**Academic Writing TH Wildau September 13-17 2021**

**Teacher: John O’Donoghue MA

An introduction to the conventions and moves of academic writing and the phrases that realize and illustrate such rules and steps. Imitating and adapting native speaker professional academic writing to make yours more effective and professional. We will start with looking at principles of academic writing, then see how professional writers implement those principles and at the end give you feedback on an example of your academic writing. You will be asked to write a short paraphrase of the article you have analysed in terms of moves and style.**

CONTENTS:

1. What is academic writing?
2. What are the key moves/sections in a piece of academic writing?
3. The key moves and example phrases that express such moves.
4. The writer expresses her opinion: adjectives and adverbs, it is (adjective) to (verb).
5. Labels. How we name it is how we see it. And how the reader has to see it.
6. A useful tool: The Corpus of Contemporary American English.
7. Hedging
8. Marking Criteria
9. Parallelism.
10. Referencing

1 What is academic writing and why is it not easy to learn, especially for non-native speakers?

Formal academic language is constructed in a more **formal** way than everyday speech. Avoid colloquial or slang phrases that are often used in normal language. Written academic English tends to be **impersonal** and **precise**, and often uses the passive voice in carefully constructed sentences. Statements and claims are carefully **documented** and **hedged** (If you are not sure what *hedged* means, look at the first verb in the previous sentence and the adverb before the second verb). For example, we rarely use rhetorical phrases and do not address the reader directly. However, formal writing should not be too wordy or use too much jargon. Despite its sophistication, formal writing should be **clear**.

When you do the exercises below, look for examples of very formal language and impersonal phrases. Look also for those words that indicate the writer’s (personal) stance /attitude/viewpoint.

2.1 Usually a Bachelor’s or Master’s thesis comprises the following sections.

**INTRODUCTION**

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

**METHODOLOGY**

**RESULTS**

**DISCUSSION**

**CONCLUSION**

**2.2 Task:** With your partner write down briefly what you would expect to find in each of these six sections.

**INTRODUCTION**

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

**METHODOLOGY**

**RESULTS**

**DISCUSSION**

**CONCLUSION**

3.1 In each of these six sections there are conventional moves which are normally made. Below are seven moves which may be included in the Introduction section. In your introduction you should include at least four or five of them as this is what your reader/supervisor expects to read. In 3.2 you see standard academic phrases that realize those moves.

**INTRODUCTION**

1. Establishing the importance of the topic:
2. Highlighting a problem in the field of study:
3. Highlighting a controversy in the field of study:
4. Highlighting a knowledge gap in the field of study (for research):
5. Focus, aim, argument:
6. Outline of structure:
7. Explaining Keywords

3.2 Especially non-native speakers may have some problems to express these moves in an appropriate academic style: Below you will find the relevant phrases for the moves above. These phrases are taken from the Academic Phrases document that belongs to the course material. It is not plagiarism to use these phrases. You may, of course, wish to adapt them to your particular text (see 3.3).

1. In the history of development economics, X has been thought of as a key factor in ....
2. However, these rapid changes are having a serious effect ....
3. Debate continues about the best strategies for the management of ……
4. The research to date has tended to focus on X rather than Y.
5. The objectives of this research are to determine whether ......
6. This paper begins by ...... It will then go on to ......
7. While a variety of definitions of the term X have been suggested, this paper will use the definition first suggested by Smith (2014) who saw it as .......

3.3 You may want to use the phrase ‘as a key factor’ in your own introduction. Or you might prefer a different adjective for factor. Let us look at what professional American writers use. Consulting the Corpus of Contemporary American English we find a list of adjectives, one of which may better express our viewpoint. *Major, contributing, significant, motivating, causal, critical, possible, determining, causative, mitigating, potential, positive, primary, deciding, crucial.* All of these adjectives are common collocates with the word factor. Which of these would you describe as weak, strong or very strong?

WEAK:

STRONG:

VERY STRONG:

**3.4 LITERATURE REVIEW**

**General descriptions of the relevant literature:**

In recent years, there has been an increasing amount of literature on ....

**General reference to previous research/scholarly activity (usually more than one author)**

Previous studies *have reported* .... (Smith, 2012; Jones, 2014; Johnson, 2018).

**Reference to single investigations in the past: researcher(s) as sentence subject**

Jones et al. (2017) *analysed* the data from 72 countries and concluded that ....
 **Reference to what other writers do in their text (author as subject)**

Smith (2016) *identifies* poor food, bad housing, inadequate hygiene and large families as the major causes of ....

**Reference to other writers' ideas (author as subject)**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Smith (2003) | points out argues maintains claims concludes suggests  | that | preventative medicine is far more cost effective, and therefore better adapted to the developing world |

**3.5 METHODOLOGY Match the moves with the expressions that realize them:**

**A Describing previously used methods**

**B Describing the characteristics of the sample**

**C Describing the process: infinitive of purpose**

**D Giving reasons why a particular method was adopted or rejected**

**E Indicating a specific method**

**F Indicating problems or limitations**

**G Indicating reasons for sample characteristics**

1. Criteria for selecting the subjects were as follows:
2. To date various methods have been developed and introduced to measure X:
3. It was not possible to investigate the significant relationships of X and Y *further* because the sample size was too small.
4. The synthesis of X was done according to the procedure of Smith (2012).
5. All of the participants were aged between 18 and 19 at the beginning of the study.....
6. *To see* if the two methods gave the same measurement, the data was plotted and ....
7. It was decided that the best method to adopt for this investigation was to ....

**3.6 RESULTS Match the moves with the expressions that realize them:**

**A Reference to aim/method**

**B Location and summary statements:**

**C Highlighting significant data in a table/chart**

**D Statements of result (positive)**

**E Statements of result (negative)**

**F Highlighting significant, interesting or surprising results**

**G Reporting results from questionnaires and interviews**

1 The Chi-square test did not show any significant differences between ......

2 There was a significant positive correlation between ......

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| 3 As shown in Figure 12.1, As can be seen from the table (above), It can be seen from the data in Table 12.1 that From the graph above we can see that  | the X group reported significantly more Y than the other two groups. |

4 This table is quite revealing in several ways. First, unlike the other tables ......

5 70% of those who were interviewed indicated that ......

6The first set of analyses examined the impact of ......

7 The single most striking observation to emerge from the data comparison was ......

**3.7 DISCUSSION Match the moves with the expressions that realize them:**
**A Background information (reference to literature or to research aim/question)**

**B Unexpected outcome**

**C Reference to previous research (support)**

**D Reference to previous research (contradict)**

**E Explanations for results:**

**F Advising cautious interpretation**

**G Suggesting general hypotheses**

**H Noting implications**

**I Commenting on findings**

**J Suggestions for future work**

1. In contrast to earlier findings, however, no evidence of X was detected.
2. The present study was designed to determine the effect of ....
3. Contrary to expectations, this study did not find a significant difference between ....
4. The findings of the current study are consistent with those of Smith and Jones (2001) who found ....
5. The present results are significant in at least major two respects.
6. It seems possible that these results are due to ......
7. However, with a small sample size, caution must be applied, as the findings might not be transferable to ....
8. A further study with more focus on X is therefore suggested.
9. In general, therefore, it seems that ....
10. This combination of findings provides some support for the conceptual premise that ....

