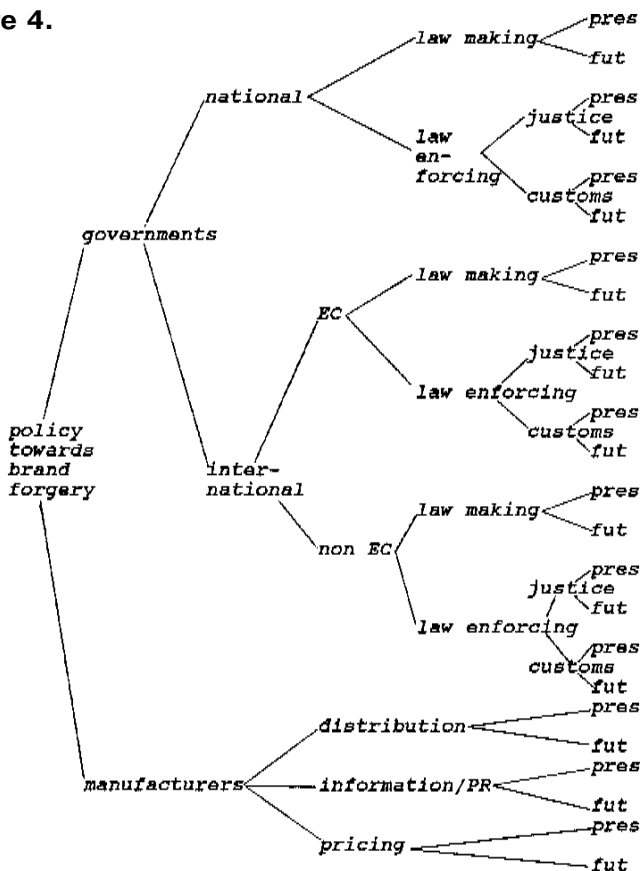
- legal reach of the measures (international/EC)
- enforcement of the laws regarding brand forgery (customs/justice)
- actual measures to be taken by manufacturers (improved distribution/improved information).

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.

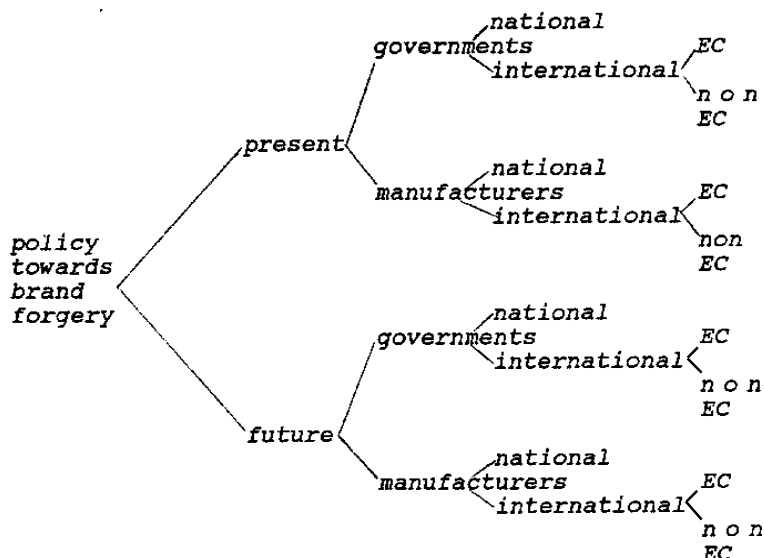


The change in the starting point of the tree - policy instead of measures- makes a subdivision present/future possible throughout the report. Other trees are possible too, depending on the writer's view (or the client's).

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.



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.

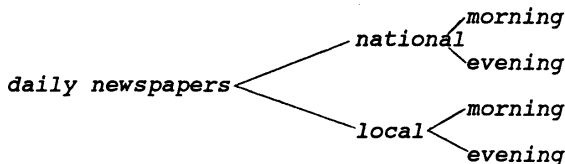
Figure 6.



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.



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.



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

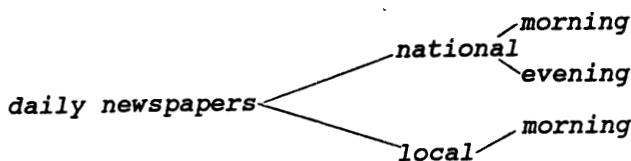
Do not apply this rule too strictly. Absolute symmetry is hardly ever possible. Apply symmetry only if it is useful and possible.

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 I 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*

2.3.3. Principles of Classification

There are four principles of classification that occur frequently:

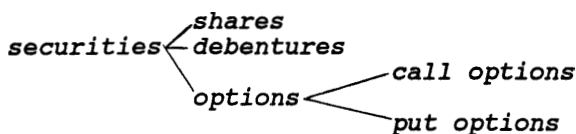
- * **(sub)theme**
- * **place**
- * **time**
- * **method of investigation**

* **(sub)Theme**

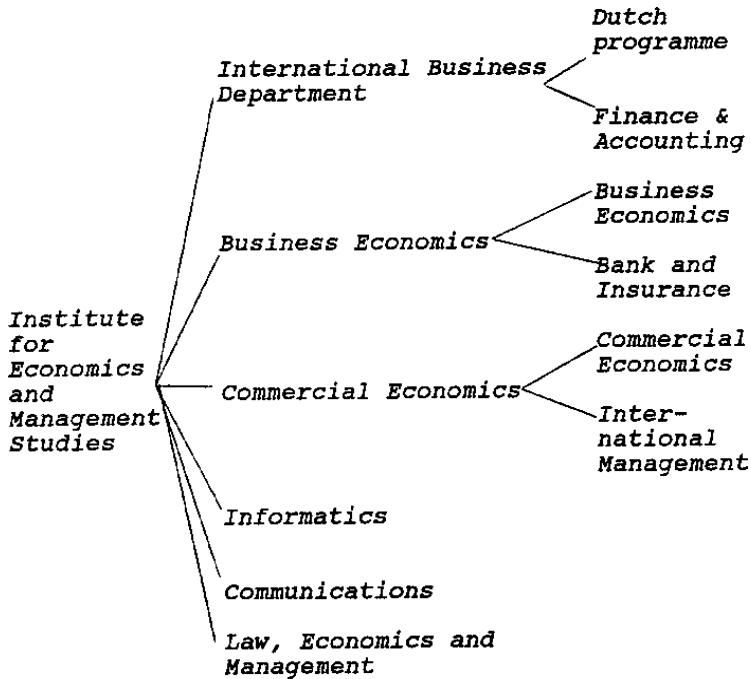
The nature of the (sub) theme determines the classification. This means that you should have some knowledge of the theme. Very often a basic knowledge will suffice. The criterion '(sub)theme' may be further subdivided into: types, parts, parties involved, aspects, possible causes, possible solutions. Here are some examples of each:

Figure 10.

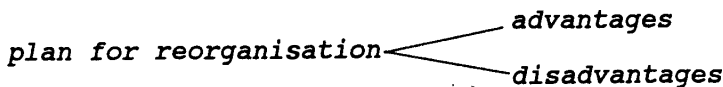
types



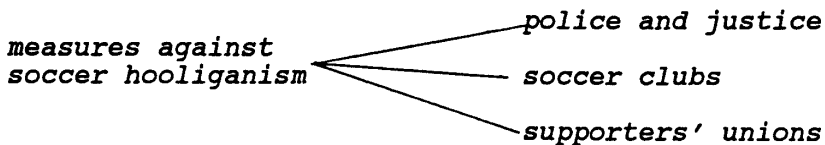
parts



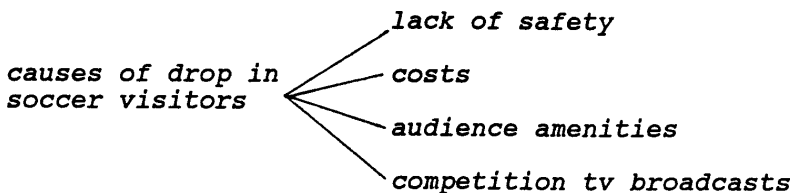
aspects



parties involved



possible causes



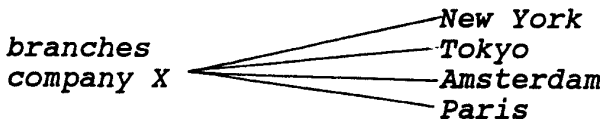
possible solutions



* Place

This principle of classification is usually applied in the right-hand part of the tree, as it is hardly ever one of the main principles.

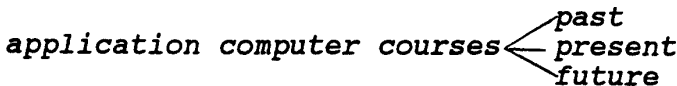
Figure 11.



* Time

This principle of classification will prove useful for descriptions of developments over a certain period. It is also applicable in predictive reports.

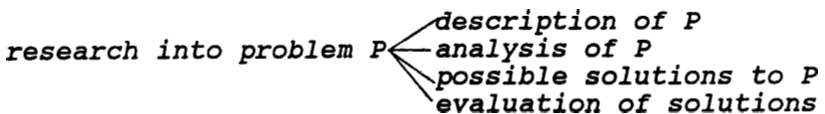
Figure 12.



* Method of investigation

Division in accordance with this principle is based on the approach to research. It is often used in scientific research. It may be regarded as a special form of the first principle we discussed: (sub)theme.

Figure 13.



2.3.4. Purpose and Principles of Classification

In this section we will discuss the relation between the purpose of research (cf. 1.3) and the principles of classification (cf. 2.3.3). You should not expect a direct link: the choice of a purpose (e.g. evaluative) does not imply the use of certain principles of classification. Nevertheless, for certain purposes of research some principles are more obvious than others.

Of course you usually have more than one principle of classification in a tree (otherwise the tree would consist of only one joint with a number of branches). In this section, however, we restrict our remarks to the primary principle of classification (i.e. on the extreme left). This is the primary criterion for the chapter structure of your report.

Purely Descriptive Research

The primary principle of classification depends on the nature of the subject. A division in **parts** is possible if you want to describe a company, e.g. a multinational. A description of a development implies a division in **time**.

Analytic Descriptive and Predictive Descriptive Research

Time is frequently used as a principle of classification in these types of research. In the case of predictive research the underlying chapter division is often past/present/future.

Evaluative Research

This research often contains a comparison, for example between measures, products or plans. Popular principles of classification in this type of research are **type, parties involved and method**. **Method** is often the primary principle of classification, e.g. description/evaluation or alternatives/principles for evaluation.

Policy Making Research

Again **method** is often used, e.g. description of the problem/possible solutions/advice. But other possibilities are: **type** (type of problem/type of solution etc.), **aspect, place and time**.

2.4. Hierarchy

The hierarchy in the structure of the report becomes visible in the numbers of the chapters and (sub)sections. When numbering you must stick to the following rules.

Rule 1: never skip a level of classification

Example (missing level of classification)

- 2. Factory Data Collection Systems*
- 2.1.1 Manufacturing Resource Planning (MRP)*
- 2.1.2 Purpose of MRP*
- 2.1.3 Conditions for MRP*
- 2.2.1 Flexible Production Automation (FPA)*
- 2.2.2 Purpose of FPA*

- 2.2.3 *Conditions for FPA*
- 2.3.1 *Factory Data Collection (FDC)*
- 2.3.2 *Purpose of FDC*
- 2.3.3 *Conditions for FDC*

It is clear that a level of classification is missing: there are no 2.1., 2.2. and 2.3. Never create subsections unless you already have sections.

