

**Міністерство освіти та науки України
Дніпровський державний технічний університет**

Методичні вказівки

**до практичної роботи з дисципліни «Англійська мова»
для здобувачів вищої освіти освітньо-наукової програми третього рівня
(підготовка докторів філософії) для усіх спеціальностей
(2 курс)**

**ЗАТВЕРДЖЕНО:
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Розповсюдження і тиражування без офіційного дозволу ДДТУ заборонено.

Методичні вказівки до практичної роботи з дисципліни «Англійська мова» для здобувачів вищої освіти освітньо-наукової програми третього рівня (підготовка докторів філософії) для усіх спеціальностей (2 курс) Укл. – доцент Воронова З.Ю., старший викладач Лещенко О.П., Кам'янське: ДДТУ, 2018, 60 стор.

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Коротка анотація: Методичні вказівки складено відповідно до програми з курсу. Вказівки містять теоретичний матеріал та практичні завдання і призначені для аудиторної та самостійної роботи аспірантів над курсом, можуть бути використані для повторення матеріалу та підготовки до кандидатського іспиту.

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ТЕМА 19. ОСНОВНІ ЧАСТИНИ МОНОГРАФІЇ

A **monograph**, sometimes called a scholarly treatise, is an extremely detailed essay or book covering a very specific or limited subject. It is designed to stand alone in most cases, although some are produced with a finite number of volumes. The publication presents new information that advances the author's career and field, and it generally follows a predictable pattern in terms of the content covered. Usually, only one author is involved, but a writer may collaborate if necessary. Review, defense, and presentation usually are part of the monograph publication process, and document itself generally is brief.

Objectives

The main objective of a monograph is to present information and scholarly research on a very specific topic. The data included is always meant to educate others in some way, and ideally, it also should advance the author's field as a foundation for future research. This means that individuals who write these documents always need to make sure that they are not conducting research and writing on previously covered topics without contributing something new.

Given the main purpose scholarly treatises hold, professionals typically produce them as a means to show their expertise and gain credibility and, as a result, advance to new, higher positions. Many fields require publication of these texts before an author can obtain a degree or particular job. In general, the more an author publishes, the more respected he becomes, although in some cases, a single essay or book may be so influential that the author is always known for that one work, regardless of additional publications.

Key Contents

Monographs generally share the same basic elements, no matter the topics covered. They usually identify a purpose for the research and the main question the author was trying to answer, as well as what the author expected the results of his research to be. These documents outline the results and discuss the implications and applications the work has. The last element is sources and references.

Even though most scholarly treatises include these elements, the author might be required to present them in a slightly different way, depending on his field, or he might have to add or omit sections. People in liberal arts and humanities usually format the document using the Modern Language Association (MLA) format, for example, while those in the social sciences, usually use the American Psychological Association (APA) format.

Authorship

Only one author is behind a scholarly treatise most of the time, although two academics may collaborate if they have been carrying out research together. In cases where more than one person writes the work, the author whose name appears first generally is considered to be the primary author or research leader. The more complex a research study is, or the more time it takes, the more likely it is for the essay or book to be longer and use multiple authors. Collaboration lends additional

expertise and ideas to a project, but it can make writing the work more challenging logistically and may result in conflicts if the authors disagree over what's being said.

Length and Construction Time

Short monographs are similar to long essays, although they are usually longer than articles because they have to go into more detail. Long publications are the length of books. An author may take several weeks or months to write a short one, but a long version can take a year or more to write. When these longer papers also require an extensive research period, commitment to the topic has to be solid.

Review, Defense, and Presentation

Virtually all scholarly papers go through a period of review. Peers from the author's field examine the work for issues such as methodological flaws and basic structural errors. The author may need to revise extensively based on the review findings, which sometimes means doing additional research. He will sometimes have a final review of the paper in the form of a defense, particularly when the text relates to the acquisition of a degree. The author will then typically present the final version at conferences or other events relevant to his field.

Publication

Authors usually are offered one-run publication for scholarly treatises. Very rarely, one will be of interest to a larger community, meriting a slightly bigger printing to meet demand. Because the print runs are very small, within several years of publication, it can be difficult to obtain a copy.

When one of these works takes the form of an essay, it is typically published in an academic journal. University or small presses usually handle the book versions, but the rising costs of publication can make it impractical to publish books with limited copies and potential interests. There is an ongoing debate about the future of the monograph, although an increasing number of technologies are seen by many scholars as a potential solution. Publishing a treatise on the Internet can make it more widely available, and electronic publications are often much less expensive to produce than print ones. Some individuals question the legitimacy of such publications, fearing that they may be subject to less thorough review and evaluation, but the value of these outlets has increased in recent years.

Distribution and Location

Monographs usually go to research libraries once they are published. They also go to academic departments at universities and businesses closely related to the research. A work on anatomy, for example, might be of use to both a biology department and a hospital. With an increase in digital publication, an increasing number of publications are made available online — often for free — for anyone who is interested.

COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS:

1. How can you define a monograph?
2. What is the main objective of a monograph?
3. What are the key contents of monograph?
4. What are the rules of official monograph registration?

ТЕМА 20. ОПИС МЕТОДІВ ТА МЕТОДИК ДОСЛІДЖЕННЯ В МОНОГРАФІЇ

Definition of Research

What is Research? In the broadest sense of the word, the definition of research includes any gathering of data, information and facts for the advancement of knowledge.

Reading a factual book of any sort is a kind of research. Surfing the internet or watching the news is also a type of research.

Science does not use this word in the same way, preferring to restrict it to certain narrowly defined areas. The word 'review' is more often used to describe the learning process which is one of the underlying tenets of the rigid structures defining scientific research.

The Scientific Definition

The strict definition of scientific research is performing a methodical study in order to prove a hypothesis or answer a specific question. Finding a definitive answer is the central goal of any experimental process.

Research must be systematic and follow a series of steps and a rigid standard protocol. These rules are broadly similar but may vary slightly between the different fields of science.

Scientific research must be organized and undergo planning, including performing literature reviews of past research and evaluating what questions need to be answered.

Any type of 'real' research, whether scientific, economic or historical, requires some kind of interpretation and an opinion from the researcher. This opinion is the underlying principle, or question, that establishes the nature and type of experiment.

The scientific definition of research generally states that a variable must be manipulated, although case studies and purely observational science do not always comply with this norm.

Definition of the Scientific Method

Whilst any definition of the scientific method is always a little difficult, due to the vast number of scientific disciplines and subtypes, there are a few basic fundamentals that are common to them all.

Scientific Definitions

Various dictionaries and online resources give a strict definition of the scientific method, relating the scientific process from beginning to end.

Whilst these definitions are useful, they are very narrow and lead to many of the misunderstandings where the general public believes that science is infallible, and that scientists are always right.

Here, we will try to break down some of these barriers and find a milder definition of the scientific method that is a little more 'user friendly.'

Taking some dictionary definitions:

"The principles and empirical processes of discovery and demonstration

considered characteristic of or necessary for scientific investigation, generally involving the observation of phenomena, the formulation of a hypothesis concerning the phenomena, experimentation to demonstrate the truth or falseness of the hypothesis, and a conclusion that validates or modifies the hypothesis."

Definition of Science

The definition of science is the observation, identification, description, experimental investigation, and theoretical explanation of phenomena. It is in particular used in activities applied to an object of inquiry or study.

According to Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary, **the definition of science** is "*knowledge attained through study or practice,*"

or

"knowledge covering general truths of the operation of general laws, esp. as obtained and tested through scientific method [and] concerned with the physical world."

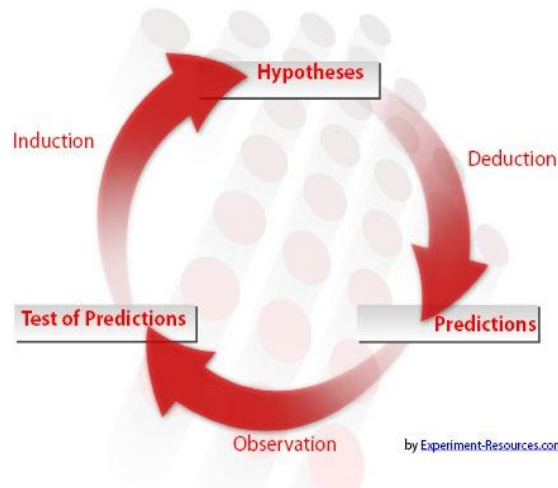
Here are some other common definitions of science:

- Branch of knowledge or study dealing with a body of facts or truths systematically arranged and showing the operation of general laws: the mathematical science
- Systemic knowledge of the physical or material world gained through observations and experimentation
- Systematized knowledge in general
- Any of the branches of natural or physical sciences
- A particular branch of knowledge
- Knowledge, as of facts or principles; knowledge gained by systematic study
- Skill, esp. reflecting a precise application of facts or principle; proficiency

The word Science comes from Latin word "scientia" meaning "knowledge" and in broadest sense it is any systematic knowledge-base or prescriptive practice being capable of resulting in prediction. This is why science is termed as highly skilled technique or practice.