**3.8 CONCLUSION Match the moves with the expressions that realize them:**

### A Summarising the content

### B Restatement of aims (research)

### C Summarising the findings (research)

### D Suggesting implications

### E Significance of the findings (research contribution)

### F Significance of the findings with a qualification

### G Limitations of the current study (research)

### H Recommendations for further work (research)

### I Implications/recommendations for practice or policy

1. Although the current study is based on a small sample of participants, the findings suggest that ….
2. The results of this investigation show that ....
3. The current findings add substantially to our understanding of ....
4. This dissertation has investigated ....

### The present study was designed to determine the effect of ....

1. An issue that was not addressed in this study was whether….
2. The findings of this study have a number of important implications for future practice.
3. The results of this research support the idea that ....
4. The issue of X is an intriguing one which could be usefully explored in further research.

**4.1 Taking a stance, developing a critical voice.**How can you express your opinion if you cannot write: ‘I think, I believe, etc? Academic writers often use verbs and nouns that are objective and scientific, *argue/argument*. At the same time they insert an adverb with the verb and an adjective with the noun that reflects their viewpoint, leading the reader in a certain direction

4.1.1 Adverbs after keys verbs: E.g., argues with adverbs: argues + *strongly, forcefully, correctly, provocatively:*

A field has intrinsic properties that signal erosion prevention, but only to those who can read the signs. John Berger **argues** **forcefully** that the use of oil in painting developed when there was a need to develop and perfect this technique.

4.1.2 Common adjectives with argument: *strong, central, compelling, convincing, persuasive, rational, valid.*

The normal adult interval ranges from 2.5 to 3 mm; in children, this interval may be as great as 4.5 mm. A **convincing** **argument** can be made that children are at increased risk based on this hypermobility

Though such guidance concerns are not wholly without merit, they do not provide a **convincing** **argument** for rejecting the shared agreement approach in favor of any of the alternative approaches to the narrowest grounds rule-at least not in the absence of clear and specific direction from the Supreme Court requiring that result.

4.1.3 Often we hide our opinion with the *it* phrase: *It is important to point out, it is fair to say, it is appropriate, it is difficult, it is plausible, it is inaccurate, it is incorrect*.

The most common phrases using the string *It is adjective to* *verb* in the Corpus of Contemporary American English are:

1. It is important to note
2. It is interesting to note
3. It is important to remember
4. It is important to understand
5. It is important to recognize
6. It is hard to imagine
7. It is important to consider
8. It is easy to see
9. It is important to keep
10. It is difficult to imagine
11. It is difficult to determine
12. It is important to be
13. It is difficult to see
14. It is reasonable to assume
15. It is hard to see
16. It is difficult to know
17. It is important to emphasize
18. It is important to examine
19. It is reasonable to expect
20. It is impossible to know
21. It is important to mention

TASK: Can you take five of the above and finish them using academic style and your own imagined academic content. Use at least one that expresses a critical opinion.

My example: When evaluating the questionnaires that Smith uses in her study*, it is important to remember* that she only interviewed a small sample and that certain degree courses were not considered in her study.

**5.1 Labels**

**Labelling discourse**

Often at the end of a stretch of discourse we have a retrospective label which serves to encapsulate or package that particular text. It is not a repetition or a synonym of any preceding part rather it is presented as an equivalent to the clause(s).

Example:

… the patients’ immune system recognised the mouse antibodies and rejected them. This meant they did not remain in the system long enough to be fully effective.
The second generation antibody now under development is an attempt to get around **this** **problem** by ‘humanising’ the mouse antibodies, using a technique developed by …

The label tells the reader to interpret the rejection of the mouse antibodies as a problem. This is anticipated by the description of the antibodies as not ‘fully effective’, providing the framework for the solution to be described.

The labels are often general nouns such as *man, creature, thing, stuff, matter, move*, *question, idea* and *fact*.

These labels may add something new to the argument by signalling the writer’s evaluation of the propositions which they encapsulate. Some nouns, for example, *statement, belief* and *view* can termed ‘attitudinally neutral’, though they may well take on positive or negative meanings in discourse, according to their lexical environment.

Many labels are nominalizations of verb processes, usually acts of communication.

TASK: try to sort the following labels into positive, neutral or negative, and decide if they tend to be strong or weak. Accusation seems to be negative and rather strong. Admission negative but rather weak. Of course, this analysis only really makes sense in a specific context.

|  |
| --- |
| Accusation, admission, advice, affront, allegation, announcement, answer, appeal, argument, assertion, charge, claim, comment, complaint, compliment, conclusion, contention, criticism, decision, denial, disclosure, excuse, explanation, indication, objection, observation, point, prediction, proposal, proposition, reassurance, recognition, recommendation, rejection, remark, reminder, reply, report, request, response, revelation, statement, suggestion, warning.  |

It may be interesting to see how adjectives are used to boost or tone down these labels. For instance, if we look at adjectives with accusation, we find the most common *false accusation*. This seems to undermine or qualify the force of accusation. On the other hand, *serious accusation* and *damning accusation* make it stronger. In groups, look at adjectives which collocate with some of these labels and see if the adjectives boost or tone down the key label. Each group can take one line and choose the more interesting words:

Examples:

1 In particular, critics argue that CERCLA liability places an unfair burden on parties that contribute only minimally to a hazardous waste site. Such parties, the critics note, may incur transaction costs that greatly exceed their share of the liability for site cleanup. Although there is some truth to this **criticism**, the extent of the problem has been greatly exaggerated.

2 The establishment of UNCED and the attention surrounding it attest to humankind's **recognition** that people have transformed and continue to transform the Earth with serious implications for the physical wellbeing of the planet and its inhabitants

3 Yet to V. Y. Mudimbe and Paulin J. Hountondji, among others, an " invented Africa " issuing from the earlier versions of Western anthropological scholarship constitutes not even partial enlightenment in this sense but a paradigmatic handicap to our understanding of African societies, requiring some form of brand-new, self-reliant, and homemade knowledge of and by Africans. S Though understandable, their **charge** is only partly correct. Even though this is unlikely to win them any sympathy from their critics, one should not leave out the brutal fact that Westerners specializing in Africa (including those working after the Second World War) took great professional risk and earned scorn from the haughty theorists of Western academia, a reality most recently brought out with great eloquence by Jan Vansina's 1950s experience in Living with Africa

The approach in this course is to select phrases that fulfill functions that are used in academic writing. You will find many phrases in the accompanying handout. You can adopt these for your own writing, or you may wish to adapt them to suit your meaning. If we look at the Corpus of Contemporary American English, we can see many adjectives that can help us describe concept. *Old, problematic, key, basic, interesting, alien, meaningful, new, important, difficult, underlying, traditional, simple, complex, European, popular.*
Without the context it is difficult to say which of these adjectives are negative, neutral or positive. However, with the person beside you, try to categorize them as negative, neutral or positive. You may wish to provide a context which would make it clearer why the adjective seems negative, neutral or positive. This exercise also shows how writers express their own opinion using an objective noun (concept) and a subjective adjective (interesting) to indicate how they evaluate what they are writing about, here the concept.