Rule 2: never add unnecessary levels

Example (unnecessary level of classification)

- 4. *Product development*
- 4.1 *Introduction*
- 4.1.1 *The product*
- 4.2 *Past (1980-1990)*
- 4.3 *Present (1990-1991)*
- 4.4 *Future (1992-1995)*
- 4.5 *Conclusion*

Subsection 4.1.1 is superfluous, as there is no 4.1.2. There is no need for a division here. 4.1.1 should be removed, or another subsection should be added.

Rule 3: be consistent in applying (sub) divisions

Example (inconsistent (sub) division)

- 2.
- 2.1 *Introduction*
- 2.2
- 2.3
- 2.4 *Conclusion*

- 3.
- 3.1 *General*
- 3.2
- 3.3
- 3.4 *Concluding*

The titles of 2.1/2.4 on the one hand and 3.1/3.4 on the other hand should be similar. In a conventionally structured report this similarity could be applied in every chapter.

3. Phrasing

In chapter two we stated that the structure of a report should be clear. We also mentioned the three factors that determine the clarity of the structure: the logic of the structure; the phrasing of chapter and section titles and the visual presentation of the structure. So far we have mainly dealt with the first and third. In this chapter we will have a look at the second. We will also give you some further instructions regarding the phrasing of the definition of the problem, for a lot may depend on its precise phrasing.

3.1. Definition of the Problem

Although the definition of the problem usually consists of various elements (main question, possible subquestions, purpose, point of view), we restrict ourselves here to one part, the **main question**.

Much depends on the phrasing of the definition of the problem. The reader may be misled by a slight inaccuracy and expect the report to be different from what you intended. Therefore, your definition of the problem must be phrased as exactly and clearly as possible.

As we stated in chapter one, the definition of the problem has two functions:

- * it is the starting point and directive of the research;
- * it is the reader's guideline; it contains the main question that you will answer in your conclusion to the report.

A common mistake deriving from this double function is that in many reports the conclusion is not really an answer to the main question posed in the introduction. There are two possible discrepancies:

- The answer to the main question lacks information; for example when the definition of the problem is evaluative, whereas the conclusion is descriptive, or when the answer to a policy- making definition of the problem is no more than an opinion (evaluative).
- The answer to the main question contains too much information; for example when an advice is given in reply to an evaluative definition of the problem, or when a descriptive definition of the problem is answered by means of an opinion (evaluative).

These mistakes occur when in the report the writer simply uses the same definition of the problem that he used during his research. He has not realised that in the course of the research or the writing process he has come up with either more or less than what he had intended to.

Always check whether the answer that you give in your conclusion is really a complete answer to the main question in the introduction. If not, change either your definition of the problem, or rewrite the conclusion.

Another frequent mistake in the phrasing of the definition of the problem is insufficient tuning to the purpose.

Example (phrasing not in tune with purpose)

Definition of the problem: By means of what sales promotion activities can the number of repeat purchases and the average amount spent in our shops be increased?

Point of view: management of a chain of perfumeries.

This phrasing of the definition of the problem allows two interpretations:

- Descriptive: the report will give an inventory of all possible sales promotion activities (the most appropriate is to be selected at a later date).
- Policy making: the report will present an advice on the best/most effective sales promotion activities.

The phrasing of your definition of the problem should be in keeping with the purpose.

To conclude this section we give you some advice on how to phrase a clear and unambiguous definition of the problem.

Descriptive Definition of the Problem

Try to use **to be** or another verb expressing the fact that the report is a collection of facts, a description of a situation.

Examples (descriptive definitions of the problem using a form of **to be**)

What is the present distribution of video films in France, Germany and the Benelux like?

*What **are** the causes of the failures in the distribution of video films in France?*

Evaluative Definition of the Problem

In this type we often see a comparison between different possibilities. So, you may use a **comparative** or a **superlative**.

Examples (use of the comparative and superlative in evaluative definition of the problem)

*What is **more** effective in city marketing: improving the product or the marketing concept?*

*What packaging is **most** efficient to export soft fruits?*

Furthermore, evaluative definitions of the problem often have **evaluative** elements (usually adjectives, adverbs, sometimes verbs) such as **positive, negative, favourable, cheap, profitable, attractive, sufficient**. Their exact meanings are not fixed, but depend on the writer's definitions. The writer must describe and explain his criteria in the report.

Examples (evaluative elements in evaluative definition of the problem)

To what extent is distribution of video films by mail order feasible in the Benelux?

*Does the packaging of soft fruit for export **meet** European standards?*

Does the cash dispenser fit in sufficiently with the services of ABN (Dutch bank)?

Policy-Making Definition of the Problem

As we stated before, policy making research always contains descriptive and evaluative phases. That is why it seems natural to include such elements in the definition of the problem. But it is better to phrase the definition in an unambiguous way.

Example (evaluative element in policy-making definition of the problem)

What is the most appropriate marketing tool in the video market?

If this is to be a policy making report (not merely an opinion, but also advice on the best tool), then it is better to use verbs like **must** or **should**.

Example (policy-making definition of the problem)

What marketing tool should we use in our approach to the video market?

3.2. Chapter and (sub)Section Titles

When phrasing the titles of the chapters and (sub) sections of your report you should meet the following criteria:

- a) They must be informative and cover the content of the part of the text that they refer to.
- b) They must be short and pithy.
- c) They must be phrased as much as possible in a parallel way.

We will briefly illustrate these criteria.

- a) The function of (sub)titles in a text may be compared to labels on a tin. A consumer who opens a tin and finds that it contains peas instead of carrots, may feel just as cheated as a reader who finds that a part of a text is entirely different from what he/she had expected judging from its title. It may even make him/her put the entire report aside. That is why you must make sure that the reader of your report always knows what he/she may or may not expect to find in a chapter, section or subsection.

Titles are often not very informative because the writer uses vague words, but the opposite occurs as well: titles that show so much technical language that the reader loses heart.

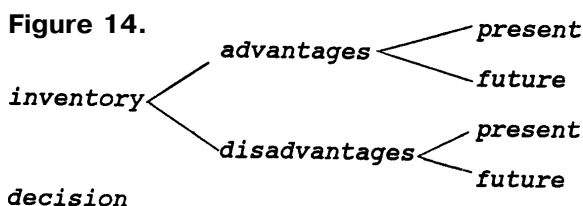
Example (technical language in titles)

Eutrophication of surface water as a possible growth factor of the Arthropoda

Another reason why titles may turn out to be less informative than the writer had intended is that in these titles he/she stresses the method of research too much.

Example (methodological titles)

The following tree is used for the chapter and section structure of a report on a new system of distribution for branded clothing:



This tree may lead to the following chapter and section structure;

- *Foreword*

1. *Introduction*

2. *System of distribution*

2.1 *Working of present system*

2.2 *Faults of present system*

2.3 *Proposed change*

3. *Advantages*

3.1 *Immediate advantages*

3.2 *Short-term advantages*

3.3 *Possible future advantages*

4. *Disadvantages*

4.1 *Immediate disadvantages*

4.2 *Short-term disadvantages*

4.3 *Possible future disadvantages*

5. *Decision*

6. *Conclusion*

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The structure in itself is clear (amongst other things because of its symmetry), but the titles of chapters 3 and 4 are not very informative. The reader does not get any information on the **content**. It is better to use the main (dis)advantages as titles.

Another common mistake is that titles promise **more** or **less** information than the text really gives.

Examples (too much/not enough information in titles)

Measures to reduce the use of alcohol

(title of a chapter evaluating several measures against the use of alcohol **when driving**)

The success of the latest “no alcohol when driving” campaign
(title of a chapter discussing the effects of **several** campaigns during **the past 20 years**)

- b) Titles should be short and concise. If they are not, the reader will find it much more difficult to understand the general structure of your report by having a look at your table of contents.

There is no strict rule concerning the length of (sub)titles, but try to make them as short as possible. An occasional long title is no problem, but try to avoid the **frequent use** of titles of more than five words. If you use many long titles, the reader may find it (too) much trouble to try to get an impression of the structure of your report.

You will understand that this criterion is contrary to the previous one: it is difficult to phrase an informative title that covers the content of the part of the text it refers to, **and** limit it to approximately 4 or 5 words.

When phrasing a title always take a **noun** as the starting point and put adjectives and other qualifiers before or after it. **Never** start with a verb, because a verb usually leads to an entire sentence, which is always too long. Also avoid using questions as titles (a common mistake); such titles tend to be too long as well.

Example (length of titles)

What level of education does the Dutch tourist have and to what social group does he belong?

This title can be considerably reduced in length:

Education and social group

- c) In order to translate the symmetry of the structure to the titles, you should aim at parallel titles when the contents of certain parts of the text are similar.

Example (no parallel titles)

A big hospital is forced to reduce its costs by 9% within two years.

Generally speaking there are three alternatives:

- reduction of the number of beds (and so: less personnel)*
- freezing the purchase of new medical equipment*

- using volunteers and temps

A report discussing opinions on these alternatives shows the following structure:

3. Reduction number of beds

3.1 Opinion patients

3.2 Opinion medical staff

3.3 Opinion nursing staff

3.4 Opinion catering and administrative staff

4. Freezing purchase of new medical equipment

4.1 Doctors and specialists

4.2 Nurses

4.3 Other personnel

4.4 Patients

5. Using volunteers and temps

5.1 Patients

5.2 Opinion nursing staff

5.3 Doctors

5.4 Opinion other employees

In each chapter the opinions of the four parties involved are presented in a similar way. But the titles do not demonstrate the symmetry: they have not been phrased in a parallel way.

4. Paragraph Structure

So far we have paid a lot of attention to devising an appropriate structure for a report. Once the outline is there, you can start the actual writing. It is important to introduce a clear paragraph structure, so that also within a paragraph the structure remains clear. A device for the reader to grasp this structure are visual supports in the text.

Paragraphing the text is in fact expressing the structure by means of - amongst others- visual supports, so that the reader can form an impression of the writer's train of thoughts. The above implies that paragraphing a messy or badly structured text is impossible. In such a case you will have to revise your train of thought, i.e. the entire text.

4.1. Redundancy

Paragraphing a text can be regarded as a type of redundancy. In a redundant text the same information is presented in different ways. If a text has no redundancy whatsoever, all the information occurs only once. This may make the text very difficult to read. An example of a text without redundancy is the telephone directory: every number and name are mentioned only once. Another example is a cookery book: every action in the cooking process is mentioned only once.

It is often wise to introduce redundancy in your text: it reduces the density of information. Hardly anyone is capable of reading a long text attentively. A redundant text offers a less attentive reader an opportunity to understand the train of thought.

There are two types of redundancy:

redundancy in content
redundancy in structure

Redundancy in Content

One way to achieve redundancy in the content of the text is repetition. It need not be boring, provided that you present the same information in a different way, for example by paraphrasing it or by giving an example.

Example (no redundancy in content)

You should not force a left-handed child to use its right hand, as this can result in language problems.

Example (redundancy in content)

If a child is left-handed, you should not force it to use its right hand. This can have many undesired effects in a totally different area: its linguistic development. Opposing lefthandedness may disrupt and slow down a child's linguistic development.

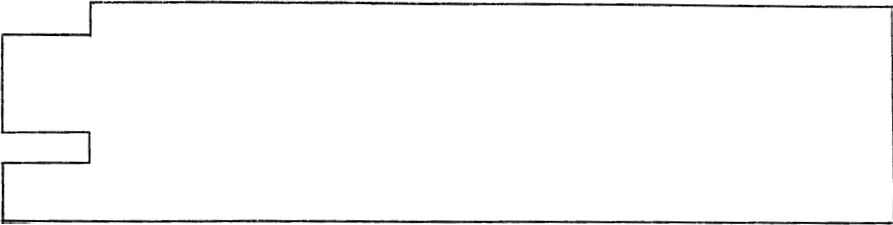
Redundancy in Structure

There are two ways to introduce structural redundancy in your text:

- **visual**: by skipping and/or indenting lines. There are three possibilities:

a) ***indenting***

The disadvantage of indenting is that the text seems very long because no lines are skipped.