However, in more contemporary terms, science is a system of acquiring knowledge based on scientific process or method in order to organize body of knowledge gained through research.

Science remains a continuing effort on the part of human being to discover and increase knowledge through research. Scientist make observations, record measureable data related to their observations, analyze the information in hand in order to construct theoretical explanations of phenomenon involved.



The methods involved in scientific research include making hypothesis and do experimentation to test the hypothesis under controlled conditions. In this process, scientists publish their works so other scientists can do similar experiments in may be different conditions to further strengthen the reliability of results.

Scientific fields are broadly divided into natural sciences (to study natural phenomena) and social sciences (to study human behavior and societies). However, in both of these divisions, the knowledge must be obtained through observations and capable of being tested for its validity by other researchers working under similar conditions. There are some other disciplines like health science and engineering that are grouped into interdisciplinary and applied sciences.

Most scientific investigations use some form of the scientific method. A scientific method tries to explain the events of nature in reproducible way and allow using these reproductions to form predictions.

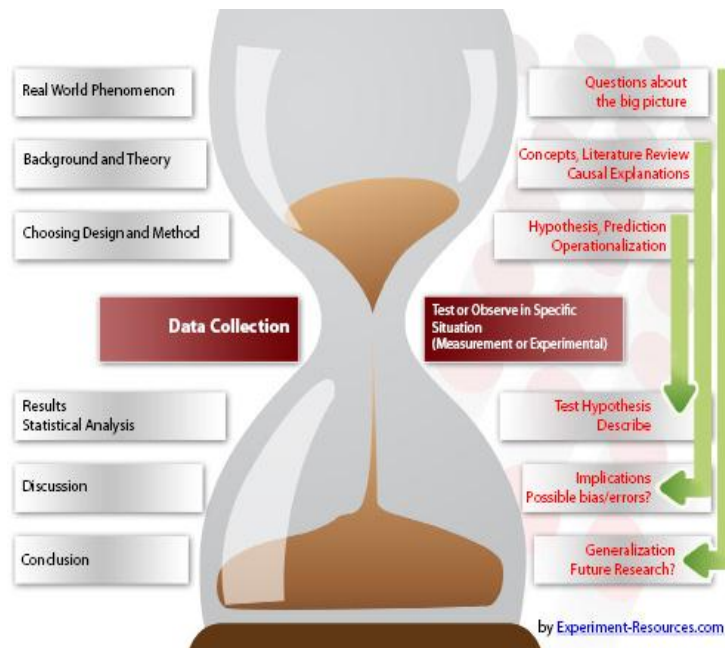
Scientists make observations of natural phenomenon and then through experimentation they try to stimulate natural events under controlled conditions. Based on observations, a scientist may generate a model and then attempt to describe or depict the phenomenon in terms of mathematical or logical representation. Scientist will then gather the empirical evidence and will generate his/her hypothesis to explain the phenomenon.

This description is used to form predictions which in turn will be tested by experiment or observations using scientific method. Evaluations are made which may prove hypothesis acceptable or discard it altogether or recommend modifications.

Steps

Steps of the Scientific Method - The scientific method has a similar structure to an hourglass - starting from general questions, narrowing down to focus on one specific aspect, then designing research where we can observe and analyze this aspect.

At last, the hourglass widens and the researcher concludes and generalizes the findings to the real world.



Aims of Research

The general aims of research are:

- Observe and Describe
- Predict
- Determination of the Causes
- Explain

Purpose of Research - Why do we conduct research? Why is it necessary?

Elements of Research

Common scientific research elements are:

Characterization - How to understand a phenomenon

- Decide what to observe about a phenomenon
- How to define the research problem
- How to measure the phenomenon

Hypothesis and Theory

- The research questions before performing research
- Almost always based on previous research

Prediction

- What answers do we expect?
- Reasoning and logic on why we expect these results

Observation or Experimentation

- Testing characterizations, hypothesis, theory and predictions
- Understanding a phenomenon better
- Drawing Conclusions

COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS:

1. Give the scientific and general definition of “research”.
2. How can you characterize scientific method?”?
3. Explain the meaning of the notion “science”.
4. What are the steps of scientific method?

ТЕМА 21. ОПИС ПРОВЕДЕННЯ ЕКСПЕРИМЕНТУ В МОНОГРАФІЇ

Experimental Research

Experimental research is commonly used in sciences such as sociology and psychology, physics, chemistry, biology and medicine etc.

It is a collection of research designs which use manipulation and controlled testing to understand causal processes. Generally, one or more variables are manipulated to determine their effect on a dependent variable.

The experimental method is a systematic and scientific approach to research in which the researcher manipulates one or more variables, and controls and measures any change in other variables.

Experimental Research is often used where:

1. There is time priority in a causal relationship (cause precedes effect)
2. There is consistency in a causal relationship (a cause will always lead to the same effect)
3. The magnitude of the correlation is great.

(Reference: en.wikipedia.org)

The word experimental research has a range of definitions. In the strict sense, experimental research is what we call a true experiment.

This is an experiment where the researcher manipulates one variable, and control/randomizes the rest of the variables. It has a control group, the subjects have been randomly assigned between the groups, and the researcher only tests one effect at a time. It is also important to know what variable(s) you want to test and measure.

A very wide definition of experimental research, or a quasi experiment, is research where the scientist actively influences something to observe the consequences. Most experiments tend to fall in between the strict and the wide definition.

A rule of thumb is that physical sciences, such as physics, chemistry and geology tend to define experiments more narrowly than social sciences, such as sociology and psychology, which conduct experiments closer to the wider definition.

Aims of Experimental Research

Experiments are conducted to be able to predict phenomena. Typically, an experiment is constructed to be able to explain some kind of causation. Experimental research is important to society - it helps us to improve our everyday lives.

Identifying the Research Problem

After deciding the topic of interest, the researcher tries to define the research problem. This helps the researcher to focus on a more narrow research area to be able to study it appropriately. Defining the research problem helps you to formulate a research hypothesis, which is tested against the null hypothesis.

The research problem is often operationalized, to define how to measure the research problem. The results will depend on the exact measurements that the

researcher chooses and may be operationalized differently in another study to test the main conclusions of the study.

An ad hoc analysis is a hypothesis invented after testing is done, to try to explain why the contrary evidence. A poor ad hoc analysis may be seen as the researcher's inability to accept that his/her hypothesis is wrong, while a great ad hoc analysis may lead to more testing and possibly a significant discovery.

Constructing the Experiment

There are various aspects to remember when constructing an experiment. Planning ahead ensures that the experiment is carried out properly and that the results reflect the real world, in the best possible way.

Sampling Groups to Study

Sampling groups correctly is especially important when we have more than one condition in the experiment. One sample group often serves as a control group, whilst others are tested under the experimental conditions.

Deciding the sample groups can be done in using many different sampling techniques. Population sampling may chosen by a number of methods, such as randomization, "quasi-randomization" and pairing.

Reducing sampling errors is vital for getting valid results from experiments. Researchers often adjust the sample size to minimize chances of random errors.

Here are some common **sampling techniques**:

- probability sampling
- non-probability sampling
- simple random sampling
- convenience sampling
- stratified sampling
- systematic sampling
- cluster sampling
- sequential sampling
- disproportional sampling
- judgmental sampling
- snowball sampling
- quota sampling

Creating the Design

The research design is chosen based on a range of factors. Important factors when choosing the design are feasibility, time, cost, ethics, measurement problems and what you would like to test. The design of the experiment is critical for the validity of the results.

Typical Designs and Features in Experimental Design

- **Pretest-Posttest** Design
Check whether the groups are different before the manipulation starts and the effect of the manipulation. Pretests sometimes influence the effect.
- **Control** Group
Control groups are designed to measure research bias and measurement effects, such as the Hawthorne Effect or the Placebo Effect. A control group

is a group not receiving the same manipulation as the experimental group. Experiments frequently have 2 conditions, but rarely more than 3 conditions at the same time.

- **Randomized** Controlled Trials
Randomized Sampling, comparison between an Experimental Group and a Control Group and strict control/randomization of all other variables
- **Solomon** Four-Group Design
With two control groups and two experimental groups. Half the groups have a pretest and half do not have a pretest. This to test both the effect itself and the effect of the pretest.
- **Between** Subjects Design
Grouping Participants to Different Conditions
- **Within** Subject Design
Participants Take Part in the Different Conditions - See also: Repeated Measures Design
- **Counterbalanced** Measures Design
Testing the effect of the order of treatments when no control group is available/ethical
- **Matched** Subjects Design
Matching Participants to Create Similar Experimental- and Control-Groups
- **Double-Blind** Experiment
Neither the researcher, nor the participants, know which is the control group. The results can be affected if the researcher or participants know this.
- **Bayesian** Probability
Using bayesian probability to "interact" with participants is a more "advanced" experimental design. It can be used for settings were there are many variables which are hard to isolate. The researcher starts with a set of initial beliefs, and tries to adjust them to how participants have responded

Pilot Study

It may be wise to first conduct a pilot-study or two before you do the real experiment. This ensures that the experiment measures what it should, and that everything is set up right.

