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UNIVERSITY

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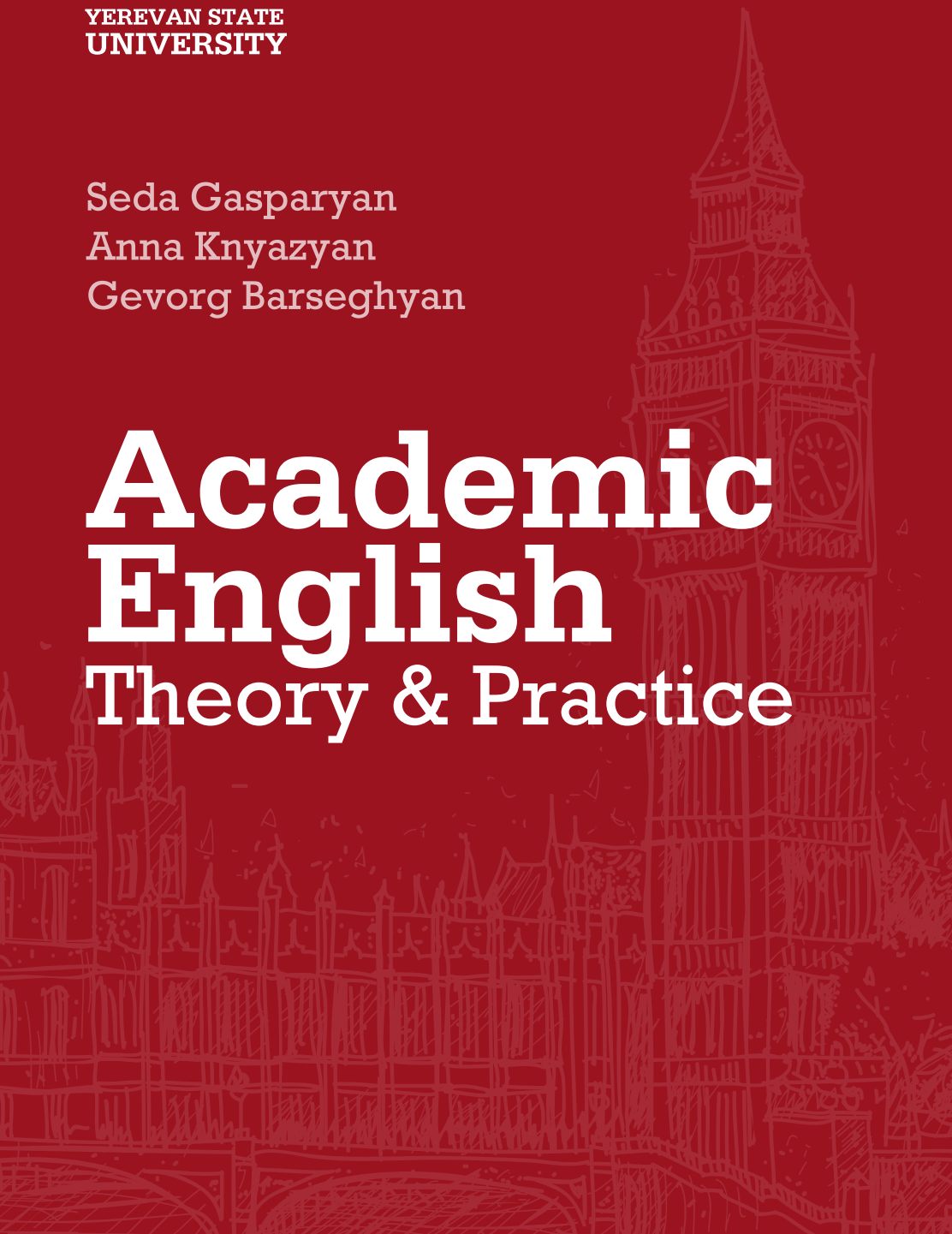
Academic English

Theory & Practice



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ACADEMIC ENGLISH: THEORY & PRACTICE

(A guide for students in higher education)

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The book of English for Academic Purposes provides an accessible, authoritative, and comprehensive introduction to English for academic purposes (EAP), covering the main theories, concepts, contexts, and applications of this fast-growing area of applied linguistics. The book illustrates how widely EAP is practiced and the variety of research traditions that have influenced current understandings of academic English. This book is a comprehensive and truly international compendium of theory, research and practice in the field of EAP. The target audience for this book is upper undergraduates and postgraduates on language as well as teachers, researchers, program administrators, and educators in universities and schools.

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Preface

English for Academic Purposes (EAP) has evolved rapidly over the past twenty years or so. It is today a major force in English language teaching and research around the world. Drawing its strength from a variety of theories and a commitment to research-based language education, EAP has expanded with the growth of university places in many countries and increasing numbers of international students undertaking tertiary studies in English. As a result, EAP is now situated at the front line of both theory development and innovative practice in teaching English as a second/other language. EAP is an activity at the forefront of language education today, and this book attempts to introduce the key elements of its theory and practice in an accessible and systematic way.

Academic English: Theory & Practice is compiled in line with the Major Foreign Language (English) curriculum at the Master's level and aims at introducing the stylistic peculiarities of the English academic discourse in developing skills for making use of the appropriate domain-specific texts as well as discussing professional issues on the basis of pre-modeled texts. It is designed for upper undergraduate and postgraduate students of language, applied linguistics as well as teachers of EFL/ESL and researchers in the field of language teaching at higher education colleges and universities. It can also be useful for writing scientific papers, term papers and diploma works in English.

The book includes a collection of materials aimed at enhancing the acquisition of skills necessary for oral and written communication. Each unit includes two reading passages on similar topics within a field of academic study. Each unit is accompanied by an after-reading strategy, followed by practice

activities and a detailed, thematically organized, Further Reading section. The goal of the textbook is to provide students with a variety of strategies and tools to master whatever academic texts they may encounter. The tasks following each text are designed to be used not only individually but also in group work in the classroom, and each group is responsible for one answer to the assigned task. This is meant to stimulate a discussion and interactive cooperation in class which in its turn creates an atmosphere of freedom in exchanging thoughts, putting forth objections, supporting ideas.

The book also contains three appendices, the first of which presents a glossary providing a guide to the main terms used in the book. The second one is a list of abbreviations most frequently used in scientific references. The study and learning of these data is most appropriate for the learners who have consciously joined the ESP (including EAP) movement and make efforts to develop their communicative skills in the sphere of academic communication.

The textbook is enclosed by the third appendix of Supplementary Reading, offering learners additional materials by different scholars and researchers. This is aimed at spreading additional light over different aspects and problematic questions, laying the ground for further work in the discipline in question.

Introduction

The steady increase in economic, political, scientific and cultural relations between different countries of the world has quite naturally led to the need for a language of international communication, i.e. a language that would trigger and further develop international relations. The English language happened to assume this responsibility, and nowadays the knowledge of English is considered to be of paramount importance. The pan-English influence can be noticed all over the world. The amount of people who daily communicate in English not only orally but also in written form grows practically non-stop. This linguistic expansion has been referred to by a great number of specialists in many different publications (Crystal 1988; Leki 1991; Widdowson 1994; Connor 1996). The results of the investigations in the field show quite transparently that users of English can be considered English speakers if they have achieved a certain level of language proficiency. As presented by J. Jenkins, D. Crystal suggests that accepting a criterion of "reasonable competence" there will approximately be 1,350 million second language speakers of English all over the world (Jenkins 2000).

It is not astonishing at all that scholars raise and discuss the question of the ownership of English and assert that it "belongs to the world" as it serves the communicative goals of many different communities and their institutional establishments (Smith 1983; Brumfit 1995). H. Widdowson supports this idea with a firm belief that due to its international status the English language rejects any nation's custody over it for that would mean "to arrest its development" (Widdowson 1994).

Moreover, what the European Society for the Study of English has brought to mind is the situation that the non-native speaker

professors of English, in fact, outnumber the native-speaker ones (*European English Studies: Contributions toward the History of a Discipline* 2008).

The above-mentioned comes to reveal the paramount importance of English language learning/teaching and of the choice of appropriate methodology to do that. Investigations show that language teaching generally, and teaching English in particular, has nowadays broadened its traditional scope and acquired a communicative orientation. In the past the grammatical issues were pivotal in language teaching, whereas today methods, contributing to the development of the speaking skills of learners, are being sought. In this respect the works of Widdowson (Widdowson 1978; 1994) can be considered as an important benchmark. These works have laid the foundation for the progressive idea in teaching English, according to which a language, despite its unified and integrated systemic nature, can represent essential differences in different spheres of usage. Here it refers not to the differences predetermined by various language functions, but rather to the peculiarities resulting from this or that speciality. This approach unfolds broad perspectives to the teaching of languages. It suggests that we can achieve considerable and significant results in language teaching provided the domain-specific peculiarities of the language are taken into consideration and appropriate courses designed (Ewer, Lastorre 1969; Swales 1976). With reference to this, the research in the field of educational psychology, linking the results of teaching with the attitude of learners, plays a key role. Special attention is invited to the interdependence of the very process of teaching and its expected outcomes (Rogers 1969). Under current conditions, of special importance is the teaching of the genre of English which is prevailing in the intercultural academic communication and is, in fact, the basis of scientific speech.

It is a well known fact that foreign language learners are often faced with the problem of using special literature, discussing different professional topics, writing scientific papers, delivering lectures in foreign languages, participating in international conferences and so on. Consequently, their primary task is to master the genre of English which serves the professional needs, giving them an opportunity to be involved in the advance of global scientific knowledge.

In contrast to the so-called "general English", which encompasses all the possible registers of language, the genre of English mentioned above is characterized by professional orientation and plays an important part in the enhancement of international academic communication (Donovan 1978; Strevens 1977). Essentially, it evolves in the course of the elaboration of learning material and the satisfaction of their practical needs.

The constituent "specific" in the terminological collocation ESP (English for Specific Purposes) puts a heavy stress on the learner-oriented teaching. It refers to the principles of the correct choice of linguistic means, rather than to the creation of a "specific language". Virtually, the basis of ESP is the natural human language which undergoes transformations from the perspective of more or less restriction of language means used.

The domain-specific language teaching presupposes an adequate choice of the content taught, preconditioning the use of lexical, grammatical as well as communicative means. The proficiency in this register of language along with the general extralinguistic knowledge permits to avoid oft-encountered misunderstandings in communication and to achieve the optimal mutual understanding. In other words, this register of language is a special "shared code" between the speaker and the listener, the writer and the reader (Магидова 1989).

The crucial prerequisite guaranteeing the effective teaching of this register of language is the appropriate selection of professional texts. Even though the concept "domain-specific text" implies certain restrictions and particularization in terms of language use, it is well known that in different texts from the same sphere general linguistic features are accompanied by the peculiarities specific of the author's individual style (Чаковская 1990; Гаспарян 2013). Hence it is extremely important which elements of the text deserve utmost attention. In other words, the problem of "active" and "passive" command of the language comes forth. It is evident that only typical vocabulary and other general linguistic means from this or that professional domain can serve the purposes of active learning. This necessity has put forward the idea that the text for teaching ought to be modeled, thus acquiring certain pragmalinguistic orientation. Active and conscious elaboration of the language correlates the language taught with the purposes of communication and makes it more accessible to learners.

The scientific principles governing text modeling have been the focus of interest of numerous researchers. Still at the turn of the 20th century Otto Jespersen suggested that natural languages are, in a sense, an unsurmountable obstacle, and that it was necessary to create not only stylistically neutral, but also an accessible language for foreign learners (Ogden 1982:13). In English there are certain achievements in this respect. A great volume of research suggests that it is possible to model a language via the scrupulous analysis of different texts and the subsequent synthesis of the results obtained (Akhmanova, Gvishiani 1979:161-164). Thus, a step-by-step approach is applied to the elaboration of scientific texts for the complete perception of the latter and the general scientific vocabulary used in them. It is noteworthy that, for example, the discussion of phonetic and phonological issues is not an end in

itself and, therefore, it must not be separated from the other important aspects of the text, namely the vocabulary. Hence, the phonetic difficulties must be overcome in the process of the assimilation of words and word-combinations.

The employment of this method has yielded significant results in the field of English for Linguists (Akhmanova, Idzelis 1978) and was further developed due to the research of recent decades (Тер-Минасова 1980). S.T. Bogatyreva's work, which aimed at revealing the ultimate syntagmatic units of scientific speech, was an achievement of particular importance (Богатырева 1983). Investigations have also shown that the main text modeling principles in Philology can successfully be applied in other Humanities as well (Сиделкина, Яковлева, Миньяр-Белоручева 1988; Gasparyan, Minasyan 2002).

In the next chapter an attempt is made to discuss the basic characteristic features of Academic English and present the optimal approach to teaching this genre variety of scientific speech.

Theoretical and Practical Background of Teaching ESP

Investigations of recent decades have put forward the idea for the necessity of discriminating a new register of speech, referred to as "pragmalinguistics", thereby contributing significantly to the enhancement of the theory of functional styles (Ахманова, Магидова 1978; Магидова 1989), This register encompasses all the varieties of speech which serve didactic purposes, thus displaying the characteristics proper to the given language and increasing the teaching efficiency.

Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) serves as basis for developing numerous learning materials according to the pragmalinguistic functional style. Consequently, the variety of English described in the Introduction, is, in essence, one of the manifestations of the pragmalinguistic function of speech.

It is clear that the teaching-oriented texts of this kind stand out by lucid and concise narration, accurate formulations, coherent use of words, word combinations and terms. However, there might be certain emotional elements, though not so many, for the author, one way or another, expresses his own attitude to the subject matter discussed (Разинкина 1972; Магидова, Долецкая 1985; Гаспарян 1994).

Though the theoretical distinction of functions of speech is extremely important, in the actual process of speech production these functions frequently penetrate and intertwine with one another – a phenomenon, entirely explicable from the perspective of the dialectical unity of speech functions.

Thus being a peculiar combination of "pragmalinguistic" and communicative functions, this variety of English is a unique type of intellective prose, characterized by certain morphological,

syntactic and phonetic units depending on the specific purport of the text. It is clear that the thematic restriction of this or that subtype of this variety of English (which is explicitly expressed in its vocabulary) is also preconditioned by its purposes.

The teaching of texts, pertaining to this variety of English, must encompass all the aspects of language – phonetic, morphological, lexical and syntactic. Undoubtedly, the development of pronunciation skills of learners deserves a special attention. The phonetic abilities of students must be developed and brought closer to the British norms of pronunciation (RP). However, the phonological study of the text can't be confined to this only. It is crucial to assimilate the combinatoric rules of certain sounds in speech the correct usage of which will lead to the formation of corresponding intonation contours (Юришева 1983).

Research has shown (Григорьев 1978) that the morphological bonds in these texts are not of special importance, moreover, certain morphological elements are completely out of the ESP framework. Preferable are the finite forms of the Present, Past, Future Indefinite, Present, Past Perfect in the Passive voice, as well as the non-finite forms of the Infinitive and the Participle. For example,

> *The term **was introduced** by Japanese phoneticians and **was meant** to cover the basic assumptions of linguistics as a science.*
>
> *(Minajeva. Word in Speech and Writing, p.3)*

> *... a large number of different methods **have been brought** together.*
>
> *(Minajeva. Word in Speech and Writing, p.3)*

The points of disagreement between Vallins and Sir Ernest Gowers are of so much importance for the present discussion that we ***are compelled*** *to go on* ***citing*** *at length.*

(Akhmanova, Idzelis.
What is the English We Use? p.63)

When transposing a literary text the philologist must consider the author's suggestions as to how the text ***should be read****, such as, for example, 'he said in a loud voice', 'she said in a whisper', 'he said with a giggle', etc.*

(Minajeva et al.
An Outline of English Phonetics, p.84)

The use of the plural form of the personal pronoun "we" is of special interest to a foreign learner using professional English. In intellective prose this pronoun can display a number of semantic nuances:

- the use of the plural number;
- the author's wish not to sound extremely self-assured;
- the wish to integrate the interlocutor into the process of communication;
- the aim of expressing the uncertainty of a person.

In the first two cases the pronoun *we* collocates with verbs expressing "physical" actions, like – *we translated, we measured* and so on, whereas in the last two cases it is usually combined with verbs of "evaluation", such as – *we assume, we note* and so on (Глушко 1977).

The study of the syntactic structure of Academic English is not less important. A considerable volume of research has been

conducted along these lines both on the level of word-combinations and other syntactic units. It has been confirmed that the nature of word-combinations plays a decisive role in the distinction of functional styles. The literary text stands out by the prevalent use of stylistically colored word-combinations (connotative, metasemiotic word-combinations), whereas the scientific style is characterized by ready-made, clichéd word combinations. The word, the ultimate semantic unit of language, is overshadowed in the intellective prose by compound nominal units. In other words, a scientific text is a combination of syntagmatic units rather than words (Богатырева 1983).

Supraphrasal unity, being an essential informative unit of the intellective prose, deserves utmost attention among other syntactic units. In written speech the supraphrasal unity may be represented by one or several paragraphs, closely linked thematically and constituting a logical, syntactic and semantic unity (Ахманова, Глушко 1974, Серкова 1968).

Research has shown that in scientific speech paragraphs are used on a regular and certain basis, whereas in literary texts it is quite hard to keep the track of the use of paragraphs and supraphrasal unities. Moreover, some specialists even believe that a paragraph in scientific writing can have at least 3 or 4 and at most 7 or 8 sentences, i.e. approximately 75 or 200 words (Sherman 1966). This is accounted for by the nature of scientific speech, which presupposes logical and coherent transition between the ideas expressed.

As is well known, any profound scientific research requires rational processing of emotional elements of perception, on the basis of which researchers have an opportunity to make abstractions and define concepts. This crucial aspect of scientific research is naturally reflected in scientific speech. This comes to

explain a certain degree of abstraction in intellective prose. On the lexical level this quality is expressed through a widespread use of nominal constructions with an abstract meaning.

Three main layers of the vocabulary have been singled out in academic speech (Akhmanova, Idzelis 1978).

- words of general use,
- units of general scientific vocabulary,
- terms and terminological word-combinations.

These three layers differ from each other both by their semantic capacity, frequency of use and importance.

Words of general use are the main core of language and thus are frequently used. For example, *and, but, although, one, more, with, without, same, know,* etc.

Units of general scientific vocabulary which are the main bearers of scientific information, are words and phrases periodically used in different scientific texts, thereby becoming ready-made clichéd combinations. For example, *was considered to be essential; as a matter of fact; as has already been mentioned; it is our belief that,* etc. This is the part of the essential vocabulary which must be the focus of particular attention for active learning.

With regard to **terms and terminological combinations**, the selection of the latter is proportionally dependent on the peculiarities of the language of the specific field. For instance, *linguistic meaning proper; sound envelope; speechology,* etc.

Nonetheless, it must be taken into consideration that these layers are not strictly fixed. Being part of the general word-stock and undergoing certain semantic transformations under the influence of social factors, these linguistic units display significant flexibility and can make transitions from one layer to another.

It is evident that such elements of the general word-stock as *word* and *imaginative* become terms when used in the sphere of

Philology: *word* (the ultimate semantic unit of language), and *imaginative writing* (belletristic literature). Constant interaction of the above-mentioned layers can be explained by the principles of speech dialectics.

The ultimate aim of intellective prose is to elucidate and define this or that phenomenon in the field under investigation, to put forward assumptions and opinions, to generalize and arrive at conclusions. It is known that the general scientific vocabulary, aimed at expressing the process of scientific research, can be classified conceptually. On the basis of this classification six conceptual groups in the general scientific vocabulary have been distinguished (Akhmanova, Idzelis 1978: 78-79):

- acquiring knowledge (adopt, borrow, carry out, discover, observation, perception and so on),
- passing on knowledge (advise, consult, discuss, discussion, exemplify etc.),
- prospect, outlook (assume, assumption, attempt, intend, plan, suppose etc.),
- checking up (appropriateness, check, clarify, reconsider, reformulate etc),
- organization and systematization of materials (class, classify, combine, component, concentrate etc.),
- making conclusion (achieve, arrive at, appreciation, conclude, deduce, establish etc.).