**NEGATIVE:**

**NEUTRAL:**

**POSITIVE:**

**6 Hedging**

Verbs used in ‘hedging’:
There is a group of verbs that can be used to refer to acts such as forecasting, suggesting and proposing. Often these verbs perform a hedging function in an academic text because all those acts are non-factual. Some useful verbs from this class are:

|  |
| --- |
| seem, appear, believe, assume, suggest, speculate, estimate, tend, think, argue, indicate, project, forecast |

Use the above verbs to make statements 1-5 more hedged. There are often more alternatives that can be used, so list all the verbs that fit the purpose.

1 Scientists say that the population of Europe will decline by 20% in the next fifty years.

2 The figures show that migration to the cities will slow down over the next twenty years.

3 When a region is hit by a food shortage, the inhabitants will migrate.

4 Two-thirds of the world’s population live in poverty and misery.

5 There are three broad schools of thought regarding overpopulation.

Task: The following sentences are grammatically correct but could be made more
academic by hedging. Try to identify where the hedging has to be conducted and how it can be done. Try to hedge them using the corpus tools.

Hedging examples:

1. The negotiation has been initiated due to the fact that both, American and European, companies have to deal with different standards in all industries. These factors slow growth and international trade.
2. It also aimed to create a market which is more competitive, in which companies can take over public assignments. This shall reduce the countries’ costs in the public sector.
3. Greece, a country with a ‘doomed’ economy, according to the current Journalistic reports.
4. The crisis in Greece occurred due to the failure of fiscal policy.
5. Astonishingly, the poverty rate stayed fairly modest in Greece during the crisis (Matsaganis).
6. The carbon dioxide emissions rose during the past centuries dramatically. The gas is responsible for the greenhouse effect, thus resulting in the rise of the temperature.
7. If the deposit facility keeps being this low it will expand the housing bubble until eventually bursting with possibly devastating effects not only on the Germany economy but also on the whole European economy.
8. Shaping a business success is only possible with a great image as well as a strong identity.
9. As it was necessary to analyse the potential of online channels this survey proves that online communication holds a great potential
10. Furthermore, the increase of crime and terrorism is a major threat.
11. The widespread use of antibiotic treatments is another consequence, which is responsible for the development of drug resistant pathogens.

**7 Sovereignty moves**: This is an analysis of a research article. I have tried to highlight the way that the moves outlined above are to be found in almost every research article/dissertation. When we have finished tracing these moves, your task is to analyze a research article from your field and identify key moves in it. Focus on the following points when analyzing your research article:

1 What are the moves that you can identify?

2 How does the writer express his/her opinion?

Adjectives:

Adverbs:

Evaluative phrases: (it is important to)

Labels (e.g., constraints).

3 What connectors can you identify?

4 What examples of hedging do you find? Are they weak or strong? (can vs. might) Why are the statements hedged?

5A phrase/stylistic device that you like/would like to use.

Human Rights Institutions, Sovereignty Costs and Democratization

Page 1:

IMPERSONAL

Abstract: this article argues … it also argues … the study finds.

ESTABLISHING THE IMPORTANCE

Both the number of … and the number of have risen dramatically in recent decades

Considerable interest has been expressed in why (followed by problem/unexplained phenomenon)

INDICATING A CONTROVERSY

This development has sparked a heated debate over why …

WRITING DEFINITIONS

‘sovereignty costs’: they surrender discretion over national policies …

Page 2:

GAP IN THE FIELD OF STUDY

A growing body of research has focused on government ratification … Yet much less attention has been paid to a larger (and growing) set of IOs

SIGNALLING

For all three reasons (reasons first given, then the label provided).

FILLING A GAP IN THE FIELD OF STUDY

Using a dataset on human rights … and an original measure of sovereignty costs, we generate some of the first cross-national evidence on why and when …

STATEMENT OF RESULTS

The results provide strong support for our argument. Our results suggest that

COMPARING AND CONTRASTING

By contrast

Page 3:

COMPARING AND CONTRASTING

In contrast,

HEDGING

Tend to oppose

They are generally reluctant to

CONTRAST

And while …, unless they can be assured ….

QUALIFICATION

Although we draw on …, his logic applies

CONTRAST

But contrary to Moravcsik, we do not expect

CONNECTOR

Moreover,

QUALIFICATION

However,

Page 4:

QUALIFICATION

This is not to say that

SPECIFICATION

This is especially true in the case of

CITING

As Hathaway argues,

CONTRAST/BEING CRITICAL

Whereas scholars often treat … as distinct processes, they are intimately related to …

GENERAL STATEMENT FOLLOWED BY SPECIFIC EXAMPLE

The decision to enter a human rights institution … is not driven by prospective members alone. … The EU, for example, all but requires countries to enter various human rights treaties and organizations before being granted membership.

**5.2** The following are the adverbs that follow *argues* in the academic section of the Corpus of Contemporary American English. Most of them are positive, some less so. I have listed them in order of frequency and, unsurprisingly, the first ones are positive. Can you order them from strongest, where the writer is clearly agreeing with the opinion he quotes, to the weakest, where the writer is expressing some disagreement. Obviously, there are some grey areas where the adverb could be positive or negative depending on the context. Think of a context where the adverb would be positively or negatively charged:

Convincingly, persuasively, strongly, forcefully, eloquently, cogently, correctly, compellingly, implicitly, passionately, provocatively, repeatedly, vigorously, trenchantly, precisely, incoherently, desperately, insightfully.

**5.3** We can also use adverbs as commentary: unsurprisingly, obviously, disappointedly. What others can you think of?

When you have finished, you can enter \*ly in the window of the Corpus of Contemporary American English and see what you find.

**Part Two: The language of Academic Writing.**

**6.1** This course is based on **three principles**:

1) We learn language in units or **complete phrases** not as individual words. We do not know a word (e.g. a noun) unless we know what adjectives normally accompany it, what verbs normally go before it or go after it. Does the word have a positive or negative tone to it? Is this word formal (academic) or informal (everyday/spoken)?

2) We learn language by looking at **real, authentic language** used by real people in real situations.

3) Students learn real English by finding out about real language, by **discovering it themselves** and selecting what is useful for their needs. This involves ignoring material or examples which are not relevant to them. It is not the teacher’s job to tell students what to learn and what to ignore. Students should develop the important skill to discriminate between what is useful for them and what is not useful. We learn by exploring and we all do that in different ways. Students can then develop to become independent learners who do not need constant help from their teachers.