Minor errors, which could potentially destroy the experiment, are often found during this process. With a pilot study, you can get information about errors and problems, and improve the design, before putting a lot of effort into the real experiment.

If the experiments involve humans, a common strategy is to first have a pilot study with someone involved in the research, but not too closely, and then arrange a pilot with a person who resembles the subject(s). Those two different pilots are likely to give the researcher good information about any problems in the experiment.

Conducting the Experiment

An experiment is typically carried out by manipulating a variable, called the independent variable, affecting the experimental group. The effect that the

researcher is interested in, the dependent variable(s), is measured.

Identifying and controlling non-experimental factors which the researcher does not want to influence the effects, is crucial to drawing a valid conclusion. This is often done by controlling variables, if possible, or randomizing variables to minimize effects that can be traced back to third variables. Researchers only want to measure the effect of the independent variable(s) when conducting an experiment, allowing them to conclude that this was the reason for the effect.

Analysis and Conclusions

In quantitative research, the amount of data measured can be enormous. Data not prepared to be analyzed is called "raw data". The raw data is often summarized as something called "output data", which typically consists of one line per subject (or item). A cell of the output data is, for example, an average of an effect in many trials for a subject. The output data is used for statistical analysis, e.g. significance tests, to see if there really is an effect.

The aim of an analysis is to draw a conclusion, together with other observations. The researcher might generalize the results to a wider phenomenon, if there is no indication of confounding variables "polluting" the results.

If the researcher suspects that the effect stems from a different variable than the independent variable, further investigation is needed to gauge the validity of the results. An experiment is often conducted because the scientist wants to know if the independent variable is having any effect upon the dependent variable. Variables correlating are not proof that there is causation.

Experiments are more often of quantitative nature than qualitative nature, although it happens.

Examples of Experiments

This website contains many examples of experiments. Some are not true experiments, but involve some kind of manipulation to investigate a phenomenon. Others fulfill most or all criteria of true experiments.

Here are some examples of scientific experiments:

Social Psychology

- Stanley Milgram Experiment - Will people obey orders, even if clearly dangerous?
- Asch Experiment - Will people conform to group behavior?
- Stanford Prison Experiment - How do people react to roles? Will you behave differently?
- Good Samaritan Experiment - Would You Help a Stranger? - Explaining Helping Behavior

Genetics

- Law Of Segregation - The Mendel Pea Plant Experiment
- Transforming Principle - Griffith's Experiment about Genetics

Physics

- Ben Franklin Kite Experiment - Struck by Lightning
- J J Thomson Cathode Ray Experiment

COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS:

1. Give the definition of experimental method.
2. Where is experimental research often used?
3. What is the classification of experimental research?
4. How can the investigator identify research problem?
5. Discuss the characteristics of sampling groups and techniques with your partner.
6. What are the typical features in experimental design?
7. What are the peculiarities of conducting experiment?
8. What is the intention of analysis and conclusions?

ТЕМА 22. ОПИС ЧИСЛОВИХ ДАНИХ, ПОДАНИХ У СХЕМАХ, ГРАФИКАХ, ТАБЛИЦЯХ

Data collection and analysis

For the purposes of compliance with ethics and data storage policies, 'data' means 'original information which is collected, stored, accessed, used or disposed of during the course of the research, and the final report of the research findings'.

Your research methods may include the collection of information (data) which can be interpreted or analysed to frame answers to your research questions or increase knowledge of your research topic. You can collect this information in a variety of ways (interviews, surveys, experiments, observations, critical appraisal of texts, literature or works of art or other artefacts). Different collection methods will require different types of management.

- Quantitative information
- Qualitative information
- Working with your data
- Presenting your data

Quantitative information

Numerical or quantitative information is obtained from research methods such as surveys of populations or from repeated experimental procedures. When recording the data it is important to include detailed information (eg dates and place of collection, methods of measurement, units of measurement) to minimise confusion. Numerical data are usually recorded on printed datasheets, then stored in spreadsheet format.

In some cases, data may initially be recorded by handheld computers or specialised data recorders which can later be downloaded to more secure devices. Data recorders can often be set up to record data remotely, without the requirement that researchers be present. Such techniques are frequently used in meteorological research or in situations where it would be too hazardous for a researcher to be present (eg industrial chemistry applications, space research).

Qualitative information

Qualitative (non-numerical) information may be recorded during interviews with human participants, often on video or audiotape, possibly with supporting notes, and may be transcribed into written form later. Other qualitative information describing and interpreting texts or artefacts may also be recorded in written form and stored on index cards or as Word files. This material may be coded for themes using software programs (eg Nvivo) that search for keywords or strings, or it may be done manually. The transcripts may also be treated as texts for analysis.

Visual information may be recorded as photographic plates, slides, computerised files or hand-drawn diagrams.

Software and training

The University has purchased QSR NVivo software licences for research degree students in the Divisions of Business; Education, Arts and Social Sciences; and Health Sciences.

NVivo software helps you access, manage, shape and analyse detailed textual and/or multimedia data by removing manual tasks like classifying, sorting and

arranging information. NVivo can:

- examine virtually any qualitative or textual information, from in-depth interview and focus group transcripts to documents, field or case notes
- be used for a wide range of research methods, including network and organisational analysis, action or evidence-based research, discourse analysis, grounded theory, conversation analysis, ethnography, literature reviews, phenomenology and mixed methods research.

If you a student from a division which has this software and you wish to use it to analyse your data, you can apply to have it installed on your pc free of charge. Go to the [UniSA Software Licensing website](#), read the instructions, follow the link to QSR/NVivo, and download the Software Licence Application.

Working with your data

The data or information you initially collect is often in a bulky format (spreadsheets of numerical data, transcripts of interviews, or descriptions of artefacts) which need to be summarised, interpreted and analysed before you can draw conclusions.

It is often best to summarise information to identify patterns. Summarising helps you to compare information in a standardised format so that you (or your reader) does not have to sort through a lot of information to make comparisons. For example:

- When interpreting interview data you can prepare tables listing frequently-raised issues of interviewees under categories such as age or gender.
- Numerical data can usually be summarised mathematically, as means (averages), medians, modes or frequencies.

Once information is summarised, you will find it easier to identify patterns and interpret meanings. Sometimes this can be a simple descriptive process if patterns or meaning are obvious.

Presenting your data

When writing conference papers, posters, publications or your thesis, you will need to present your information clearly. Using **figures** (diagrams, photographs, maps, graphs) or **tables** (lists of written or numerical information) will enable you to demonstrate your arguments clearly.

Figures and tables must:

- be numbered consecutively
- be correctly referred to (by number) and relevant to the text
- be presented in a consistent style
- have a descriptive caption so that they can be understood without text if necessary (captions usually go above a table, and below a figure)

Graphs must have axes labelled and all units of measurement clearly shown.

Information such as raw data tables, photographs of specimens, or artefacts may be more appropriately inserted as appendices.

COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS:

1. Give the definition of data collection methods?
2. What is the difference between quantitative and qualitative information?
3. What is the importance of summarizing information?
4. What are the rules of data presenting?

ТЕМА 23. ПОСИЛАННЯ ТА ЦИТУВАННЯ В ТЕКСТІ МОНОГРАФІЇ

Citing References in Scientific Research Papers

Introduction

It is important to properly and appropriately cite references in scientific research papers in order to acknowledge your sources and give credit where credit is due. Science moves forward only by building upon the work of others. There are, however, other reasons for citing references in scientific research papers. Citations to appropriate sources show that you've done your homework and are aware of the background and context into which your work fits, and they help lend validity to your arguments. Reference citations also provide avenues for interested readers to follow up on aspects of your work -- they help weave the web of science. You may wish to include citations for sources that add relevant information to your own work, or that present alternate views.

The reference citation style described here is a version of the "Author, Date" scientific style, adapted from Hansen (1991) and the Council of Biology Editors (1994). Harnack & Kleppinger (2000) have adapted "CBE style" to cite and document online sources.

When to Cite References in Scientific Research Papers

You should acknowledge a source any time (and every time) you use a fact or an idea that you obtained from that source. Thus, clearly, you need to cite sources for all direct quotations. But you also need to cite sources from which you paraphrase or summarize facts or ideas -- whether you've put the fact or idea into your own words or not, you got the fact or idea from somebody else and you need to give them proper acknowledgement (even if an idea might be considered "common knowledge," but you didn't know it until you found it in a particular source).

Sources that need to be acknowledged are not limited to books and journal articles, but include internet sites, computer software, written and e-mail correspondence, even verbal conversations with other people (in person or by telephone). All different kinds of sources must be acknowledged. Furthermore, if you use figures, illustrations, or graphical material, either directly or in modified form, that you did not yourself create or design, you need to acknowledge the sources of those figures.

Details of Citing References in your Text

When you cite a reference in your text you should use one of the following three formats:

(1) Mention the author by last name in the sentence and then give the year of the publication in parenthesis:

According to Rodgers (1983), the Appalachian mountains were formed in three events.