The perception of a piece of scientific text and the general scientific vocabulary used in it presupposes the application of a step-by-step approach to the study of the text. The consideration of the psychological factor can guarantee the effective assimilation of the material taught. For this purpose the participation of the learners in the teaching process must be increased, and occasionally they must assume the teacher's role. In other words

the predominant method in this teaching-learning process is the learner-oriented method which provokes the learners' active thinking, let alone their active independent learning. They need to carry out a lot of independent work referring to the help of different dictionaries, theoretical books, internet sources to approve or disapprove the answers offered by the other students who, in their turn, also carry out a certain amount of independent work before coming to class. Thus, although in teaching and learning the guidance of the teacher is a necessary component of the process, the active participation and initiative of the students is always predominant.

Since every text is an indivisible unity of form and content, its comprehensive analysis must cover the study of both aspects. Let us try to demonstrate the methodology offered on a concrete material. The text provided below is borrowed from the book by Akhmanova O., Ibzelis R.What is the English We Use? P. 7-10.

> *Although there exist a large number of books on "style", "good English", etc., the foreign learner has never (to our knowledge) been given, actually shown, a text of any length which he could safely "make his own", which he could imitate as a model for his own style of writing and speaking to be assimilated the way Flaubert drank in pages of Napoleon's "Code" before sitting down to work. In other words, where* ***do we – foreign anglicists – go, or what do we turn to****, if we are setting out to write and speak English on our subject, that is, to use English for our special professional purposes. Surely not to the many instances of "bad English" collected in most manuals on the subject. We may*

sound too categorical, but so far no practical solution has been offered, no way out actually shown.

We do not mean to say, of course, that the question of models, of masters of style to be studied and imitated, had never been asked or answered before. The recognition of the undisputed superiority of so many great writers – classics and classical literature – is one of the most general and most firmly established facts. But where do they come in, how, in actual practice, are they made to serve our specific purpose?

This brings us naturally to the more general problem, that is, the scope and aims of philology – the science which concerns itself with everything that has ever been written or said. Philology, then, is a science in whose domain are included all imaginable kinds of speech events however different, for the humbler, more everyday uses of language are closely connected with the loftier ones: the latter grow out of the former, thrive on them, could not exist without them. It is, therefore, unfortunate that in recent times it should have become customary to keep apart, on the one hand, what is now often called "linguistics", and, on the other, "literary criticism".

It is usually assumed somewhere (where exactly nobody has so far been able to show) there is a line which divides the rest of speech events from those which have a specific aesthetic or, as is sometimes said, litarery value. But however hard it may be to say what literature is – as distinct from what it is not

– we are all convinced that the division is there, that it does exist. But however firmly established, this division is largely artificial, for how can one really know a language - that is, be a linguist in the proper sense of the word – unless one has read widely, has covered a large quantity of literary texts? We cannot expect the student of English at the Philological faculty of the University to confine himself only to trivial everyday speech patterns of the type "What's the time?", "How are you?", let alone those of "The bill is large" or "He filled the chair" kind. Obviously 99% of his studies are based on the bulky and elusive "something" which carries such a wealth of aesthetic, historical and social values.

At the same time if the literary critic does not study the original texts, if he hopes to get away with (the usually imperfect) translations which are assumed to help him to understand the ideas or ideals contained in them, or the social background of this or that writer – and nothing else – he cannot be regarded as a philologist in the proper sense of the word. A literary critic's work is worth-while only if he has studied à fond the language of the original literary sources.

A philologist, then, must be able to understand every variety of text in the chosen language and be able to place it within the overall thesaurus of existing speech events, at the same time he must have a very clear idea of the ***kind*** *of English he has decided to use in his own speech and writing. In other words, the philologist must know exactly, what*

it is he is expected to imitate, what kind of variety of the language he should endeavour to produce when "performing" orally or in writing.

We begin with the content plane. If the text is thematically integral it is not necessary to divide it into parts. But in case different themes are involved in the text, it must be presented in different fragments. The given text may be divided into two parts. The first passage, which comprises two paragraphs, aims at grounding the necessity for the formation of the professional varieties of English, whereas in the second part (the next four paragraphs) the topic in question is specified and considered from the standpoint of somewhat artificial division of Philology into Linguistics and Literary Criticism. The crucial precondition here is the thematic integrity of the passage which provides learners an opportunity to make a general idea of the question under discussion. The formation of various questions, elucidating the complicated aspects of the text, will contribute significantly to the perception and understanding of the general content of the text. Thus, for example,

- ✓ *What is the central question of the passage?*
- ✓ *What can you say of the scope and aims of philology?*
- ✓ *In what connection do the sentences "The bill is large", "He filled the chair?", "What's the time?", "How are you?" appear in the passage?*
- ✓ *What is the author's point here?*

The questions are formed by learners as this enables to guide the students through the problems of the general content of the text

on the one hand, and to reveal the receptivity of every single student on the other. In case of partial difficulties the intervention of the teacher is not excluded. Thus, with respect to the third question an additional clarification can be provided: the sentences *The bill is large* and *He filled the chair* are fictitious and ambiguous. When, for example the first sentence is out of a context, it can be associated with either *the bill of a bird* or t*he bill paid in the restaurant*, whereas the sentences *What's the time*? and *How are you*? are combinations, periodically reproduced in speech.

At the next stage, which involves the analysis of the expression plane of the passage, we make an attempt to clarify the phonetic features which are of special difficulty to Armenian learners. It is important to explain that the pronunciation of the voiced plosives in the final position differs significantly from their pronunciation in other positions in a word (Gimson 1981; Соколова 1984). In the final position the pronunciation of the voiced plosives [b], [g], [d] presupposes the reduction of the the third phase of articulation, and they are devoiced. For example, *bad, studied, included*, etc.

It is noteworthy that in English at the beginning of the word the voiceless plosives [p], [t], [k], following the voiceless fricative [s], are marked by loss of aspiration, such as in *special, style, scholar*.

Another obstacle for Armenian learners is the prosody of English which differs from the Armenian one. Hence, this problem deserves special attention. From the very beginning it should be explained to the learners that affirmative sentences in English are marked by a descending pitch movement. It should also be emphasized that the prosody of semantic groups is to a great extent conditioned by their position in the sentence. For example,

We do not mean to say, of course, that the question of models, of masters of style to be studied and imitated, had never been asked or answered before.

The weak form of the auxiliary parts of speech as in *and, of, as,* can also be discussed, for students usually tend to pronounce them as strong forms.

Taking into account the final stress in the Armenian language and the difficulties Armenian students encounter when accentuating English words, the main principles and rules of English accentuation must be referred to. Thus, in polysyllabic words the second or third syllable counted from the end of the word is stressed. For example – *spe ́cific, es ́tablished, di ́vision, phi ́lology, philo ́logical, cate ́gorical, aes ́thetic,* etc.

It is to be explained to Armenian learners of English that in contrast to the Armenian language, in English not only the vowels but also the resonant sounds are pronounced with significant length (Варданян 1987:30-34). For example, *bell, classical, recognition, aims, Russian, tradition, convinced,* etc.

It is crucial to draw attention to the fact that for the English pronunciation the neutral position of lips is characteristic (particularly, in case of [u], [w], [ɔ]). For instance, *word, philology, good, model.*

It is noteworthy that the discussion of phonetic and phonological issues is not an end in itself and, therefore, it must not be separated from the other important aspect of the text, namely the vocabulary. In other words, the phonetic difficulties must be overcome in the process of the assimilation of words and word-combinations.

Students must write out all the units of the general scientific vocabulary from the given text with the corresponding Armenian equivalents. It should be borne in mind that the lesson is conducted by students under the guidance of the teacher.

At the first stage the student, conducting this part of the lesson, suggests a number of expressions based on the words and word-combinations from the original, the rest of the students provide the equivalents of these expressions. Thus, for example,

1. we do not mean to say ... – չենք ուզում ասել ..., ի նկատի չունենք ...,

2. this brings us naturally to ... - սա բնականաբար հանգեցնում է ...

3. it is usually assumed that ... - սովորաբար ընդունված է (ենթադրվում է), որ ...,

4. but however hard it may be to say that ... - բայց որքան էլ դժվար է ասել, թե ...,

5. but however firmly established, this division is largely artificial - որքան էլ հաստատապես ընդունված է, այս բաժանումն, այնուամենայնիվ, բավականին արհեստական է,

6. at the same time, he must have a very clear idea of ... - միևնույն ժամանակ նա պետք է հստակ պատկերացում ունենա ...

Having specified the appropriateness of the equivalents the students revise these expressions in groups. The process goes on in the direction of "reverse translation", i.e., from Armenian into English. For example,

1) ամենաընդհանուր եւ հաստատված փաստերից մեկը - one of the most general and most firmly established facts,

2) բանասիրության նպատակն ու խնդիրները - the aims and scope of philology,

3) վերջերս ընդունված է տարանջատել «լեզվաբանությունը» «գրականագիտությունից» - in recent ***times it has become customary to keep apart****, on the one hand, "linguistics" and, on the other, "literary criticism",*

4) բառիս բուն իմաստով - in the proper sense of the word,

5) այլ կերպ ասած - in other words,

6) համարվել - to be regarded as.

As has been mentioned above, the intellective prose is not devoid of certain emotional elements, which also must be subject to analysis. Focusing the attention of students on such metasemiotic combinations as *to drink in pages, the humbler, more everyday uses of language are connected with the loftier ones*, it should be mentioned that they make the speech more expressive

and emotional as they are not stylistically neutral and should be perceived as manifestation of the author's individual style.

It is appropriate to further explain that these metasemiotic combinations, though functionally quite different from the peculiar combinations of the intellective prose, are not prosodically brought out in the text (Гаспарян 2013).

At the next stage of instruction the words and word-combinations learned are presented in sentences from the analyzed text, and the learners are offered to translate them. The necessity for this step is conditioned by the fact that the students should master the general scientific vocabulary not only in isolation, but also in appropriate contexts. It is important to take into account that especially effective is the so-called “dynamic translation”, i.e. the conveyance of the main idea rather than word-for-word translation.

All the translation variants offered by students are discussed, edited and the variant closest to the original is chosen. Within this 10-15-minute work the phonetic and prosodic peculiarities of the sentences offered for translation are also interpreted. This is again enclosed by a reverse oral translation assignment. For example,

> *But however hard it may be to say what literature is – as distinct from what it is not – we are all convinced that the division is there, that it does exist.*
>
> *Բայց որքան էլ դժվար է ասել, թե ինչ է գրականությունը, մենք բոլորս համոզված ենք, որ տարանջատումն առկա է, այն իրոք գոյություն ունի:*
>
> *But however hard it may be to say what literature is – as distinct from what it is not – everybody knows*

that there is a division between linguistics and literary criticism.

It is necessary to draw the learners' attention to the parenthetical expression *as distinct from what it is not* used in the sentence, which requires an intonation proper to the parenthetical clauses, i.e. transition to the lower part of the interval, the use of level tones and lower ascending tone on the last word.

The pauses preceding and following the parenthetical clause are conditioned by its middle position in the sentence, reflected by the corresponding punctuation marks in speech (dashes in this particular case).

To consolidate the material learned, the student-teacher dictates sentences in Armenian made up by himself/herself, and the students provide their "dynamic" translation on the spot within 3-4 minutes. This is followed by the discussion of the sentences translated. Here are some examples:

Սա բնականաբար բերում է այն խոր համոզմունքին, *որ բառարվեստի ստեղծագործության քննությունը չի կարող սահմանափակվել նրա լեզվառճական առանձնահատկություններով:*

This naturally brings us to *the firm belief that the study of a work of verbal art can't be confined to its linguostylistic peculiarites.*

Միևնույն ժամանակ բանասերը պետք է հստակ պատկերացում ունենա, թե ինչ է ոճաբանությունը:

At the same time a philologist must have a clear cut idea of what linguostylistics is.

Որոնք են տվյալ ուսումնասիրության նպատակն ու խնդիրները:

What are the aims and scope of the investigation in question?

The analysis is finalized with the written summary of the text. The students present the key issues of the passage using the words and word combinations learned. This demonstrates the degree of the learners' ability to perceive and understand the material discussed.

Academic English: History and Development

The above-mentioned problem of language acquisition, particularly that of English, has always concerned humanity. Depending on political, economic and cultural events and their developments in various historical periods, the issues of foreign language acquisition have either become necessary and urgent, or have been considered as secondary. Nevertheless, the problems of foreign language study and teaching have been the focus of linguists' attention at all times.

The need for professional communication today is getting increasingly evident. Thus, the imperative of the current day requires search for new ways and approaches to language teaching, since today language acquisition problems are viewed in a different light. This presupposes learning and teaching of not only general English (for everyday communication), but also language teaching based on the specific goals of learning. In this case the student needs to master only this or that style, genre or variety of language. In other words, it is necessary to plan and realize professionally-oriented language teaching.

Academic English, which is currently used as lingua franca in the international scientific community, serves a special need, hence it can be regarded as a variety of LSP. In this respect, it is to be noted that LSPs are natural human languages, so they undergo all the developmental processes of human languages at all levels.

There had been numerous attempts to create an international language for communication long before the coinage of the term LSP, which came into use based on the exigency for possible improvement and classification of the specific features of language use, and was directed to improve the problems connected with communication in English.

Since ancient times, both linguists and specialists in other domains have been interested in making scientific speech more efficient, and in this regard, they studied the ways and modes of perfecting international, specifically scientific communication via conscious human influence on the language.

The natural human language, being an important and main means of communication for the members of a given society and in the course of its development serving as a mechanism for transferring cultural and historical traditions from generation to generation, also meets the newly-emerging needs of humanity. For example, the period of predominance of Greek and Latin was marked by the existence of special criteria of acceptable written speech, i.e. general principles of linguistic system construction, proceeding not only from the art of grammar. The formulated principles of correct speech predetermined and instigated the elaboration of the general principles of classical (antique) grammar. So, the philologists of the classical world, relying on the construction laws of correct speech, attempted at creating a unified standard and classified language, making it as close as possible to the use of "everyday" speech by means of analogy. As a result of the destruction of the state structures of the classical world and the formation of new social and economic systems, two domains of language came into being, namely – ecclesiastical and classical languages, i.e. correct languages of ancient civilizations; and vulgar or incorrect languages which didn't have writing systems and were considered as incorrect languages in the linguistic practice and theory of those days. Numerous researchers claim that the existence and use of the above-mentioned correct and incorrect languages was an inevitable and natural process, taken the historical (medieval) conditions of the period in question (Амирова Т.А., Ольховиков Б.А., Рождественский Ю.В. 1975:

109-115). Texts with ideological, moral-aesthetic and historical-cultural content were necessarily checked and filled with religious meaning. In the Middle Ages new written texts were brought in accordance with ancient ecclesiastical texts, and any deviations from the criteria accepted by grammar schools were eliminated. The content of most important texts was followed by explanatory notes, and the background knowledge referring to the interpretation of the texts comprised the main content of the science of linguistics (Конрад 1966).

It is to be noted that the correct languages assumed the role of cultural and scientific information carriers as well as initiators for the creation and accumulation of novelties and new knowledge. In Europe this language was Latin which was widely used in most parts of the world and successfully served as an international means of cultural and scientific communication due to its developed and elaborate nature. For almost 1500 years of the development of the history of European culture no other language has had such a significant role and impact as Latin. However, in the 7^{th}–12^{th} centuries, professionals in numerous European universities and educational centres realized that the norms of Medieval Latin, as an international and live mediator of European culture and thought, differed drastically from those of Classical Latin. The ecclesiastical and scholastic Latin differed drastically from the Latin used by the humanists, since both the church and school aimed at simplifying the ecclesiastical dogmas and scholastic knowledge to make it as comprehensible to people as possible. As a result, a new variety of Latin, called classical, emerged. This language mainly preserved the vocabulary and the syntactic structure, whereas the conjugation and case systems of Latin were simplified. And it was this variety of Latin that came to be used in

schools and universities as the language of international communication (Мальявина 1985:15).

Opposing to this variety of Latin were the humanists, who, in the 15th century fiercely fighting against the language simplifiers and purifiers, longed for writing like the classical authors and preserving the purity of their vocabulary and the style. However strange, in fact the humanists themselves have unconsciously caused damage to the natural process of the development of Latin. In an effort to ascribe the once exceptional role and significance to the patterns of antiquity, the humanists did not realize the irreversible damage they caused to the world literature written in Latin, and thus seriously hampering the process of making Latin the means of business and scientific communication (Пауль 1960:479).

Later new attempts have been made to restore the past role of Latin and make it the language of international and cultural communication. However, none of them was crowned with success. In the period of establishment and consolidation of nations and national identities, which ran parallel to book printing, new sciences and philosophical doctrines were formed. The struggle against Latin in Western Europe was thought of as a struggle for the equality of national languages. On the basis of national languages literary languages, were formed and developed along with ecclesiastical languages; not only spiritual, but also secular texts were composed. These written languages were regarded as *norm* in the formed linguistic theory and practice. This situation stood out by profound differences among different nations in their historical and cultural development, philosophical doctrines, ways and means of the formation of literary languages as well as many other questions relating to the language traditions. All this, undoubtedly, had a negative influence on Latin, narrowing down

the sphere of its use and weakening its once historical strength (Robins1979).

The formation norms of literary languages of different nations were different. For example, literary English is known to have developed on the basis of the London dialect, literary Spanish derives from Castile, and so on (Будагов 1983; Ярцева 1985).

But not only accepted standard norms were a necessary prerequisite for the formation of national literary languages, but also the practical application of the latter, which presupposed the use of the literary language as a means of communication in all the spheres of the given society, as well as its spread over huge territories. In fact, since the onset of the national literary language formation the influence of specialists, writers in particular, on the elaboration of the norms of literary languages has been more significant and purposeful than in any other period. Nevertheless, the opinion mentioned above is not to underestimate the role of the society in the process of language formation, but rather to evidence the fact that the role of writers, grammarians, academicians and political figures is more weighty in this respect (Журавлев 1982). In this period most authoritative "legislators" even put forward the idea that the issue of language standardization should be transferred to the legislative plane (Амирова, Ольховиков, Рождественский 1975: 115-168). Thus, in the second half of the 17^{th} century a new tradition, referred to as the principle of universality in the history of linguistics, was formed. This fact suggests that even in those times there were certain concepts about the universal language.

Still in the 17^{th}-18^{th} centuries the problem of creating the so-called universal rational language in an artificial way was of special importance in the Philosophy of Language. So, issues of human welfare and peaceful co-existence on the globe prompted

people of different specializations to come up with the concept of international artificial, "purified" language which, as specialists believed, could give a chance to widen the scope of international communication (Дрезен 2021; Ахманова, Бокарев 1956: 65-78).

However ample the history of international artificial languages may be, there is one obvious fact – these languages were not flexible enough to replace natural human languages in the sphere of international scientific communication, and all the efforts in this direction failed, whereas the natural human language proved to be the most reliable and perfect means of international academic communication (Будагов 1976: 289).

In the 19th century when Comparative and Historical Linguistics already existed, most of the researchers focused their attention on the problems of laws of language development as well as the study of the different spheres of its application. All this resulted in the strict differentiation between the study of scientific proper and normative linguistic descriptions and investigations and the contrast of the latter. On the basis of this, some linguists later claimed that language can by no means be influenced. According to certain standpoints, the concepts of "scientific" and "normative" were thought to be incompatible, since if something is dictated to the language, science has nothing to do there. In other words, only works which were completely deprived of any signs of normative, dictating directions, were regarded as scientific (Будагов 1980: 287). In this respect, researchers offered to "leave the language in peace" (Hall 1950: 1).

In connection with the linguistic investigations of this period R. A. Budagov mentioned the invalidity of contrasting the study of the objective laws of language development and the human influence on the language. The scholar believed that those two directions could never be opposed. When the language functions it

is independent and at the same time dependent on the activities of people who use this language to communicate. For this reason linguistic investigations can be conducted in parallel, both in terms of human influence, and the natural process of language development, i.e. language investigations can be both objective and normative (Будагов 1980). Therefore, human influence on the language doesn't run counter to the natural development of language. However, it is to be noted that the ways and modes chosen by people to influence language have their own restrictions, especially in terms of literary languages (Будагов 1983).