The key to writing is reading. As children we learn to read before we learn to write. Reading high-quality academic writing assists students and professors in improving their own writing, by **imitating** and then **adapting** what they read to their own purposes, balancing, on the one hand, obeying the rules and conventions of academic writing, with developing their own individual style, on the other hand. If you want to write at (near-) native speaker academic level, then you need to read carefully the work of those who have already attained this level. The purpose of these exercises below is to show you what native speakers/competent users of English do when they publish academic work so that you can analyse it, copy, change and develop what you read.

What is the problem? When we write an academic text, we want it to sound academic. Not to use relatively simple and very useful verbs such as *get*, *take*, *make* and *do* all the time, as we have been successfully doing for ten or twenty years. For example, maybe we have used *carry out research* a few times and would like to use another verb that means the same. So, we look up *carry out* in a **thesaurus** online and see a list of verbs such as *accomplish/achieve/execute/finalize* */implement/perform,* etc. As non-native speakers how can we be sure if any or all of these verbs go with (collocate with) the noun research? Do you say accomplish research? Maybe. Maybe not. The answer to this uncertainty is to use a **corpus** which is an electronic database of millions of words that shows us exactly what words (collocates) go with the key words (in our example *research*) that we are using. Which of the verbs *accomplish /achieve* etc. (see above) match the nouns below? (If you are doing this before class the **Corpus of** **Contemporary American English** will provide you with the answers – just enter the verb and see what nouns appear).

|  |
| --- |
| *accomplish/achieve/execute/finalize/implement/perform* |

a) agreements/details

b) tasks/experiments

c) policy/programs

d tasks/goals

e) programs/strategies

f) success/results

The core problem is not that we do not know the meaning of the word *research* (it is easy enough to look it up in a dictionary), rather the problem lies in knowing how to use it. What verbs, adjectives and prepositions go with this key word? And what is uncommon or non-standard use?

(Using a thesaurus is sometimes useful, but often a dangerous approach to find synonyms as the danger of mismatching word is rather high, for non-native speakers).

**6.2 How to use the Corpus of Contemporary American English**

Please register with the **Corpus of Contemporary American English** before the course begins. It is free of charge and fun. You need to enter your email address when you register (top right on the screen). You can enter **undergraduate** as category, if appropriate. You can use COCA for a while without actually registering, but then you see an annoying message asking you to register and join the COCA family.

**6.3 USING COCA:** On the left of the screen you can see WORDS, let’s see how it works and enter RESEARCH and then click on SEARCH (with LIST clicked top left), then we see research appears 173,566 times in the corpus. Click on this number. We see many examples of research and the words around it; number 4, the adjective that is used with research is *previous*. What does research do? Number 6, ‘Clement’s research indicated’. Number 16 shows us ‘*our research supports’*. To try to limit the amount of hits we receive, let’s go back to the original interface on the left and click on **Academic** under Sections. Now we find 103,887 hits. We see a lot of the same concordance lines because many of the lines are unsurprisingly from an academic source. Good examples; 4, ‘Based on previous research conducted … Fiore asserted … 13 ‘To answer the first research question, which dealt with …’ If you want to gain a more general impression of how research is used, click on **SAMPLE 100** and you can see how this word is used in many different domains of the corpus.

This information is, however, rather haphazard, so let’s make the search more specific and create a list of the most frequent words that come before RESEARCH. We do this by inserting an asterisk \* as a wildcard and then a space before RESEARCH, i.e. \* research. We find some common words *the, and, this* but also *future, previous*, *further, recent, empirical, current*. If we leave no gap between the \* and the word, then we get hits such as fieldresearch, doctoral/research.

**6.4 Collocates**: words that are ‘friends’ with our key word RESEARCH are called collocates. If we want to gain an impression of the nouns, adjectives and verbs that are attracted to RESEARCH¸ then we click on COLLOCATES and ACADEMIC in the box numbered 1 under SECTIONS and see words such as *scientific, indicates, conduct, previous, empirical,* etc. These are the most common words that are used by academics when using the term research. If we select a few of them we can construct a sentence such as: *previous scientific research conducted at the Wildau center indicates/suggests that …* Click on the blue term to see concordance lines which give you many examples of how the term is used. If you wish to see more than one line, click on the left hand side **MAG**, either under Journal or Year and you will see more context and information about when and where it was published.

We can find the word NEEDED in position number 8 of collocates (3 to each side). What phrase do you think will come after ‘more research is needed …’?

**6.5 Prepositions**: what are the different prepositions following research and what are their different uses? If we are interested in finding out which prepositions follow RESEARCH we enter in the WORDS box RESEARCH and the click on **POS (Parts of Speech)** LIST and then the arrow beside –SELECT- and then PREP.ALL and then SEARCH ( or research [i\*]) and we see research *on, in, at, into,* *for* etc. By clicking on the blue *research on* we can see examples of how this is used.

When we click on RESEARCH AT we find many places. Can we be sure that this phrase always refers to location? If we click in RESEARCH AT in the WORD(S) box and then go to COLLOCATES and enter [nn\*] (we are looking for nouns) and then put 0 in the left hand box and 3 in the right hand box (we are looking for words after the word not before) and SEARCH, then we see a list of nouns; University, State, College, Center, etc. which seems to confirm our assumption.

**6.6 Nouns**: if we are interested in finding out which nouns follow RESEARCH we enter research and POS LIST noun.ALL or research [nn\*] and find *research center, institute, group* etc.

**6.7 Verbs**: if we are interested in finding out which verbs follow RESEARCH we enter research and POS verb.ALL (or research [v\*]) and find *shows, suggests, indicates, conducted, examining, using, supports, found,* etc. N.B. *has, is* and *was* are rather misleading as they are auxiliaries for other verbs, e.g. research has shown. Another way to carry out this search is to put \* after research [v\*], it looks like research [v\*]\*, and then we get a longer string of words, e.g. *research shows that/research suggests that/research is needed* etc. You can also have research [v\*] \* \* to find out other phrases; *research has shown that, research is needed to, research is part of, research has been conducted.*

**6.8 Adjectives**: if we are interested in finding out which adjectives follow RESEARCH we enter research and POS adj.ALL or research [j\*] and find research as an adjective (as in *research firm*) and adjectives that collocate with research such as *necessary, relevant, possible*.

If we want to see both verbs and adjectives then we enter research [v\*] [j\*], and find *research is available, research involving human, research is concerned, research is critical,* etc.

**6.9 Research as Noun or Verb**: As with many words in English research is both a noun and a verb. If we only want to look at research as a noun we enter research.[n\*], as a verb research.[v\*]. We can observe that research is used overwhelmingly as a noun, 138,724 versus 5,208.

RESEARCH has different forms both as a noun and a verb. If we wish to look at research as a verb we enter [research].[v] and hit SEARCH and we see research, researching, researched, researches. Similarly, [research].[n] will provide us with research and researches.