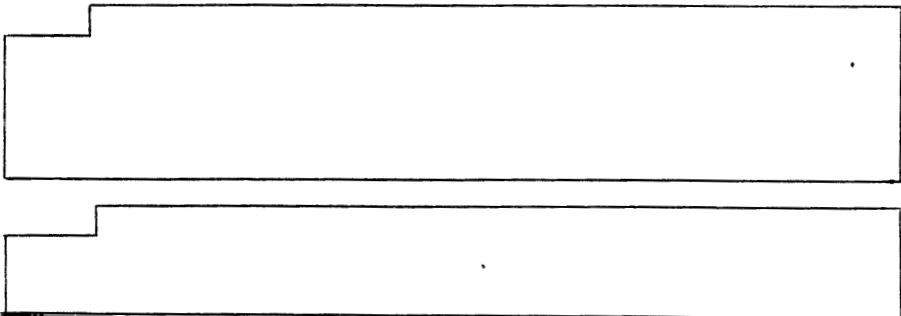
b) ***skipping a line***

The disadvantage mentioned above is not present. But there is another problem. If a paragraph ends at the end of a page, you cannot see the start of the following paragraph on the next page.



c) ***skipping a line and indenting***

The two disadvantages mentioned above have been solved. If you use this method, remember not to indent the first paragraph after a (sub)title.



- **verbal**: use linking words or sentences to make the relation between paragraphs clear.

Example (linking words/sentences)

Automation is increasing. Products that used to be handmade are now manufactured by machines. At first the machines were operated by people, but nowadays operation has been automated as well.

The result is unemployment. This unemployment is not temporary but permanent. It is structural unemployment that unlike seasonal unemployment - is not the result of diminishing demand.

The two paragraphs show a cause-result relation. This relation is expressed by **The result** at the beginning of the second paragraph. Linking words make the relation between two parts of a text explicit.

There are many other relations between paragraphs. We give you an - incomplete list, including possible linking words.

cause-result	because of this, as, because, that is why, therefore, for, as a result
enumeration	firstly, secondly, ...; also, furthermore, besides, finally
contrast	but, however, still, on the other hand, in spite of, although, nevertheless
illustration	for example, to illustrate this
conclusion	so, therefore, that is why, concluding
condition	provided, if, on condition that
summary	in short, in brief, in a word
succession	then, after that, consecutive, after, before

Of course you can also use these linking words at a lower level, to link up sentences or words.

Linking sentences or paragraphs may be used to express the relations between bigger parts of the text. By stating in a few sentences what the following (part of the) text is about you can make sure that the reader knows what to expect. This type of structural redundancy is imperative in a good introduction to a report (cf. 5.2), but you should also use it to introduce a chapter or (sub)section.

Linking sentences and paragraphs may have the following functions:

- a) **prospective**: you tell the reader in advance what he may expect from the text.

Example (prospective linking sentence)

Why has MacMillan's turnover decreased in the past few months? There are several causes for this, which we will illustrate in this section.

- b) **retrospective**: afterwards you sum up what you dealt with in the preceding part of the text.

Example (retrospective linking sentence)

These were some possibilities to step up production.

- c) **transition**: you express the relation between the contents of two parts of the text by summing up what the preceding part was about and by telling in advance what the following part will be about.

Example (transitional linking sentence)

Now that it has become clear why MacMillan's turnover has dropped so much, we can now have a look at possible solutions. In section 3.5 we will discuss some options.

4.2. Core/Explanation

It is wise to outline the general structure of your paragraphs in advance, i.e. before actually writing the text. In fact this is the same method that we advised you to adopt when outlining a chapter and section structure (cf. chapter 2).

This method involves the use of linking words/sentences/paragraphs discussed in the previous section, but it also means that you think out the internal structure of the paragraphs in advance.

A paragraph - the smallest unit of a text- has several parts: first of all the main statement, the core. It carries the most important information of the paragraph. The rest of the paragraph is an explanation.

Example (the core of the paragraph is underlined)

After a turbulent period, the company has now reached less troubled waters. *A year ago it was severely threatened, because the American parent company wanted to get rid of the Dutch subsidiary. After some months of uncertainty and the inevitable shake out that cost 142 jobs, the Dutch firm decided to go on independently.*

It is important to make only one main statement per paragraph. Do not cram your paragraphs with statements, ideas or subjects, but obey the following rule:

new (part of the) subject: new paragraph

To make it easier for your reader you had better put your main statement **at the beginning** or **at the end** of a paragraph. When skimming a text, the reader will pay special attention to these parts of the paragraphs. If the core of the paragraph is in one of them, the general content of the text is easier to grasp.

So, a paragraph consists of a core and an explanation. The best places for the core are at the beginning or at the end of a paragraph.

Paragraphing becomes a lot more difficult if you do it **after** you have written the text. You will have to read your text trying to find good places for new paragraphs.

Many people stick to the rule that you should have about four or five paragraphs a page. But that is not a good directive. There is a risk that you create paragraphs that show no unity of content. The most important criterion also when paragraphing **afterwards**- is the **content** of the text.

When paragraphing afterwards it is very important to apply a structure based on content **consistently**. If a text presents several solutions to a problem and you decide to create a new paragraph for each solution, then you must not drop this structure when one solution takes up only three lines, or as much as two pages.

By the way, it is certainly possible to subdivide paragraphs that turn out to be very long, but make sure that once more you subdivide in accordance with the **content**.

5. Outward Appearance

The reader's first impression of a report is to a great extent determined by its outward appearance. Very often the first impression is of vital importance for the decision to read the report or not. A badly copied report with densely typed pages may make the reader lose heart and decide to put the report aside for a while, or even for good. The outward appearance of your report is like the package of a product that influences the consumer's decision to buy.

5.1. Preparing the Manuscript

The reader's opinion on the report will be determined by both its content and its outward appearance. Therefore, it is very important to pay attention to the manuscript.

Size

Use only A4 paper (21 x 29.7 cm). Type on one side.

Spacing

As many printers do not have 1.5 spacing, you may use single spacing as well.

Margins

Aim at margins as mentioned below (they need not be exactly this, but should not be **much** bigger or smaller):

left : 4 cm
right : 2 cm
top : 3 cm
bottom : 3 cm

Page Numbers

Number pages consecutively, centred at the top or at the bottom, using Arabic numerals. Never put a number on page I (the title page), but do count it as such. Do not use a full stop after page numbers. Do not number before you have typed the entire report.

Division Marks

Use Arabic chapter and section numbers. Do not use words like **Chapter** in a title, and avoid section marks. Chapter and section numbers express the hierarchy of the report. Avoid numbers consisting of more than four figures. You will not please anybody with a subsection number like 4.7.3.5.2

Never put a full stop after the last figure, except in chapter numbers.

Chapter and Section Titles

Chapter and section titles are underlined. Never put a full stop after a title. Skip a line between a title and the first line of the text.

Always start a new chapter on a new page. New (sub)sections are indicated by skipping some lines.

Do not refer to the chapter or (sub)section title in the text. Titles are not really part of the text, they mark the structure. The reader who is reading the actual text does not really pay attention to the titles any more. For example it would have been confusing if the first line of this chapter -titled Outward appearance- had been: This is very important.

Paragraphing

cf. chapter 4

Illustrations

Illustrations (charts, tables, photographs, diagrams, etc.) may be useful. The information they provide is easily accessible. And they allow the reader a rest. Here again first impressions are crucial. Make sure that your illustrations are clear and look good.

Furthermore, keep the following in mind:

- * Give every illustration a number. This makes it easier to refer to it in the text.

There are two possible ways of numbering:

- consecutive numbering for all the illustrations in the report;
- consecutive numbering in each chapter, using the chapter number as the first part.

The advantage of the latter is that when you add or leave out an illustration, you need not change the numbering throughout the report.

In reports with many illustrations tables sometimes have a separate numbering to distinguish them from other the illustrations, which are all called figures. So, table 1, table 2, table 3, etc. and fig. 1, fig. 2, fig. 3, etc.

- * Provide every illustration with an informative title that covers the nature of the illustration.
- * Always explain illustrations. Tell the reader what they are about. Keep in mind that an illustration from another publication is not always clear for

a reader who does not know your source. You may have to give some extra explanation.

- * If you borrow an illustration from another publication, always mention the source using the author/year system that we will explain in 5.3.
- * Make sure that your illustrations have a link with the text. In many reports illustrations appear out of the blue! Introduce the illustrations, so that the reader knows what to expect.
- * Remember that illustrations that are interesting for only a (small) part of your readers should not be included in the text. Add them to your report as an appendix.

5.2. Parts of the Report

A (very) complete report contains the following parts:

cover
title page
(foreword)
contents
introduction
text
conclusion
summary
(afterword)
(notes)
bibliography
appendix(es)

The parts in brackets are optional. You will not see them in every report. The other parts are more or less normal in a report. We will give a brief explanation below.

5.2.1. Cover

An attractive cover may appeal to the reader and make him/her decide to read the report. The cover of your report should show the following:

- * the title of the report
- * your form
- * your group number

You may state your and the other writers' names if you like.

A fourth-year thesis usually has a standard cover (colour: brown), so that it may immediately be recognised as a thesis. It should show:

- * the title of the thesis
- * the name of the school

5.2.2. Title Page

State the following on the title page:

- * title of the report
- * initials and surname (s) of the writer (s)
- * course (English Programme)
- * date of completion
- * your form
- * your group number

The title of the report has two functions:

- It gives information about the content/subject of the report; the title should therefore be short and informative.
- It arouses the reader's interest. A catching or surprising title will make the reader want to know what the report is about.

It is difficult to combine the two. For our purposes an informative title is the best. If you decide to have a catching title, then add an informative subtitle.

Example (catching title/informative subtitle)

Up in the air; development of MartinAir's cargo trade 1986-1990

5.2.3. Foreword

The foreword is a rather personal -and optional- part of the report. This is your opportunity to raise matters that do not refer to the content of the report, but to its production. You may thank people for helping you, for example the teacher who coached you during the production of your fourth-year thesis.

Other possible subjects are:

- problems that arose during the research or writing process;
- division of tasks in your group;

- the external frame of the report (for example: the project between statistics and business communication); this is something that you may also mention in the introduction.

A foreword never has a chapter number.

5.2.4. Contents

The table of contents has a double function:

- * It offers the reader a possibility to look up parts of the report. That is why you must state page numbers.
- * It reflects the structure of the report.

A good **visual presentation** is essential. The difference between the various chapters must be clear. Therefore, always skip a line between chapters. Indent to mark a section, and indent even more to mark a subsection. First type the chapter or (sub) section numbers, then the titles.

Furthermore, keep the following in mind:

- * Page numbers should be put in a vertical line on the right-hand side of the paper.
- * Make sure that the titles in the table of contents match the ones that you use in your report.
- * Never include the table of contents in the table of contents.

Below you will find a table of contents from a report on hometaping and piracy that meets our visual requirements.