The problem of human influence on language becomes especially urgent in the periods when national languages, as a result of certain historical developments, are used as international languages, i.e. languages for international communication. A case in point is English. It is well-known that different varieties of English, with their own norms of use and stylistic and social variants, are formed in English-speaking countries. All this impedes the mutual understanding of various English-speaking nations, since in the course of the development of these varieties the differences of the corresponding norms deepen to such an extent as to jeopardize the efficiency of communication. Naturally, this situation brings about the necessity to define the acceptable limits of the changes mentioned above (Burchfield 1985).

In the century of industrial revolution, when the scope of the social functions of language was broadened, the urgency of human influence on language became more obvious. The modes and ways of realizing this influence being different, it was essential that this influence was aimed at contributing to the perfection of the national language (Будагов 1977).

It is clear that the study of artificial, auxiliary and other similar languages is beyond the framework of this book. Our main

task is to understand how to achieve a level of language competence to communicate internationally.

However it is important to bear in mind that in order to make the international, particularly scientific communication more efficient, the human influence on language was realized via different methods: new programmes for creating artificial languages were elaborated; attempts were made to restore the past role of classical languages, especially of Latin, and to create general simplified Latin on its basis; suggestions were put forward to use one of the modern living languages as an international language of communication and develop various simplified versions of the language.

As has already been mentioned above, the problem of human conscious influence on language is within our immediate interest in terms of using English as an international language of science; And of course it is crucial not to ignore the results, principles and approaches of various linguistic investigations within different historical periods, for all this acquires special importance in modern times, when it is necessary to concentrate on English as the only means of international scientific communication. Hence the necessity of teaching it as effectively as to give the learners a chance to convey the corresponding scientific information, overcoming the national boundaries and making scientific communication more efficient.

However, life itself and the necessity for everyday communication, give rise to spontaneously formed varieties of international communication, different restricted languages, pidgins, creoles, etc. But without expanding the discussion along the lines of these varieties of international communication the idea of the incapability of artificially restricted sign systems for providing natural full-fledged international communication should

be enhanced. This also refers to communication in the world of academia and is borne out by a retrospective theoretical look at the language use.

To bring out the main function of the informative style in English for Academic Purposes, i.e. the function of conveying information, it is necessary to carry out a philologically-oriented investigation, wherein the analysis of language material is to be conducted along the principles of the linguostylistic method (Ахманова, Идзелис 1978). It gives us a chance to perceive and identify EAP and ESP at large as a functional-genre variety of scientific style which is domain-specific, and, while in use, requires a lot of attention to the choice and arrangement of domain-bound linguistic elements.

This variety of English is a unique type of intellective prose, characterized by the use of certain lexical, morphological, syntactic and phonetic units depending on the specific purport of the text. It is clear that the thematic restriction of this or that subtype of this variety of English (which is explicitly expressed in its vocabulary) is also preconditioned by its purposes. The teaching of texts pertaining to this variety of English must encompass all the aspects of language – phonetic, lexical, morphological and syntactic.

This historical survey concerning the language use proves that problems of foreign language learning and teaching have been central to humanity in almost all periods of its existence.

In sum, it is imporatant to note that Academic English is a powerful Lingua Franca, an effective communication tool characterized by specific strategies of language use which avails the international community of scientists of the possibility to communicate professionaly, exchange their approaches and ideas concerning this or that scientific problem. Albeit the obvious logicality, exactness and lack of ambiguity in academic speech, the

presence of expressive-emotional overtones in it cannot be excluded completely. However, as distinct from fictive prose where the presence of the latter is aimed at producing an aesthetic impact on the readers/listeners, in academic communication they are meant to express the speaker's attitude towards what is discussed, to emphasize certain facts and phenomena and achieve a rhetorical effect. The analysis of language material is to be conducted along the principles of the linguostylistic method.

Thus, our historical survey of approaches to the language use in international communication, including communication in the world of academia, comes to show that problems of foreign language learning and teaching have been central to humanity since ancient times, and the acquisition of competence in Academic English presupposes the employment of the learner-oriented method in the step-by-step teaching/learning process.

UNIT I

ACADEMIC DEGREES AND TITLES

Full-fledged communication at a scientific conference suggests that its participants, on the one hand, have a fairly clear idea of the position occupied in the scientific world by their colleagues, and on the other hand explain their scientific positions in English. The scientific status of a scientist is, to a certain extent, a formal indicator including degree, title, affiliation, the position, special awards, membership in various societies and associations. One of the most important indicators of scientific qualification is the ***degree***. A degree is an academic qualification awarded on completion either of a higher education course (*a first degree)* or a piece of research (*a higher/further degree)*. In practice the word degree alone generally implies a first degree, other degrees being referred to more specifically, as higher*/further degree*, doctorate, and so on. Formerly degrees were awarded only by universities, but during the past 15-20 years they have gradually extended to polytechnics, colleges of education and colleges of higher education for courses of an equivalent standard. A scientific degree is a system of qualifications of scientists and educational workers. In the USA, Great Britain and other countries, which joined the Bologna process, unification of scientific degrees to Bachelor, Master, PhD is taken. In Armenia the system with two scientific degrees (candidate of science, doctor of science) is used. Candidate of science is conferred by the Scientific Council and approved by Higher Attestation Commission. Doctor of science degree is conferred by presidium of Higher Attestation Commission after petition of Scientific Council. For conferring science degree it is

required to prepare a dissertation and defend it at Scientific Council. For conferring *Doctor of Science degree* it is necessary to have a *Candidate of Science degree.* The analogue to the Armenian Candidate of Science is a *Philosophy Doctor (Ph.D.)* in most countries. In some countries *Ph.D.* is the highest science degree, in other countries there exist higher degrees equivalent to Armenian *Doctor of Science*.

The hierarchy of degrees dates back to the universities of the 13th-century Europe, which had faculties organized into guilds. There was originally only one degree in European higher education, that of master or doctor. The baccalaureate, or bachelor's degree, was originally simply a stage toward mastership and was awarded to a candidate who had studied the prescribed texts in grammar, rhetoric, and logic for three or four years and had successfully passed examinations held by his masters. The holder of the bachelor's degree had thus completed the first stage of academic life and was enabled to proceed with a course of study for Master's or Doctor's degree. After completing those studies, he was examined by the chancellor's board and by the faculty and, if successful, received a master's or doctor's degree, which admitted him into the teachers' guild and was a certificate of fitness to teach at any university (Encyclopædia Britannica, Inc 1994-1998).

The terms master, doctor, and professor were all equivalent. At the University of Paris the term master was more commonly used, and the English universities of Oxford and Cambridge adopted the Parisian system. In many universities, the certified scholar in the faculties of arts or grammar was called a master, whereas in the faculties of philosophy, theology, medicine, and law he was called a doctor. Perhaps because it was necessary to become a master of arts before proceeding to the other studies, the doctorate came to be esteemed as the higher title. (The common Anglo-American

degrees master of arts and doctor of philosophy stem from this usage.) In German universities, the titles master and doctor were also at first interchangeable, but the term doctor soon came to be applied to advanced degrees in all faculties, and the German usage was eventually adopted throughout the world (Encyclopaedia Britannica, Inc 1994-1998).

In Armenia, Russia, the USA, the UK and in other countries, the successful completion of a three-, four-year course of study at a higher educational institution, as a rule, leads to Bachelor's degree: *Bachelor of Science, abbr. B.Sc./B.S. (natural Sciences); Bachelor of Arts, abbr. A.B./B.A.* (humanitarian sciences); *Bachelor of Fine Arts, abbr. B.F.A. (art); Bachelor Of Business Administration, abbr. B.B.A.* (Management), etc. *Bachelor degree* is often called the first degree. For example, a scientist who has changed his specialization can say: *I got my first degree in mathematics and then I switched over to the field of physics.*It is generally accepted that a bachelor's degree corresponds to a diploma graduate of the Armenian university with a four-year cycle of study (bachelor).

The combination of *a graduate student and a postgraduate student* is used to refer to students who can work on programs leading to the degree, both Ph.D. and Master. Students continuing their studies after obtaining the first degree (Graduate/postgraduate students), can apply for a *Master's degree: Master of Science, abbr. M.S.; Master of Arts, abbr. M.A.; Master of Fine Arts, abbr. M.F.A.* etc. To obtain this degree they submit a thesis after a year or two years of study and participation in research.

So the *Bachelor's degree* marks the completion of undergraduate study, usually amounting to four years. The *Master's degree* involves one to two years' additional study, while the doctorate usually involves a lengthier period of work. British and American universities customarily grant the Bachelor's as the

first degree in arts or sciences. After one or two years of coursework, the second degree, *M.A. or M.S.,* may be obtained by examination or the completion of a piece of research. At the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, holders of *a B.A.* can receive an *M.A.* six or seven years after entering the university simply by paying certain fees. The degree of *Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.)* is usually offered by all universities that admit advanced students and is granted after prolonged study and either examination or original research. A relatively new degree in the United States is that of associate, which is awarded by junior or community colleges after a two-year course of study; it has a relatively low status (Encyclopaedia Britannica, Inc 1994-1998).

A doctoral degree is a more advanced degree, but it takes more time. Depending on the program, a Ph.D. could take four to eight years to complete. Typically, a Ph.D. entails two to three years of coursework and a dissertation, which is an independent research project designed to uncover new knowledge in your field and be of publishable quality. Most doctorate programs offer various forms of financial aid, from assistantships to scholarships to loans. As a rule, to work on a doctoral dissertation a researcher proceeds after obtaining a Master of Science degree. When using such combinations as the candidate of sciences or a candidate of chemistry / candidate of chemical science(s), one should take into consideration that they are literal translations from Armenian *(գիտությունների թեկնածու)* and Russian (кандидат наук). They will be understandable only for those foreign scientists who are familiar with the scientific realities of our country. In any case, in scientific communication it requires additional explanations, for example, *I have a candidate's degree which corresponds to the Ph.D. degree in your country.*

Along with the degree of *Doctor of Philosophy* in English-speaking countries, there are a number of honorary doctoral

degrees *(honorary/higher/senior doctorates)*, awarded to relatively few scientists for a long and fruitful scientific activity. Among them are degrees: *Doctor of Science, Abbr. D.Sc. (natural Sciences); Doctor of Letters, abbr. Litt.D. (Humanities science); Doctor of Laws, abbr. L.L.D. (Jurisprudence)* and a number of others. A special research or writing a dissertation are not required. Honorary degrees are awarded on a set of merits to well-known figures of science: *Dr. Smith received an honorary D.Sc. in engineering from the University of Arizona for his contribution in electromechanical science*. A scientist can hold several or even many honorary doctorates.

There are also some combinations such as *Doctor of Science/Doctor of the Sciences/Doctor of History/Doctor of Technical Science(s),* etc. If your interlocutor is not oriented in the Armenian and the Russian scientific realities some explanations are required for the transfer of *Doctor of Science.* In particular, it can be emphasized that the degree of *Doctor of Science* is the highest scientific degree in our country, and many of its owners have the title of a *Professor*. The presence of a certain degree allows this scientist to hold an appropriate position in the research organization.

A *diploma* differs from a degree in that it is usually: (1) vocational, or less academic, or considered to be of a lower academic standard; (2) awarded by a non-university institution, or if by a university, after a shorter course of study than for a degree course. One example is *the Diploma in Art and Design (DipAD)*; another is *the Diploma in Higher Education (DipHE)*, a new qualification introduced with the colleges of higher education and awarded after a two-year course corresponding to the first two years of a degree course (which usually lasts three years).

Certificate is a very general word denoting any document which officially declares (or certifies) something, and is used in

various expressions, including *birth certificate, marriage certificate* and *medical certificate*. In education it is used as a document certifying that a person has completed a course of study and/or passed a certain examination. Thus examinations taken at schools are called: GCSE (The General Certificate of Secondary Education is an academic qualification in a particular subject, taken in England, Wales, and Northern Ireland. State schools in Scotland use the Scottish Qualifications Certificate instead. Like a diploma, it is usually: (1) vocational or less academic, considered to be of a lower academic standard than a degree; (2) awarded by a non-university institution, or after completing a shorter than a degree course at a university. For example, the usual qualification awarded by a college of education is the teacher's certificate, and the qualification obtained by graduates after a one-year course at a university faculty/department of education is the postgraduate certificate in education (called the diploma in education in some universities). In technical institutions many people take the ordinary and higher national certificates. If there is both a diploma and a certificate in the same subject, the diploma is usually of a higher standard, or awarded after a longer course.

The names of positions that scientists can occupy in public and private research institutions, including in higher educational institutions, in English-speaking countries are very diverse. In a number of cases, they reflect a specific specialization: *assistant wild life Ecologist, biochemist, plant physiologist, research chemist, senior economist*. The positions of researchers such as *research assistant, senior research assistant, research associate, senior research associate, research fellow, senior research fellow* etc. are used, as a rule, in higher education institutions and related to scientific organizations. Usually they are occupied by researchers who claim obtaining a doctorate degree or possessing

it. The associate position is higher in rank than the assistant, and assumes greater independence in scientific work.

It should be noted that scientific staff such as *postdoctoral fellow* or *research fellow* are engaged in research work increasing their scientific qualifications. It is necessary to distinguish between the scientist who occupies the position of the *research fellow* or *postdoctoral fellow*, from *fellow* - a full member of the scientific community, for example: *Smith A.B., Fellow of the Royal Society.*

The word *fellow* is also used to refer to council member teachers of the college or university, for example, *Smith A.B., Fellow of University*. Such membership may be honorable, for example, *Smith A.B., Honorary Fellow of Oxford University.*

If a scientist stops active scientific activity, but does not break ties with the university, he is called *visiting fellow*.

Higher academic rank is - *professor/full professor:* professor of oceanology, professor of economics, professor of mathematics. For great services to the university, a scientist can receive a title *emeritus professor/professor emeritus*, for example, *Dr. Brown, Emeritus Professor of Economics, University of Oxford*. The holder of this title is not engaged in active scientific and teaching activities.

Reader, principal lecturer, senior lecturer are on the step below the professor in the hierarchical office ladder in British universities, for example, *Smith A.B., Reader in Criminal Law, University of London.* In American universities the title of an *associate professor* is used, for example, *Brown W.A., Associate Professor of Biochemistry, University of Harvard*. Sometimes the word *docent* is used to denote the corresponding title in English *(associate professor)* in European non-English-speaking countries. In some American universities this word *(docent)* is used to call the teachers of junior rank who are not permanent members of the

teaching staff. Therefore, it is hardly possible to consider the English word *docent* as a successful equivalent to the Russian and Armenian words *доцент/դոցենտ.*

The next category of teachers in British universities is known as a *lecturer,* for example, *Smith J.A., Lecturer in Law, University of London;* in American - *assistant professor,* for example, *White A.B., Assistant Professor of Physics, University of Alaska.*

The combinations such as *assistant lecturer* (British) and *instructor* (American) are used to identify a group of junior teachers in English-speaking countries. In our country, the same position is occupied by an *assistant* and a *teacher*.

In American universities there are a number of posts, the names of which include the word *dean*: *dean of students, dean of university, dean of faculty* but their functions are different from those of the *dean* in our understanding. In American universities the word *faculty* denotes *the main teaching staff,* while in the British - *the academic/teaching staff* combinations are used. In conversation with American scientists, one should bear in mind the peculiarity of using the word *faculty.* In Armenian and Russian the word *faculty (ֆակուլտետ/факультет)* means *a devision of the university* and not the teaching staff.

The head of a teaching unit such as the faculty (faculty of science, faculty of law etc.) in British universities, and colleges or schools (college of fine arts, college of business administration, school of law, school of pharmacy etc.), in American universities is the *dean, deputy dean, sub-dean , associate dean/assistant dean.*

Formally, the university in countries with the British version of English is headed by a *chancellor* or *vice-chancellor.* A similar function at American Universities is performed by the *president.* In addition to the above-mentioned analogues *(vice-chancellor,*

president), one can use the word *rector,* which is used in European countries and will be understood by foreign scientists.

Different positions in the higher educational institutions of English-speaking countries are called posts with holders of key administrative positions: *vice president for academic affair, vice-president for research, pro-vice-chancellor*. The scientist holding the position indicated by the word *provost* is in fact responsible for all the educational and research work carried out at the institute. In order to indicate the position of *the pro-rector* the following combinations are used: *prorector, vice rector or deputy vice-chancellor; prorector for academic affairs; prorector for research, vice-rector for research.*

Choosing English equivalents for the names of leading scientific positions a neutral and clear in all contexts word *head* can be recommended: *head of the department, head of the laboratory, head of the group.*

An important indicator of scientific achievements of a scientist is the awarding of various *awards (medals, prizes).* A special recognition of his services on an international scale is awarded by *the Nobel Prize*. Evidence of the merits of the scientist is his election to membership in a number of scientific societies such as *the Royal Society* in the United Kingdom, *the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, the National Academy of Sciences)* in the USA etc. Accordingly, in Armenia, the highest scientific positions are occupied by members of the Academy of Sciences (members of the Armenian Academy of Science): *corresponding members (ՀՀ ԳԱԱ թղթակից անդամ) and full members / academicians (ակադեմիկոս).*

Armenian degrees, titles and posts	Suggested translations
Բակալավր (under the new system designed to follow European norms)	Bachelor of Arts (B.A.)
Մագիստրոս (under the new system designed to follow European norms)	Master of Arts (M.A.)
Գիտությունների թեկնածու	PhD, Candidate of Sciences, or Candidate of (specific field of study)
Գիտությունների դոկտոր	Doctor of Sciences, Doctor of (specific field of study), or Advanced Doctor of (specific field of study)
Դոցենտ	Associate Professor
Պրոֆեսոր	Professor
Ակադեմիկոս	Academician
Ակադեմիայի թղթակից անդամ	Corresponding Member of Academy of Sciences
Դասախոս	Lecturer/Instructor
Ավագ դասախոս	Assistant professor

Nowadays, more and more students are doing degrees or study programs outside their native countries, and more graduates are seeking employment in foreign countries. For the students and researchers who move between Armenia and the US and the UK, there are key differences in the educational systems, and therefore educational terminology, which can create confusion. Here translators from Armenian into English face a difficulty; on the one

hand they want to be understood by foreign readers, on the other hand our educational systems, while similar in many areas, are not identical, and translators feel rightly cautious of blurring the cultural differences between Armenia, America and the UK, etc.

I. Answer the following questions.

1. What are the 4 types of degrees?
2. What are the levels of education degrees?
3. What is the highest education degree?
4. What is the title of someone with a master's degree?
5. What is the highest academic title?
6. What is higher than a master's degree?
7. What is your degree title?
8. Why is it called a Bachelor of Arts?
9. What is higher than a PhD?
10. What comes first, PhD or Masters?
11. What should I call my lecturer?
12. What are the academic titles?

II. Choose the correct option.

1. A degree is……

a) a document certifying smth
b) an academic qualification
c) a term denoting smth
d) a stage in a scale

2. When is a degree awarded?

a) after completion of an essay
b) after granting smth

c) on completion of a research and educational course
d) after getting a licence

3. In what educational establishments are degrees awarded?
a) schools, polytechnics
b) only universities, colleges of education
c) universities, colleges of education firms
d) universities, colleges of education, polytechnics

4. The first degree is called …
a) a candidate of science
b) a Bachelor's degree
c) a Doctor's degree

5. The Master's degree is awarded
a) after finals
b) on acceptance of a thesis
c) after a year's postgraduate course

6. The Master of Philosophy means a degree
a) only for philosophy
b) for the humanities
c) for all faculties

7. Doctor of Philosophy is awarded
a) after an original idea
b) after a contribution to a field of knowledge
c) on acceptance of a thesis

8. A diploma is:
a) a plural form of a diplomat
b) art or skill in smth

c) a new qualification
d) an educational certificate

9. A diploma usually differs from a degree in that it...
a) is of a higher standard
b) is awarded by university
c) is of a lower standard , is not awarded by university
d) is a vocational, less academic

10. A certificate is ...
a) a general word denoting any document
b) an award granted by a college of education
c) a document certifying a completion of a course study
d) a paperback file

11. What are public exams called?
a) The General Certificate of education
b)The Certificate of Secondary education
c) The General Certificate of secondary education

12. A certificate is similar to a diploma in that it is…
a) of prestigious standard awarded by university
b) vocational, awarded by university only
c) vocational, of a lower standard awarded by polytechnics
d) vocational, less academic

13. A degree course is a course:
a) preparing students for high degrees
b) for research workers
c) of study preparing students for a first degree
d) preparing students for finals

14. Degree exams are...
a) exams for a driving licence
b) finals for a first degree
c) graduation exams
d) entrance exams

15. A degree ceremony is...
a) graduation ceremony
b) a religious ceremony
c) for a newly-weds
d) a special ceremony for awarding certificate and diplomas

16. A degree certificate is...
a) a written document
b) a document certifying that the holder was awarded a degree
c) a medical certificate
d) a certificate for diplomas

17. An academic is a person who ...
a) is a member of an Academy
b) does academic work
c) works in industry or politics

18. An academician is
a) a person working in industry
b) a person working in academic sphere
c) a member of an Academy

III. Give the Armenian equivalents of the following word-combinations:

to hold a degree (in smth.); degree certificate; natural sciences; empirical sciences; research worker or researcher; chancellor; learned work; academician; industrial research; dissertation/ thesis; paper qualifications; senior/junior research associate; dean: the deputy dean (sub-dean / associate dean / assistant dean); emeritus professor / professor emeritus; full-fledged communication; a scientific conference; the scientific status of a scientist; academic qualification; the Scientific Council; Higher Attestation Commission; the teachers' guild; certified scholar; to apply to advanced degrees; a postgraduate student; a doctoral degree; honorary doctorates; the Diploma in Higher Education; the Diploma in Art and Design; General Certificate of Secondary Education; to collaborate; scientific adviser; to be awarded, department; research team; data; to participate; to take post-graduate courses.