(2) Give the facts or ideas mentioned by the author and then attribute these facts or ideas by putting both his or her last name and the date in parenthesis:

The first of the three events occurred in the Ordovician, the second in the

Devonian, and the third in the Carboniferous and Permian Periods (Rodgers, 1983).

(3) Quote the author exactly--be sure to put the quoted phrase between quotation marks--and then list the author's name, the date, and the page number in parenthesis:

"All the climaxes produced mountainous islands or highlands that shed vast amounts of debris westward to form clastic wedges or delta complexes on the continental margin." (Rodgers, 1983, p. 229).

You only need to include the page number in the citation if you are quoting directly, or if the source is very long and the specific fact or idea you are citing can only be found on a specific page. Direct quotations that are more than 4 lines long should be set off from the rest of your paper by use of narrower margins and single spaced lines.

If you have more than one source by the same author published in the same year, distinguish them both in the in-text citation and in the reference list, by appending the letters a, b, c... to the year, in the order in which the different references appear in your paper. (For example: Allen 1996a, 1996b.)

If the reference you are citing has two authors, use the following format:

Periods of glaciation have a large effect on sea level (Ingmanson and Wallace, 1985).

If the reference you are citing has more than two authors, use the following format: Hot spots are formed by the drift of plates over mantle plumes (Vink *et al.*, 1985).

If your source of information is from a personal verbal communication, you would use the following format for the first citation from that person:

It is possible to correct the raw dD values measured on the mass spectrometer (Mark Conrad, Lawrence-Berkeley National Lab, personal communication).

Later citations to the same person can be shortened, as in:

The reproducibility of dD determined by these methods is thought to be about +/- 2 per mil (Conrad, personal communication).

If your source of information is from written correspondence (a letter or e-mail), you would substitute the word "written" for the word "personal" above, and you would add the date of the letter (if dated). Personal communications are generally not included in the References Cited or Bibliography section, although unpublished papers, reports or manuscripts should be.

If your source of information has no individual identifiable author, use the name of the organization to which the work can be attributed in place of the author's name:

The reference citation style described here is a version of the "Author, Date" scientific style, adapted from the Council of Biology Editors (1994).

For internet sources without any identifiable author or date, simply use the URL address as the in-text citation:

As New England is located at the convergence of several distinct storm tracks (http://www.mountwashington.org/mtw_mtn.htm), we expect to find clear differences in isotopic composition among seasons and potentially among different

rain storm events (Fig. 1).

Such a source would be omitted from your References Cited or Bibliography section.

Details of Formatting Reference Lists

Your list of References Cited should include all of the references you cited in your paper, and no more! It should be arranged in alphabetical order by the last name of the first author. If you have more than one entry by the same author, they should be further ordered by increasing publication date (more recent papers last). If you have multiple sources from a single author published in the same year, distinguish them both in the in-text citation and in the reference list, by appending the letters a, b, c... to the year, in the order in which the different references appear in your paper. (For example: Allen 1996a, 1996b.) You should include enough information that your readers will be able to find these sources on their own. The exact format is not critical, but consistency and completeness is. Reference lists are generally reverse-indented--this just helps the reader to find references to specific authors that much faster. Follow the examples given below and you will be all set.

For Books

List all authors by last name and initials, separated by commas if there are more than two authors. Put an "and" before the last author in the list. Then put the year of publication, the title of the book (in italics if possible), the publisher, the city, and the number of pages in the book.

One author:

Gould, S. J., 1983, *Hen's Teeth and Horse's Toes*, W. W. Norton, New York City, 413 p.

Two or more authors:

Ingmanson, D. E. and Wallace, W. J., 1985, *Oceanography: An Introduction*, Wadsworth, Belmont, CA, 530 p.

For Articles or Chapters with separate authors from a Book or Compilation

List the author(s) of the article using the same format given above for books, then give the year, the title of the article or chapter (no quotes, italics or underlines), then the name(s) of the editor(s) of the book or compilation, followed by "ed." or "eds.". Then put the title of the book (in italics if possible), the publisher, the city, and the page numbers where the article can be found:

Rodgers, J., 1983, The life history of a mountain range-- Appalachians, in Hsu, K. J., ed., *Mountain Building Processes*, Academic Press, Orlando, p. 229-243.

For an Article from a Journal or Magazine

List the author(s) of the article using the same format given above for books, then give the year, the title of the article or chapter (no quotes, italics or underlines), then the title of the journal or magazine (in italics if possible), the volume number of the journal (do not use the publication date), and page numbers where the article can be found:

One author:

Maddox, J., 1987, The great ozone controversy, *Nature*, v. 329, p. 101.

Two or more authors:

Vink, G. E., Morgan, W. J., and Vogt, P. R., 1985, The Earth's hot spots, *Scientific American*, v. 252, p. 50- 57.

For Internet sources

Give the author's last name and initials (if known) and the date of publication (or last modification). Next, list the full title of the work (e.g. the specific web page), and then the title of the complete work or site (if applicable) in italics (if possible). Include any version or file numbers, enclosed in parentheses. Most important, provide the full URL to the resource, including the protocol, host address, and the complete path or directories necessary to access the document. Be sure to spell this out exactly! (best to use an electronic "copy" from the "location" box of your browser and "paste" into your word processor). Finally specify the date that *you* last accessed the site, enclosed in parentheses.

Focazio, M.J., Welch, A.H., Watkins, S.A., Helsel, D.R., and Horn, M.A., 1999, A retrospective analysis on the occurrence of arsenic in ground-water resources of the United States and limitations in drinking-water-supply characterizations, *U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigation Report 99-4279*, <http://co.water.usgs.gov/trace/pubs/wrir-99-4279/> (August 1, 2000)

Adapt these formats as necessary for other types of sources, including unpublished reports or manuscripts -- just be sure to include sufficient information that your readers could find or obtain these sources themselves, if need be.

Further information can be found by consulting Hansen (1991), Council of Biology Editors (1994), and Harnack & Kleppinger (2000), particularly their chapter on Using CBE Style to Cite and Document Sources.

COMPRENENSION QUESTIONS:

1. When do the investigator cite the references in scientific papers?
2. Describe the details of citing references in your text.
3. Describe the details of formatting reference lists in your text.
4. What are the requirements for writing the list of all authors for books?
5. What are the requirements for writing the list of all authors for articles or chapters?
6. What are the rules of listing the authors for Internet-sources?

ТЕМА 24. УЗАГАЛЬНЕННЯ ОТРИМАНИХ РЕЗУЛЬТАТІВ У ВИСНОВКАХ ДО МОНОГРАФІЇ

How to Write a Conclusion for a Research Paper

Edited by DaSkylar, BR, Leila, Jeff and 16 others

The conclusion of a research paper needs to summarize the content and purpose of the paper without seeming too wooden or dry. Every basic conclusion must share several key elements, but there are also several tactics you can play around with to craft a more effective conclusion and several you should avoid in order to prevent yourself from weakening your paper's conclusion. Here are some writing tips to keep in mind when creating the conclusion for your next research paper.

Restate the topic. You should briefly restate the topic as well as explaining why it is important.

- Do not spend a great amount of time or space restating your topic. A good research paper will make the importance of your topic apparent, so you do not need to write an elaborate defense of your topic in the conclusion.
- For example, if you were writing a paper about writing conclusions, you might restate the topic by saying something along the lines of, "A solid conclusion is an essential part of a strong research paper." This line introduces your topic (writing conclusions) while also stating why it is important (because it is essential to a strong paper).

Restate your thesis. Aside from the topic, you should also restate or rephrase your thesis statement.

- A thesis is a narrowed, focused view on the topic at hand.
- This statement should be rephrased from the thesis you included in your conclusion. It should not, however, appear too similar to the sentence you originally used.
- For example, if you were writing a paper about why summary conclusions are the strongest type of conclusion, you could write something along the lines of, "A solid conclusion is an essential part of a strong research paper. *For the majority of research papers, a conclusion that summarizes the content of the essay is the most effective.*" Note that the thesis statement is in italics.

Briefly summarize your main points. Essentially, you need to remind your reader what you told them in the body of the paper.

- A good way to go about this is to re-read the topic sentence of each major paragraph or section in the body of your paper. Find a way to briefly restate each point mentioned in each topic sentence in your conclusion. Do not repeat any of the supporting details used within your body paragraphs.
- Under most circumstances, you should avoid writing new information in

your conclusion. This is especially true if the information is vital to the argument or research presented in your paper.

Add the points up. If your paper proceeds in an inductive manner and you have not fully explained the significance of your points yet, you need to do so in your conclusion.^[3]

- Note that this is not needed for all research papers. If you already fully explained what the points in your paper mean or why they are significant, you do not need to go into them in much detail in your conclusion. Simply restating your thesis or the significance of your topic should suffice.

Make a call to action when appropriate. If and when needed, you can state to your readers that there is a need for further research on your paper's topic.

- Note that a call for action is not essential to all conclusions. A research paper on literary criticism, for instance, is less likely to need a call for action than a paper on the effect that television has on toddlers and young children.