**6.10 Phrases and Variation**: We have used the phrase *it is difficult to say* more than once and want to replace difficult with a synonym. We can enter *it is \* to say* (a wild card) and we find a long list of adjectives: it is fair/safe/hard/impossible to say. You can vary these words to create a meaning similar to difficult, e.g. it is quite/rather hard to say by entering *it is \* difficult to say* as a search string.

You can also specify a part of speech by inserting the part of speech such as noun [nn\*] in the gap to see all the nouns that appear.
It is also possible to use the **wild card** in the middle of a word, e.g. un\*ly provides us with unfortunately, unlikely, undoubtedly.
If we enter *need to [v\*],* we find we *need to be/know/do* etc. If we click on CHART we see how this is used in different domains, academic, newspaper, spoken.

**6.11 Synonyms and comparing adjectives**: perhaps we would like to find words that mean (almost) the same as RESEARCH, then we give in [=research] and find *study, research, investigation, examine, explore*, *inquiry*, etc. We can also enter two words [=key] [=factor] and find synonyms for both, e.g. important element.

If we wish to see in what areas of COCA RESEARCH is used then we can click on CHART and SEARCH. COCA classifies words in sections covering SPOKEN, FICTION, MAGAZINE, NEWSAPER and ACADEMIC. Unsurprisingly, the amount of times RESEARCH is used per million is high with 925.02. Click on ACADEMIC and then, of course, within the realm of ACADEMIC we can see in which disciplines the terms is used HISTORY, EDUCATION, SOCIAL SCIENCES, POLITICAL SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY, MEDICINE, etc. If you are working in a particular area, it may be useful to focus on the domain that matches your own course of study. If you click on the bar which then lights up, you can see how the key word (here research) is used in a specific genre/register of writing.

**6.12** SUMMARY: PROFILE OF THE WORD **RESEARCH:**

**Key adjectives with RESEARCH:** *scientific, previous, empirical, necessary, relevant, possible.*

**Key verbs with RESEARCH:**  *indicates, conduct, shows, suggests, conducted, examining, using, supports, found.*

**Synonyms for RESEARCH (as a noun)**: *study, investigation, examination, exploration*, *inquiry*.

**Forms of RESEARCH**: research, researching, researched, researches.

Research is used mostly in the academic domain.

Example sentence: The previous research conducted at the UASW seems to suggest that …

**6.13 Over To You**: in groups choose a key term such as RESEARCH and construct a profile with a summary as above.

*How can I find out if my text contains many academic words, or not?*

Go to **Wordsandphrase.info.** Click on input/analyze text. Copy your text and insert it in the box top left. Then click on SEARCH and your text will appear in the box top right. There are three colours above the box: Blue, Green, Yellow. Blue covers those words that are quite simple in English, to be found in the first 500 English words. Green covers less simple words that are found between 500 and 3000. Yellow covers more sophisticated words, found beyond the first 3000 words in English. Click on the RED box to the right if you wish to see words that academic.
If we click in our example text on the word ***aggressive***, we can see if it is academic or not by looking at the boxes middle left: SPOKEN, FICTION, MAGAGZINE, NEWSPAPER, ACADEMIC. We can see three definitions beside that information, and the main collocates (words that are commonly used with competitive), first the nouns and then some adverbs. Below we can see examples of competitive and observe that *advantage*, *disadvantage*, *environment* and *markets* are common nouns. *Strong, severe, serious,* *highly, fairer, increasingly* are all words that qualify aggressive or the noun following it.
So, useful phrases are: *seeking competitive advantage, forming competitive alliances, highly competitive industries, increasingly competitive markets*.

*I sometimes feel that my writing is a little bit simple and would like to make is sound more academic. What can I do?*

Think of longer phrases. *Women think differently to men*. This sentence expresses an absolute opinion. We should try to hedge this. If we enter a verb before *think* in the Corpus of Contemporary American English, [v\*] to think, we see a list with *like,* *need, tend, have, learn, seem*, and further below *are encouraged to think*. We may decide for the phrase *tend to think*, but wish to insert an adverb to hedge it a bit more, [r\*] tend to think. We find the following adverbs which then make our phrase sound more academic. *Often, therefore*, *commonly*. *Women commonly tend to think differently to men*.

Hedging means keeping the door open for other opinions. *Women think differently to men*. This phrase may or may not be true, but it does not allow the reader to have a different opinion, therefore it is bad academic style. *Women commonly tend to think differently to men.* This is better because it is hedged and it sounds more reasonable, it invites the reader to agree but does not force him/her to do so. The more you hedge the easier your reader can agree with you.

There are two motivators for hedging. The first one is that we may not be 100% sure that the statement is 100% true. For example, motivated employees are more productive. This probably applies to most jobs but it is unlikely to apply to all, at all times, in every situation. The other motivator is to acknowledge that the reader (for you a professor) may have a very different opinion and to allow the reader to retain his opinion without feeling forced to agree with you. Towards the end of your text, when you have put forward your arguments, you may hedge less in your conclusions. Avoid absolutist statement in your introduction.

Example:

In 1992 Robert S. Kaplan and David P. Norton recognized recurring weaknesses in previous management approaches and introduced an approach to enable organizations to clarify their vision and strategy and to then translate these into actions in order to help these organizations effectively play their role in the competitive market (Kaplan/Norton 1996).

3 *I am writing a summary and wish to find appropriate synonyms for key words.* *How do I know if the synonym is correct or not?*

A simple tool is JUST THE WORD. Remember that finding a synonym may be difficult because we need to find a word that is similar semantically to the first word but that also matches the object that we are referring to. If in the original we read to *advocate an approach* and we go on line and consult a thesaurus <http://www.thesaurus.com/> we find verbs such as bless, countenance, go with, root for. These verbs may be synonymous with advocate but do not fit with the object *an approach*. Therefore it is wiser to look for verbs with approach in JUST THE WORD, here we find endorse/call for /recommend /suggest, etc. We know that all of these verbs collocate with approach, we just need to ensure that the one we select corresponds in meaning to advocate. JUST THE WORD make this relatively easy because the clusters that we see are semantic ones, i.e. the words are grouped according to similar meanings. If you click on the word, you see examples of how it is used.

An alternative is FLAX.NZDL

**8.1 Marking Criteria**

Below is a set of marking criteria and a set of comments from teachers at an educational institution. Your task is to match the teacher’s comments to the criteria they have been using. The first has been done for you.