Example (table of contents)

CONTENTS

- <i>Introduction</i>	3
1. <i>Definition</i>	4
1.1 <i>Home taping</i>	4
1.2 <i>Piracy</i>	5
2. <i>Causes</i>	7
2.1 <i>Financial advantages</i>	7
2.2 <i>Technical developments</i>	8
2.3 <i>Advertising</i>	10

3. <i>Consequences</i>	13
3.1 <i>The artist</i>	13
3.2 <i>The consumer</i>	14
3.3 <i>The record company</i>	15
4. <i>Legal aspects</i>	18
4.1 <i>Acts of Parliament</i>	18
4.2 <i>Flaws in copyright</i>	19
4.3 <i>Reasons for status quo</i>	20
5. <i>Solutions</i>	21
5.1 <i>Justice</i>	21
5.2 <i>Cooperation between authorities</i>	22
5.3 <i>Cooperation between authorities and claimants</i>	23
5.4 <i>'Copyright gates'</i>	23
5.5 <i>Cooperation between manufacturers of 'software' and 'hardware'</i>	24
5.6 <i>Taxes on tapes and cameras</i>	25
5.6.1 <i>Height of taxes</i>	25
5.6.2 <i>Ways to collect taxes</i>	26
5.6.3 <i>Exemptions</i>	27
5.6.4 <i>Reactions of consumers</i>	27
5.6.5 <i>Opponents of taxes</i>	28
- <i>Conclusions</i>	29
- <i>Summary</i>	30
- <i>Bibliography</i>	32
- <i>Appendices</i>	33

5.2.5. Introduction

Having made a preliminary introduction stating the main starting points of your research, you should not write the final introduction until the report has been completed. The introduction is more than anything focused on the reader: it should function as 'operating instructions' for the report. As we said before, the introduction should make clear in an unambiguous way what the report will be about, so that the reader knows what to expect. If the introduction fails in this respect, there is a big risk that the reader's opinion on the report will be negative.

The introduction should have the following elements:

- * Justification of the subject (why is it interesting and what made you choose it?) and the external frame of the subject (e.g. first-year project statistics/business communication).
- * The exact definition of the problem, along with the purpose of the report and the point of view.
- * The restrictions to the research and a justification of these restrictions.
- * The method of investigation (how did you gather your data and how recent/complete/representative are they?).
- * The general structure of the report.

Make sure that the introduction does not exceed one or two pages.

You may provide the introduction with a chapter number, but if you do so, you must also number the conclusion as a chapter. On the other hand, if you do not make the introduction into chapter one, then you are not allowed to give the conclusion a chapter number.

Below you will find an example of an introduction to a report. The report is about holidays in Spain.

Example (introduction)

justification of subject

This report deals with the developments of holidays to Spain. We have chosen this subject because holidays, especially summer holidays, are extremely important for many people. Besides the beginning of the calendar year is the time when many holidays are booked. These are a number of reasons why we expect this report to be of interest to many people.

definition of the problem; point of view; purpose

Our definition of the problem is: What were the developments of holidays to Spain in the period 1980-1990? This report has been written mainly for touroperators. By reading this report, they can get an impression of developments during a period of ten years. They may even be able to draw conclusions for the future, and take certain steps. Of course anyone who is interested in Spain as a holiday destination may read the report.

restrictions; justification

We have restricted ourselves to one country: Spain. On the one hand because we could find a lot of information

about it, on the other hand because Spain is a major holiday destination for the Dutch. We chose the period of 1980-1990 because a period of ten years is long enough to show interesting developments. We stopped at 1990 because we could not find more recent figures.

method of investigation

When gathering information about Spain we wrote to several authorities and agencies, but most of them could not supply us with data. We received information from CBS (Centraal Bureau voor Statistiek) and the Spanish Tourist Authority. Newspaper articles from the public library also contained interesting information. Unfortunately we have not been able to give an absolutely reliable picture of the developments, as our information was incomplete. But we think that we have been able to give a good impression.

general structure

This report first gives an explanation of the activities of the touroperator. This information is of no importance for the touroperator, but other readers may not be familiar with the work of a touroperator. The next chapter shows the developments during the period of 1980-1990 in figures. Then we will describe the trends as depicted by the newspaper articles that we found. Finally we compare the information from our two sources and draw our conclusions.

5.2.6. Text

As we stated before, the structure of the text (chapter and section structure) is expressed by the use of numbers and by the phrasing of the titles. But there is another device you may use to make the structure clear: short introductory and concluding paragraphs at the beginning and end of each chapter.

Such introductory paragraphs to a chapter may contain the following:

- the main question that will be answered in this chapter;
- the link between this question and the definition of the problem;
- the general structure of the chapter (division in (sub) sections).

In the concluding paragraphs the answer to the main question of the chapter is stated. Introductory and concluding paragraphs may also express the links between the preceding and following chapters.

5.2.7. Conclusion

Repeat the definition of the problem as stated in the introduction. Then give the answer to its main question and possible subquestions.

The content of that answer depends to a great extent on the definition of the problem.

- * The answer to a descriptive definition of the problem usually boils down to a brief summary of the information that you have presented in the report. There is very little difference between the conclusion to a descriptive report and the summary. You may combine the two using Conclusion/Summary as a title.
- * An evaluative definition of the problem is answered by an opinion together with the criteria you have applied to form that opinion.
- * Answering a policy-making definition means giving advice. Sometimes the advice is presented separately titled Recommendations. Sometimes conclusions and advice are combined headed **Conclusions / Recommendations**.

Never present new information in your conclusion. The conclusion should follow naturally from the information in the text. The conclusions should already have been put forward throughout the text.

As stated above (cf. 5.2.5), the conclusion may have a chapter number, provided that the introduction has one as well.

5.2.8. Summary

Many students underestimate the importance of a summary. They often consider it 'double (and therefore unnecessary) work' without realising that the summary is the part of the report that is read by most readers. Prospective readers usually read the summary first. Some professionals never read anything but the summary, for example librarians. Having read the summary only part of the readers read on. An even smaller group of readers has a look at the appendix(es).

A summary should not take up more than 1 or 1.5 page. Stick to the main lines of your report. State subject, definition of the problem, purpose, point of view, restrictions, essence of the text and main conclusions.

Make sure that your summary is informative, not descriptive. Avoid sentences like: “In chapter five we compared the advantages of two systems of collection”. Write instead: “Compared with system of collection X system Y has the following advantages: less administrative work, higher efficiency, lower costs.”

Keep in mind that the summary is an independent piece of text that people should be able to read without reading the report.

The place of the summary varies. It is sometimes put after the bibliography. Nowadays it is becoming more and more common to place the summary at the beginning of the report, immediately after the contents. This makes it easier for the reader to have a look at the summary first.

A summary never has a chapter number.

5.2.9. Afterword

You will seldom come across afterwords in reports. It has the same function as a foreword: a personal statement regarding the report. It may contain the same matters as a foreword.

Other possible subjects are:

- ideas for application of the results from your research;
- ideas for further research;
- addresses of authorities and agencies that may be of use for those who are interested.

5.2.10. Notes

There are three possible places for notes:

- * at the bottom of a page
- * at the end of each chapter
- * at the end of the report

In our case notes will rarely be presented at the end of the report. A separate list of notes is more common in scientific reports.

Notes may be consecutively numbered per page, chapter or throughout the chapter. In our reports numbering per page will do.

Notes have two functions:

- citation of sources for statements of fact or opinion, or for quoted matter;

- discussion of details, esp. meant for fellow experts.

In 5.3 we will discuss in what cases you are supposed to cite your sources.

A note is indicated in the text by a number after the sentence or the part of the text it refers to¹. A note stating a source looks as follows:

Example (note citing a source)

3. Collins 1986, p. 25

5.2.11. Bibliography

The two main functions of a bibliography are:

- * Making it possible for the reader to check what written sources you have used. An expert reader will be able to deduce from the bibliography how recent and complete the report is.
- * Making it possible for the reader to assess the way you have used your sources: have you understood/rendered/quoted the information correctly? That is why you must describe your sources in your bibliography in such a way that the reader may look them up if he/she wants to.

Title descriptions vary depending on the nature of the publication (books/articles). That is why we deal with them separately.

Description of **book titles**:

- * **Author's name or authors' names**, followed by a comma.
- * **Title and subtitle** (underlined), followed by a full stop;
 - always take the title from the title page, not from the cover.
 - do not refer to the edition used if it is the first edition;
 - abbreviate the word edition, and use numerals, e.g. 3rd ed.
- * **Place(s) of publication**, followed by a colon;
 - if there is more than one place of publication, write down the first and add, etc., e.g. Tokyo, etc.;
 - if you describe a foreign publication, copy the spelling of the place of publication as you find it on the title page, e. g. Munchen.

¹In superscript or in brackets at the same level as the text, e.g. (1)

- * **Publisher's name**, followed by a comma.
- * **Year of publication**, followed by a full stop.
- * **Serial name and number** (if present), in brackets and followed by a full stop.

Description of **titles of articles in periodicals**:

- * **Author's name or authors' names**, followed by a comma.
- * **Title and subtitle** (in quotation marks, not underlined), followed by a full stop.
- * **Name of the periodical** (underlined), preceded by *in*.
- * **Volume number** and (in brackets) year of publication, followed by a comma.
- * **Issue number**, followed by a comma.
- * **Page numbers**, preceded by *p.* or *pp.*, followed by a full stop.

The following rules apply to both books and articles:

- * **Author's name or authors' names**
 - write them in the same order as on the cover or title page;
 - do not mention academic and other titles;
 - if there are more than three authors, add a.o. (= and others) after the third name.

Make sure that you make a note of all the necessary information that you need for your bibliography. It is a lot of extra work if you have to go to the library again after completing the entire report, because you lack information to write your bibliography. Write it all down as soon as you have found the book or article. If you use many publications then write your title descriptions on separate cards.

Put the bibliography entries in alphabetical order. Include both books and articles (no separate bibliographies!). Alphabetize on the basis of the surname of the (first) author, or on the first word (excluding articles) in the title if the book or article has no writer.

Do not include reference books such as dictionaries or encyclopedias in your bibliography.

Below you will find an example of a bibliography. The title descriptions refer to some of the publications that we have used for this book.

Example (bibliography)

1. Bocharadt, "Het schrijfproces: cognitief-psychologisch onderzoek van Flower en Hayes". In: *Tijdschrift voor taalbeheersing* 6 (1984), no. 1, pp. 23- 42.

J.P. Bowman and B.P. Branchaw, *Business Report Writing*. Chicago: The Dryden Press, 1984.

C. Braas, *Uiterlijke verzorging en indeling van rapporten*. Utrecht, 1986.

C. Braas, E. v.d. Geest, H. Ogg, a.o., *Werkboek rapporteren*. Utrecht: 1990.

J. Comfort, R. Revel and C. Stott, *Business Reports in English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1984.

P.R. Timm and C.G. Jones, *Business Communication. Getting Results*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1983.

5.2.12. Appendix(es)

In appendix(es) you may include information that is too detailed or takes up too much room to be part of the text, for example figures underpinning statements made in the text, or the actual text of a survey.

Number your appendices and refer to them in the text so that the reader's attention is drawn to them. Do not start a new page numbering, but keep up the page numbering of the report.

Appendices listing terminology or abbreviations used in the report may also be put at the beginning of the report: between the table of contents and the introduction.

Keep in mind that an appendix must be a useful part of the report. Do not use it as a filler.

5.3. Quoting and Citation of Sources

In your fourth-year thesis you will report on your own research, e.g. a survey. The same holds good for the report, but the research you carry out is mainly research of written sources (specialist literature). That is why it is very important for you to know how to use and account for them in your report.

5.3.1. Reasons Why

In written communication it is first of all a matter of plain decency to cite one's sources. Furthermore, a writer can add weight to his report by means of quotations and by referring to other publications. Your statements will seem more reliable if they are based on books and articles written by experts.