IV. Give the English equivalents of the following word-combinations:

գիտական կոչում շնորհել, գիտությունների թեկնածուի աստիճան, ճշգրիտ գիտություններ, կատարել/իրականացնել/ղեկավարել ուսումնասիրություն, գիտական առաջընթաց, ՀՀ ԳԱԱ թղթակից անդամ, մագիստրոս, բակալավր, գիտությունների թեկնածու, գիտությունների դոկտոր, դոցենտ, պրոֆեսոր, ակադեմիկոս, դասախոս, ավագ դասախոս, ոչ գիտական, գիտական հեղաշրջում, գիտություն և տեխնոլոգիաներ, գիտական լեզու, ուսումնասիրությունների կենտրոն, ուսումնասիրության թեմա/առարկա, ատենախոսություն պաշտպանել, շրջանավարտ, գիտնական, մասնագի-

տական խորհուրդ, կրթական ծրագրեր, ամփոփիչ ատեստավորում, ԲՈԿ-ի թույլտվություն, էական գիտական արդյունքներ, կիրառական նշանակություն, գիտական աստիճանի վկայագիր, ազգային գրադարան, օրենքով սահմանված կարգով, առաջատար հիմնարկ, խորհրդի նիստ, պաշտպանության ընթացակարգ, խորհրդի աշխատանքի կանոնակարգ, գաղտնի քվեարկություն, առանց սկզբնաղբյուրները նշելու, ձայների պարզ մեծամասնություն, սեղմագիր:

V. Fill in the gaps with the given words: *a degree; a diploma; a certificat.*

1. The average time spent by medical students during their first ….. course on clinical attachment in obstetrics and gynaecology is 11 weeks.
2. Everything went great until it was discovered that Wright didn't have a high-school……
3. A …..is an academic qualification awarded on completion of a higher education or a piece of research.
4. County….. issued by the County Board of Examiners are of three classes, valid for one, two and four years respectively.
5. The…..of foolishness in many teenagers is unfathomable, which explains why so many of them like to do dangerous stunts just to look cool.
6. She fought to get her high school…..despite getting pregnant.
7. A…..is one of a lower academic standard.
8. A…..denotes any document which certifies something.
9. The principal presented each of the graduates with a……

10. The earthquake caused damage to the maximum….. in the city, completely demolishing entire blocks and flattening buildings.
11. One insensitive official insisted on seeing her husband's death ……..
12. Virtually all postgraduate students at universities have already undertaken a first…..course.
13. The faculties of law confer the same….. in law and also grant…..of capacity, which enable the holder to practise as an avou; a licence is necessary for the profession of barrister.
14. One has already been accepted for a higher…..course at a university and two have applied for training as teachers.

VI. Match every acronym to its definition.

1. YLE	a. Preliminary English Test
2. PET	b. Certificate of Proficiency in English
3. KET	c. Certificate in Advanced English
4. FCE	d. Key English test
5. CAE	e. Young Learners English Test
6. CPE	f. First Certificate in English
7. TKT	g. International English Language Testing System
8. TOEFL	h. Teaching Knowledge Test
9. IELTS	i. Test Of English as a Foreign Language

VII. Arrange the words of the two groups in pairs with similar meaning.

1) device, research, technology, branch, obtain, importance, collaborator, team, scientific adviser, to enable, thesis, journal, to prove a thesis, to collect, data, to encounter, to be engaged in, to be through with, scientific papers, rapidly;

2) quickly, publications, instrument, technique, to finish, to be busy with, field, to get, significance, to come across, information, to gather, coworker, group, supervisor, to defend a dissertation, scientific magazine, dissertation, to allow, investigation.

VIII. Arrange the words of the two groups in pairs with contrary meaning.

1) theory, to obtain, rapidly, experimentator, to finish, to increase, new, experienced, unknown, wide, passive, to enable, high, complicated;

2) simple, low, practice, to give, to disable, active, slowly, theoretician, narrow, famous, to start, to decrease, old, inexperienced.

IX. Paraphrase the following sentences.

1. Management Aptitude Test (MAT) candidates are required to complete a full-year internship. They may choose to participate in the clinical residency program being assigned to a co-teaching environment with a mentor providing constant support daily or a more traditional route of securing a teaching position at a school while pursuing initial certification. A trained team mentor will be assigned.
2. From the pure, social and applied sciences to the arts and humanities, we have the experience and the expertise to support all students and professional academics wishing to present their work to the highest possible standards.
3. Research has shown that when teachers, schools, and districts take a systematic approach to helping students identify and master essential vocabulary and concepts of a given subject area, student comprehension and achievement rises.

4. The Supervisor will provide reasonable commitment, accessibility, professionalism, stimulation, guidance, respect and consistent encouragement to the student.
5. There are two main models: the co-supervision model where supervisors contribute equally, even where one signs off as the principal supervisor; and the primary/ secondary supervision model where a principal supervisor has responsibility for the student and oversees the research, and the co-supervisor contributes in the specific area of their expertise.
6. There are undoubtedly benefits to joint supervision, but there are also challenges to such collaborations, especially in the area of management of supervision activities.
7. Supervisors should be aware that from time to time, personal or academic issues will arise for research students, and that students will require additional assistance and support.
8. The meaning of research evidence, in any area of science, is inherently tied to the means or methods by which that evidence was obtained.
9. Research unlocks the unknowns, lets you explore the world from different perspectives, and fuels a deeper understanding.
10. There's always more to learn about a topic, even if you are already well-versed in it.

X. Translate into Armenian.

1. In 2017, by the Higher Attestation Commission of Armenia she was awarded with the scientific degree of candidate of economic sciences, specialty: accounting, analysis and audit.
2. She has accomplished a judge's special training and possesses all formal and material qualifications required in the Republic of Poland for appointment to the highest judicial offices as holder of the scientific degree of Professor of Legal Sciences.

3. Research papers necessary for acquiring an academic degree and a scientific degree are to be written and presented in the state language, except in cases provided by other laws.
4. Certificates giving access to higher education institutions should be considered in general for access in the host country, unless substantial differences can be demonstrated between the study programmes leading to the respective diplomas or between additional requirements concerned with access to higher education institutions.
5. Mr.Brown is an author of a number of specialized books on automation of construction machines. He has a scientific degree of assistant professor and university lecturer.
6. Further, we have to emphasize that he is not the least an ordinary teacher, while he has the scientific degree of Philosophy Doctor in Biology.
7. I am twenty-six years old and have just completed my master's degree in science. And I'm going to begin my Ph. D. program next September in the USA.
8. Certificates giving access to higher education institutions in the Russian Federation should be considered in general for access in the host country, unless substantial differences can be demonstrated between the study programmes leading to the respective diplomas or between additional requirements concerned with access to higher education institutions.
9. In the former Soviet Union and the various post-Soviet states, the status of Doctor of Science is a post-doctoral degree and has no equivalent in US academic system. It is roughly equivalent to Habilitation in Germany, France, Austria, and some other European countries.
10. A brilliant examination for the degree of bachelor procured him, in 1588, admittance on the foundation to the university of

Tubingen, where he laid up a copious store of classical erudition, and imbibed Copernican principles from the private instructions of his teacher and life-long friend.

XI. Translate into English.

1. Գիտական կոչում կարող է շնորհվել այն անձանց, ովքեր ունեն դիպլոմավորված մասնագետի կամ մագիստրոսի որակավորում, որպես կանոն, համապատասխան գիտական աստիճան, որոշակի ավանդ՝ գիտության տվյալ բնագավառում և զբաղվում են գիտամանկավարժական (գիտամեթոդական) գործունեությամբ:
2. Գիտական կոչում ստանալու համար անձը դիմում է ներկայացնում բուհի ռեկտորի կամ կազմակերպության տնօրենի անունով, որտեղ հիմնական կամ համատեղությամբ աշխատող է:
3. Ասպիրանտուրա մրցութային կարգով ընդունվում են Հայաստանի Հանրապետության այն քաղաքացիները, ովքեր ստացել են մագիստրոսի կամ դիպլոմավորված բժիշկ-մասնագետի որակավորում:
4. Որակավորման քննություններ հանձնելու, կրեդիտային համակարգի սահմաններում համապատասխան քանակով կրեդիտներ ձեռք բերելու և ատենախոսությունն ավարտելու համար հատկացվող առավելագույն ժամկետը 5 տարի է:
5. Մագիստրոսի կրթական ծրագրերով ուսումնառությունն ավարտած և ամփոփիչ ատեստավորումն անցած անձանց տրվում է տվյալ բարձրագույն ուսումնական հաստատության կամ կազմակերպության ավարտա-

կան փաստաթուղթ (մագիստրոսի դիպլոմ)՝ համապատասխան ներդիրով:

6. Ատենախոսության թեման հաստատելու իրավունք ունեն այն բարձրագույն ուսումնական հաստատությունները կամ գիտական կազմակերպությունները, որոնք ունեն ԲՈԿ-ի թույլտվությունը:
7. Թեկնածուի գիտական աստիճանի հայցորդը պետք է քննություն հանձնի մասնագիտությունից:
8. Եզրակացության մեջ պետք է արտացոլվեն ատենախոսության էական գիտական արդյունքները, դրանց նորության, հավաստիության գնահատականը, տեսական և կիրառական նշանակությունը, պետք է տրվեն հանձնարարականներ:
9. Գիտական աստիճանի վկայագիրը հանձնելուց հետո ԲՈԿ-ը ատենախոսությունն ուղարկում է Հայաստանի ազգային գրադարան:
10. Խորհրդի որոշումը կարող է բողոքարկվել օրենքով սահմանված կարգով:

✍ ***Render the following passage in English.***

Գիտության պատմություն

Գիտության պատմությունը տարբեր գիտությունների զարգացման կամ ժամանակակից գիտական աշխարհայացքի զարգացումն է: Գիտությունը ժամանակի ընթացքում հետազոտում է գիտության պատմական զարգացումների

պատկերը, երևույթները և փաստարկները, որոնք հաստատվում են գիտության կողմից, տարբեր գործընթացներ և խնդիրներ: Գիտությունը մասնավորապես իրենից ներկայացնում է փորձառարական, տեսական և գործնական գիտելիքներ Աշխարհի մասին, որոնք ստացվել են գիտական միության կողմից: Քանի որ մի կողմից գիտությունը ներկայացնում է օբյեկտիվ գիտելիք, իսկ մյուս կողմից այդ գիտելիքի ստացման և օգտագործման գործընթացը մարդու կողմից, պատմագրությունը պետք է ոչ միայն ուշադրություն դարձնի մտքի պատմությանը, այլ նաև հասարակության զարգացման պատմությանը: Ժամանակակից գիտության պատմության ուսումնասիրությունը հիմնված է մի շարք օրիգինալ և վերահրատարակված տեքստերի վրա: Սակայն «գիտություն» և «գիտնական» բառերը ծագել են XVIII-XX դարերում: Դրանից առաջ բնագետներն անվանում էին իրենց զբաղմունքը «բնական փիլիսոփայություն»:

Թեև էմպիրիկ հետազոտությունները հայտնի են դեռ անտիկ ժամանակներից (օրինակ Արիստոտելի և Թեոփրաստեսի աշխատանքները), իսկ գիտական մեթոդը իր հիմքերով մշակվել է միջնադարում (օրինակ Ռոջեր Բեկոնի և Ալ-Բիրունիի ուսումնասիրությունները): Ժամանակակից գիտության սկիզբը համարվում է Ժամանակակից շրջանը, որը նաև անվանում են գիտական հեղափոխության շրջան XVI-XVII դարերում Արևմտյան Եվրոպայում տեղի ունեցածի պատճառով:

Գիտական մեթոդը համարվում է այքնան էական ժամանակակից գիտության համար, որ շատ գիտնականներ և

փիլիսոփաներ գտնում են, որ գիտական հեղափոխություններից առաջ արված գիտական աշխատանքները համարվում էին «նախագիտական»: Այդ պատճառով գիտության պատմաբանները տալիս են գիտությանը ավելի լայն սահմանում, քան ընդունված է մեր ժամանակներում, այդ սահմանման մեջ ներառվում է նաև Հին և Միջին դարերում կատարված հետազոտությունները կամ ուսումնասիրությունները: Գիտության զարգացումը հանդիսանում է մարդու մտավոր ունակությունները զարգացնելու և մարդկային քաղաքակրթության ձևավորման բաղկացուցիչ մասը։

Further reading

Read the text and find some differences between US and UK degree programs.

There are several types of degree programs in the UK: **Bachelor's, Foundation, Master's Degrees and Doctorates or PhDs**; all of which are all globally recognized qualifications. You can choose either a 3 year undergraduate degree in England**,** Wales and Northern Ireland and graduate with a Bachelor of Arts (BA) or Bachelor of Science (B Sc) or a 4 year sandwich course which includes one year's professional experience in industry or a year studying abroad.

If you choose to study in Scotland**,** you will follow a system that is more similar to the US one; in fact, the American university education system is modelled after the Scottish system. An undergraduate degree in Scotland takes four years to complete. While you will study a wider range of subjects than you would in England and Wales, unlike in the US you must declare a main focus of study at the start of your degree (though this can be

changed during your studies, if you wish). Still, a Scottish undergraduate degree tends to be more focused than a typical US degree.

British taught Master's degrees have a structure that is similar to American Master's programs, however, the British version is arguably a bit more professionally oriented and can be completed in just 12 months, compared to the usual 2 years needed in the US, thus saving you time and money. UK degrees tend to focus on the main degree subject from the beginning of the degree program and thus are more professionally oriented than the US liberal arts education, which requires each student to learn a broader curriculum. For students who have a clear idea of what they want to study, a British degree is ideal as you are allowed to specialize in your subject area from the start. UK undergraduate degrees are typically 3 years in length, with the exception of Scotland, where undergraduate programs take 4 years to complete. The UK style of education is particularly suitable for students who want to immerse themselves in a specific subject or combination of subjects straight out of high school. British degrees leave the learning much more up to you, with the emphasis on lectures backed up by tutorials. Undergraduates are expected to extend their own research conducted on their subject and to motivate themselves outside of lectures. There is a high degree of flexibility and choice with UK degrees. You can pursue your interests and ambitions in fields as diverse as Sound-Engineering to Marine Biology or Creative Writing.

How are British degrees taught?

- **Lectures** - Formal presentations to large groups of students, who take notes on what is said.
- **Seminars** - Small groups of eight to twenty students who discuss assigned topics with a tutor.

- **Tutorials** - More informal meetings in which one to three students discuss their work with a tutor. The close contact between student and tutor in seminars and tutorials is a particular strength of UK degree courses.
- **Continuous assessment** - Depending on your degree course you will be expected to produce coursework, participate in projects, seminars and exams. Plus, depending on the course, produce a final dissertation and take final exams.

There are 2 types of British degrees which you can apply for as an undergraduate:

- **Single honours programs** involve focused study of a single subject. The core of each program is already designed and you have the opportunity to shape your work by choosing additional modules.
- **Joint honours programs/Combined programs** enable you to study a combination of subjects, creating opportunities for you to build a degree program to suit your personal interests and needs.

At a Graduate level you have a choice between a taught or research-based Master's degree or a PhD.

- **The Taught Master's** or often called an MA (England and Wales), MLitt (Scotland) or an MSc, a taught Master's takes 12 months and is very popular with North American students. It follows the same structure of classroom work and some research that you would expect from a US degree, but is more focused and thus shorter. In terms of recognition it is the same as a North American degree, but you save a year!
- **The Research-Based Master's** are degrees that can be called a variety of names including MSc by Research,

MRes, and MPhil and are normally based on a research project you undertake rather than classes you attend. Research-based Master's usually involve working closely with a tutor and take around 12-18 months, but can take up to 24 months in some cases. Many students often begin this type of program and then transfer into a PhD. Part of your Master's work is often credited towards your PhD and may serve as a basis for your PhD research area. As with a PhD, in order to be accepted for degree research based Master's, you must typically submit a research proposal and have a strong academic background along with some research experience in the relevant subject. If you are particularly interested in a specific area and have perhaps already done some undergraduate research this may be the best option for you.

Points to consider:

- make a list of the most important points for a person to be qualified as a scientist in your country;
- there are various reasons for choosing postgraduate study but some reasons are more positive than others. Comment on them.

UNIT II

RESEARCH SUPERVISION

Any research conducted by a postgraduate student is supervised by a competent researcher with an advanced academic degree. Read the text and discuss with your friends the issue of a good supervisor.

Choosing a Supervisor

The three most critical choices facing a student pursuing a research degree such as a PhD are the institution, the program, and the supervisor. These three are not independent: some students know with whom they want to work, which determines both program and institution. Some students know exactly what research question they wish to pursue, which may determine both institution and supervisor. But most apply to a particular program at a particular institution, where there may be many potential supervisors. Some programs assign a supervisor at the start of the program or later, but in most cases, students need to choose a supervisor who will be their mentor, director, and evaluator for the next year or two in the case of a research master's, or the next few years in the case of a doctoral program. In many programs, students are only accepted if they can find a willing supervisor, so this may have to be done before the student arrives on campus. The student-supervisor relationship is a key factor in determining a successful and satisfying doctoral "apprenticeship." When it works well, students not only learn the craft of research scholarship, but also gain an advocate who will speak on their behalf, are welcomed into a network of professionals, maybe acquire a lifelong colleague and

friend, and experience the deep satisfaction of academic work and the creation of new knowledge. When it does not work as well, students may lose their enthusiasm for research as a career and abandon their pursuit of a higher degree. So what can be done to help ensure that the choice of supervisor is a good one? Clearly, the potential supervisor should be highly qualified in the expected area of research. But there are many other factors that can affect the success of the relationship. Here are some suggestions for how you as a student might find some answers:

- Look up online information on potential supervisors. Check their bios on their graduate unit's website: many faculty make their CV available, and this will tell you about their research interests, their publication and other academic activities, their grant support, what other graduate students they have supervised, and how busy they may be on activities away from their lab or office. Remember, however, that faculty compose their own CVs, so you may not find all of the information that is important to you in making a decision!
- Check other online sources: use your favourite search engine for potential supervisors, investigate any blogs, discussion groups, or social networking sites they may have in order to get a sense of who they are.
- If you are applying from another institution, check with professors you know who might be aware of faculty in your area of interest—they could offer valuable insights to help you evaluate potential supervisors.
- Contact the unit's graduate office (visit in person if possible) and talk to the graduate coordinator (the faculty member responsible to the chair or director for the graduate program) and/or the graduate administrator (the

administrative staff member assisting the graduate coordinator). These people can be an invaluable source of information about the program and the faculty.