1. D. 2 3 4 5

6 7 8 9

**Content Criteria Teacher’s Comments**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| 1 Introduction which highlights the questions and establishes the writer’s point of view (thesis/argument) | A Students should show that they understand the ideas that they are discussing. It is not enough just to define the concepts; they should be able to evaluate them as well. |
| 2 Well organized with a clear overall progression of details | B Students need to show that they have thought about the ideas they are discussing and are not merely repeating what they have heard in a lecture or read in a book.  |
| 3 Demonstrates clear understanding of concepts | C Any claim that is made needs to be supported by examples and other relevant evidence. The sources of the evidence must be academically reliable. |
| 4 Evidence of critical thinking about theories and ideas discussed in the essay | D This shows that the student is dealing with the topic in the essay title and tells the reader how the topic is to be answered. |
| 5 Provides adequate and relevant support for claims that are made | E This is the last chance the writer has to impress the reader. This section should restate the writer’s strongest arguments in support of her claim.  |
| 6 The main points are made  | The essay should have an appropriate paragraph structure with clear and precise sentences that develop the arguments in a coherent and logical way. |
| 7 Arguments are carefully constructed | The reader should be clearly able to follow the argument without getting confused and having to go back and read it all again. |
| 8 Accurate in terms of grammatical usage, appropriateness of vocabulary and spelling | Students often fail to follow the referencing system asked for by their departments. They do not seem to think it is important how references are written.  |
| 9 Use up-to-date research sources, correctly referenced using a bibliographical system approved by your lecturers | It is amazing how many students do not proof-read their essays before handing them in. Inaccurate grammar and spelling makes it very difficult to read and so the writer loses marks.  |

9.1 Parallelism

## Definition of Parallelism

Parallelism is the use of components in a sentence that are grammatically the same; or similar in their construction, sound, meaning or meter. Parallelism examples are found in literary works as well as in ordinary conversations.This method adds balance and rhythm of sentences giving ideas a smoother flow and thus can be persuasive because of the repetition it employs. For example, “Alice ran into the room, into the garden, and into our hearts.” We see the repetition of a phrase that not only gives the sentence a balance but rhythm and flow as well. This repetition can also occur in similar structured clauses e.g. “Whenever you need me, wherever you need me, I will be there for you.” These are simple examples of parallelism. In the text below see if you can find examples of parallelism, variation and repetition.
Task: Match the sentences in terms of parallelism (1-10, A-J).

1. A simple immigration system that attracts global talent, calms the natives and give businesses the workers they crave seems an impossible dream.
2. The budget deficit is swelling and
3. Good presidents make history.
4. Great companies can survive boring names but
5. The party risks turning a difficult but not insoluble problem
6. Not only the balance and cashflow are interesting;
7. The system of making small tweaks to keep things going is reaching its limits: the party’s competing goals
8. Their call for expression
9. Banks say publicly they are open to the idea of more competition. Some are starting to release data more readily.
10. The party is dealing with the immediate crisis,

a) even the best names cannot save dismal companies.

b) not with the underlying cause.

c) individual transactions can be revealing, too.

d) Is being met with repression.

e) Into a permanent environmental catastrophe.

f) But many fear they are fighting fintech with one hand behind their backs.

g) Are becoming increasingly incompatible.

h) Perhaps it is also a foolish one.

i)foreign-exchange reserves are dwindling.

j) Bad ones make history textbooks.

An Introduction to Varieties of Capitalism

*Peter Hall and David Soskice*

* + 1. **Introduction**

Political economists have always been interested in the differences in economic and political institutions that occur across countries. Some regard these differences as deviations from ‘best practice’ that will dissolve as nations catch up to a technological or organizational leader. Others see them as the distillation of more durable historical choices for a specific kind of society, since economic institutions condition levels of social protection, the distribution of income, and the availability of collective goods – features of the social solidarity of a nation. In each case, comparitive political economy revolves around the conceptual framework used to understand institutional variation across nations.

 On such frameworks depend the answers to a range of important questions. Some are policy-related. What kind of economic policies will improve the performance of the economy? What will governments do in the face of economic challenges? What defines a state’s capacities to meet such challenges? Other questions are firm-related. Do companies located in different nations display systematic differences in their structure and strategies? If so, what inspires such differences? How can national differences in the pace or character of innovation be explained? Some are issues about economic performance. Do some sets of institutions provide lower rates of inflation and unemployment or higher rates of growth than others? What are the trade-offs in terms of economic performance to developing one type of political economy rather than another? Finally, second-order questions about institutional change and stability are of special significance today. Can we expect technological progress and the competitive pressures of globalization to inspire institutional convergence? What factors condition the adjustment paths a political economy takes in the face of such challenges?

 The object of this book is to elaborate a new framework for understanding the institutional similarities and differences among the developed economies, one that offers a new and intriguing set of answers to such questions. We outline the basic approach in this Introduction. Subsequent chapters extend and apply it to a wide range of issues. In many respects, this approach is still a work-in-progress. We see it as a set of contentions that open up new research agendas rather than settled wisdom to be accepted uncritically, but, as the contributions to this volume indicate, it provides new perspectives on an unusually broad set of topics, ranging from issues in innovation, vocational training, and corporate strategy to those associated with legal systems, the development of social policy, and the stance nations take in international negotiations.

 As any work on this topic must be, ours is deeply indebted to prior scholarship in the field. The ‘varieties of capitalism’ approach developed here can be seen as an effort to go beyond three perspectives on institutional variation that have dominated the study of comparative capitalism in the preceding thirty years. In important respects, like ours, each of these perspectives was a response to the economic problems of its time.

 The first of these perspectives offers a *modernization approach* to comparative capitalism nicely eludiated in Schonfield’s magisterial treatise of 1965. Devised in the post-war decades, this approach saw the principal challenge confronting the developed economies as one of modernizing industries still dominated by pre-war practices in order to secure high rates of national growth. Analysts tried to identify a set of actors with the strategic capacity to devise plans for industry and to impress them on specific sectors. Occasionally, this capacity was said to reside in the banks but more often in public officials. Accordingly, those taking this approach focused on the institutional structures that gave states leverage over the private sector, such as planning systems and public influence over the flows of funds in the financial system (Cohen 1997; Estrin and Holmes 1983; Zysman 1983; Cox 1986). Countries were often categorized, according to the structure of their state, into those with ‘strong’ and ‘weak’ states (Katzenstein 1978b; Sacks 1980; Nordlinger 1981). France and Japan emerged from this perspective as models of economic success, while Britain was generally seen as a laggard (Schonfield 1965; Johnson 1982).

**10.1 Referencing**

Especially in your literature review you will need to show that you have read a wide range of sources and it is important to reference them correctly. Remember to keep a list of all the sources you have referenced, it can be very annoying try to chase up a reference for an important quotation at the last minute. In the body of your text you may use different styles but the Harvard style is one of the easiest. This is also called the author/date style.
Example:
Ryan (2014: 11) warns that universities ‘must provide professional development to support the academic development of their staff’.
The author has been identified by her name and the date of publication from which the quotation comes. If the quotation is longer, three to four lines, then it deserves its own indented paragraph.
Example:
This point is made by the Australian National Training Authority (2013: 15) when, in a report for their Flexible Learning Framework, they try and identify what they mean by e-Learning:

‘e-Learning is a broader concept (than online learning), encompassing a wide set of applications and processes which use all available electronic media to deliver vocational education and training more flexibly. The term “e-Learning” is now used in the Framework to capture the general intent to support a broad range of electronic media …’

Some writers do not use quotations marks with such a long quotation, arguing that the indentation indicates clearly that the block of text is a quotation. You may also want to have the longer quotation in a different font size to make it clear that it is a quotation.