An advantage for the reader is that he/she can get an impression of the range, topicality and quality of the research of literature. Furthermore, the bibliography can draw his/her attention to other publications on the same subject.

A *quotation* is the literal citation of a part of another publication. You are not allowed to quote without mentioning your source. If you do not cite your source, you may be accused of plagiarism.

Of course it is also possible to borrow certain facts, data, ideas, etc. from other publications, without using the literal words. In that case a reference to these publications in your bibliography will do unless the information you borrowed is not common knowledge, but unique. Then you had better cite the source.

5.3.2. Quotation

When quoting, obey the following rules:

- * Do not quote too much. Only include quotations if they add something to the text, e.g. authority, or if you want to comment on the words used by another author.
- * Put quotations in quotation marks so that the reader knows the words are not your own. Long quotations may be indented so that it is easy to recognise them. It is also possible to use a different font, and/or change the spacing. You may leave out the quotation marks, if you indent or use a different font and/or spacing.

- * If you quote only parts of certain sentences, indicate clearly that you are leaving something out, by inserting (...) in the quotation. If you add any remarks of your own, put them in brackets too. If such a remark is an explanation or comment, then add your initials. Take care not to change the quotation to such an extent that you change its meaning.

5.3.3. Citation of Sources

Cite a source:

- in brackets, immediately after the quotation/borrowed information;
- in brackets, in the text just before or after the quotation/borrowed information.
- in a footnote referred to in the text following the quotation/borrowed information.

A citation of a source consists of:

- * author's name/authors' names;
- * year of publication;
- * page number(s) referring to the page(s) in the source where the information can be found.

Make sure that the sources you have cited in your report are described more fully in your bibliography, so that the reader can look them up if he/she wants to.

6. PREPARING SPEECHES. ORGANISING THOUGHTS

6.1. Developing the Introduction and Conclusion

The final step in organising the speech is to plan the introduction and the conclusion. You should not prepare these parts of the speech until you know what the body of the speech includes. You can make better decisions about the beginning and end when you know what the body consists of. So defer planning both until you have planned all other parts of the speech. Preparing both introduction and conclusion at the same time also makes it easy to relate them to each other. This is an excellent technique to unify a speech.

6.1.1. Introductions

Introductions may be the most important part of a speech. If listeners decide early that they like you, it will positively affect everything else you say.

If listeners have negative impressions at the beginning, they may retain a mental set against everything else you say.

Purposes An introduction should accomplish three things.

Listeners should give you favourable attention; gain a favourable first impression of you; and begin thinking about the subject. In planning introductions, seek to accomplish these three goals.

Listeners' attention is essential at the beginning. If you don't have it then, you may never get it. Moreover, their attention should be favourable. You could easily get listeners' attention with insults or outlandish behaviour. Neither, however, would help much toward reaching your goal.

The introduction is often your listeners' first chance to know you. A study of how people form impressions indicates that we form long-lasting images of others in the first minute of interaction. Once we have them, these impressions are difficult to change. Whether you want listeners to like you, to believe you are a competent authority, or to think you are interested in them and their concerns, it is important they get that impression in the first few minutes of your speech.

Finally, an introduction should begin to focus listeners' thoughts toward your thesis. Doubtless you have been in situations where a speaker started with two or three jokes and then abruptly shifted to a serious topic that seemed completely unrelated to the humour. The abrupt shift was not only jarring; it wasn't necessary. Humour is a good way to start a speech, and it can relate to the idea content of the speech. Since attention is so fleeting, don't take the chance of losing your listeners. Speakers take that chance if listeners have to refocus their thoughts after the introduction.

How long should an introduction be? That depends on the task. If you are unfamiliar to the audience and need time to secure their goodwill, you need a longer introduction. It takes awhile to feel acquainted with strangers. Some situations demand formalities that must be followed. They take time. On the other hand, if the speech is short, the introduction should not be long. If you are well known, or listeners have a great interest in the topic, long introductions aren't necessary. The goals of an introduction should guide its length.

Techniques Several techniques can be used for introductions, and each is effective in its own way. Some are effective used together. Learn to use each technique, because with various subjects some are more useful than others. A skillful speaker can use whichever type of introduction is best for each speech subject and situation.

HUMOUR One of the best ways to begin a speech is with humour. Using humour is good because it can accomplish all three purposes for an

introduction. We like people we laugh with. Humour gains attention. And properly chosen humour can relate to the thesis of the speech.

A speaker can use several types of humour. The most obvious and familiar is a humorous story or anecdote. In other words, tell a joke. Telling jokes is a common pastime for many people, and when the point of the joke relates to the speech topic, it is an excellent speech introduction.

Remember, however, that telling a funny story is not the only way to use humour. You can use humour without ever telling a joke. It is possible to find humour in the occasion or the situation. You can join with your audience in laughing at yourself or the situation. Using wit or irony is often as effective as telling a humorous story. Daniel Moynihan, a Catholic politician, spoke to a Catholic audience on the subject of an encyclical issued in 1963 by Pope John. His introductory comments illustrate our point:

We were—if a parochialism may intrude here—between the generation of Catholics such as Al Smith, who once asked Robert Moses what in the hell a papal encyclical was, and the generation now coming along which shows every disposition to wonder why anyone bothers to issue them. ...I was then an Assistant Secretary of Labour and was at some pains to assure the Harvard graduates in the administration and the press that the Holy Father was indeed in favour of the minimum wage. Being so heavily Catholic, the AFL-CIO was not accustomed to paying much heed to what the papacy thought about working conditions, but the Harvards appeared to be impressed.¹

ANECDOTES OR ILLUSTRATIONS Stories without humour may also be good speech introductions. Human interest, attention value, and relevant points can all be found in serious anecdotes. Telling a story that illustrates the idea or problem you're discussing can gain attention and introduce ideas.

Dr. William Stanmeyer, in a speech critical of our methods of trying criminals, provides an excellent example:

On July 2, 1972, four-year-old Joyce Ann Huff, a beautiful little girl, to judge by the newspaper photos, happily went out to play in the yard of her home in Los Angeles County. She played awhile, her mother occasionally glancing out at her from the kitchen a few feet away ...

Neither Joyce Ann nor her mother noticed a yellow 1966 Chevrolet carrying three men roll up the street and pause while a man in the back seat took aim with a shotgun at the little girl. But they heard a thunderous explosion as the shotgun drove forty-two pellets into Joyce Ann's body and drove her soul forever from the face of this earth. Spattered with blood, Joyce

¹ Daniel Moynihan's speech is in *Vital Speeches of the Day*, January 1, 1976, pp. 172-76.

Ann died within five minutes in the arms of her sobbing mother. Witness identification enabled the police to arrest the three

*What, if anything, under our present system of criminal justice, will happen to the murderers?*¹

QUOTATIONS Another effective way to begin a speech is to use quotations. Quote the words of famous and well-known speakers, leaders, writers, philosophers. Or quote someone known only to the audience if that person is respected by the group. You can quote poetry, music, or philosophy. Take a familiar phrase and twist it in a slightly new way. Because it is usually easy to find a poet or writer who captures your ideas well, quotations are easy to find as well as very good introductions.

Julia Stuart, the national president of the League of Women Voters in 1967, addressed a meeting of the league in Detroit. Her speech illustrates the technique of introduction using quotation:

*The title of my talk to you is "What Can I Do That Matters?" It is taken from a poem in the form of a prayer written by Stephen Spender thirty years ago. "Living," he said, "in the shadow of a war, what can I do that matters?" In his day the shadow was the depression and the growing edge of fascism. In our day we wage war against crime and poverty and for a more orderly world, but the cry. "What can I do that matters?" is still relevant.*²

QUESTIONS Introductions often use either rhetorical or direct questions. Rhetorical questions are those to which speakers do not expect answers. Listeners answer rhetorical questions to themselves or, sometimes, just think about the answers. A good example of a rhetorical question that implies its own answers can be found in remarks by Mary Cunningham. "To the extent that we continue to accept barriers which prevent certain talented individuals from achieving the most responsible levels of corporate power, to that extent we are wasting our greatest resource, the intelligence, creativity and judgment of our people. Can this country really afford to pay such a price for discrimination? Is American industry really willing to provide the receptacle for such waste?"³

A direct question seeks overt audience response. Suppose you need some information from an audience. If you want to talk about a classic movie

¹ From Vital Speeches of the Day, January 1, 1973, pp. 182-86.

² The text of Stuart's speech is in Donald Bryant and Karl Wallace, Fundamentals of Public Speaking, 5th ed. (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1976), pp. 512-21.

³ "Productivity and the Corporate Culture," speech to the Commonwealth Club, San Francisco, February 27, 1981; published in Anita Taylor, Speaking in Public (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1984).

and need to know how much you can assume your listeners know about it, you might ask, “How many of you have seen the movie Citizen Kane?” Or if your speech is a travellog, you may start by asking, “How many of you have been to the French Quarter in New Orleans?”

Using direct questions has more than one value. Sometimes, it’s the only way to get information you need. In addition, it gets at least some overt response from listeners. It helps you begin with a sense of interaction. It helps listeners know that the speech will be a two-way exchange. They’ll feel they are participating, not just attending a performance.

Questions are often used in combination with other techniques in introductions. Combining questions with anecdotes, humour, quotations, or reference to occasion or subject is often effective.

STARTLING STATEMENTS OR STATISTICS For some speeches, citing an impressive statistic or making a startling statement is a good beginning. It can create curiosity and attention. A speaker whose topic relates to the danger of cigarette smoking could start by looking directly at the audience and saying, “At least three people in this audience will someday have lung cancer, five will have heart disease.” This statement is direct, immediately involves listeners, and is somewhat alarming. It presents familiar information for most people, but bringing it directly to listeners’ lives makes it hard to ignore.

The startling statistic is easily combined with the rhetorical question. Just add, “Did you know that ...” to your statistic. For instance, in a speech on storm safety, a speaker started with: “Did you know that lightning kills more people every year than tornadoes and hurricanes combined?”

Reference to Audience, Occasion, or Subject Sometimes it is best to begin with direct reference to occasion, situation, listeners, or the reason you are there. If you are speaking at a meeting called for the purpose of discussing the subject of your speech, a long introduction wastes time and loses interest. Direct reference to the reason you are there may be the best way to begin.

If the audience is interested in the topic, part of the goal of the introduction is already accomplished. On these occasions, the speaker may benefit by immediately using the strong interest that brought the audience together. A speech by Bella Abzug to a conference for southern women convened by the Women’s Political Caucus illustrates. She began without fanfare: “As co-chairwoman of the National Women’s Political Caucus, I welcome you to the women’s political power movement. I am not an authority

on the South, but I suspect that this is the first time a conference such as this has ever been held here. You are making history today.”¹

At other times, directly relating subject or thesis to audience needs is the best attention-getting device. Can what you plan to talk about directly help your listeners feel more secure, solve problems, gain the esteem of others, make money, and so forth? If so, your topic is your means of gaining attention. Showing how what you plan to talk about can help people satisfy their needs is one of the best ways to begin.

6.1.2. Conclusions

Ending the speech is the most difficult part for many speakers. A conclusion with the appropriate mood and content requires a delicate touch. Also important is to know when to end. Haven't you, on many occasions, listened to speakers who passed three or four good conclusions? And each time the speaker ignored the possible ending, you got a little more frustrated with the effort of listening? That often happens because speakers find conclusions so difficult to do right.