- Check the website or CV of the potential supervisor, or check with the graduate administrator in the department, to identify graduate students who are currently being supervised or who have recently graduated. Talk to them and let them know you are thinking of becoming the supervisor's student, and ask them for comments on the style of supervision, what sort of person the supervisor is.
- If you can, visit the graduate unit and arrange to speak face-to-face with potential supervisors.

I. Answer the following questions.

1. Which are the three most critical choices that students face pursuing a research degree such as PhD?
2. How can you describe the succession of the actions before starting the work?
3. What is the key factor in determining a successful apprenticeship?
4. When do programs assign a supervisor and how long does the process of writing last?
5. What should be done in many programs before the students arrive on campus?
6. What are the pros of a good relationship between the student and the supervisor?
7. Why do students lose their enthusiasm for research as a career and abandon it?
8. What qualities should the potential supervisor have?

9. What other ways (excluding online ones) can be helpful for choosing the supervisor?
10. Is it possible to find some information about the potential supervisor before meeting him/her?
11. Who are considered to be an invaluable source of information about the program and faculty?

II. Label each sentence true or false according to the article.

1. The three most critical choices that students face pursuing a research degree are country, institution and supervisor.
2. These three choices operate independently.
3. The Supervisor is considered to be a mentor, director, and evaluator for the next year or two in the case of a research master's, or the next few years in the case of a doctoral program.
4. In many programs, students are not allowed to arrive on campus before they find a supervisor who is willing to work with them.
5. Good relationships between student and supervisor are of great importance.
6. Students never lose their enthusiasm for research as a career.
7. The potential supervisor should be highly qualified in the expected area of research.
8. There is no way to find an information about your supervisor before meeting him/her.
9. Bios on graduate unit's website can provide a lot of useful information about your potential supervisor, his/her publications and other academic activities.
10. The graduate coordinators and the graduate administrators the unit's graduate office are considered to be an invaluable source of information about the program and the faculty.

III. Choose the correct option.

1. A person who directs and oversees the work of a postgraduate research student.

a) graduate coordinator
b) supervisor
c) graduate administrator
d) director

2. PhD is ……..

a) the highest college or university degree
b) an advanced college or university degree
c) in the UK, a first university degree, based especially on one subject
d) a system of providing health insurance for all people in a state or country, especially in the US

3. The evaluator can …….

a) reject the facts
b) give a prize
c) judge the quality, importance, amount, or value of something
d) establish certain rules

4. …….offer degree programs or graduate diplomas, courses, and research. It may be a department, centre, institute, school, or Faculty.

a) Mentors
b) Professionals
c) Graduate units
d) Authorities

5. Invaluable means …….

a) extremely useful, indispensable
b) worthless
c) incomplete
d) good-for-nothing

6. She…. the other candidate.

a) spoke at behalf of
b) spoke on behalf of
c) spoke of half on
d) behalf spoke

7. What is a research degree?

a) an advanced study program that gives you an opportunity to deeply explore a topic of your choice.
b) systematic investigation to establish facts
c) a specific position in a series
d) the seriousness of something

8. I am…. a degree in engineering.

a) following
b) pursuing
c) giving
d) putting

9. It is a detailed document highlighting your professional and academic history.

a) profile
b) bio
c) CV
d) portfolio

10. Someone who has agreed to work for a skilled person for a particular period of time and often for low payment, in order to learn that person's skills:

a) apprentice
b) beginner
c) employee
d) craftsman

IV. Give the Armenian equivalents of the following word-combinations:

three critical choices; to pursue a research degree; determine both institution and supervisor; potential supervisors; mentor/ director/evaluator; doctoral program; a willing supervisor; the student-supervisor relationship; a key factor; a successful and satisfying doctoral “apprenticeship”; research scholarship; gain an advocate; abandon their pursuit of a higher degree; the choice of supervisor; highly qualified; apply to particular program; acquire a lifelong colleague and friend; to speak face-to-face; experience the deep satisfaction; loose enthusiasm; academic activities; assign a supervisor; online information; speak on one’s behalf; invaluable source; online sources; graduate coordinator; graduate administrators; supreme efforts; promoting democracy; the creation of new knowledge.

V. Give the English equivalents of the following word-combinations:

մագիստրոսական թեզ, գիտական աշխատանք, մասնագիտական ամբիոն, նոր գիտելիքի ձենք բերում, ընթացակարգ, հավանական ղեկավար, հետազոտության ակնկալվող ոլորտ, մագիստրոսական թեզի թեմայի վերաձևակերպում,

գիտահետազոտական հաստատությունների աշխատակիցներ, տեղեկատվության անգնահատելի աղբյուր, բարձր որոկավորում ունեցող, հրապարակումներ, խորը բավարարվածություն զգալ, վարչական աշխատակից, հիմնական գործոն, արժեքավոր պատկերացումներ, բարձր որակավորում ունեցող մասնագետ, ամբիոնի պրոֆեսոր, դոցենտ:

VI. Write the correct form of the words.

Supervise

1. Students are not allowed to handle these chemicals unless they are under the … of a teacher.
2. We need to employ more ... staff.
3. Foreign officials are … the elections.
4. Carefully … the students were encouraged to go on cultural expeditions into Philadelphia.
5. The … prescribed the steps in which orders must be filled out.

Pursue

6. The Declaration of Independence states that life, liberty, and the … of happiness are basic human rights.
7. The fact that a person acted ... to an order of his government does not relieve him from responsibility under international law.
8. We will not be … this matter any further.
9. He described himself as a … of truth and justice.
10. In …..of his aims, he has decided to stand for parliament

VII. Paraphrase the following sentences.

1. Within the context of particular supervisory orientations, however, the nature and function of the relationship must be defined in specific terms.

2. Again from the conventional teaching and learning literature, we are accustomed to the notions of teaching and learning styles and to the interrelationship between them.
3. Historically, research supervision has been regarded as an adjunct of research; it was assumed that, ' if one can do research then one presumably can supervise it'.
4. Supervision has been re-conceptualised as a form of teaching and supporting learning, in fact "probably the most subtle and complex in which we engage".
5. Changes in the funding and delivery of research programmes at the university level have, in recent years, resulted in significant changes to research supervision.
6. There is a need for research exploring postgraduate research students' expectations from research supervisors, the characteristics of effective student-supervisor relationships, and the opinions of students and supervisors about research supervision.
7. The relationship between the academic supervisor and postgraduate student is decisive for the success of the latter's master thesis and/or PhD
8. Eligible participants were invited to take part in the study when attending various research activities at the university.
9. All participants had acted as a supervisor, eight were postgraduate students, and two were both supervisors and postgraduate students.
10. Some students were unhappy with the supervisory relationship because of difficulty communicating.

VIII. Look through the text again and find the equivalents of the following word-combinations:

to feel very pleased; to lose devotion and energy; main factor; contribute to the development of relations; highly skilled (proficient); valuable insights; useful source of information; friends for life; domain of interest; crucial decision-making.

IX. Match the synonyms.

Supervisor	Recommend
Invaluable	Learner
Insight	Study
Pursue	Occupation
Support	Certified
Advocate	Mentor
Research	Priceless
Craft	Assistance
Qualified	Perception
Apprentice	Follow

X. Translate into Armenian. Pay attention to the underlined parts.

1. As long as the members of an organization allow the representatives of that organization to **speak on their behalf** on any matter, that organization may avail itself of an identical set of rights and privileges.
2. We note **with deep satisfaction** that these supreme efforts of our company have started to bring results.
3. Some say that **the success in relationships** hides in on how we resolve conflict.
4. Mr. Thornberry's academic work had focused to a large extent on minority rights.

5. The company possesses modern equipments and has got **highly qualified** personnel.
6. His main **research interests** include modern German history, Russian history, communism, and the First World War.
7. Education is **a key factor** in reducing poverty and promoting democracy, tolerance and development.
8. The aims of the event were to train a **network of professionals** from different institutions and countries.
9. A third major activity is awarding research grants to **graduate students**.
10. One professional staff member and one **administrative staff member** would be dedicated to the project in each Centre.

XI. Translate into English.

1. Գիտական ղեկավարը հայցորդի հետ համատեղ նախապատրաստում և կազմում է գիտական հետազոտության անհատական պլան, ընթացքում ճշտումներ և փոփոխություններ կատարելով՝ ըստ ուրվագծվող թեմատիկ շարադրանքի:
2. Գիտական ղեկավարը հայցորդի հետ իրականացնում է հետևյալ աշխատանքները՝ թեմայի շրջանակներում հայցորդին ուղղորդում է անհրաժեշտ մասնագիտական գրականության, տեղեկագրերի, վիճակագրական, արխիվային նյութերի և այլ աղբյուրների ընտրության հարցում, ցույց է տալիս գիտական և մեթոդական օգնություն:
3. Մագիստրոսական թեզի թեմայի վերաձևակերպում հնարավոր է մասնագիտական ամբիոնի որոշմամբ՝

մինչև մագիստրոսական թեզի պաշտպանության կազմակերպումը:

4. Գիտական ղեկավարը օգնում է հայցորդին ճիշտ ձևակերպելու եզրակացությունները և առաջարկություններ, դրանք բխեն շարադրանքից և առաջ քաշված խնդիրներից, պարունակեն գիտական նորույթ:
5. Գիտական ղեկավարը հետևում է ատենախոսության ձևավորմանը՝ տեխնիկական պահանջներին համապատասխան, ուշադրություն դարձնելով գիտական ապարատի պատշաճ կիրառմանը և գիտական տեքստ շարադրելու հմտություններին:
6. Մագիստրոսի պատրաստման ծրագրի կառուցվածքում նախատեսվում է երկու հիմնական հատված՝ ուսումնական և հետազոտական:
7. Սկսնակ հետազոտողի համար կարևոր է թեկուզև ընդհանուր պատկերացում ունենալ գիտական հետազոտության մեթոդաբանության մասին, քանի որ ինչպես ցույց է տալիս բարձրագույն կրթության ժամանակակից ուսումնական փորձը՝ այդպիսի հետազոտողների մոտ սկզբնական շրջանում ծագում են նախևառաջ մեթոդական և մեթոդաբանական բնույթի հարցեր:
8. Ժամանակակից գիտահետազոտական միտքը ձգտում է թափանցել ուսումնասիրվող առարկաների և երևույթների էության մեջ:
9. Գիտական հետազոտությամբ բավարար չէ միայն հաստատել գիտական նոր փաստ. կարևոր է դրան տալ

գիտական բացատրություն, ցույց տալ դրա ճանաչողական, տեսական կամ գործնական նշանակությունը:

10. Գիտության լեզվի հիմքը կազմում են տերմինաբանական բնույթի բառեր և բառակապակցություններ, որոնց մի մասը բերված է սույն ձեռնարկի հավելվածում:

✍ ***Render the following passage in English using the active vocabulary of the text.***

ՄԱԳԻՍՏՐՈՍԱԿԱՆ ԹԵԶԻ ՊԱՏՐԱՍՏՈՒՄԸ ԵՎ ՊԱՇՏՊԱՆՈՒԹՅՈՒՆԸ

Մագիստրոսական թեզի պատրաստումը և պաշտպանությունն իրականացվում են ԵՊՀ առկա ուսուցման համակարգի համար սահմանված ուսումնական գործընթացի կազմակերպման ժամանակացույցի համաձայն: Հեռակա ուսուցման համակարգում յուրաքանչյուր գործողություն իրականացվում է աղյուսակ 2-ում ներկայացված վերջնաժամկետից մեկ կիսամյակ ուշ:

Մագիստրոսական թեզի պատրաստման աշխատանքները կատարվում են գիտական ղեկավարի խորհրդատվությամբ և վերահսկողությամբ: Գիտական ղեկավարի պարտականություններն են.

ա) մագիստրոսական թեզի առաջադրանքի կազմում,

բ) թեզի կատարման աշխատանքային պլանի (ժամանակացույցի) կազմում և դրա իրականացման վերահսկողություն,

գ) թեմայի վերաբերյալ գրականության և այլ աղբյուրների ընտրության և օգտագործման համար առաջարկություններ կամ խորհրդատվություն,

դ) օգնություն ուսանողին՝ հետազոտության պլանի մշակման հարցում,

ե) խորհրդատվություն ուսանողին՝ մագիստրոսական թեզի կատարման բոլոր հարցերում՝ համաձայն խորհրդատվությունների համար ուսումնական ստորաբաժանման կողմից սահմանված կիսամյակային գրաֆիկի,

զ) ծանուցում ուսանողին՝ սույն կարգի դրույթների, պահանջների և գնահատման չափանիշների ու չափորոշիչների վերաբերյալ,

է) խորհրդատվություն (օգնություն) ուսանողին՝ ելույթի պատրաստման և պաշտպանության համար անհրաժեշտ ցուցադրական նյութերի ընտրության հարցում,

ը) թեզի վերաբերյալ գիտական ղեկավարի գրավոր կարծիքի կազմում:

Գիտական ղեկավարի կարծիքում արտացոլվում են.

ա) աշխատանքի արդիականությունը և կարևորությունը,

բ) ուսանողի՝ ինքնուրույն հետազոտություն կատարելու, տվյալներ մշակելու և հիմնավորված եզրակացություններ անելու կարողությունը,

գ) աշխատանքում գիտական, մեթոդական և/կամ գործնական նորույթ պարունակող տարրերի առկայությունը, դ) գործնական առաջարկությունների/երաշխավորություններ առկայությունը,

ե) կատարված աշխատանքի դրական կողմերը և թերությունները,

զ) թեզի ձևավորման համապատասխանությունը սույն կարգի պահանջներին,

է) երաշխավորություն թեզի հրապարակային պաշտպանության համար։

Մագիստրոսական թեզի նախապաշտպանությունն իրականացվում է մասնագիտացնող ուսումնական ստորաբաժանումում (միջամբիոնային հանձնախմբում)՝ ստորաբաժանման և մագիստրոսական ծրագրի ղեկավարների, ինչպես նաև ուսանողի գիտական ղեկավարի մասնակցությամբ։ Թեզի նախապաշտպանության ընթացքում գրագողության հայտնաբերման դեպքում (աշխատանքում այլ աղբյուրներից առանց հղման, զգալի չափով օգտագործված ցանկացած նյութ (տեքստ) համարվում է գրագողություն) աշխատանքը չի թույլատրվում հրապարակային պաշտպանության: Հրապարակային պաշտպանության ժամանակ գրագողության հայտնաբերման դեպքում աշխատանքը գնահատվում է «անբավարար»: Մագիստրոսական թեզի հրապարակային պաշտպանությունն իրականացվում է համաձայն ՀՀ ԿԳ նախարարության կողմից հաստատված կարգի:

Further reading

10 Truths a PhD Supervisor Will Never Tell You

There are some important dos and don'ts to bear in mind when choosing someone to oversee your doctoral thesis, advises Tara Brabazon (July 11, 2013).

My father used to tell a joke, over and over again. It was a classic outback Australian, Slim Dusty joke that – like the best dad jokes – I can't remember. But I do recall the punchline. "Who called the cook a bastard?" To which the answer was, "Who called the bastard a cook?" This riposte often comes to mind during discussions about doctoral supervision and candidature management. Discussions go on (and on and on) about quality, rig our ethics and preparedness. Postgraduates are monitored, measured and ridiculed for their lack of readiness or their slow progress towards completion. But inconsistencies and problems with supervisors and supervision are marginalised. In response, I think of my father's one-liner: Who called the supervisor a bastard? Who called the bastard a supervisor? To my mind, I never received any satisfactory, effective or useful supervision for my doctorate, research master's or two coursework master's that contained sizeable dissertation components. I found the supervisors remote and odd. A couple of them tried to block the submission of the theses to my institution. Indeed, on three separate occasions in my career, academics informed me that if I submitted this thesis, it would fail. The results that followed these warnings were a master of arts passed with distinction, a master of education with first-class honours and a dean's award, and a PhD passed without correction. I was left with the impression that these supervisors had no idea what they were doing. The worst supervisors share three unforgivable characteristics:

1. They do not read your writing
2. They never attend supervisory meetings
3. They are selfish, career-obsessed bastards

I am now an experienced supervisor and examiner, but I still remember my own disappointments. For the doctoral students who follow, I want to activate and align these personal events with the candidatures I have managed since that time. Particularly, I wish to share with the next generation of academics some lessons that I have learned about supervisors. As a prospective PhD student, you are precious. Institutions want you – they gain funding, credibility and profile through your presence. Do not let them treat you like an inconvenient, incompetent fool. Do your research. Ask questions. Use these 10 truths to assist your decision.

1. **The key predictor of a supervisor's ability to guide a postgraduate to completion is a good record of having done so.**

Ensure that at least one member of your supervisory team is a very experienced supervisor. Anyone can be appointed to supervise. Very few have the ability, persistence, vision, respect and doggedness to move a diversity of students through the examination process. Ensure that the department and university you are considering assign supervisors on the basis of intellectual ability rather than available workload. Supervising students to completion is incredibly difficult. The final few months require complete commitment from both supervisor and postgraduate. Make sure that you are being guided by a supervisor who understands the nature of effective supervision and has proved it through successful completions.

2. **You choose the supervisor. Do not let the institution overrule your choice.**

As a postgraduate who is about to dedicate three or four years to an institution, you have the right to select a supervisor with whom you feel comfortable. Yet increasingly, as the postgraduate bureaucracy in universities increases, administrators and managers "match" a prospective candidate with a supervisor. Do not let this happen. Do research on the available staff. Talk directly with individual academics. Ascertain their willingness to supervise you, and then inform the graduate centre or faculty graduate administrators of their commitment.

3. **Stars are attractive but may be distant. Pick a well-regarded supervisor who does not spend too much time away.**

It may seem a tough, unusual or impossible task to find a supervisor who has a strong profile but rarely goes away on research leave or disappears to attend conferences. Postgraduates need to be supervised by people with an international reputation whose name carries weight when they write references. But they must not be jet-setting professors, frequently leaving the campus and missing supervisory meetings to advance their own career. They must be established and well known, but available to supervise you rather than continually declining your requests for meetings because they are travelling to Oslo, Luanda or Hong Kong.

4. **Bureaucratic immunity is vital. Look for a supervisor who will protect you from "the system".**

There is an excessive amount of university doctoral administration. I understand and welcome the value in checking the ethical expenditure of public money; a programme of study

submitted in the first year and an annual progress report through the candidature will accomplish this task. But now we have to deliver milestone reports, public confirmations of candidature sessions, biannual progress reports, annual oral presentations of research and – in some universities – complete a form that must be signed off at the conclusion of every supervisory meeting.

Every moment a student is filling in a form is one less moment they are reading a book or article, or writing a key page in their doctorate. Time is finite. Bureaucracy is infinite. A good supervisor will protect you from the excesses of supervisory administration.

The irony of many graduate centres is that they initiate incredibly high demands on students and supervisors yet are incredibly lax during crucial periods of the candidature when a rapid administrative response is required. One of my postgraduates had to wait 16 months for a decision on her doctorate. Two examiners had returned timely reports and passed with minor corrections. The third academic, however, did not examine the thesis, did not submit any paperwork and did not respond to any communications. I sent email after email – made phone call after phone call – to the graduate centre trying to facilitate a resolution to this examination. Finally, after a rather intensive period of nagging, a decision was reached to accept the two reports and no longer wait for the third. The question remains – why did the graduate centre take 16 months to make this decision? If I had not phoned and emailed administrators, would they have forgotten about this student? A good supervisor must be an advocate for the postgraduate through the increasingly bureaucratised doctoral candidature.

5. Byline bandits abound. Study a potential supervisor's work.

Does your prospective supervisor write with PhD students? Good. Do they write almost exclusively with their PhD students? Not so good – in fact, alarm bells should start ringing. Supervision is a partnership. If your prospective supervisor appears to be adding his or her name to students' publications and writing very little independently, be concerned. Some supervisors claim co-authorship of every publication written during the candidature. Do not think that this is right, assumed, proper or the default setting. The authorship of papers should be discussed. My rule is clear: if I write it, it is mine. If you write it, it is yours. If we write it together, we share the authorship. It is important that every postgraduate finishes the candidature with as many publications as possible. Ask supervisors how they will enhance and facilitate your research and publishing career. Remember, you are a PhD student. Your supervisor should assist you to become an independent scholar, not make you into their unpaid research assistant.