**References**

Park, C. (2003) ‘In other people’s words: plagiarism by university students – literature and lessons’, *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, 28(5): 471-88
Phillips, E.M. and Pugh, D.S. (2007). *How to Get a Ph.D.: A Handbook for Students and their Supervisors.* Berkshire: Open University Press, p. 15

‘p’ refers to one page, ‘pp’ indicates a range of pages (e.g. pp. 25-41).

You do not need to quote every source that you reference; especially if it is a well-known work that is often referred to.
Example:
Laurillard (2013) argues that e-Learning requires new skills to deal with a new pedagogy.
You are referencing a main argument in Laurillard’s work and one that your marker is probably familiar with.

If we have two or more references, list them chronologically and separate the authors by a semi-colon.
Example:
Academic staff support is crucial to the success of e-Learning (Bates 2000, Epic 2002, Gerrard 2004).
If an author has more than one publication in the same year, then refer to the first one as ‘a’ and the second one as ‘b’, etc., ‘Thompson (2003a, 2003b) holds consistently to the view that referencing is a dying art’.
If your source has more than two authors, it is conventional to cite the first author and refer to the others as ‘et al.’ meaning ‘and others’. For example, ‘Smith et al. (2015)’. **Et al.** is actually an abbreviation of ‘et alii, or et alia, etc.’. In your References section you should insert all the names of the authors, not just the first author.

If you are citing the same source continually, then you may use the Latin word **ibid**. (=ibidem) meaning ‘in the same place’. This indicates you are referring to the previously cited source.

Barlow and Hogarth (2007) argue that mobile technologies are detrimental to the educational development of university students. Perceptions of the advantages of interconnectivity are often exaggerated. Even the simple skill of handwriting has been replaced by ungrammatical abbreviations (ibid.).

You can use **op. cit**. (= opera citato) to indicate you are referring to a source that you have already cited (somewhere) in your dissertation. Op. cit. is different from ibid. in that ibid. refers only to the last source cited whereas op. cit. refers to a source cited somewhere previously in your dissertation.

Biggam and Murphy (2009) recommend a strategic approach to tackling plagiarism in universities. Other academics adopt a similar position (Thomson 2003; Edwards 2005; Smith 2006). Differences of opinion surface, however, when it comes to deciding upon appropriate levels of punishment for transgressors. Some researchers argue for leniency, claiming that students are victims themselves. Biggam and Murphy (op. cit.) refute this line of argument.

Occasionally, you might come across a source that you wish to quote, but you notice a mistake in the source text: you should not correct the linguistic mistake but quote verbatim and put sic in square brackets (i.e. [sic]) to show that you have noticed this mistake. ‘Sic’ is Latin and stands for ‘thus, so, as it stands’.

Grearson (1982: 10) captured the essence of Thatcher’s Britain when he observed that the ‘age of consumerism is well and trully [*sic*] integrated into today’s society’.

You may insert a word or phrase that makes it clear to the reader what a quotation is referring to:

Stevenson claims that sexism is rife in the modern world: ‘too often they [females] are treated as second class citizens’.

Your references chapter, which tends to appear after your conclusion chapter and before any appendices, is an alphabetical list of your sources.

Book
Author’s surname, initials (year). *Title of book*, Place of publication: Publisher.
Davenport T.H. (2013) Working Knowledge. Boston: Harvard Business School Press 4.

Journal
Author’s surname, initials (year). ‘Title of article’, *Name of Journal*, volume number (issue number): page (s).
Burns, E. (1994). ‘Information Assets, Technology and Organisation’. *Management Science*, 40(12): 645-62.

Website
Author’s surname, initials (year). ‘Title of article’ [online]. Available at: indicate website address. Last accessed: date

Brender, A. (2004). ‘Speakers Promote Distance Education to Audience in Asia’ [online]. Available at: [www.chronicle.com](http://www.chronicle.com) Last accessed 12 November 2004.

**Writing an Abstract**  John O’Donoghue MA 27 February 2019

An abstract is essentially a synopsis of your work. It is a summary of your work and normally appears after your Title Page and Acknowledgements. It should capture the essence of your research in a lucid and succinct way. A good abstract will normally contain the following elements:

* A statement of the problem/issue that you are investigating, including an indication of the need for your research.
* Your research methods.
* Your results/findings.
* Your main conclusions and recommendations.

Try and keep the abstract to one paragraph and it may have to be *italicized*. You should take into account the preferences of your examining institution and those of your supervisor who is marking your dissertation when considering length and form.

1.1 In the following text identify the sentences that deal with **Motivation, Research Focus, Research Methods, Findings, Conclusions, Recommendations.**

Abstract
*Cybercrime – crime on the Internet – is of growing concern in the business community. Despite UK Government initiatives (such as BS7799) and growing sales in software solutions (e.g. anti-virus software), cyber attacks are on the increase. This dissertation focuses on ways to assess the effectiveness of current preventative measures to cybercrime and to understand why organizations continue to be vulnerable to cybercrime. This dissertation met these twin research aims through an extensive study of relevant literature and the implementation of practical research. The latter was carried out though a Case Study with Company XYZ using semistructured interviews with key IT security personnel. This research produced a number of key findings: recent surveys confirm a significant increase in the incidences of cybercrime and their impact on the business community but also types of cybercrime (viruses, hacking, spam, identity theft, fraud, privacy issues, etc.): organizations lacked the security expertise to deal with cybercrime and so depended too much on readily available technical ways to combat cybercrime; organizations were not aware of Government recommendations on how to address internet-based security issues; and Governments and law enforcement agencies tended to localize cybercrime, allocating scant resources to contributing to a global solution. The main conclusions drawn from this research were that current approaches to fighting cybercrime are deficient because they fail to embrace an holistic approach, instead opting for a narrow local software-based focus, and that a lack of communication between major stakeholders at local, national and international level has hindered security development. This research argues for a multi-pronged model to reduce incidences of cybercrime. One that takes into account Risk-Assessment models, local management of company policies, implementation issues (including proper resourcing and review policies), the need for global support infrastructures, and a means of fostering communication networks.*

Notice that each of the features expected of a good abstract – research focus, motivation behind the research, research methods, findings and conclusions/recommendations – are to be found in the rewritten version. Note also that you can start with the motivation before identifying your specific research focus.

This abstract template has been created to highlight the main elements that you should include in your abstract (i.e. research problem, need for your research, how you did your research, your findings, and your recommendations)

**ABSTRACT
The focus of this research is in the area of … Such a study is important in order to … The research approach adopted in this dissertation includes … The findings from this research provide evidence that … the main conclusions drawn from this study are … This dissertation recommends that ….**

When you write your dissertation abstract, make sure that your abstract can answer the following questions:

* Have I identified the focus of my research?
* Have I indicated my motivation/rationale behind this study?
* Have I stated how I did my research?
* Have I summarized my findings/results?
* Are my main conclusions and recommendations included?