Purposes The conclusion may be the last impression the audience has of you. Obviously it needs to be a good one. **The goals of a conclusion are to refocus your listeners' thinking on the thesis and/or purpose and leave them in the right mood.** For some speeches, this requires an appeal for action. Whatever the type of speech, a conclusion has these two goals. **Plan your ending to reach them.**

Techniques Conclusions, like introductions, can use many different techniques. Each technique we discussed as a way to introduce a speech can be used to close one. You can use stories, humorous or not, quotations, rhetorical or direct questions, reference to the situation and occasion, a startling statistic or piece of information. Whatever you choose, the final sentence should bring a sense of finishing.

LINKING TO THE INTRODUCTION With good planning, you can often relate the conclusion to the introduction. If you started with an apt quotation, perhaps you can finish by restating it. This will refocus thinking on the ideas it suggests. If you started with a rhetorical question, you can answer it in the conclusion. If you started with a story, you may not finish it in the introduction. You can provide the end in the conclusion.

¹ Speech to Southern Women's Conference on "Education for Delegate Selection." Scarritt College, Nashville, Tennessee, February 12, 1972. Complete Speech can be found in Waldo Braden, ed., Representative American Speeches 1971-72, Vol. 44 (New York: The H. W. Wilson Co., 1972), pp. 38-48.

One of the best student speeches we ever heard used that technique. This student began by telling the story of a seven-year-old child at a picnic on the last day of school in the spring. The youngster came home that night with tired, aching legs. The next morning she was taken to the hospital. Polio—a dreadcrippler of children in those days—was the diagnosis. During the speech the student talked about how the March of Dimes helped people like that by paying for iron lungs, hospitalization, years of physical therapy. The speech had a persuasive purpose, seeking contributions to the March of Dimes. In conclusion, the student said: “I started by telling you the story of that youngster taken to the hospital with polio. Thanks to the March of Dimes, its financial and moral support, that child is standing in front of you today, able to live a normal life. Won’t you help others like me? Please contribute.” And she passed around contribution envelopes.

This example also shows one way to make a direct appeal for action in the conclusion. Though beginners are often reluctant to do so, speakers can—often should—ask for specific responses or specific behaviours. A speech seeking action should end with an effort to secure at least verbal commitment to the behaviour. Don’t fail to ask because you fear negative responses.

SUMMARISING In many speeches, a summary is a good technique for conclusion. Summarising your main ideas helps refocus listeners’ thinking on your thesis and main ideas. Indeed, if any fixed rule about public speaking exists, it is that conclusions to all informative speeches should include a summary. When ideas are repeated, they are more likely to be remembered. And for listeners to remember what you say is important in most situations. So main ideas and thesis should be summarised at the end of most speeches.

Most often, however, a summary should be only part of the conclusion. A summary is not interesting. At least for persuasive speeches, a summary alone is rarely appropriate. It will not put the audience in the right mood. For informative speeches, a summary combined with a direct question—“What questions do you have?” or “What else can I tell you?”—is a good way to conclude. In situations where the audience is expected to have many questions, this may be all the conclusion you need. In other cases, combine summaries with a direct appeal, a story, or a quotation.

Whichever technique of concluding you choose, know when to finish. Don’t say, “In conclusion . . . ,” and then go on for five more minutes. Don’t pass the end of the attention span of your listeners. Questions and discussion are better at holding attention than continuation of the same voice. Plan a finish; plan a time for it; and use it.

6.2. Types of Supporting Materials

Verbal supporting materials include explanation, narration, example, observations and statistics, quotations, comparison and contrast, repetition and restatement.

Explanation Explanation—telling how something works—is a good technique to clarify ideas. If you wanted listeners to know how to file their tax returns, for example, you would use explanation.

Betty Ford, speaking in 1975 to the American Cancer Society, used explanation to clarify how she overcame the problems resulting from her cancer operation:

*It isn't vanity to worry about disfigurement. It is an honest concern. I started wearing low-cut dresses as soon as the scar healed, and my worries about my appearance are now just the normal ones of staying slim and keeping my hair and make-up in order. When I asked myself whether I would rather lose a right arm or a breast, I decided I would rather have lost a breast. The most important thing in life is good health and that I have!*¹

Narration Narration, which tells a story or relates an event, is useful. Telling how something happened helps people understand it. Narration holds attention as well as improving clarity. Narration can also amplify ideas, prove, and motivate. The student's conclusion to the March of Dimes speech is an example of narration.

Example Perhaps the most valuable of all supporting materials is example. An example is a case of something.

There are several types of examples—long or short, real or hypothetical. We call long examples, cases given with great detail, *illustrations*². We describe short examples as *instances*. Often illustrations and instances are used in combination, as was done by a student in one of our classes. She spoke about air pollution and its remedies. She talked at length about what was done to clean up the air in London, a city that not many years ago had the most polluted air in the world. She related much detail, using both explanation and narration in the illustration of how London cleaned up its air. Then to amplify, she said: "Similar techniques were

¹ Betty Ford's speech was made November 7, 1975. Complete text is in Taylor Speaking m Public, pp. 279-80.

² This name for a long example suggests its function. We think of "illustrating" as showing a picture. The detailed example—an illustration—gives a verbal picture. Thus, a long example can be thought of as a word picture.

followed in Dublin, Newcastle, and Edinburgh. Each city has experienced the same dramatic changes.”

Examples can also be real or hypothetical. A real example has the great value of showing that what you’re talking about actually happened somewhere. But sometimes you’re in a situation where you ask the audience to suppose that something happened, and you give them a hypothetical example. Suppose you want to explain survival techniques in case of fire. You might involve listeners best with a hypothetical case. “Imagine yourself at midnight in a hotel room hearing an alarm that indicates the building is on fire. What would you do?” Then take your listeners through the steps you recommend. Have them “see” themselves taking the steps. This is a vivid and memorable way to give an example.

Observations and Statistics Another useful means of supporting ideas is using statements of observation (what people often call facts) and figures. Names, dates, dimensions, descriptions, and so on are especially helpful in giving people new information. Statistics are equally useful.

Statistics *consist of many observations, added up, with the relationships among them analysed.* To report that the American Medical Association said 200 deaths in Los Angeles in 1978 were due to air pollution would be using figures but not statistics. To report an AMA conclusion that 55 percent of deaths from respiratory illnesses were from emphysema caused by air pollution would be using statistics. Statistics count things and use inferences to show relationships among data.

Statistics are especially useful in persuading, but they are also informative. Statistics can help explain how or why things happen. Statistics can support conclusions about large groups of people, describe trends, help forecast events.

CAUTIONS IN USING DATA Speakers should remember some cautions about the use of observations and statistics. The first: *Don’t overdo it.* Many listeners do not find data interesting. Speakers who rely heavily on data may have an uninformed audience that gets bored and loses attention. It’s also easy to give too many figures. Since many people are not good at processing numbers mentally, too many figures can quickly confuse. Most listeners understand and remember stories and examples better than figures. If listeners cannot keep up with you, they often quit trying to understand.

The second caution: *Be sure data are clear.* Because clarity is so essential, it is almost always helpful to present data visually as well as orally. Charts and diagrams aid attention, understanding, and remembering. Use them whenever possible when presenting statistics.

Quotations The use of **quotations**—repeating someone else’s exact words— was discussed previously as a means of introducing or concluding a speech. It is equally useful as a means of supporting ideas. You can quote experts, poets, singers, someone you know, people you don’t know but have talked to, something you heard, or something you read.

Quotations add attention value. They also emphasise points and give credibility to ideas or information. Unless you are an expert in a subject area, people will more readily accept what you say if you cite a recognised expert to verify your ideas. At other times, you use a quotation because it makes the point so well. It may be a beautiful choice of words. To use the words and be honest about the source, you quote. For example, when talking about good citizenship, you might say “John Kennedy expressed this idea better than I could when he said in his inaugural address, “Ask not what your country can do for you, ask what you can do for your country.” The most widely used quotation in this country may be Abraham Lincoln’s government “of the people, by the people, and for the people.” Its use not only gains a speaker credibility through association with Lincoln, but the rhythmic beauty of the phrase is unmatched in making the idea vivid.

Neither should you overlook the potential of quoting from “average” people who have experienced the situations you’re discussing. Whether you use expert or nonexpert quotations partly depends on the reason for using the quotation. Both have value. Relating what other people, like your listeners, have to say about a subject can be both informative and persuasive. That we see this technique often in advertisements shows how persuasive it is.

One of the most useful kinds of quotation is described as reluctant testimony. **Reluctant testimony** occurs when a person expected to believe one way speaks against that position. Ronald Reagan won many votes by claiming: “I used to be a liberal Democrat. I now see I was wrong.” When a person admits what he or she wishes were not true, this is also reluctant testimony. When a conservative barber concedes that long hair looks good on men, it’s impressive. Reluctant testimony is especially helpful in establishing credibility.

Comparison and Contrast Another type of supporting material is use of comparison and contrast. To use comparison in a speech, you point out similarities between your idea and something the audience is familiar with. Contrast shows how the idea differs from the known. The two processes are often used together.

In using comparison and contrast, you may note similarities or differences not apparent on the surface. We could say that a speech is like a meal—the introduction is the appetizer, the body is the main course, and the conclusion is the dessert. This kind of comparison is called analogy. Analogy

shows similarities in things that on the surface are not similar. It is an imaginative comparison.

To be most useful, comparisons require you to analyse receivers carefully. Choose comparisons meaningful to listeners, not just to you. Be sure the items chosen for comparison are familiar. Comparing the effect of psychosis to the state of mind of a person lost in a blizzard would have little effect if your audience had never been north of Florida. They wouldn't have experienced the terror and confusions that would make the comparison vivid and memorable to someone who has been outside in a snowstorm with a 30 mph wind.

Repetition and Restatement Repetition and restatement can also be used to support ideas. **Repetition** is *repeating something in the exact words used before*, **restatement** is *repeating the same idea but using different words*. Both help listeners understand or remember what you say.

Sometimes listeners do not hear what you say or aren't able to understand the whole idea. Then you need only repeat the exact words for them to hear and understand. At other times people may understand the words but not the idea. They may not decode words the way you intend. In these cases, restatement is helpful. Using different words to express your intended meaning can help them decode as you want.

Simple repetition is often used for emphasis. By repeating words or phrases, you highlight ideas and help listeners remember them. An idea stated only once or twice is not half as likely to be remembered as one repeated three or more times. Repetition can be used to make ideas memorable. Good examples of this are found in Martin Luther King's famous "I Have a Dream" speech. In the conclusion, he repeated "Let freedom ring" nine times. The phrase, "I have a dream," repeated seven times during the speech, became a watchword for the civil rights movement.