6. Be wary of co-supervisors.

Most institutions insist on at least two supervisors for every student. This system was introduced not for scholarly reasons but to allay administrative fears. There is a concern that a supervisor might leave the institution, stranding the student, or that the supervisor and student might have a disagreement, again leaving the student without support.These arguments are like grounding all aircraft because there are occasional crashes. Too often I see an academic "added" to the team to beef up his or her workload. I have been in a university meeting where research-active professors were "added" to a supervisory panel not because they were excellent supervisors (far from it) but rather because they needed to boost their profile for the research assessment exercise.Certainly

there are many occasions where a co-supervisor is incredibly valuable, but this must be determined by their research contribution to the topic rather than by institutional convenience. I once supervised a fine thesis about Russian television. I had the expertise in television studies; a colleague held expertise in Russian studies and the Russian language. It was a great team. We met weekly as a group, with specialist meetings held with either of us as required to complete the doctorate. The candidate submitted in the minimum time.At times, an inexperienced co-supervisor is added to a team to gain "experience". That is, perhaps, understandable. But damage can be done to students through bad advice. I know of a disturbing case in which an inexperienced co-supervisor chose a relatively junior friend to examine a doctorate. Before the senior co-supervisor had been informed, this prospective external examiner had been approached and had agreed, and the paperwork had been submitted. Two years later, the candidate is still progressing with corrections. Each time he submits revisions that supposedly verify the concerns expressed during the oral examination, he is presented with another list because the inexperienced supervisor agreed to "corrections to the satisfaction of the examiner". This problem was caused by an overconfident but inexperienced co-supervisor being added to the team and then going on to appoint an overconfident but inexperienced examiner.Sometimes – in fact frequently – less is more. A strong relationship with a well-qualified, experienced and committed supervisor will ensure that the postgraduate will produce a strong thesis with minimum delay.

7. A supervisor who is active in the area of your doctorate can help to turbocharge your work.

Occasionally students select a "name" rather than a "name in the field". The appropriateness of a supervisor's field of research is

critical because it can save you considerable time. Supervisors who are reading, thinking and writing in the field can locate a gap in your scholarly literature and – at speed – provide you with five names to lift that section. A generalist will not be able to provide this service. As the length of candidatures – or more precisely the financial support for candidatures – shrinks and three years becomes the goal, your supervisor can save you time through sharing not only their experience but also their expertise.

8. A candidature that involves teaching can help to get a career off the ground.

In Australia, teaching with your supervisor is often the default pattern, and it is a good one. In the UK, tutoring is less likely to emerge because of budgetary restraints. But a postgraduate who does not teach through the candidature is unprepared to assume a full-time teaching post. Many doctoral candidates are already academics and are returning to study. Others work in a diversity of professions and have no intention of taking a job in a university. Therefore, this "truth" is not relevant. But for those seeking a career in academia who intend to use the doctorate as a springboard, teaching experience is crucial. A postgraduate may see themselves as a serious researcher. But it is teaching that will get them their first post (and probably their second and third). The ultimate supervisor is also an outstanding teacher who will train their postgraduates in writing curricula, managing assessment and creating innovative learning moments in a classroom. None of these skills is required for or developed by a doctorate. You can be supervised well without these teaching experiences. However, if you have a choice, select the supervisor who can "add value" to your candidature.

One of my proudest moments emerged in a tutors' meeting for my large first-year course at Murdoch University: creative

industries. I apologised to my tutors for the hard work and low pay that was a characteristic of sessional university employment. Mike Kent – who is now Dr Mike Kent and a tenured lecturer in internet studies at Curtin University – stated that the pay was an extra. He was being trained to teach. That was the value from the process. I still think tutors should be paid more, but I valued – and value – Mike's insight.

9. Weekly supervisory meetings are the best pattern.

There are two realities of candidature management. First, the longer the candidature, the less likely you are to finish. Second, a postgraduate who suspends from a candidature is less likely to submit a doctorate.The key attribute of students who finish is that they are passionately connected to their thesis and remain engaged with their research and their supervisor. I have always deployed weekly meetings as the best pattern for supervision to nurture this connection. There are reasons for this. Some postgraduates lack time-management skills and would prefer to be partying, facebooking or tweeting, rather than reading, thinking and writing. If students know that written work is expected each week, and they have to sit in an office with a supervisor who is evaluating their work, that stress creates productive writing and research. So if a meeting is held on a Thursday, then on Tuesday a student panics and does some work. Yet if meetings are fortnightly, this stress-based productivity is halved. It is better to provide a tight accountability structure for students. Weekly meetings accomplish this task.

10. Invest your trust only in decent and reliable people who will repay it, not betray it.

This truth may seem self-evident. But supervisors – like all academics – are people first. If the prospective supervisor needs a

personality replacement, lacks the life skills to manage a trip to the supermarket or requires electronic tagging so that he (or she) does not sleep with the spouses of colleagues, then make another choice. Supervisors should be functional humans. They can be – and should be – quirky, imaginative and original. That non-standard thinking will assist your project. But if there is a whiff of social or sexual impropriety, or if there are challenges with personal hygiene, back away in a hurry. At times during your candidature you will have to rely on this person. You will be sobbing in their office. You will need to lean on them. You must have the belief that they can help you through a crisis and not manipulate you during a moment of vulnerability. I knew a supervisor whose idea of supervision was a once-a-semester meeting in a bar where he would order three bottles of red wine and start drinking. The meeting ended when the wine finished. Another supervisor selected his postgraduates on the likelihood that the students would sleep with him. Yet another was so completely fixated by her version of feminism that all the doctorates completed under her supervision ended up looking incredibly similar. Any deviation from a particular political perspective would result in screaming matches in her office. This was not only unpleasant but destructive to the students' careers.

The key truth and guiding principle is evident

Do not select a supervisor who needs you more than you need him or her. Gather information. Arm yourself with these 10 truths. Ask questions. Make a choice with insight, rather than respond – with gratitude – to the offer of a place or supervision.

Comment on the following scenarios.

1. *I am ready to defend but my supervisor disagrees and wants me to produce "one more" publication. Can I submit*

my thesis for examination without my supervisor's approval?

Though the simple answer is *yes*, we would strongly advise against this. It is best practice that a student's thesis be approved by the supervisor and supervisory committee as ready to defend. After all, they are responsible for upholding the academic standards of the program, and (should) have been chosen for their expertise and experience. And if you disagree with their advice, you should reflect on the possibility they might be right. In this case, is the disagreement over the content of the thesis, or is it a matter of having enough publications to secure an appropriate post-doctoral position? Is your supervisor really trying to help, as opposed to simply trying to enhance his or her CV? Though you should ideally have discussed expectations concerning publications and length of program earlier than this, you might want to check around to see what normal expectations are in your graduate unit and discipline. What is the average time to degree in your unit? What is the average number of publications produced by a PhD student in your program? Though these data may not be formally collected and available, the graduate office should have a reasonable idea of what they are. And though a student may elect to proceed to examination without the full support of the supervisory committee, remember that committee members also play a role in your Final Oral Examination. Following the question period of the oral defence, all committee members will be asked to vote on whether the thesis and its defence are acceptable. If there is more than one negative vote or abstention at this point, the thesis examination will be adjourned. Though someone with unreasonable bias should not serve on the examination committee, the onus would be on you to show evidence of such a bias; the default assumption would be that they

were doing their job responsibly. So, it is risky to move forward without the full support of your supervisory committee. Keep in mind also that it is in everyone's best interest to see a PhD candidate succeed. Try to reach mutual agreement with your supervisory committee regarding what changes need to be made. Incorporate these changes as best you can, remembering at the same time that this is your PhD and that it has to be yours to defend through the examination process. Be aware that your supervisor and committee members are expected to encourage doctoral students to Graduate Supervision Guidelines, Second Edition 18 finish up when it would not be in their best interests to extend their program of study; at the same time, if the thesis or research needs more work, they should point this out. And if after considering all this, you still feel there is a problem, please do talk to your graduate coordinator or program chair/director.

2. *A PhD student under my supervision has shown some behaviour recently that worries me and is not what I associate with a successful graduate student. What should I do? Can I talk openly to the student about it?*

Early action is almost always preferable to letting a potential problem fester. But some care needs to be taken and, depending on the nature of the unusual behaviour, you might want to consult your graduate coordinator or us at SGS first. When you do talk to the student (as you will have to), remember you are in a position of power and your student may have various reasons for being cautious or worried about talking to you. Be objective, not judgmental, and do not try to diagnose the problem particularly if it seems at all complex. Restrict your approach to pointing out that you have observed behaviour that concerns you, and describe that

behaviour calmly and impersonally. Ask if the student is aware of anything that is interfering with his/her ability to be a student. It is alright to discuss a problem if the student is willing. You can say, "I do not know what the problem is, but I have noticed that [describe the observed behaviour]. I don't need to know the details; my job is to ensure that you are aware of any resources that might help you." If you suspect a health or disability issue that the student has not disclosed, you can begin by initiating dialogue. You can say, "I've noticed that you have difficulty with…", or "Have you struggled with… in any of your classes?" Discuss how the student's challenge or difficulty may impact their program and mention resources available to the student.

Points to consider:

- your ideas of a good supervisor;
- your experience working with the supervisor.

UNIT III

RESEARCH PAPER

A research paper is a piece of academic writing based on its author's original research on a particular topic, and the analysis and interpretation of the research findings. It can be either a term paper, a master's thesis or a doctoral dissertation.

In an academic program you learn how to carry out your own research, how to critically use scholarly resources, and how to present your ideas and results in a clear and structured way.

The research paper will allow you to develop a more complete understanding of the specific topical area that you have chosen. This is an upper level college course and you will be expected to write well.

Research paper requirements

1. A title page with:
   - the paper title
   - the author's name, the course, and the date
   - the supervisor's name (title, scientific degree)

2. A table of contents with:
   - chapters, subchapters that appear in the text
   - page number of these chapters and subchapters

3. A paragraph abstract

4. A research paper:
   - begins with an **Introduction**

- has a well organized **Body** divided into chapters and subchapters
- ends with a **Conclusion**

5. A reference or bibliography

6. If needed, an **Appendix** with the data used to construct the map or other information not cited in the text

The Stages of a Research Paper

Writing an academic research paper involves many individual tasks which can be grouped into different stages. A list of typical activities for each stage can be found below. In actual practice, stages are not discrete and will often overlap. However, thinking of your work in this way can help you plan for the many tasks involved.

Exploration: Develop interest in a topic, choose a topic, perform initial literature searches. **Literature Search:** Define the scope of your topic and your research questions more precisely, search for sources, obtain materials, decide which methodology to choose (field research, questionnaires, etc.), perform test experiments, check whether a certain topic is feasible. **Conceptualization:** Further define the question, narrow down the materials you will use based on your research objectives, plan experiments (if applicable), test questionnaires, obtain the main primary and secondary sources you will need for your paper.

Analysis and Evaluation: Analyze and critically examine your sources, perform experiments, compile your notes, begin conceptualizing the presentation of your results, revise the overall plan for and structure of your work.

Write and Edit: The actual writing process can further be divided into its own stages: *conceptualizing* - this stage of the writing process naturally overlaps with the *analysis and evaluation stages.* Here it's important to plan your work, create an outline, and determine the general direction your text will take. *Composing* - write a first draft, *editing* - in this stage you will make a great deal of revisions to both the content and structure of your text, *proofreading and formatting* - make corrections, improve the style and formatting, clean up the layout, print a final version.

Planning Your Paper

A paper or thesis needs to be submitted by a specific point in time. Although this deadline is usually defined for you, you sometimes can set your own. Often you do not have much time to complete a research paper or thesis and will simply be glad at the end to have somehow managed to finish your work by the deadline.

While you won't ever be able to avoid time crunches and stress entirely, a good plan can help. Just remember that you will need to revise your plan throughout the research process as something unexpected always comes up. With a realistic plan that takes into account the different stages of the research process and the writing process, you should be able to allow time at the end of your project for the important finishing touches that often have to be rushed through. Since the final phase of revision and proofreading has the most impact on the quality of your writing, making time for this stage will vastly improve your text. So, don't forget to set aside time for final revisions and also for printing your paper.

In empirical research that relies on questionnaires, data collection, or field research, you will also want to plan for all of the work that needs to be taken care of beforehand. Make sure to not

only allot time for data collection and evaluation. Depending on your research, you might also need to consider the time it will take to gain access to certain institutions, to locate test subjects, and to arrange interviews.

Writing a paper is a project. The word “project” is used to describe an undertaking outside of normal daily tasks that is a one-time occurrence with a defined end point. In a project you set out to meet a defined goal within a certain amount of time and with predetermined financial and personal resources.

Just like anything else in life, writing a paper does not always go according to plan. Very often your progress will be slower than you originally anticipated. It can also happen that you might need to spend more time on one particular aspect of your research or that you need to completely change the structure of your paper. You should be flexible and update your plan continuously as you go along. Plans should not be set in stone. Even with good planning, you still will not always be able to avoid time crunches and stress. This does not mean that you should abandon plans altogether; it simply means that you need to be aware of their limitations. You won’t be able to anticipate everything that might occur. When you plan you will be estimating how much time you need on average for a given task or phase of your work. Make sure to take practical matters into account as well. For example, finding the right books on your topic will likely take longer than one or two catalog searches and a single trip to the library. If an item you need is unavailable, you might need to invest considerable effort to obtain it another way. If you are going to make photocopies of a number of essays so that you can mark them up while reading, be aware that photocopying all those page could take a while. It makes sense to allow enough time for each individual step needed to complete a task. One big advantage of planning is that it gives you an

overview of what still needs to be done in your work and how far along you already are. A plan also helps you to break down your work into manageable chunks. It lets you check how much you've already completed and how far your work has progressed.

Coming Up with a Good Topic

In any paper, your topic is already predetermined to a certain extent by external factors. For example, if you need to choose a topic from a list provided to you by your professor, you do not need to come up with one on your own. For longer research papers, the choice of a topic is an important part of writing the paper. The difficulty involved in picking a single topic and narrowing it down is often underestimated. However, a narrowly-defined, specific topic will help you get a handle on your paper and will make the research process as a whole much easier.

After settling on a topic and narrowing it down, you will also need to define your research objectives as precisely as you can. The objectives should be defined in such a way that the topic fits the type and scope of paper you are writing. You should also make sure that you will likely be able to complete the project within the amount of time available — it makes a difference whether you are writing a research paper for a semester-long course or a dissertation on a specific topic. The types of objects you want to examine also play a role. The materials you will look at should relate to your topic and you should be able to analyze them with a reasonable amount of work. For example, for a semester long research project, you would not want to examine lexical variations in a group of ten medieval manuscripts housed at different libraries across the country. Instead, you might want to look at the lexical characteristics of one medieval manuscript available at your institution. Choosing a topic, narrowing it down, and defining the

objectives of your project are not tasks that can be completed all at once. Your topic and objectives will evolve as your interest in certain areas develops and as you continue to do exploratory reading. It will usually only be possible to formulate research questions after starting to work with your primary sources and as you begin exploring the relevant secondary literature. One difficulty can be that every topic has some connection to many other topics, but you cannot consider every possible connection. Even in a dissertation, you should not pursue every tangential connection to your topic. When writing a research paper, it's important to concentrate on just one aspect of a particular topic and to keep your defined objectives in mind.

Perhaps nothing is more embarrassing than being told that your paper has missed the point. To avoid wasting a lot of time and effort, you should consult with your advisor as early as possible about your topic and research objectives. The more concrete you can be in describing your plans and the steps you are taking, the more efficient and constructive your talk will be. To prepare for this consultation, it is helpful to bring along a couple documents. These should include a rudimentary outline for your paper and an overview of the sources that you want to use.

When preparing for and working on a research paper you will quickly accumulate a great deal of sources. To make it possible to find a source again and not get overwhelmed, you should search for these sources and save them in a systematic way.

It's never too soon to begin searching for sources. Even if you don't have time to really get started on your work, you can at least keep track of ideas you have or sources you run across by chance. When researching a topic you will analyze other academic sources that you will then use to support your own claims.

A cornerstone of every academic work is that readers should be able to verify the author's claims and see the sources and methods they are based on. For this reason, proper citation plays a key role. In many disciplines, certain citation conventions have arisen over time. It is critical that the reader of your paper can easily tell what sources informed your work, what your own work is, and what you have directly taken from other sources. Copying a passage from another text without making it clear that you have done so isn't just sloppiness (*Whoops! I just forgot the quotation marks!*). Instead, it's a major breach of academic integrity. It's also dishonest to cite a source that you found within another source but that you did not consult yourself. If there's no way around it because it is impossible to get a copy of the original source, you can cite a secondary quotation, but you need to make it clear where you obtained it.

When you present the work of someone else under your name as if it were your own, you are committing ***plagiarism.*** For this reason, your department will often require a formal declaration that you have done your own work when you submit a thesis or dissertation.

I. Answer the following questions.

1. What requirements must a research paper meet?
2. What stages does a research paper include in actual practice?
3. Enumerate the stages of the actual writing process.
4. What is empirical research based on and how should time be allocated in a research paper?
5. What factors can set back a person from his/her preconceived idea?
6. What is the first and foremost advantage of thinking of a plan?

7. What factor makes the research process a lot easier?
8. What is the paramount difference between working on a dissertation and a semester-long research?
9. What is the role of the objectives in a research process?
10. What is the trouble of examining a topic by reading a variety of literature?
11. What is the structure of planning a research work?
12. What should be done to have an efficient and constructive work in the end?

II. Choose the correct option.

1. Research implies…

a) to inquire
b) to revise smth
c) to outlaw

2. Research worker is someone doing …

a) full-time teaching
b) full-time teaching and researching
c) full-time researching

3. Research student is someone conducting...

a) research under supervision
b) research in the natural science
c) part-time research

4. Research fellow is a postgraduate doing…

a) research for a certain period
b) research and teaching being granted a special scholarship
c) academic work under the direction of a supervisor.

5. Researcher is someone who carries out...

a) full time research

b) only a full time academic work

c) research as well as teaching

6. A typical thesis consists of …

a) a title page, an abstract, a table of contents, bibliography

b) a title page, an abstract, a table of contents, acknowledgements

c) a title page, an abstract, a table of contents, chapters, conclusion, bibliography

7. The title page is located …

a) after a table of contents

b) after an abstract

c) at the front

8. The title page of a thesis contains …

a) the title of the work, the name of the author

b) the title of the work, the name of the author, identification information

c) the title of the work, the name of the author, academic credentials,department name, the name of university

9. A table of contents is headed…

a) contempt

b) concepts

c) contents

10. In thesis the contents is located…

a) in the normal position

b) on the front cover

c) at the beginning

11. A bibliography is…
a) the examination and inquiry of books
b) the critique and analyses of books
c) the study and the description of nbooks

13. VIVA means
a) a defense
b) a question
c) an oral exam

12. A thesis defense is called…
a) vivate
b) vivari
c) viva

III. Give the Armenian equivalents of the following word-combinations:
an academic research paper; different stages; obtain materials; decide which methodology to choose; perform test experiments; conceptualization; narrow down the materials;research objectives; test questionnaires; the structure of your work; create an outline; proofreading and formatting; clean up the layout; print a final version; to finish work by the deadline; to avoid time crunches and stress; to take into account the different stages of the research process; the final phase of revision and proofreading; empirical research; data collection; predetermine financial and personal resources; a particular topic; to carry out a research paper; use scholarly resources critically; to present the ideas and results in a clear way; an abstract; many individual tasks which can be grouped into different stages; to define the scope of a topic; to revise the overall plan and structure of work; revisions to both the content

and structure of the text; external factors; pursue every tangential connection; to do exploratory reading; submit a thesis or dissertation.