Language

2.1 The C**orpus of Contemporary American English** is a huge collection of written American English. It is simple to register on this site and it is free to use. It can help us to find useful academic phrases and provide us with alternatives for our phrasing. If we enter the term *this pape*r in the C**orpus of Contemporary American English**, we find *presents*, *describes, discusses*, etc.

Under SEARCH STRING we enter the word in the WORD(S) box. And then click SEARCH. We find 4523 examples and click on the blue phrase This Paper.

**Line 7: This** **paper** presents the results of a study in which artists made line drawings intended to
**Line 8: This** **paper** describes a study in which art students were asked to make
**Line 23: This** **paper** discusses three complementary approaches to identifying the best available evidence

We can also enter *research methods, results, ‘the results from’, conclusion*. The results are phrases that help describe what each of these steps involves.

With *research methods* we can click on ACADEMIC under SECTIONS 1 and we find 398 examples:

Line 2: Single-case **research** **methods** provide a scientifically rigorous approach for documenting
Line 28: report findings from interventions that use single-case **research** **methods**.
Line 49: what research questions are made possible/impossible by the **research** **methods** employed

Results: (Academic)

Line 3: Again, the **results** showed much more data in flight
Line 12: we obtained the **results** in Table 2 for different numbers
Line 18: This paper presents the **results** of a study in which artists made

The results from (Academic)

**Line 1: The** **results** **from** our biomarker analysis provide valuable insight,
**Line 6: The** **results** **from** different systematic review systems could be compared
Line 9: determine whether **the** **results** **from** these evaluations converge with results from previous literature reviews
Line 10: it is unclear whether **the** **results** **from** these subpopulations are applicable to the general population.

**Line 12: The** **results** **from** this study indicated that the independent variables of age
**Line 13: The** **results** **from** both of these studies suggested that supervisor-SLP relationships may play an important role in

Conclusions (Academic)

**Line 2**: This study allows us to make several quantitative **conclusions** about how people draw 3D shapes
**Line 8**: the results that were yielded and **conclusions** that were drawn are valid only for this set
**Line 14: CONCLUSIONS**: This study provides new information regarding potential health risks from pollutants
**Line 18: CONCLUSIONS**: We observed significant associations between elevated PCB levels and diabetes mostly due to
**Line 19: Conclusions** This study demonstrates a statistically significant association of serum PCB levels with increased diabetes prevalence

(Another useful tool is **Flax.nzdl.org** and Learning Collocations).

Conclusions in Academic English.

*Different, following, main* and *significant* seem to be the important and frequent adjectives that collocate with our word Conclusions. If we click on these words we find more examples:

Different conclusions could be drawn regarding …
one can reach different conclusions as to exactly what …
This evidence can lead to very different conclusions, either … or, due to the fact that ….

**Key verbs: formal and informal.**

The first refers to an important verb in the Word list, second to the phrasal verb (common verb – Cambridge dictionary online) and then the one of the main nouns it collocates with – with COCA enter verb gap [nn\*] under academic.

1 Abandon

1 Leave/ Give up

1 activities

2 access

2 to get at/open

2 information/resources

3 achieve

3 to succeed in reaching something

3 success/goals

4 acquire

4 to get something

4 Knowledge/skills

5 adjust

5 to change something (slightly)

5 instruction/prices

Further interesting verbs for those writing academic English:

**A:** Advocate, affect, allocate, amend, analyse, anticipate, appreciate, approach, assess, assign, assist, assume, assure, attain, benefit.

**C:** cease, challenge, cite, clarify, commence, commit, communicate, compensate, compile, comprise, conceive, conclude, conduct, confirm, consist, constitute, construct, consume, contradict, contribute, convert, convince, cooperate, coordinate, correspond, create.

**D**: debate, decline, deduce, define, deny, derive, design, detect, deviate, devote, diminish, discriminate, displace, display, dispose, distort, distribute, document, dominate.

**E:** edit, eliminate, emerge, enable, encounter, enforce, enhance, ensure, erode, establish, estimate, evaluate, evolve, exceed, exclude, exhibit, exploit, expose, extract.

**F**: facilitate, feature, fluctuate, focus.

**G**: generate, grade, grant, guarantee.

**H, I**: highlight, identify, illustrate, impact, implement, imply, impose, incline, indicate, induce, infer, inhibit, initiate, input, insert, inspect, integrate, interact, interpret, invest, investigate, invoke, involve.

**J, L, M:** justify, label, link, locate, maintain, manipulate, maximise, mediate, minimise, modify, monitor.

**N, O, P**: negate, obtain, occur, offset, participate, perceive, persist, pose, precede, predict, presume, proceed, promote, publish, pursue.

**R**, react, refine, regulate, reinforce, reject, rely, remove, require, reside, resolve, respond, restrain, restrict, retain, reveal, revise.

**S**: secure, select, shift, simulate, specify, stress, submit, substitute, supplement, survey, suspend, sustain.

**T,V**: terminate, trace, transfer, transform, transmit.

TASK. Create a gap sentence with one verb from one line above. For example, in line one A:

Many researchers have tended to \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ this topic from an economic point of view. However, there are other ways to consider this question e.g. from a social or historical viewpoint.

  **THESIS WRITING**

Presenting your thesis topic: Write down the answers to these questions. Then with the student beside you explain your answers and ask for feedback.

1. What exactly is your defined topic/question?
2. Does your approach contain some originality?
3. What kind of research have you carried out?
4. What is the most important literature that you have read? Can you briefly summarize it? Were you able to summarize it in your words?
5. Have you been able to critically evaluate your sources?
6. How have you structured your assignment?
7. What exactly is your argument? Do all the parts of your text support this argument? (Is there an element which is not really relevant to it?)
8. Have you actually answered your topic’s question?

**How long should each section be?**

Thomas (2011) suggests the following rough proportions for a 10,000 word dissertation:

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Chapters** | **Proportion of the whole(%)** | **Number of words(1000 word dissertation)** |
| 1 Introduction | 5 | 500 |
| 2 Literature Review | 25 | 2500 |
| 3 Methodology | 15 | 1500 |
| 4 Findings | 20 | 2000 |
| 5 Analysis and discussion | 30 | 3000 |
| 6 Conclusion | 5 | 500 |

Dunleavy (2003, pp. 46-52) argues strongly that - apart from the Introduction and Conclusion - all chapters should be the same length, and recommends between 8,000 and 12,000 words for each chapter in a PhD thesis of 80,000 words. He recommends that there should be 8 chapters, with 5 of these - more than half - dealing with the core - those sections with high research value-added - of the thesis. These are preceded by two lead-in chapters and followed by a conclusion.

|  |
| --- |
| **Lead-In Materials**(Introduction, Literature Review & Methods)2 chapters at most |
| **Core**(Results & Discussion)5/8ths of the words and 5 chapters |
| **Lead-Out Materials**(Conclusions, Implications & Recommendations)1 or 2 chapters |