Stick with a basic synthesis of information. The most basic conclusion is the summary closing, which is very similar to the paper's introduction.

- Since this sort of conclusion is so basic, it is vital that you aim to synthesize the information rather than merely summarizing it. Instead of merely repeating things you already said, rephrase your thesis and supporting points in a way that ties them all together. By doing so, you make your research paper seem like a "complete thought" rather than a collection of random and vaguely related ideas

Close with logic. If your research paper presented multiple sides of an issue, use your conclusion to state a logical opinion formed by your evidence.

- Include enough information about your topic to back the statement up but do not get too carried away with excess detail.

Speculate. If your research did not provide you with a clear-cut answer to a question posed in your thesis, do not be afraid to indicate as much.

- Restate your initial hypothesis and indicate whether you still believe it or if the research you performed has begun swaying your opinion.
- Indicate that an answer may still exist and that further research could shed more light on the topic at hand.

Pose a question. Instead of handing the reader the conclusion, you are asking the reader to form his or her own conclusion.

- Ask a question that will directly get at the heart or purpose of the paper. This question is often the same question, or some version of it, that you may have started out with when you began your research.
- Make sure that the question can be answered by the evidence presented in

your paper.

- If desired, you can briefly summarize the answer after stating the question. You could also leave the question hanging for the reader to answer, though.

Make a suggestion. If you are including a call to action in your conclusion, you could provide your reader with a recommendation on how to proceed with further research.

- Even without a call to action, you can still make a recommendation to your reader. For instance, if you are writing about a topic like third-world poverty, you can various ways for the reader to assist in the problem without necessarily calling for more research.

Bring things full circle. Tie your research paper together by directly linking your introduction with your conclusion. There are several ways to do this.

- Ask a question in your introduction. In your conclusion, restate the question and provide a direct answer.
- Write an anecdote or story in your introduction but do not share the ending. Instead, write the conclusion to the anecdote in the conclusion of your paper.
- Use the same concepts and images introduced in your introduction in your conclusion. The images may or may not appear at other points throughout the research paper.

Consider using a quotation. Use a fitting quotation on the topic at hand to provide one final, easy-to-remember piece of evidence that supports your overall research.

- The quotation should usually be one from your research. It may even be something already stated in your paper.
- You could also use a related quotation from a famous individual or known expert in the field even if you did not use material from that individual in any other part of your paper.

Avoid saying "in conclusion" or similar sayings. This includes "in summary" or "in closing."

- These sayings usually sound stiff, unnatural, or trite when used in writing.
- Moreover, using a phrase like "in conclusion" to begin your conclusion is a little too straight-forward and tends to lead to a weak conclusion. A strong conclusion can stand on its own without being labelled as such.

Do not wait until the conclusion to state your thesis. While it may be tempting to save your thesis in order to create a dramatic end to your paper, doing so will create a paper that seems less cohesive and more unorganized.

- Always state the main argument or thesis in the introduction. A research paper is an analytical discussion of an academic topic, not a mystery novel.

Leave out new information. A new idea, new subtopic, or new evidence is too significant to save until the conclusion.

- All significant information should be introduced in the body of the paper.
- Supporting evidence expands the topic of your paper by making it appear more detailed. A conclusion should narrow the topic to a more general point.

Avoid changing the tone of the paper. The tone of your research paper should be consistent the entire way through.

- Most often, a shift in tone occurs when a research paper with an academic tone is given an emotional or sentimental conclusion. Even if the topic of the paper is of personal significance for you, you should not indicate as much in your paper.

Make no apologies. Do not make statements that downplay your authority or discoveries.

- Apologetic statements include phrases like "I may not be an expert" or "This is only my opinion."
- Statements like this can usually be avoided by refraining from writing in the first-person.

COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS:

1. Explain why is the fulfillment of the rules in writing general conclusions important.
2. What should you avoid saying in conclusions?

ТЕМА 25. ОСОБЛИВОСТІ ОФОРМЛЕННЯ БІБЛІОГРАФІЇ ТА ДОДАТКІВ ДО МОНОГРАФІЇ АНГЛІЙСЬКОЮ МОВОЮ

How to Add an Appendix to a Research Paper

Academic research papers are frequently written after conducting extensive field research. Therefore, the conclusions and observations discussed in the research paper rely on more extensive data collected during the course of the research. You can include that data in the back of the research paper as an appendix. Appendices should be well-structured and clearly referenced in the text of the research paper. The format of the appendix can be based on a style manual, such as the APA manual, or upon the style of a word processing software, such as Word.

Instructions

- 1. Determine** what data, charts, questionnaires or other information you will include in the appendix. Remember that the appendix is best used for providing more detail or attaching a report in its entirety. Summary information goes in the text of the paper.
- 2. Make** the appropriate reference to the appendix in the text of the research paper. Include the appendix only if you reference it in the paper. One such way to reference is to summarize the information in the text and then add a phrase such as "see Appendix C for the survey in its entirety."
- 3. Prepare** the appendix page in accordance with the appropriate style manual. Generally, you will set up the margins in accordance with the style manual -- for example 1-inch top, bottom, left and right margins and type Appendix at the top center of the page. The appendix should be either numerical or alphabetical (Appendix A or Appendix I), should have page numbers (for example A-1, A-2) and be centered, from top to bottom, on the page. Appendices follow the bibliography or works cited pages.
- 4. For hard copies**, print the appendix pages and place them after the works cited portion of the research paper. Ensure that the pages are in correct numerical order.

Research Paper: How to Write a Bibliography

A bibliography is a list of the sources you used to get information for your report. It is included at the end of your report, on the last page (or last few pages).

You will find it easier to prepare your final bibliography if you keep track of each book, encyclopedia, or article you use as you are reading and taking notes. Start a preliminary, or draft, bibliography by listing on a separate sheet of paper all your sources. Note down the full title, author, place of publication, publisher, and date of publication for each source.

Also, every time a fact gets recorded on a note card, its source should be noted in the top right corner. When you are finished writing your paper, you can use the information on your note cards to double-check your bibliography.

When assembling a final bibliography, list your sources (texts, articles, interviews, and so on) in alphabetical order by authors' last names. Sources that don't have authors (encyclopedias, movies) should be put into alphabetical order by

title. There are different formats for bibliographies, so be sure to use the one your teacher prefers.

General Guide to Formatting a Bibliography

For a book: Author (last name first). Title of the book. City: Publisher, Date of publication. EXAMPLE:

Dahl, Roald. The BFG. New York: Farrar, Straus and Giroux, 1982.

For an encyclopedia:

Encyclopedia Title, Edition Date. Volume Number, "Article Title," page numbers. EXAMPLE:

The Encyclopedia Britannica, 1997. Volume 7, "Gorillas," pp. 50-51.

For a magazine:

Author (last name first), "Article Title." Name of magazine. Volume number, (Date): page numbers. EXAMPLE:

Jordan, Jennifer, "Filming at the Top of the World." Museum of Science Magazine. Volume 47, No. 1, (Winter 1998): p. 11.

For a newspaper:

Author (last name first), "Article Title." Name of newspaper, city, state of publication. (date): edition if available, section, page number(s). EXAMPLE:

Powers, Ann, "New Tune for the Material Girl." The New York Times, New York, NY. (3/1/98): Atlantic Region, Section 2, p. 34.

For a person:

Full name (last name first). Occupation. Date of interview. EXAMPLE:

Smeckleburg, Sweets. Bus driver. April 1, 1996.

For a film:

Title, Director, Distributor, Year. EXAMPLE:

Braveheart, Dir. Mel Gibson, Icon Productions, 1995

CD-ROM:

Disc title: Version, Date. "Article title," pages if given. Publisher. EXAMPLE:

Compton's Multimedia Encyclopedia: Macintosh version, 1995. "Civil rights movement," p.3. Compton's Newsmedia.

Magazine article:

Author (last name first). "Article title." Name of magazine (type of medium). Volume number, (Date): page numbers. If available: publisher of medium, version, date of issue. EXAMPLE:

Rollins, Fred. "Snowboard Madness." Sports Stuff (CD-ROM). Number 15, (February 1997): pp. 15-19. SIRS, Mac version, Winter 1997.

Newspaper article:

Author (last name first). "Article title." Name of newspaper (Type of medium), city and state of publication. (Date): If available: Edition, section and page number(s). If available: publisher of medium, version, date of issue.

EXAMPLE:

Stevenson, Rhoda. "Nerve Sells." Community News (CD-ROM), Nassau, NY.

(Feb 1996): pp. A4-5. SIRS, Mac. version, Spring 1996.

Online Resources

Internet:

Author of message, (Date). Subject of message. Electronic conference or bulletin board (Online). Available e-mail: LISTSERV@ e-mail address

EXAMPLE:

Ellen Block, (September 15, 1995). New Winners. Teen Booklist (Online). Helen Smith@wellington.com

World Wide Web:

URL (Uniform Resource Locator or WWW address). author (or item's name, if mentioned), date. **EXAMPLE:** (Boston Globe's www address)

http://www.boston.com. Today's News, August 1, 1996.

COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS:

1. What are the rules of adding an appendix to a research paper?
2. What are the main steps in adding an appendix to a research paper?
3. Discuss the general Guide to formatting a bibliography with your partner.

ТЕМА 26. РЕФЕРАТ ЯК САМОСТІЙНЕ НАУКОВЕ ДОСЛІДЖЕННЯ

How to Write a Summary of a Published Scientific Article

Summarizing a scientific article demonstrates your understanding of the material and presents that information to an audience that may not have a science background. It is not uncommon for a scientific article to describe an experiment and discuss its findings. To write an effective summary, you must be able to focus on the main ideas of the article. This also helps you better understand scientific research.

Instructions

1. **Read** the entire article. Pay attention to the experiment methods and the conclusions presented. Read the article more than once, if necessary.
2. **Look up** any words or methods you do not understand.
3. **Go through** the article, and highlight its main ideas. Make sure you understand the main points in each paragraph. Take notes so you have a starting point for your summary.
4. **Test** your understanding of the article by asking yourself questions about it. Try explaining the concept of the article to a friend or family member in non-scientific language. Determine if you can clearly explain the article in a way that is easy to comprehend.
5. **Start** a rough draft of your summary, using the notes you've written. Review the article to ensure you have a firm grasp of the conclusion. Summarize the article's conclusion. Offer your own interpretation of the conclusion along with your opinion of the article's content.

Writing a synopsis

What is a synopsis?

You have probably come across examples of synopses, or abstracts, at the beginning of academic journal articles when researching your assignments.

If you have read these synopses, you'll already know that a synopsis is a summary of the article; its arguments and conclusion. Consequently, a synopsis is very useful in helping you to decide if an article is relevant to your research, and if it is worth reading. Synopses are also an integral feature of conferences: presenters are required to submit an abstract or synopsis of their papers, which conference delegates later receive. This helps the delegates decide which presentation they will attend.

As an undergraduate student you may be required to submit a synopsis to accompany a long essay or report. Your synopsis should include an overview of your arguments and conclusions. Synopses are generally only one or two paragraphs long, and they are placed before the beginning of the report or essay.

The following synopsis, or abstract, is from a Master's degree research report. The topic of the report was The role of writing checklists in the teaching/learning cycle: developing English for Further Study students as writers and text analysts.

Student abstract

This study investigates the effect of extending the Disadvantaged Schools' Program (DSP) teaching/learning cycle with English for Further Study students to incorporate writing checklists. The writing checklists were introduced after the modelling of the text phase and used in the following ways: i) to recap generic textual features of the model essay ii) to guide writing in the joint negotiation of a text phase and in the individual construction of a text iii) and as a marking instrument by the teacher and students.

The study draws on data from the classroom in the form of transcripts of the modelling phase of the texts and the joint negotiations, questionnaires, the students' essay writing, the writing checklists and a research journal for classroom observation.

It was found that teachers and students can use checklists compiled from analyses of model texts to revise language features and schematic staging of factual writing genres, and to guide and prompt the teacher and students in the joint negotiation of the DSP cycle. Checklists allow students to communicate to the teacher their area of difficulty when writing, as well as assist them in the drafting and revising of essays. Finally, checklists provide teachers with a marking tool which encourages the teacher to make explicit written comments about how well the student's writing approximated the genre in question. The results of the study suggest that there are considerable benefits to be gained from including writing checklists in the teaching/learning cycle.

Comments

aim of the research project

method

results

discussion

conclusion

COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS:

1. Explain the instructions of writing a summary of published scientific article?
2. Discuss with your partner the meaning of the notion "synopsis".
3. What are the requirements to writing synopsis?

ТЕМА 27. ОПРАЦЮВАННЯ МАТЕРІАЛУ ДОСЛІДЖЕННЯ, ДЖЕРЕЛА ІНФОРМАЦІЇ

Primary, Secondary and Tertiary Sources

Scope: As you conduct research, you will consult different sources of information. A professor may request **primary**, **secondary**, or **tertiary** sources. What does that mean? This guide explains these terms and gives examples for each category.

IMPORTANT NOTE:

The types of information that can be considered primary sources may vary depending on the subject discipline, and also on how you are using the material.

For example:

- A magazine article reporting on recent studies linking the reduction of energy consumption to the compact fluorescent light bulb would be a secondary source.
- A research article or study proving this would be a primary source.
- However, if you were studying how compact fluorescent light bulbs are presented in the popular media, the magazine article could be considered a primary source.

Primary sources

Definition:

Primary sources are original materials. They are from the time period involved and have not been filtered through interpretation or evaluation. Primary sources are original materials on which other research is based. They are usually the first formal appearance of results in physical, print or electronic format. They present original thinking, report a discovery, or share new information.

Note: The definition of a primary source may vary depending upon the discipline or context.

Examples include:

- Artifacts (e.g. coins, plant specimens, fossils, furniture, tools, clothing, all from the time under study);
- Audio recordings (e.g. radio programs)
- Diaries;
- Internet communications on email, listservs;
- Interviews (e.g., oral histories, telephone, e-mail);
- Journal articles published in peer-reviewed publications;
- Letters;
- Newspaper articles written at the time;
- Original Documents (i.e. birth certificate, will, marriage license, trial transcript);
- Patents;
- Photographs

- Proceedings of Meetings, conferences and symposia;
- Records of organizations, government agencies (e.g. annual report, treaty, constitution, government document);
- Speeches;
- Survey Research (e.g., market surveys, public opinion polls);
- Video recordings (e.g. television programs);
- Works of art, architecture, literature, and music (e.g., paintings, sculptures, musical scores, buildings, novels, poems).
- Web site.

For more information about identifying and analyzing primary sources, visit [this guide](#).

Secondary sources

Definition:

Secondary sources are less easily defined than primary sources. Generally, they are accounts written after the fact with the benefit of hindsight. They are interpretations and evaluations of primary sources. Secondary sources are not evidence, but rather commentary on and discussion of evidence. However, what some define as a secondary source, others define as a tertiary source. Context is everything.

Note: The definition of a secondary source may vary depending upon the discipline or context.

Examples include:

- Bibliographies (also considered tertiary);
- Biographical works;
- Commentaries, criticisms;
- Dictionaries, Encyclopedias (also considered tertiary);
- Histories;
- Journal articles (depending on the discipline can be primary);
- Magazine and newspaper articles (this distinction varies by discipline);
- Monographs, other than fiction and autobiography;
- Textbooks (also considered tertiary);
- Web site (also considered primary).

Tertiary sources

Definition:

Tertiary sources consist of information which is a distillation and collection of primary and secondary sources.

- Almanacs;
- Bibliographies (also considered secondary);
- Chronologies;
- Dictionaries and Encyclopedias (also considered secondary);
- Directories;
- Fact books;
- Guidebooks;
- Indexes, abstracts, bibliographies used to locate primary and secondary

- sources;
- Manuals;
- Textbooks (also be secondary).

Comparison across the disciplines

SUBJECT	PRIMARY	SECONDARY	TERTIARY
Art and Architecture	Painting by Manet	Article critiquing art piece	ArtStor database
Chemistry/Life Sciences	Einstein's diary	Monograph on Einstein's life	Dictionary on Theory of Relativity
Engineering/Physical Sciences	Patent	NTIS database	Manual on using invention
Humanities	Letters by Martin Luther King	Web site on King's writings	Encyclopedia on Civil Rights Movement
Social Sciences	Notes taken by clinical psychologist	Magazine article about the psychological condition	Textbook on clinical psychology
Performing Arts	Movie filmed in 1942	Biography of the director	Guide to the movie

Searching WorldCat UMD

You can search WorldCat UMD to find primary, secondary and tertiary sources. Here are some sample **word/s anywhere** searches in WorldCat UMD:

Primary	<i>diaries</i> world war
Secondary	<i>biography</i> world war
Tertiary	<i>encyclopedia</i> world war

COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS:

1. What types of information sources did you learn from the text?
2. Is this information useful for you? Discuss it with your partner.
3. Explain the classification of information sources and express your own opinion.

ТЕМА 28. ОФОРМЛЕННЯ ВСТУПУ ДО РЕФЕРАТУ

If you need to write an abstract for an academic or scientific paper, don't panic; your abstract is simply a summary of the work or paper that others can use as an overview. It will help your reader to understand the paper and it will help people searching for a particular work to find it and decide whether it suits their purposes. Seeing as an abstract is only a summary of the work you've already done, it's easy to accomplish!

Write your paper first. Even though an abstract goes at the beginning of the work, it acts as a summary of your entire paper. Rather than introducing your topic, it will be an overview of everything you write about in your paper.

- A thesis and an abstract are entirely different things. The thesis in a paper introduces the main idea or question, while an abstract works to review the entirety of the paper, including the methods and results.
- Even if you think you know what your paper is going to be about, always save the abstract for last. You will be able to give a much more accurate summary if you do just that - summarize what you've already written.