IV. Give the English equivalents of the following word-combinations:

կուրսային աշխատանք, որոշակի թեմայի լիարժեք ընկալում, ձեզանից ակնկալվում է գրել հետազոտական աշխատանք, հետազոտական աշխատանքի պահանջներ, գիտական ղեկավար, հավելված, փուլերը իրարից անջատ չեն և հաճախ մասամբ համընկնում են, ստուգել արդյոք թեման իրագործելի է, ձեռք բերել առաջնային և երկրորդական աղբյուրներ, ուսանողի ինքնուրույն հետազոտություն, մագիստրոսի ընդհանուր գիտական կուլտուրա, աշխատասիրություն, բանիմացություն, ժամանակակից գիտության նվաճումներին քաջատեղյակություն, ինքնուրույն հետազոտության արդյունքները, օգտագործված գրականության ցանկ:

V. Write the correct form of the words.

1. Graduate students are commonly required to perform ….. research as part of a dissertation. **ORIGINATE**
2. …. .can only confirm or reject the hypothesis underpinning your study. **FIND**
3. A research paper presents the results of your investigations on a …. .topic. **SPECIFICITY**
4. Always be sure that your paper meets the assigned page ….. , plus foot/endnotes and bibliography, using standard one-inch margins, 12-point font and double spacing. **REQUIRE**

5. The review is based to a large extent on searches primarily in the database, which focuses in the main on….. journals. **SCHOLAR**
6. ….. is a section or table of subsidiary matter at the end of a book or document. **APPEND**
7. ….. should simply the answer to the question 'Why:' why you choose that topic for research; why it is important; why you adopted a particular method or approach. **INTRODUCTORY**
8. Our contribution is thus an ..... of the language design space rather than a theoretical investigation of properties of these models. **EXPLORER**
9. Students largely chose to undertake their own project, refining the question and its scope during their first term with their …. **SUPERVISION**
10. We therefore suggest that the encoding of ..... category representations be added as a fifth challenge for cognitive neuroscience. **DISCRETIZE**

VI. Paraphrase the following sentences.

1. Research papers are similar to academic essays, but they are usually longer and more detailed assignments, designed to assess not only your writing skills but also your skills in scholarly research.
2. You will probably revise and refine the thesis statement as you do more research, but it can serve as a guide throughout the writing process.
3. This step-by-step guide takes you through the entire writing process, from understanding your assignment to proofreading your final draft.
4. In applied domains such as quality improvement, some papers are written based on projects that were undertaken for

operational reasons, and not with the primary aim of producing new knowledge.

5. A study does not necessarily have to break completely new ground, but it should extend previous knowledge in a useful way, or alternatively refute existing knowledge.
6. If you're having a hard time coming up with some scholars on your own, it can be incredibly helpful to talk to a professor in your department about potential supervisors.
7. The answers to these questions will probably eliminate a few potential supervisors from your list leaving you ready for the next step.
8. Many students who plagiarize do so unintentionally, often because they don't have the academic skills to avoid over-reliance on the work of others or because they aren't sure what constitutes plagiarism.
9. It is important to learn how to reference well, that is, how to consciously and clearly acknowledge the sources you have used in your work so that your own contribution can be clearly identified and appreciated.
10. This guide walks you through everything you need to do to write an effective, impactful research paper and get the good grade.

VII. Look through the text again and find the equivalents of the following word-combinations:

any kind of academic writing; detailed examination of the elements or structure of something; the action of explaining the meaning of something; information discovered as the result of an inquiry or investigation; a document submitted in support of candidature for an academic degree or professional qualification; organized so that the parts relate well to each other; a short summary of your

published or unpublished research paper; the use of a source of information in order to ascertain something, thorough examination of a subject; the action or process of forming a concept or idea of something.

VIII. Match the words with their explanations.

1. proofreading	a. limited time to complete work; meeting a deadline
2. empirical	b. the most important part of something that the rest depends on
3. to allot	c. reading and correcting a piece of written or printed work
4. time crunch	d. dealing with only the most basic matters or ideas
5. chunk	e. the fact of showing a lack of care, though or effort
6. rudimentary	f. based on experiments or experience rather than ideas or theories
7. cornerstone	g. to give money/time, etc. as a share of what is available
8. sloppiness	h. an act of copying another person's ideas, thoughts and pretend they are your own
9. tangential	i. a fairly large amount of something
10. plagiarism	j. having only a slight, indirect connection with something
11. summary	k. An article that critically examines a new book or any other piece of writing

12.abstract	l. A research project proposed for funding
13.Review	m. A short account of a research paper
14.conference abstract	n. A relatively short piece of research usually published in a journal or a volume
15.research paper	o. A shortened version of a text aimed at giving the most important information or ideas of the text
16.grant proposal	p. A short account of a conference paper

IX.Match the phrasal verbs and expressions with their Armenian equivalents.

1. to come up with	a. հաշվի առնել
2. to come up	b. վերջնական որոշել
3. to set aside	c. հանդես գալ
4. to set out	d. հետը վերցնել
5. to go along	e. անսպասելի պատահել
6. to break down	f. մի կողմ դնել
7. to settle on	g. շարունակել
8. to narrow down	h. սկսել
9. to bring along	i. բաժանել
10.to take into account	j. հստակեցնել

X. Fill in the gaps with the words in their necessary forms.

topic, outline, rudimentary, consultation, to overwhelm, to embarrass, tangential, handle, reason, whole.

1. Yesterday John had an appointment with his GP and had his regular …. .
2. But for is ….. evidence Jessica would not be set free so soon.
3. While having a look at his paper I had a …. .doubt that he had plagiarized.
4. His vast contribution to the company proved that they were a … .
5. Mary was terribly …. .to find out that she had been rejected and her work was a real failure.
6. It was a very ugly incident but we ….. it.
7. The president's ….. argument was not that convincing.
8. Having a good command of Spanish is ….. to get this job.
9. Before starting the project present me the … ..of it and then go along.
10. The Revolution is still ….. in the world.

XI. Translate into Armenian.

1. Copyright law involves many complex issues that are relevant to you as a graduate student, both in protecting your own work and in referencing the work of others.
2. Writing a research paper involves four main stages: choosing a topic, researching your topic, making an outline, and doing the actual writing.
3. Asking a professor for help may seem frightening, but if they are worth anything as a professor, they want you to be successful with your work, and will do what they can to make that happen.

4. Although the way that you decide to convey the information is up to you, remember that these papers will be graded on content, style, grammar, writing ability, and thoroughness of research—so by following the instruction detailed below you will save yourself a lot of frustration.
5. Research papers address a specific research question, either through the analysis of data you compile (analytical paper) or through the comparison of the results of current research (comparative paper).
6. Computers are making it easier to get information and represent it as your own, but they also make it easier for people to check up on suspect material.
7. The Introduction must introduce the topic, address what points will be covered, state the time frame, and any other information that will help the reader understand the point of the research.
8. A research paper is the culmination and final product of an involved process of research, critical thinking, source evaluation, organization, and composition.
9. A writer can learn a great deal about an interesting subject through the process of writing a research paper. Being prepared and knowing how to find and use sources will make the journey less stressful.
10. Reading the abstracts of books and articles is a fast way to garner if an article is worth reading for possible use. The abstract is located at the beginning of an article and will contain a synopsis of the information contained in the article.

XII. Translate into English.

1. Թեզի նախապաշտպանության ընթացքում գրագողության հայտնաբերման դեպքում (աշխատանքում այլ աղբյուրներից առանց հղման, զգալի չափով օգտագործված ցանկացած նյութ համարվում է գրագողություն) աշխատանքը չի թույլատրվում հրապարակային պաշտպանության:
2. Մագիստրոսական թեզի հրապարակային պաշտպանությունն իրականացվում է համաձայն ՀՀ ԿԳ նախարարության կողմից հաստատված կարգի:
3. Գրախոսի կարծիքը ընթերցում է ամփոփիչ ատեստավորման հանձնաժողովի անդամներից որևէ մեկը, շրջանավարտը պատասխանում է արված դիտողություններին:
4. Ստացված արդյունքները հանդիսանում են առաջադրված խնդիրների լուծումներ և պարունակում են գիտական, մեթոդական կամ գործնական նորույթ:
5. Հրապարակային պաշտպանության ժամանակ գրագողության հայտնաբերման դեպքում աշխատանքը գնահատվում է «անբավարար»:
6. Օգտագործիր քո նախընտրած որոնման համակարգը/մեխանիզմը՝ ղեկավարի մասին առավել շատ տեղեկություն ստանալու համար:
7. Ներկաների կողմից կայացված որոշմանը անհամաձայնություն հայտնելու դեպքում գրավոր ներկայացվում է հատուկ կարծիք, որը կցվում է արձանագրությանը:

8. Ստացված արդյունքների վերլուծության հիման վրա արված են համապատասխան եզրակացություններ և առաջարկություններ:
9. Բոլոր հղումներում, մեջբերումներում պետք է նշվեն հեղինակի, աշխատության անվանումը, հրատարկչության վայրը, տարեթիվը և էջը (էջերը)՝ բնագրի լեզվով:
10. Էլեկտոնային նյութերից հղումներ կատարելիս պետք է նշել էլեկտրոնային կայքի հասցեն, այդ կայքի այն որոշակի էջը, որից կատարվել է հղումը, ինչպես նաև վերջին դիտման ամսաթիվը:

✍ ***Render the following passages in English.***

ԳՐԱԳՈՂՈՒԹՅՈՒՆ

Գիտության, գիտականության և գիտական էթիկայի ամենամեծ «թշնամին», թերևս, գրագողությունն է: Այն ակադեմիական կանոնների խախտման ամենաշատ հանդիպող ձևերից մեկն է: Ավելին, ինչպես նկատում են որոշ մասնագետներ, տեղեկատվական տեխնոլոգիաների զարգացումը հանգեցրել է գրագողության ձևերի, միջոցների բազմազանեցման ու կատարելագործման, և այսօր արդեն «մի՛ խաբիր» արտահայտությունը փոխարինվել է «մի՛ բացահայտվիր» արտահայտությամբ: Գրագողությունը մեծ մարտահրավեր է և ահազանգ ակադեմիական միջավայրին ու, առաջին հերթին, գիտակրթական հաստատություններին, քանի որ այդ կերպ, մի կողմից, ոտնահարվում են հե-

ղինակային սեփականության իրավունքներն ու գիտական էթիկան, իսկ մյուս կողմից, որպես գողության և խաբեության ձև՝ գրագողությունը ոտնահարում է անձի արժանապատվությունը և հանրային բարոյականության նորմերը: Բացի դրանից, գրագողության լայն տարածումն ու դրա միջոցների, ձևերի կատարելագործումն արժեզրկում են գիտությունն ու գիտական գործունեությունն ընդհանրապես. փաստորեն, գիտական գործունեությամբ զբաղվողը երաշխավորված չէ, որ իր երկար տարիների մտավոր, ստեղծագործական աշխատանքի արդյունքը «հրաշքով» չի յուրացվի մեկ ուրիշի կողմից:

Select two dissertations from different disciplines.

- compare the two texts, noting their similarities and differences in terms of length, purpose, audience, and structure;
- look carefully at the language and organization of the two texts. Can you identify a series of stages (e.g. an introduction, body and conclusion)? What are the key language features?

Further reading

PLAGIARISM

Plagiarism is taking the works of others and using them as if they were your own. Such works include:

1. Words or ideas from printed literature such as journal papers, magazine articles, books, newspapers, web pages, computer programmes, etc.;
2. Published figures, tables, diagrams, illustrations, charts, maps, pictures or other visual materials;

3. Information from interviews, etc.

Plagiarism comes in three forms:

- Copying full sentences or even paragraphs straight from the source as though they are the student's own work;
- Using the original wording from the source material without inverted commas or indentation, even if the source is acknowledged.
- Paraphrasing without acknowledgement.

Usually, a change in style alerts the reader to the possibility of plagiarism. Examiners are likely to know the literature and recognise the plagiarism, but it is also true that it sometimes goes by undetected. It is now possible to detect plagiarism by simply searching a small string of words on the Internet. Additionally, plagiarism-checking software programmes, such as Turnitin, are also widely available. These programmes produce Originality Reports, which list the percentage of similarity between the student's words and the source. Even excerpts with minimal alterations will be detected. Plagiarism is considered form of theft, and is under no circumstances acceptable in the world of scholarship. As such, if plagiarism is proven in a thesis at the examination stage, the thesis is automatically failed and the students' candidature terminated.

The key to avoiding plagiarism is to make sure credit is given where it is due when incorporating another writer's work. Students should do this even when the original source is paraphrased or summarised. When quoting a published or verbal statement, it must be identical to the original and must be attributed to the original author. Always cite the authors whose published works or statements are used in the thesis. The usage of materials such as diagrams and figures which are available on the internet or

published articles without the permission of the copyright owners is an infringement of copyright and is not allowed.

Plagiarism Typology

1. **Complete plagiarism:** a text is copied without any changes and without citations.
2. **Self-plagiarism:** the author steals from himself or herself by using passages from a previous paper without making it obvious that the passage was already published. How should previous work be cited? Include a citation and your own name just as you would when citing any other source.
3. **Structural plagiarism**: although everything is written in your own words, you copy another author's thought process and the structure of their arguments.
4. **Translation plagiarism:** passages are translated into the language the paper is written in without a proper citation.
5. **Collage method:** fragments from various sources are copied and reassembled in a new way without citations. Although the text is new, its components have been plagiarized.
6. **Camouflaging:** another author's sentences and thoughts are written in different words with no mention of the original source. One rule of thumb: even if you use different wording to describe an idea, it's still not your own.
7. **Paraphrasing plagiarism**: the ideas of another author are summarized without attribution. When paraphrasing, the exact wording cannot be identical and the original source must be cited.
8. **Sacrificing a pawn:** you cite a portion of another author's ideas but then copy additional text without citing it. As always, every thought and sentence that is not your own requires citation.

Points to consider:

- content of the dissertation, thesis;
- introductory part (topicality and novelty of the research);
- methods of scientific analysis applied;
- findings (results);
- practical application (possibility for further research).

UNIT IV

COMPUTER TECHNOLOGIES IN DOING RESEARCH

Computers have always assisted to solve the problems faced by the mankind since the time of invention, the size of the computers have drastically reduced from that of a room to that can be accommodated in a human palm. The word computer means something which computes or a machine for performing calculations automatically, but, today computer means not merely a calculator. It does vast variety of jobs with tremendous speed and efficiency. Today people use computers in almost every walk of life. Electronic computers have now become an indispensable part of every profession: so do research. Computers have a very important role to play in all research activities.

The importance of computers in scientific research is exceptionally high and the use of a computer can help scientific research immensely, and is an almost invaluable tool. There are many reasons why computers are so important in scientific research and here are some of the main reasons: SPEED: computer can process numbers and information in a very short time. So researcher can process and analyze data quickly. By saving time researcher can conduct further research. A calculation that may take a person several hours to process will take computer mere minutes, if not seconds. ACCURACY: Computer is incredibly accurate. Accuracy is very much important in scientific research. Wrong calculation could result an entire research or project being filled with incorrect information. ORGANIZATION: We can store millions of pages of information by using simple folders, word processors & computer programs. Computer is more productive & safer than using a paper filing system in which anything can be

easily misplaced. CONSISTENCY: computer cannot make mistakes through “tiredness” or lack of concentration like human being. This characteristic makes it exceptionally important in scientific research.

Research process consists of series of actions or steps necessary to effectively carry out research and the desired sequencing of these steps. The following order concerning various steps provides a useful procedural guideline regarding the research process:

(1) formulating the research problem;

(2) extensive literature survey;

(3) developing the hypothesis;

(4) preparing the research design;

(5) determining sample design;

(6) collecting the data;

(7) execution of the project;

(8) analysis of data;

(9) hypothesis testing;

(10) generalisations and interpretation;

(11) preparation of the report or presentation of the results, i.e., formal write-up of conclusions reached.

There are five major phases of the research process. They are: 1. conceptual phase 2. design and planning phase 3. data collection phase 4. data analysis phase and 5. research publication phase.

There are various computer applications used in scientific research. Some of the most important applications used in scientific research are data storage, data analysis, scientific simulations, instrumentation control and knowledge sharing. Data Storage Experimentation is the basis of scientific research. Every experiment in any of the natural sciences generates a lot of data that needs to be stored and analyzed to derive important

conclusions, to validate or disprove hypotheses. Computers attached with experimental apparatuses, directly record data as it's generated and subject it to analysis through specially designed software. Data storage is possible in SPSS data file, lotus spreadsheet, excel spreadsheet, ASCII/DOS text file etc. Analyzing tons of statistical data is made possible using specially designed algorithms that are implemented by computers. This makes the extremely time-consuming job of data analysis to be a matter of a few minutes. In genetic engineering, computers have made the sequencing of the entire human genome possible. Data from different sources can be stored and accessed via computer networks set up in research labs, which makes collaboration simpler. Scientific Simulations One of the prime uses of computers in pure science and engineering projects is the running of simulations. A simulation is a mathematical modeling of a problem and a virtual study of its possible solutions. Problems which do not yield themselves to experimentation can be studied through simulations carried out on computers. For example, astrophysicists carry out structure formation simulations, which are aimed at studying how large-scale structures like galaxies are formed. Space missions to the Moon, satellite launches and interplanetary missions are first simulated on computers to determine the best path that can be taken by the launch vehicle and spacecraft to reach its destination safely. Instrumentation Control Most advanced scientific instruments come with their own on-board computer, which can be programmed to execute various functions. For example, the Hubble Space Craft has its own onboard computer system which is remotely programmed to probe the deep space. Instrumentation control is one of the most important applications of computers. Knowledge Sharing Through Internet Lastly, in the form of Internet, computers have provided an entirely new way to share

knowledge. Today, anyone can access the latest research papers that are made available for free on websites. Sharing of knowledge and collaboration through the Internet, has made international cooperation on scientific projects possible. Through various kinds of analytical software programs, computers are contributing to scientific research in every discipline, ranging from biology to astrophysics, discovering new patterns and providing novel insights. When the work in neural network based artificial intelligence advances and computers are granted with the ability to learn and think for themselves, future advances in technology and research will be even more rapid.

Use of computer in research in science is so extensive that it is difficult to conceive today a scientific research project without computer. Many research studies cannot be carried out without use of computer particularly those involving complex computations, data analysis and modeling. Computer in scientific research is used at all stages of study-from proposal/budget stage to submission/presentation of findings.

I. Answer the following questions.

1. How does technology affect research?
2. What is the role of computers in research?
3. Why computers are so important in scientific research?
4. What steps are necessary to effectively carry out research?
5. How many major phases of the research process are there?
6. What is the importance of computer application?
7. What are the benefits of computer to the society?
8. What are the disadvantages of computer in the society?
9. Do computers bring more benefits or problems in society?
10. What are the top Reasons to Study Computer Science or IT?

II. Give the Armenian equivalents of the following word-combinations:

an indispensable part of every profession; to formulate the research problem; execution of the project; provide insights; interplanetary missions; execute various functions; problems faced by the mankind; drastically reduced; performing calculations automaticall; tremendous speed and efficiency; electronic computers; a computer can process numbers and information; wrong calculation; “tiredness” or lack of concentration; the desired sequencing of these steps; a useful procedural guideline; regarding the research process;formulating the research problem; extensive literature survey; developing the hypothesis; preparing the research design;determining sample design; collecting the data;execution of the project; analysis of data; hypothesis testing; generalisations and interpretation; various computer applications; data storage; scientific simulations; instrumentation control and knowledge sharing; to validate or disprove hypotheses; to be implemented by computers; submission/presentation of findings.