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

accede
accordingly

Plainer alternatives

agree, grant, allow
so

accustomed to	used to
acquaint yourself	find out, read
additional	more, extra
address (sense 'consider')	tackle, deal with, consider
advice	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

Official terms

constitute
 construe
 corroboration
 deduct
 deem
 defer
 desist
 despatch
 despite the fact that
 determine
 disburse
 discharge (verb)
 disconnect

Plainer alternative

make up, form
 interpret
 evidence, proof, support
 take away, take off, subtract
 treat as, consider
 put off, postpone
 stop
 send
 although, despite
 decide
 pay
 pay off, settle
 cutoff

discontinue
due to the fact that
dwelling, domicile
select; election
emanate from
endeavour
entitlement
envisage
equitable
erroneous
establish
eventuate
expedite
expenditure
expiration
facilitate
failure to
for the duration of
for the purpose of
forward (verb)
furnish
henceforth
heretofore
herewith
hitherto
hypothesize
if this is not the case
if this is the case
impart

Official terms

implement (verb)
in accordance with
inasmuch as
incidence
in conjunction with
increment
indebtedness
initiate

stop, end
as, because
home, property
choose; choice
come from, stem from
try, attempt
right
expect, imagine
fair
wrong, mistaken
set up, create, form
result, occur, happen
hasten, speed up
spending
end
help
if you do not
during, while
to
send, give
give, provide
from now on
until now
with this
until now
earmark
if not
if so
give, pass on, tell, inform

Plainer alternative

carry out, do
in line with
because, in that
rate of occurrence, how often
with
step, increase
debt
begin, start

in lieu of
in order to
in receipt of
in regard to
insofar as
institute (verb)
interim (noun)
in the event of
in the eventuality of
in view of the fact that
manner
monies
necessitate
nevertheless
nonetheless
not less than
not more than
notwithstanding
obtain
other than
particulars
persons
peruse
polemical
principal (adjective)
prioritize
prior to
provenance
provisions [of a law, policy]
purchase
purport (verb)
pursuant to
reduction
regarding

Official terms

reimburse
remittance
remuneration

instead of
to
get, have, receive
about, concerning, on
as far as
begin, start
meantime
if, when
if, when
as, because
way
money, amounts of money
need, have to, require
even so, however, yet
even so, however, yet
at least
or less, or fewer
even if, despite, still, yet, but
get, receive
except
details, facts
people
read, study
controversial
main, chief
rank
before
source, origin
the law, the policy
buy
pretend, claim, profess
under
cut
about

Plainer alternative

repay
payment
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
utilise	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 procuratorern)	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

EXERCISES

Exercise 1. *Below you will find eight different definitions of the problem. Indicate whether they are descriptive, evaluative or policy-making. In the case of a descriptive definition of the problem also indicate the subtype.*

- a) Should wave-pool 'The Whirl' raise or lower its entrance fee?
- b) What has the development of non-foods in supermarkets been like and how will they develop in the next 5 years?
- c) What approach must companies adopt to minimise currency risks?
- d) Will Ikea's success affect the future demand for high-quality furniture in a positive or a negative way?
- e) How attractive is car leasing for the self-employed?
- f) What has been the development of the market for fruit juices in Switzerland during the past ten years?
- g) In what way should power stations reduce the emission of waste products?

- h) What is the return of sponsoring for the sponsors?
- i) What were the causes of the increase in road accidents in the UK in 1980-1990?

Exercise 2. *Below we will mention four possible points of view regarding the subject: the legal powers of the works council. Select two points of view and create an appropriate evaluative definition of the problem.*

- a) A member of the works council
- b) An employee (not a member of the works council)
- c) An employer (in a company that has a works council)
- d) A scientific researcher

Exercise 3.

- a) Mention three different points of view for research on tax evasion. Create for each point of view an appropriate evaluative or policy-making definition of the problem.

- b) Mention three different points of view for research on snack bar consumption. Create for each point of view an appropriate definition of the problem.

- c) Create a descriptive, evaluative and policy-making definition of the problem regarding the subject nuclear energy. State a different point of view for each.

- d) Create three evaluative definitions of the problem regarding the subject factory farming and state a different point of view for each.

Exercise 4. *Below you will find four definitions of the problem from fourth-year theses. What (sub) type are they?*

- a) How should fixed assets be entered into the general ledger so that it gives an accurate impression of the actual situation?
- b) What is the share of roof covering materials in the DIY- market?
- c) How can the sale of flowers in gas stations be improved?
- d) Is automation of pre-production costing feasible for building contractor Cookson?

Exercise 5. *Below you will find an introduction to a (bad) thesis. Answer the following questions:*

- a) What is the definition of the problem and what type is it?

- b) How has the definition of the problem been made operational (i.e. in what ways has terminology used in the definition of the problem been accounted for and defined?)

c) For whom is an answer to the definition of the problem important? Why?

Introduction

About 25 years ago some big companies were at the threshold of what was to become a true automation boom. It was caused by the obvious advantages and possibilities of the computer, and by the introduction of the mini and micro computer with its decreasing prices. This made automation for a much bigger group feasible. This development shows that the computer is gradually getting within the reach of smaller companies as well.

In the context of this report it is interesting to wonder how far this development will go, and in what way it will take place. I may safely say that it has not yet come to an end, as there is quite a big group left who do not yet make use of the many possibilities of the computer. These are the self-employed. In my opinion it is wrong to say that automation by means of one's own computer is too expensive or does not really improve anything.

Recently papers and periodicals have been paying a lot of attention to this subject too. They refer to a quickly approaching large-scale automation of the self-employed and the service, e.g. dentists. Appendix I give is a rough outline of this. It consists of some recent newspaper articles on this topic.

In view of the above and of the fact that I consider this subject to be very interesting, a small-scale research, by means of a survey among the self-employed in my own place of residence, Gorinchem, seems feasible and worth the trouble. The research was based on the following definition of the problem: Is automation by means of a computer in ownership interesting for the self-employed?

I define 'the self-employed' as follows: a company employing no more than ten people. I used this as the only criterion, because in my opinion, the self-employed are not willing to supply other relevant information, such as turnover or balance sheet figures.

As stated before, I decided on a survey in order to find out how the self-employed think about automating by means of one's own computer. I assumed that they have little or no knowledge of computer. That is why the questionnaire is preceded by some general information in which I try to give an objective and concise impression of the possibilities and costs of a computer suitable for companies of this size. I refer to appendix 2 for the actual questionnaire.

A problem in the survey was the information about the service department, as it is impossible for entrepreneurs to estimate the costs involved. This may have led to slight inaccuracies. Of course the fact that all the companies involved had their seat in Gorinchem and the small scale of this research affect the representativeness of the thesis.

The first chapter will be about the companies involved in the survey and about the threepartite classification of companies that I applied. In chapter two the market position of the computer in ownership will be dealt with, and the service department and administrative office with a computer in ownership. Chapter three aims at giving a brief impression of the costs and possibilities, advantages and disadvantages of buying a computer. The fourth chapter shows the opinions of the self-employed in Gorinchem on buying a computer and tries to account for them. Finally a conclusion and summary are given, followed by the appendices, which consist of:

- some newspaper clippings about the approaching automation of amongst others the self-employed;
- the questionnaire;
- a table showing the answers to the questions in the questionnaire, specified per subcategory.

I did not consider it useful to include the information preceding the questionnaire as an appendix to this thesis, since it is very similar to the third chapter.

Exercise 6. *We give you part of the chapter and (sub) section structure from a HE&M report on absenteeism in companies. The purpose of the report was to propose measures to reduce absenteeism, after determining the causes of increasing absenteeism and the factors that determine these causes.*

Comment on the logic of the division. Leave the phrasing of the titles aside.

- 3. The causes of absenteeism and the factors that determine them
 - 3.1 The causes of absenteeism
 - 3.1.1 Objective complaints
 - 3.1.2. Objective-subjective and subjective complaints
 - 3.1.3. Acute breathing problems
 - 3.1.4. Undiagnosed illnesses

Exercise 7. *The section structure below is from the same report. Improve the phrasing of the titles.*

- 3.2. Factors affecting absenteeism
 - 3.2.1. Social factors
 - 3.2.2. Factors within health care
 - 3.2.3. Personal circumstances and family atmosphere
 - 3.2.4. Circumstances in the companies

Exercise 8. *The same report again. This time the structure of chapter 4 is under discussion. Comment on the phrasing of the titles and/or the logic of the division.*

- 4. Measures to restrict absenteeism
 - 4.1. Measures against the causes of absenteeism
 - 4.2. Measures against factors of influence
 - 4.2.1. Organisational measures
 - 4.2.2. Measures aimed at the individual

Exercise 9. *A Korean car manufacturer wants to have a market research carried out in a number of West European countries. The report should deal with Great Britain, France, Germany and the Benelux and discuss for each of them: passenger cars, sports cars, trucks and diesel cars.*

Draw up a tree covering all the information mentioned above.

Exercise 10.

- a) *Create a tree for a report with the following definition of the problem: In what way should your institute improve the organisation of exams? Use no more than three principles of classification.*

Assume that there are basically three options:

- longer exam periods
- more exam periods
- exams throughout the year

- b) *Then create two other trees using the same principles of classification. Which of the three is the best, according to you? Account for your answer.*

Exercise 11. Below you will find the table of contents from a report on men's cosmetics based on the following definition of the problem: What development took place in the turnover and distribution of men's cosmetics in the period 1981-1985?

Современный Гуманитарный Университет

1.3	Different types of cosmetics	5
1.4	The use of cosmetics	5
2.	The development of the marketshare men's cosmetics and of the turnover in 1981-1985	6
2.1.1	The development of the marketshare men's cosmetics as a part of the total cosmetics market in 1982 when compared to 1981	7
2.1.2	The development of the turnover of the market segment men's cosmetics in 1982 when compared to 1981	9
2.2.1	The development of the marketshare men's cosmetics as a part of the total cosmetics market in 1983	11
2.2.2	The development of the turnover of the market segment men's cosmetics in 1983	12
2.3.1	What happened in 1984 in the field of market share development?	14
2.3.2	Positive turnover development of the market segment men's cosmetics in 1984	15
2.4.1	Market share development of men's cosmetics in 1985	16
2.4.2	The development in the turnover of the market segment men's cosmetics in 1985	18
2.5	Final conclusion	19
3.	Development distribution channels	20
3.1	Introduction	20
3.2	The influence of the economy on distribution in 1982	22
3.3	Changing trends in 1983 and 1984	23
3.4	1985 the year for the chemist's	
3.5	Consumers related to economy, directive for distribution channels	24
4.	The causes of the changes in men's needs regarding cosmetics	25
4.1	Introduction	25
4.2	Needs	26
4.3	Results of research	27
4.4	Causes	27
4.4.1	Men's feminizing	28
4.4.2	Improvement of shaving techniques	28
4.4.3	Wanting to be different	28
4.4.4	Increased technology and leisure time	29
4.4.5	Increased number of single households	29

5.	Final conclusion	30
6.	Summary	32
7.	Literature	34

Exercise 12. *What ‘technical’ mistake was made in the structure of the (entire) first chapter from a previous edition of the IBA information guide?*

1. International Business Administration

1.1 Profile

1.1.1 Objectives

1.1.2 Professional profile

1.1.3 Know-how and skills

1.1.4 Curriculum

Exercise 13. *Below you will find the chapter and (sub) section structure in a report on sportsponsoring. It was written for an insurance company ELVECO. The definition of the problem is: In what types of sports should we develop sponsoring activities?*

a) What type of definition of the problem is it?

b) Do you think the report is complete? If not, what should be added?

c) Are chapter and section titles clear? Is the structure logical? Mention possible improvements.

d) Does the definition of the problem cover the report? If not, what type of definition of the problem would have been more appropriate? Phrase a definition of the problem that covers the report.

1. Introduction
2. Sportsponsoring in general
 - 2.1 Beginning
 - 2.2 Sponsoring now
 - 2.2.1 Sponsoring companies
 - 2.2.2 Sponsored sports and clubs
 - 2.2.3 Financial aspects
 - 2.3 Future
3. Cycling
 - 3.1 General
 - 3.2 Image
 - 3.3 Possible effects
 - 3.4 Risks
4. Soccer Association
 - 4.1 Present situation in soccer
 - 4.2 Advantages of soccer sponsoring
 - 4.3 Disadvantages
5. Skating
 - 5.1 General
 - 5.2 Possible returns
 - 5.3 Risks
6. Other sports
 - 6.1 Horse racing and trotting
 - 6.2 Car racing
 - 6.3 Hockey
 - 6.4 Tennis
7. Conclusions

Summary

Bibliography

Exercise 14. *Below you will find a chapter and section structure from a report on the use of alcohol. The point of view is Veilig Verkeer Nederland, a Dutch organisation that has organised many campaigns to increase traffic safety, e.g. Glaasje op, laat je rijden (Don't drink and drive). The definition of the problem is: What are the effects of measures against alcohol consumption?*

Propose improvements on the chapter and section structure and on the phrasing of the titles. Keep the link between definition of the problem and structure in mind. Account for your answers.