Review and understand any requirements for writing your abstract. The paper you're writing is likely not of your own accord, and relates back to a specific assignment for work or school. As a result, you may also be presented with specific requirements for your overall essay and abstract. Before you start writing, refer to a rubric or guidelines you were presented with to identify important issues to keep in mind.

- Is there a maximum or minimum length?
- Are there style requirements?
- Are you writing for an instructor or a publication?
- Consider your audience. Will other academics in your field read this abstract, or should it be accessible to a lay reader or somebody from another field?

Determine the type of abstract you must write. Although all abstracts accomplish essentially the same goal, there are two primary styles of abstract: descriptive and informative. You may have been assigned a specific style, but if you haven't you will have to determine which is right for you. Typically, informative abstracts are used for much longer and technical research while descriptive abstracts are best for shorter papers.

- Descriptive abstracts explain the purpose, goal, and methods of your research but leave out the results section. These are typically only 100-200 words.
- Informative abstracts are like a condensed version of your paper, giving an overview of everything in your research including the results. These are much longer than descriptive abstracts, and can be anywhere from a single paragraph to a whole page long.
- The basic information included in both styles of abstract are the same, with the main difference being that the results are only included in an informative abstract, and an informative abstract is much longer than a descriptive one.

COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS:

1. What does an abstract introduce in paper?
2. What is the difference between abstract and thesis?

ТЕМА 29. ВИКЛАД МАТЕРІАЛУ В 1-МУ РОЗДІЛІ РЕФЕРАТУ

Identify your purpose. You're writing about a correlation between lack of lunches in schools and poor grades. So what? Why does this matter? The reader wants to know why your research is important, and what the purpose of it is. Start off your descriptive abstract by answering one or all of the following:

- Why did you decide to do this study?
- Why is this research important?
- Why should someone read your entire essay?

Explain the problem at hand. So the reader knows why you wrote your paper or why you think your topic is important, but now they need to know what the primary issue your paper deals with is. You can sometimes combine the problem with your motivation, but it is best to be clear and separate the two.

- What problem is your research trying to better understand or solve?
- What is the scope of your study - a general problem, or something specific?
- What is your main claim or argument?

Explain your methods. Motivation - check. Problem - check. Methods? Now is the part where you give an overview of how you accomplished your study. If you did your own work, include a description of it here. If you reviewed the work of others, it can be briefly explained.

- Discuss your own research including the variables and your approach.
- Describe the evidence you have to support your claim
- Give an overview of your most important sources.^[2]

Describe your results (informative abstract only). This is where you begin to differentiate your abstract between a descriptive and an informative abstract. In an informative abstract, you will be asked to provide the results of your study. What is it that you found?

- What answer did you reach from your research or study?
- Was your hypothesis or argument supported?
- What are the general findings?

Give your conclusion. This should finish up your summary and give closure to your abstract. In it, address the meaning of your findings as well as the importance of your overall paper. This format of having a conclusion can be used in both descriptive and informative abstracts, but you will only address the following questions in an informative abstract.

- What are the implications of your work?
- Are your results general or very specific?

COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS:

1. What are the steps of writing abstract?
2. Explain why this research is important.
3. Why should someone read your entire essay?

ТЕМА 30. ВИКЛАД МАТЕРІАЛУ В 2-МУ РОЗДІЛІ РЕФЕРАТУ

Formatting Your Abstract

Keep it in order. There are specific questions your abstract must provide answers for, but the answers must be kept in order as well. Ideally it should mimic the overall format of your essay, with a general ‘introduction,’ ‘body,’ and ‘conclusion.’

Provide helpful information. Unlike a topic paragraph which may be intentionally vague, an abstract should provide a helpful explanation of your paper and your research. Word your abstract so that the reader knows exactly what you’re talking about, and isn’t left hanging with ambiguous references or phrases.

- Avoid using direct acronyms or abbreviations in the abstract, as these will need to be explained in order to make sense to the reader. That uses up precious writing room, and should generally be avoided.
- If your topic is about something well-known enough, you can reference the names of people or places that your paper focuses on.

Write it from scratch. Your abstract is a summary, yes, but it should be written completely separate from your paper. Don’t copy and paste direct quotes from yourself, and avoid simply paraphrasing your own sentences from elsewhere in your writing. Write your abstract using completely new vocabulary and phrases to keep it interesting and redundancy-free.

Use key phrases and words. If your abstract is to be published in a journal, you want people to be able to find it easily. In order to do so, readers will search for certain queries on online databases in hopes that papers, like yours, will show up. Try to use 5-10 important words or phrases key to your research in your abstract.

- For example, if you’re writing a paper on the cultural differences in Schizophrenia, be sure to use words like “schizophrenia,” “cross-cultural,” “culture-bound,” “mental illness,” and “societal acceptance.” These might be search terms people use when looking for a paper on your subject.

COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS:

1. What are the peculiarities of abstract formatting?
2. What are the rules of publishing abstract in a journal?

ТЕМА 31. УЗАГАЛЬНЕННЯ МАТЕРІАЛУ У ВИСНОВКАХ ДО РЕФЕРАТУ

Use real information. You want to draw people in with your abstract; it is the hook that will encourage them to continue reading your paper. However, do not reference ideas or studies that you don't include in your paper in order to do this. Citing material that you don't use in your work will mislead readers and ultimately lower your viewership.

Avoid being too specific. An abstract is a summary, and as such should not refer to specific points of your research other than possibly names or locations. You should not need to explain or define any terms in your abstract, a reference is all that is needed. Avoid being too explicit in your summary and stick to a very broad overview of your work.

Be sure to do basic revisions. The abstract is a piece of writing that, like any other, should be revised before being completed. Check it over for grammatical and spelling errors and make sure it is formatted properly.

Your dissertation summary or abstract is an essential introduction that appears at the beginning of your work, providing your reader with a concise synopsis of your research while also offer a compelling reason for them to keep reading. Knowing the components of a well-written dissertation summary can help you achieve these characteristics in your own abstract.

How to Write a Dissertation Summary

Hook Your Reader

Your opening summary sentence should provide a captivating reason why the reader should want to continue. You can accomplish this by stating a research problem or gap in current research that you aim to correct in your dissertation study. Avoid flowery or gimmicky phrasing in this introductory sentence; you can still hook your reader using a straightforward statement.

Restate Your Thesis Statement

The second sentence of your summary should recap your dissertation's thesis statement. Use precise language when reiterating your thesis, as it is safe to assume your dissertation reader is familiar with your field and will follow your premise.

Summarize Research Methods and Conclusions

The remaining two or three sentences of your abstract should summarize the research methodologies or objectives you used in your research as well as the significant outcomes or contributions your dissertation offers to your field. Limit technical jargon as you recount your methods and conclusions, and while you can cite sources that were influential, avoid quoting these sources in the abstract section.

Other Considerations

Your dissertation summary is intended to be succinct, somewhere from 100 to 300 words long. Make sure it contains the most relevant information about your research and what sets it apart from previous work. Because dissertations can change focus over the course of your research, you might find it easier to write

your abstract once you have completed your writing. Having solidified your research accomplishments in your dissertation conclusion can make it easier to summarize your results in abstract form. You can include keywords as part of your abstract, which will increase accessibility to scholars searching online.

COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS:

1. What are the final steps of writing abstract?
2. Explain their importance to your partner.
3. What is the role of scientific summary? Discuss this aspect in pairs.

ТЕМА 32. ПІДГОТОВКА ДОПОВІДІ НА НАУКОВУ КОНФЕРЕНЦІЮ

Tips on Writing Conference Papers

Tips on writing conference papers are best gained through experience presenting. Most academic conferences publish either the abstracts of the papers presented at the conference or a copy of the full papers presented. The papers cover the details of the presentations for attendees to review in situations when the attendee was not able to hear the oral presentation.

In cases where the papers are generated after the conference, the questions obtained during the presentation can give specific direction on the points that were of interest at the conference and will probably be of most interest to a reader.

Benefits of the Abstract

An abstract should be prepared prior to the conference to:

- Provide the organizers with a brief overview of your topic and to present a brief summary of your results. The abstract is used to categorize the paper and group it with similar topics or areas of work. Each category is then scheduled for a location and time for presentation.
- Provide attendees with a summary of what will be presented during a specific period of time in the preliminary schedule so that they can make the best use of their time during the conference. In cases where two presentations of interests are being presented simultaneously at two different locations, the attendee can select the one of greatest interest and make other arrangements to speak with the presenter of the paper that they were unable to attend.
- Provide presenters with a way to review the abstracts of all the papers in the section your paper is assigned, to address questions of how you performed your work and of which of the other presenters' methods would also work in obtaining your goal.

In presenting your results, you will be making conclusions and writing an abstract is perhaps the most important part of the conference paper that you prepare because it lets people know what you used to get to those conclusions.

Remember to include in your abstract the motivation for the work. Define the problem being examined and the approach that will be used during the work described. Then, proceed to report the results and present your conclusions.

Writing Effective Conference Papers

Generate the first draft of your paper while you are preparing the oral presentation. Writing your first draft at this point will do two important things:

- It will help you to organize your thoughts for the oral presentation.
- It will serve as a great place to revise the paper based on questions brought up at the end of the conference.

Content

As you write, include a more detailed description of the actual work that was done. These details are often minimized during an oral presentation, but should be fully detailed in the actual paper reporting the results. The results portion of your

paper will be much the same as the content of the oral presentation. With your conclusions, you should also comment on the direction of future and follow-up work.

The focus of your paper should be limited to the work presented during the conference. Do not include any work done since the conference, as this will blur the line between the work presented at the conference and follow-up work that continues to develop.

Organization

The organization of your conference paper should flow in a logical sequence from experimental design to conclusions. Significant thought must be put in to fully evaluate the results and conclusions and to then report them at the conference proceedings or in a professional journal that is associated with the conference and the presentations.

References

Include all the resources that you used as reference sources and that site results for the problem you are investigating. The more complete the references the better your paper will be received. It will show that you have a good grasp of the field and that your work is original and novel.

These are just a few tips on writing conference papers that should help you present the work in a professional manner and that may help you with your oral presentation.

COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS:

1. What are the main stages of preparing conference report?
2. What should you do to write effective conference paper?
3. How must results and conclusions be effectively written?

ТЕМА 33. КОНФЕРЕНЦІЙНІ МАТЕРІАЛИ: ЗАЯВКА, АВТОРСЬКА ДОВІДКА, СУПРОВІДНИЙ ЛИСТ

Ten Ways to Document Your Conference Participation (example)

Presented at the Computers and Writing Conference, May 17, 2001 in the "Getting the Most out of your Computers and Writing Conference (The Mentoring Program)" panel during the Opening Reception in the Muncie Center for the Arts.

Your participation in the Computers and Writing Conference shows your colleagues that you're active professionally and that you care about improving your classes and research. And when the time comes for applying for travel funds in the future, you'll have evidence that shows that you know how to share what you learn at a conference. There's no guarantee that you'll be given financial support, but documenting your participation and sharing what you learn will help make sure that your colleagues understand why you attend this conference. Try one or more of these methods to track your professional development here in Muncie:

1. Save your Convention Program

Save your copy of the Convention Program (the book that lists the panels and sessions). If you're a presenter at the Convention, you can use the listing in the program as proof of your participation. For sessions that you attend, the program is a useful reference allowing you to look up details on the sessions that you attended. Be sure to pick up a copy of the addendum and corrections as well. NOTE: while it's true that the program is online, many departments want to see the proof on paper — don't rely on the online version of the program. Be sure to hang onto your printed copy!

2. Record Details on the Sessions That You Attend

Write a log of your participation — it will help you remember ideas from the sessions, and it will provide some evidence that you participated. List the sessions that you attend and the presenters who were there. Too frequently, attendance at a conference is a blur. Jot out a simple worksheet for yourself with these headings, and you're ready to go:

Heading	What to Record	Why Gather This Info
Day/Time, Session #	The specifics from the program So you can find the details later.	You don't want to write everything out in these notes.
Speaker & Paper Title:	Enough to remind you of the official label	There are several speakers in most sessions. You'll want enough details to tell which notes are about which presentation
General Topic	A few keywords (e.g., portfolios, staff training)	Give yourself a few keywords to help organize the information when you go back through your notes later.

Notes & Applications	Summarize what was discussed, and talk about how you plan to use the information.	The more ideas you can get down about using these ideas while you're here, the better. Note colleagues you want to share the info with as well.
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3. If you are really interested in someone's paper, ask for a copy. All you have to do is walk up to the speaker and say something along the lines of "Hi. I really enjoyed your paper. My research is on a related topic (explain in a sentence or two how it's related). Would it be possible to get a copy of your paper?" Be prepared to exchange email addresses! (Remember though that not everyone has a "written" paper. Some people just talk/think pieces. If the speaker doesn't have a "paper," you might ask if the person has published similar ideas elsewhere that you might consult.)

4. Share What You Learn With Others

Share what you learn at the conference with others at your school or in your area to demonstrate what you gained by participating. If you happen upon a particularly good idea, pass it on to others — put it in their mailboxes or email it to your colleagues. Remember that one of the ways that school districts and departments justify supporting conference attendance is by asking that attendees share what they've learned with others. Be on the lookout for things that you can share and then follow-up after the event. Be sure that you pass the ideas on! You'll please your colleagues, and you'll demonstrate to your administrators that supporting your attendance at conferences and other professional development meetings is a good investment! As you pass on information, be sure to add a cover page of your own that points out why you're passing the information on and where the information came from so that your colleagues know to give you credit.

5. Hold onto Attendance Verification Forms.

In addition to the program, save attendance verification records in the form of certificates or other documents that prove you were here including your letter of acceptance, registration receipt, and so forth. If the information came to you in email form, print it out and include it in your professional development folder as part of your records.

6. Drop Names and References When You Go Home.

Your colleagues won't know anything about the sessions you've attended unless you tell them. The point isn't just to indicate that you've learned something but to indicate where you learned it. Start thinking about sentences such as "[Insert the speaker's name] talked about just this issue at the Computers and Writing Conference" — then follow up with the details. If the name you're dropping is one your listeners will recognize, that's all you need. If you're referring to someone they might not know, give a little more information: "[Insert the speaker's name] (s/he's a professor at U of wherever) mentioned something along these lines in Muncie." Remember that the point isn't just to drop the name. Be sure to add the details and specifics that the speaker shared.

7. Plug Your Own Paper or Research.

It's not enough to refer to others; talk about yourself. When discussion in your

department turns to what you worked on for this conference, you need to be prepared to say "I researched this topic for the paper I gave at the Computers and Writing Conference in May" — then to say more about what you found. Don't be a bore. Don't drone on about your paper when it's not relevant, but if the conversation turns to something you've worked on, provide the footnote. Additionally, you can refer to issues beyond those that you've done formal research on. Think about saying things such as "We talked about this issue in Muncie." or "I picked up an article about this topic at the Computers and Writing Conference."

8. Arrange an Exchange with a Nearby Colleague.

Here's a relatively simple idea. You're likely to meet someone at Computers and Writing who is relatively close to your school, geographically speaking. The two of you can work out a little exchange. You go to the colleague's school and lead a little brown bag discussion about your research. The colleague does the same. You both get PR at your school or bringing in a guest speaker, and you both has another presentation line to add to your vita.

9. Pick-up Freebies and Silly Stuff. Take Pictures.

Everything doesn't have to be serious to remind folks where you've been. Your colleagues may be just as interested in your bringing back a computer-shaped stress "ball" as they are in seeing the latest article by the keynoter. If you have a friendly relationship, it doesn't really hurt to share such things too. You might also think about taking photos that you can share with colleagues. How about an action shot of you bowling with the great thinkers in Computers and Writing?

10. Scour the Handout Tables.

Check the area for handouts on the latest books, calls for proposals, and upcoming events. If you see something that a colleague might be interested in, all you need is a post-it note that says, "Saw this at Computer and Writing Conference and thought you might be interested." And most important, be sure to find a copy of the Call for next year's Computers and Writing Conference. Take it home, photocopy it, add another post-it encouraging colleagues to join you at next year's conference and spread it around the department mailboxes. When time turns to the deadline for the next year's Computers and Writing Conference Call, sponsor a little departmental get-together to come up with a panel or workshop proposal that includes everyone.

Submit Your Presentation Materials to Kairos.

Nothing says "I'm a participant" like publishing your work! Kairos (<http://english.ttu.edu/kairos/>) will publish selected and revised presentations from the Computers and Writing 2001 Conference this year. Linda Hanson and Rich Rice will guest edit this issue with James Inman and Douglas Eyman. If you're interested in re-working your presentation into a publishable format, please contact strand coordinators (<http://www.bsu.edu/cw2001/overview.htm#strands>). See presentations from last year's conference at <http://english.ttu.edu/kairos/5.2>.

COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS:

1. Discuss ten ways to document conference participation and exchange your opinion with your partner.
2. Do you have any experience on conference participation? Give your reasons.
3. Did you take part in conferences? Tell about it to your colleagues.

**ТЕМА 34. ЗАЛІКОВИЙ ТЕСТ
(ПИСЬМОВА АНОТАЦІЯ / РЕЗЮМЕ, УСНА БЕСІДА)**

Task 1. Find an article in the journal on your speciality and write an abstract using the above mentioned information from the texts. (You may use Internet-sources).

Task 2. Using Internet-sources find research in your area and prepare in writing the summary.

Task 3. Prepare conference presentation using PowerPoint programme. Take to consideration material from the text-book.

Task 4. Prepare oral presentation on the topic “My Research Work”. Highlight all the stages of your research.

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НАВЧАЛЬНЕ ВИДАННЯ

МЕТОДИЧНІ ВКАЗІВКИ

**до практичної роботи з дисципліни «Англійська мова»
для здобувачів вищої освіти освітньо-наукової програми третього рівня
(підготовка докторів філософії) для усіх спеціальностей
(2 курс)**

**Укладач: Лещенко Олена Павлівна,
старший викладач**

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