- Foreword

- Introduction

1. Alcohol and traffic
 - 1.1 Health problems
 - 1.2 Addiction
 - 1.3 Social aspects of alcohol consumption
 - 1.4 Influence on driving
 - 1.5 Accidents resulting from alcohol consumption
 - 1.5.1 Development of number of road casualties
 - 1.5.2 Correct reflection of reality
 - 1.6 Solutions
2. Measures against alcohol consumption
 - 2.1. Alcohol Act of 1974
 - 2.2 Speed limit
 - 2.3 Technical measures
 - 2.3.1 Compulsory wearing of safety belt
 - 2.4 Improvement of roads and vehicles
3. Is legislation more effective than public information?
 - 3.1 Legislation
 - 3.1.1 Problems of blood test
 - 3.1.2 Prosecution policy
 - 3.1.3 Long-term effects must improve
 - 3.2 Public information
 - 3.2.1 Campaign until 1984: Don't drink and drive!
 - 3.2.2 Campaign 1984/1985: Alcohol and traffic: a criminal combination

3.2.3 Costs of information materials

3.2.4 Changing mentality

3.3 Conclusion

4. Conclusion: effects of the measures

4.1 Development number of alcohol consumers

4.2 Social control

4.3 Awareness of alcohol consumption

4.4 Victim aid

- Summary

- Bibliography

- Appendices

Exercises 15-17

The instructions for the following exercises are the same. Therefore we give them only once.

Paragraph the following texts in a logical way. Pay attention to important signs in the text, and make sure that you can account for your paragraphs.

The texts are from HE&M reports. We added the numbers in the right-hand margin.

Exercise 15. *This text is from a report on a second-year work placement.*

A) Work placement with Consulting Associates

From now on I will call Consulting Associates C.A.; this is the official abbreviation. I will first give some general information on C.A. Then I will discuss the way trainees work with C.A. and how they are

5 coached. C.A. is a software house that was established five years ago. The company has grown fast since then and now has offices in Switzerland, Germany and Belgium. In short you might say that C.A. produces programmes for companies and organisations that ask for them.

10 They analyse exactly what the problem is and what information is needed to solve that problem. They must take the kind of company, the line of business,

special needs and wishes, etc, into account, and of course they must keep an eye on the costs involved. How much is a
15 company willing to spend to reach a solution to the problem? After all this information has been written down and assessed, C.A. specialists try to devise an appropriate programme. The above shows that most work
20 placements are done by informatics students. But as the costs are so important, there is enough work for Business Economics students as well. The tasks of Informatics students are in the field of systems designers, systems analysts, programmers, management consultants, etc. Business Economics students usually do cost
25 accounting; how much may a programme cost, how can we work in a cheaper way, etc. C.A. trainees get an assignment at the beginning of their work placement. So they must solve a real problem. If necessary, they are helped in doing this by a coach who coaches the student
30 throughout his/her work placement and answers question as well. Besides trainees can always turn to other employees too.

Exercise 16. *Below you will find the introduction to a report on men's cosmetics written in 1987.*

Introduction

The subject of this report is men's cosmetics. Our definition of the problem is, therefore: What development took place in men's cosmetics in the period
5 1981-1985. You may deduce from this definition of the problem that this report will mainly be of interest to companies manufacturing (or intending to manufacture) cosmetics. Distributors of cosmetics may also be able to draw some interesting conclusions from this report. Of course the report may also be read by anyone who is
10 interested in the subject. As the cosmetics market is highly subdivided, it turned out to be impossible to describe the development of the entire cosmetics market. That is why we focused on men's cosmetics in this report. We thought it was the most interesting. Fur-
15 thermore we have selected the period 1981-1985 inclusive, because this is not so long ago. Besides there was not much information on the period before 1981. And a report on a longer period would be too large and therefore disordered. We wanted to avoid that at all costs.
20 The big companies in the field of cosmetics unfortunately did not comply with our request for information. Still we think that the report gives a fairly

complete impression of the development of men's cosmetics. This report begins with a description of cosmetics. We do
25 this to give readers who are less familiar with this subject a good impression. In chapter two we will have a look at the development of the market share and the development of the turnover of men's cosmetics. We will also compare them to developments of the entire market.
30 Then we will deal with the distribution channels (chapter three). Some tables will support the text of this chapter. In chapter four we make an attempt to account for the developments depicted. Finally we will draw our conclusions.

Exercise 17. *This text is from a report on United Flower Auctions (UFA) in Aalsmeer.*

Clocking

In the UFA complex houses six auction rooms with as many as 13 clocks. Every auction room can hold 300 buyers. From every clock the same products are sold every day, so that prospective buyers know where to go.
5 As soon as he enters the room, a buyer is registered: he is given one or more buyer's cards stating his number. Then the buyer's card is stuck into a slot in a desk. In this way the buyer is registered in the computer under his number, and the button on his desk is
10 released so that he can use it. By pressing the button on his desk, the buyer can decide from which clock he wants to start buying. The auction is a Dutch auction: the hand of the clock goes back from 100 to 1. The auctioneer announces what flowers are offered for sale
15 and from what nursery they are. He also passes on any remarks from the inspectors. Buyers can hear the offer by means of a microphone/speaker on their desk. On the clock the information on the party offered are displayed. Then the hand of the clock starts to move back,
20 from high to low, and every buyer can stop the clock by pressing the button on his desk if it shows a price the buyer is prepared to pay for one flower or one plant. So the numbers on the clock indicate the price per flower or plant. The one who is the first to stop the
25 clock is the highest bidder. He has bought the flowers or plants at the price indicated by the clock and his number becomes visible on the clock. At that moment the buyer can tell the auctioneer by means of his microphone whether he wants to buy the entire party or only a
30 part of it. All the information on the purchase is directly fed into the computer to be converted into invoices for buyers and florists.

Exercise 18. Give your opinion on the Foreword and Introduction that you will find below. Both are from a report titled “The Norwegian government and the arms industry”.

Foreword

We chose this subject because we did not know the size of the Norwegian arms industry and the part of the government. However, during our research we discovered that very little information was available. It was very difficult to get statistical data. This is caused by the secrecy regarding arms production and arms trade.

In spite of this we hope that we have succeeded in giving a clear impression of the Norwegian arms industry and the part of the government.

The authors:
Vera
John
Sally
Don
Mary Anne

Introduction

The past few years the Norwegian arms industry has gained economic weight. Arms exports have increased fivefold in the past ten years.

The government plays a distinct part in this matter. It determines what is manufactured and exported. It also places important orders and is essential for compensation orders, i.e. counter orders demanded by foreign countries in exchange for orders placed with the Norwegian arms industry.

Politically arms industry and arms trade are touchy subjects, because so many interests are at stake. The interests of the arms industry are often considered less important than political interests. In this report we will try to describe the Norwegian arms industry and the part of the government.

Exercise 19. *Compare the Introduction and Conclusion from a report titled “The Austrian wine scandal”. Please comment.*

Introduction

The purpose of our research is to give an impression of the problems and consequences resulting from the announcement that Austrian wines had been diluted with a poisonous sweetener. Furthermore we want to show the consequences on the Dutch market, especially the way imports have developed. We want to stress that we do not aim at predicting exactly how the Dutch market will develop, as there are too many uncertainties for a correct prognosis (e.g. psychological factors: how has the consumer dealt with it?) That is why we decided on purely descriptive research, and at the end of our report we draw a small conclusion and give an expectation for the future.

During our research we made use of information from the Wine Information Centre in The Hague where Mr Gratema kindly assisted us.

Furthermore we requested information from the Austrian agent in the Netherlands, Mr Orisich and we paid a visit to some newspapers to browse their records. Before describing the scandal in chronological order, we first briefly discuss the situation on the Dutch market before the scandal and the harmful effects of di-ethyiglycol. We will also give a general impression of Austrian quality wines.

Conclusion and Expectation

It is not simple to predict how the market will develop after this enormous scandal. It remains to be seen whether the Dutch consumer has been given such a fright that he will cut all Austrian wines cold.

Will the import of Austrian wines to the Netherlands ever have the same size as in the early eighties? What can be done to encourage the consumer?

First of all it is important to distinguish a few matters. The market situation has drastically changed as a result of the scandal. Before the scandal it consisted mainly of cheap ‘quality wines’, afterwards only the more expensive, approved, real quality wines are left. Therefore it is to be expected imports will never reach their previous level. This is because of increased prices.

However, it is very likely that as the poisoned wines have disappeared, the quality wines will be noticed by the consumer, and appreciated, simply because of the reduction of the range.

Furthermore the Dutch barrier to buying and consuming wine must be lifted. The Dutch consumer prefers buying a lot of wine at a low price of not such high quality than a good wine at a higher price.

By the way this holds good for all the wines that we buy, not just for Austrian wines.

Partly because of the current figures it is to be expected that the remaining market share will rise again in the future, but never reach its former level. This can only happen if the consumer's attitude to buying wine really changes.

Finally it is questionable whether quality wines should be for sale in supermarkets. We consider it wiser to limit it to off-licences. This may lead to a drop in turnover, because the consumer will not immediately turn to the off-licence when he cannot get the wine he wants at the supermarket.

Summarising the above, we think it is wise for those involved to focus on the following:

- creation of a clear image, i.e. a change from "a lot, cheap and of inferior quality" to "less, more expensive, but of higher quality";
- Austrian wines should stress their high quality.
- public information by the wine merchant, e.g. by means of brochures ;
- more public information on wines in general.

Exercise 20. *Comment on the following summary of a report titled "Report on the membership development of the Belgian Handball Association (BHA)."*

Summary

This report deals with the causes of the decreasing membership of the Belgian Handball Association. It also deals with possible solutions. It was written for handball clubs that face this problem, but we wrote it in such a way that any layman can understand it.

We started the report with a short description of the history of Belgian handball. Then after statistical analysis, we have a look at the membership file. In chapter four we deal with the causes, as apparent from a recent survey among 750 former members. We also have a look at reasons that especially junior former members give. Finally we give handball clubs some advice, if they want to boost their membership.

The information needed for this report is mainly from our own research. One of the writers has been a committee member of several handball clubs for years, and used to be a member of the Belgian Handball Association, department Brussels.

Exercise 21. *Write down a correct title description of the book of which both sides of the title page are given below.*

**SOVIET ECONOMIC STRUCTURE
AND PERFORMANCE**

Third Edition

Paul R. Gregory
University of Houston

Robert C. Stuart
Rutgers University

Harper & Row, Publishers, New York
Cambridge, Philadelphia, San Francisco,
London, Mexico City, São Paulo, Sydney

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Printer and Binder: R.R. Donnelley and Sons Company

SOVIET ECONOMIC STRUCTURE AND PERFORMANCE, Third Edition

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2. Soviet Union-Economic policy-1917-

I. Stuart, Robert C., 1938- II. Title.
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ISBN 0-06-043507-5

86 87 88 89 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

Exercise 22. *Below you will find both sides of the title page of an imaginary book. Give a title description.*

**DOING BUSINESS
WITH THE GERMANS**

Cross-cultural strategies

P. Kraus

Zweite Auflage

Schiesser, Ausgeber, München

Zweite verbesserte Aufgabe

1991

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