III. Give the English equivalents of the following word-combinations:

հայեցակարգային փուլ, արհեստական բանականություն, գրականության ծավալուն ուսումնասիրություն, հետազոտություն իրականացնել, ստեղծման ժամանակից ի վեր, մանրամասն զննել, կտրուկ նվազել, համակարգչային տեխնոլոգիա, էլեկտրոնային հասցե, հաշվողական լեզվաբանություն, հաշվողական իմաստաբանություն, հաշվողական մեքենաներ, վիճակագրական վերլուծություն, մեքենայացված ուսուցում, կորպուս և գնահատումներ, մեքենայական և մեխանիկական գնահատումներ, գնահատման հա-

բացույցեր, հիշողության վրա հիմնված, տեխնոլոգիական առաջխազացում, խոսքի ցուցիչ, բազմազան աղբյուրներ, տեղեկատվական ոլորտ, ինֆորմացիոն-հաշվողական համակարգեր, ձեւակերպել հետազոտական խնդիրը, գրականության ընդարձակ հետազոտություն, պատրաստել հետազոտական նախագիծ, եզրակացությունների պաշտոնական գրառում, հայեցակարգային փուլ, տվյալների հավաքագրման փուլ, հետազոտության հրապարակման փուլ, տվյալների վերլուծության ժամանակատար աշխատանք, փորձարարական ապարատներ, գենետիկական ճարտարագիտություն, հնարավոր լուծումների գործնական ուսումնասիրություն, կատարել տարբեր գործառույթներ, մուտք գործել վերջին հետազոտական աշխատանքներ, գիտական հետազոտական նախագիծ՝ առանց համակարգչի:

IV. Match each word with the correct definition.

1. research 2. tremendous 3. to store 4. to access 5. spreadsheet 6. accuracy 7. genetic 8. to validate 9. hypothesis 10. to disprove	a. an electronic document in which data is arranged in the rows and columns b. belonging or relating to origin c. a detailed study of a subject, especially in order to discover new information to prove that something is not true d. to make something officially acceptable or approved e. obtain or retrieve computer data or a file f. very great in amount, scale, or intensity g. the quality or state of being correct or precise

	h. keep or accumulate things in a special use for future use i. an idea or explanation for something that is based on known facts but has not yet been proved j. to prove that something is not true

V. Fill in the missing words.

1. Computational linguistics explores how computers might be used to…..process and interpret human language. 2. Research in this area considers the mathematical and….. characteristics of natural language, and develops algorithms and statistical processes for automatic language processing. 3. Whilst computer science, mathematics and linguistics provide a theoretical basis for computational linguistics, the central concern of the subject is the creation of….to process and analyse linguistic content. 4. Computational linguists create…..models or apply methods from Artificial Intelligence (AI) to achieve a particular technological result. 5. Computational Linguistics is an attempt to manufacture the keys to a library containing the sum total of human….. and experience.

automatically; statistical; logical; algorithms; knowledge.

VI. Paraphrase the following sentences.

1. The importance of computers in scientific research is exceptionally high and the use of a computer can help scientific research immensely, and is an almost invaluable tool.
2. Wrong calculation could result an entire research or project being filled with incorrect information.

3. Research process consists of series of actions or steps necessary to effectively carry out research and the desired sequencing of these steps.
4. Data from different sources can be stored and accessed via computer networks set up in research labs, which makes collaboration simpler.
5. When the work in neural network based artificial intelligence advances and computers are granted with the ability to learn and think for themselvegs, future advances in technology and research will be even more rapid.

VII. Translate into Armenian.

1. While Internet sources can be a valuable addition to research, no more than 1/2 of sources cited can be Internet web pages.
2. Remember that the ease with which you found the Internet information also makes it easy for me to check these sites for accuracy and relevance.
3. The rapid development of information and communication technologies allows to realize two main principles of the future education system: the principle of availability and continuity principle.
4. Computer technology training involves the use of computer technology along with specialized software.
5. Modern computer technologies including the Internet involve the development and introduction of innovative ethodological approaches to the training system as a whole.
6. Computational linguistics is a general field which encompasses many aspects of psychology, linguistics, logic and computer science. It is concerned with helping computers understand linguistic issues in order to become better at

automating aspects of translation, generation, speech and comprehension.

7. Machine translation has always been a major goal of computational linguistics, and one in which the field has made enormous strides.
8. Computational linguistics also plays a large role in automated grammar correction systems, such as those integrated into most popular word processors.
9. Natural language processing (NLP) develops methods for solving practical problems involving language.
10. The field of computational linguistics (CL), together with its engineering domain of natural language processing (NLP), has exploded in recent years. It has developed rapidly from formal linguistics into a thriving scientific discipline. It has also become an important area of industrial development.

VIII. Translate into English.

1. Այսօր աշխարհում հաշվողական գիտությունը ներդրված է բառացիորեն ցանկացած ոլորտում: Հիմքում ընկած է աշխարհը մոդելների միջոցով ուսումնասիրելու գաղափարը:
2. Ընդհանրապես հաշվողական մտածելակերպը խնդիրները լուծելու մոտեցում է, որն իր մեջ ներառում է մոդելավորում, օրինաչափությունների բացահայտում, աբստրակցիա, խնդրի մասնատում և այլն:
3. Հաշվողական լեզվաբանությունը համակարգչային գիտության և լեզվաբանության միջև ընկած ոլորտ է, որը զբաղվում է բնական լեզուների կառուցվածքների

ուսումնասիրությամբ և մոդելավորմամբ: Այն երբեմն համարում են նաև արհեստական բանականության ճյուղ:

4. Հաշվողական հասարակագիտությունը հասարակագիտության ճյուղ է, որն օգտագործում է հաշվողական մեթոդներ հասարակական երևույթներն ուսումնասիրելու և մոդելավորելու համար: Այս ոլորտի մաս է սոցիալական ցանցերի վերլուծությունը, որն ուսումնասիրում է հասարակական կապերն ու կառուցվածքները՝ հիմնվելով սոցիալական ցանցերի միջոցով հասանելի դարձած տվյալների վրա:
5. Արդյո՞ք արհեստական բանականությունը պարզն է մարդկությանը, թե՞ անեծք. այս բանավեճը արդեն երկար ժամանակ է, ինչ քննարկվում է և շարունակում է արդիական մնալ:
6. Արհեստական բանականության հնարավոր ազդեցությունների մասին շրջանառվող կարծքիները տարաբնույթ են և աչքի են ընկնում ինչպես լավատեսական, այնպես էլ վատատեսական միտումներով:
7. Արհեստական սուպերբանականությունը կամ գերբանականությունը մեքենայական բանականություն է, որը գերազանցում է մարդու բանականությունը ցանկացած խնդրում: Հաճախ ապագայի վերաբերյալ կանխատեսումներում հիմնական մտավախությունները կապված են հենց արհեստական սուպերբանականության հետ:
8. ՏՀՏ-ի օգտագործումը թույլ է տալիս ակտիվացնել ճանաչողական գործունեությունը, հնարավորություն է

տալիս ձևավորել ուսանողների հաղորդակցական և տեղեկատվական իրավասությունները, քանի որ ուսանողները դառնում են դասի ակտիվ մասնակիցներ:

9. Ժամանակակից հասարակության մեջ տեղեկատվական գործընթացները մարդու և հասարակության կյանքի կարևորագույն բաղադրիչներից են:
10. Համակարգչային հեռահաղորդակցման համակարգը կենդանի տեղեկատվական միջավայր է, որում բոլոր մարդիկ հավասար հնարավորություններ ունեն մուտք ունենալու հսկայական տեղեկատվական աղբյուրներ:

✍ ***Render the following passage in English.***

Ժամանակակից տեխնոլոգիաների հարուցած բազմաթիվ գլոբալ, այդ թվում՝ բնապահպանական խնդիրների մեջ արևմուտքում օրեցօր աճում է այն հարցերի հրատապությունը, որոնք կապված են «հասարակության քոմփյութերացման» հետ: Իր մի շարք յուրահատկություններով համակարգիչը առանձնահատուկ և կարևոր նշանակություն է ստանում: Լինելով 20-րդ դարի վերջի ամենաբարդ տեխնոլոգիաներից մեկը՝ այն միաժամանակ ամենատարածվածներից է, իսկ իր ապագա ազդեցությունների հնարավորությամբ՝ ապահովաբար առաջինը: Երբ մարդկային գործունեության գրեթե բոլոր ձևերը այս կամ այն չափով միջնորդված են համակարգչային սարքավորումներով, այն դադարում է սոսկ հզոր տեխնիկական միջոց լինելուց և դառնում ընկերային կյանքի վրա մեծապես ազդող գործոն, արմատական հասարակական փոփոխությունների զորեղ

խթան: Իր կարևորությամբ համակարգիչների արդյունաբերությունը արդեն մրցում է ավտոմեքենաների արդյունաբերության հետ, բայց համակարգիչների և ավտոմեքենաների համեմատությունը ավելի խորին շերտեր ունի: Այդ համեմատությունը հաճախ կատարվում է ընդգծելու համար սպասվող մեծ և անկռահելի փոփոխությունները, որոնք ի հայտ կգան համակարգիչների հետագա տարածման հետ: Որևէ տեխնիկական միջոցի հիմնական հետևանքները սովորաբար երևան են գալիս միայն այն բանից հետո, երբ նրա ներկայությունը վճռական չափերի է հասնում: Այդպես եղավ ավտոմեքենաների դեպքում, որոնց համընդհանուր տարածումը այնպիսի խնդիրներ առաջացրեց, որ նախապես անգուշակելի էին և որոնց լուծումը պահանջեց մեծագույն վերափոխումներ թե՛ հասարակական կազմակերպման ձևերի, թե՛ հենց քաղաքների կառուցվածքի մեջ: Իսկ ժամանակակից քաղաքների անլուծելի խնդրի՝ ավտոմեքենաների արտամղած գազերի պատճառած վնասների մասին ոչ ոք չէր կարող ենթադրել անգամ: Ինչ վերաբերում է «հասարակության քոմփյութերացման» հետ կապված խնդիրներին, ապա այդ ընթացքի մեջ արդեն նկատվել են բազմաթիվ հեգնական անկանոնություններ: Դրանցից մեկը կապված է լազերային տպիչի հետ, որի պատճառով հօդս ցնդեցին առանց թղթի գրասենյակային գրագրության անցնելու մասին կանխագուշակությունները: Ենթադրվում էր, որ համակարգիչը հնարավորություն կտա գրագրությունը կազմակերպելու առանց թղթի և թույլ կտա խնայել մեծ քանակությամբ փայտանյութ: Այնինչ լազերային տպիչի ի

հայտ գալն ավելի ընդլայնեց թղթի գործածումը համակարգիչի վրա հիմնված տարբեր միջավայրերում: Բայց սա ընդամենը մի մասնավոր հարց է: Խոսելով հասարակության քոմփյութերացման մասին՝ տեղին է ընդգծել, որ հաճախ անհասկանալի է մնում թե ինչը և ինչու է քոմփյութերացվում: Համակարգիչը սովորաբար դիտվում է որպես ռացիոնալության գործիք, բայց և կարող է դառնալ ոչ ռացիոնալ կառավարման և խնդրահարույց հասարակական գործունեությունների առանցք:

Համակարգիչների տարածումը արդեն ակնհայտ փոփոխություններ է հարուցել տնտեսական ու հասարակական բազմաթիվ ոլորտներում և մասնավորապես՝ կրթության ու մշակույթի բնագավառներում՝ առաջ բերելով «Համակարգչային մշակույթի» (“Computer Culture”) մի համատարած շերտ, որն իր հերթին նշված տիրույթներում նոր բնույթի խնդիրներ է հարուցում՝ մատնանշելով կատարվող տեղաշարժերի «ցանկալի» և «անցանկալի» կողմերը [3]: Սրա հետ միասին, համակարգիչը, որպես կանոն, հիմք է դառնում տնտեսական և հասարակական, այդ թվում՝ մշակութային և կրթական ոլորտների հետագա զարգացմանն առնչվող ծրագրերի համար:

Further reading

Goals of Computational Linguistics

1) The theoretical goals of computational linguistics include the formulation of grammatical and semantic frameworks for characterizing languages in ways enabling computationally

tractable implementations of syntactic and semantic analysis; the discovery of processing techniques and learning principles that exploit both the structural and distributional (statistical) properties of language; and the development of cognitively and neuroscientifically plausible computational models of how language processing and learning might occur in the brain.

The practical goals of the field are broad and varied. Some of the most prominent are: efficient text retrieval on some desired topic; effective machine translation (MT); question answering (QA), ranging from simple factual questions to ones requiring inference and descriptive or discursive answers (perhaps with justifications); text summarization; analysis of texts or spoken language for topic, sentiment, or other psychological attributes; dialogue agents for accomplishing particular tasks (purchases, technical trouble shooting, trip planning, schedule maintenance, medical advising, etc.); and ultimately, creation of computational systems with human-like competency in dialogue, in acquiring language, and in gaining knowledge from text.

Best Online Libraries

2) The most extensive free online library is the Internet Archive. Boasting over three million texts and over a million (each) of video and audio recordings, the Internet Archive offers a wealth of free information, including the largest repository of archived web pages, going back to 1996, through its Way Back Machine. When it comes to digital archives, the U.S. Library of Congress is no slouch, with thousands of articles, photographs, prints, newspapers recordings, collections and exhibits focusing on the history and culture of the United States. The Library even offers a digital reference service where anyone can "Ask a Librarian," either by providing an email for reply or using an

online chat service. The United States' most precious documents are housed at the National Archives. Using its Archival Research Catalog (ARC), web researchers can view ARC galleries about American history and science, and they can obtain copies of The Constitution and the Declaration of Independence. One of the web's best kept secrets is the Smithsonian's Digital Library. Serious researchers and curious students alike can browse digital editions, fact sheets, artist files, webcasts, bibliographies and online exhibitions gleaned from the Smithsonian Institution's vast collections. Researchers and casual surfers enjoy exploring European culture. With a focus on fine arts and history, objects, records and recordings from across the European Union. Many states provide a wealth of resources to their residents through the state libraries. Michigan's e-Library offers full text articles from newspapers and magazines, digital collections, images, digital archives and over 20,000 full text eBooks for free to its residents. Local public libraries are increasingly putting parts of their collections online. Members of the New York Public Library can find over 700,000 digitized images, online exhibitions and digital projects. The Chicago Public Library offers its subscribers full text copies of newspapers and magazines, as well as articles from encyclopedias and reference books. Most public libraries will also provide their members with current eBooks in all genres and formats. Serious researchers need online access to academic articles. At Stanford University's High Wire, they will find over two million free, full text articles from top journals. Most people have little to no access to presidential libraries, but wouldn't you know it – the vast majority are moving their resources onto the web. The John F. Kennedy Presidential Library and Museum offers interactive exhibits on topics like the Cuban missile crisis, and the George W. Bush Presidential Library and Museum provides a

comprehensive 911 Resource Guide. Professionals have unique research requirements. Lawyers and paralegals will find Cornell University's Legal Information Institute's free online law library helpful, and medical professionals and patients alike can find useful information at the U.S. National Library of Medicine.

Points to consider:

- characteristic features of E-mail;
- the costs related to net-usage;
- the problem of replacing libraries by the Internet;
- technological advance provoked an earthquake in the area of information;
- services the Internet enables;
- you are going to be the Internet user. Discuss with your friends the peculiarities of the Internet usage.

UNIT V

SCIENTIFIC COMMUNICATION

Science communication: could you explain it to your granny?

"You don't really understand something unless you can explain it to your grandmother". This quote, attributed to Albert Einstein, should be the motto of all professional communicators, and especially those who earn a living communicating the tricky business of science. Scientists such as Brian Cox and Alice Roberts have become household names in the UK for communicating complex subjects including cosmology, quantum physics, evolution and anatomy to a primetime television audience. But how do you go about taking something as complicated as quantum physics and pitching it at a level that is engaging for someone without any scientific training? And why should you bother in the first place? Professional science communicators face this challenge every day. They communicate the scientific outputs of their universities, institutions and research councils to journalists, investors, politicians and the general public. Around a hundred of them gathered at an 'Improving Science Communications' conference earlier this week, jointly hosted by the Department for Business, Innovation and Skills (BIS), the Chartered Institute of Public Relations and Stempra – the science communication network – to discuss the profession and how it can improve. As communications director for the government department that allocates science funding, I believe we have a duty to communicate the UK's world-class research and innovation, and the value that it brings to the economy and society, as well as possible. Taxpayers should

understand where their money is being spent and have a say in it – something BIS has encouraged with the recent capital consultation on research infrastructure. And to enable informed decision making we need great science communicators. There is an insatiable appetite for knowledge today, with people as interested and enthusiastic about science as they have ever been. In the recent Public Attitudes to Science Survey, 72% of respondents said they thought it was important to know about science. This places great responsibility on the shoulders of science communicators to get the message, and the science, right. Poorly devised and executed communications can have far-reaching consequences. A significant drop-off in child immunisation rates followed the MMR controversy, a failure of accurate science communication in which the media was heavily implicated. Communicators have also struggled to combat the spread of misinformation associated with the causes and effects of climate change, and to explain the uncertainties. Well-meaning campaigns to encourage more diversity in science, such as the European Commission's notorious ***Science: it's a girl thing!*** YouTube video have missed the mark because of clumsy, stereotypical messaging. When we get these things wrong it has a direct impact on people's lives. Science communication cannot exist in a vacuum, however. When talking about vaccination you have to consider parents' instinct to protect their children from any threat, real or perceived. Successful containment of Ebola will similarly require effective communication of scientific information, while incorporating local insights and considering cultural differences. We must know our audience and how to engage with them, and be aware of making assumptions about their prior knowledge.

My opening Einstein quote is actually rather unfair. What if your granny has a PhD in quantum physics? As we like to say in

communication science, there is no such thing as one “public” but rather a number of “publics”, each with their own level of knowledge, experience, morals and ethics.So what are the main problems faced by science communicators, and how can we solve them?

A study commissioned by the Chartered Institute of Public Relations and supported by BIS took a tentative step towards finding out.The nature of science itself is the first hurdle to overcome. Working with complex subject matter, dealing with partners and collaborators, sorting intellectual property issues and negotiating with powerful publishing houses, not to mention the occasional difficult scientist, is challenging. There is a perceived lack of respect for science communicators, and a fear that the “PR” label further erodes credibility. There is a desire for more accreditation, recognition and training. And for a culture change within scientific organisations to involve communicators higher up the chain of command. Research by Cardiff University, also presented at the conference, looked into the practice of hype and sensationalism in press releases. It apportions some of the blame of media misinformation to increased competition between universities and the need for self-promotion. I eagerly await the final published results.The good news is that British science communication, as well as science, is world-leading. Practitioners also show a willingness to learn more about their profession and find ways to improve – a fact demonstrated by the very high turnout at the conference and the level of engagement on display.

The Government Communication Service, of which I am a leader, was formed earlier this year to create a new, best standard for communications practice in the UK. Science must be included in this. BIS will also continue to work with organisations such as the Chartered Institute of Public Relations, Stempra and the

International Association of Business Communicators to support those science communicators who spend every day figuring out new ways to explain the seemingly unexplainable to people like you, me and Granny. And with apologies to granddads … *Einstein may not have known many granny scientists, but clearly there are lots of them out there. Since this blog was published a wide range of people have rightly pointed out that numerous grandmas would be more than capable of not just understanding, but of pioneering advances in complex science. I particularly like "Grandma Got STEM", a site highlighting the contribution older women have made to science. As I said in the original post, that Einstein quote is unfair, and of course grannies do have PhDs in quantum physics. To all the science grandmas (and grandpas), I salute you!*

I. Answer the following questions.

1. What should be the motto of all professional communicators?
2. What do professional science communicators face every day?
3. What duty does the communications director have?
4. Why has YouTube video missed the mark?
5. What is the first hurdle to overcome?
6. What do they have fear for?
7. For what purpose was the Government Communication Service formed?
8. What have a wide range of people pointed out when the blog was published?
9. What does the site "Grandma Got STEM" highlight?
10. By whom was a study commissioned by the Chartered Institute of Public Relations supported?

II. Label each sentence true or false according to the article.

1. Science communication cannot exist in a vacuum.
2. When talking about vaccination you have to consider parents' instinct to protect their children from any threat, real or perceived.
3. There isn't a desire for more accreditation, recognition and training.
4. The good news isn't that British science communication, as well as science, is world-leading.
5. BIS will also continue to work with organizations such as the Chartered Institute of Public Relations, Stempra and the International Association of Business Communicators.
6. Practitioners also don't show a willingness to learn more about their profession.
7. There is desire for a culture change within scientific organizations.
8. Professional science communicators do not communicate the scientific outputs of their universities, institutions and research councils to journalists and the general public.
9. There is an insatiable appetite for knowledge today, with people as interested and enthusiastic about science as they have ever been.
10. 72% of respondents said they thought it was not important to know about science.

III. Give the Armenian equivalents of the following word-combinations:

ինչ-որ մեկին ներգրավել, այնքան խրթին որքան, դիմակայել մարտահրավերին, պարտավորվել, անհագ ախորժակ, զսպվածություն, նախնական գիտելիք, բացատրել թվացյալ

անբացատրելին, ասելիք ունենալ, ուսերին մեծ պատասխանատվություն դնել, ենթադրություններ անել, անմիջական ազդեցություն ունենալ ինչ-որ բանի վրա, առնչվել խնդրին, փորձնական քայլ կատարել, հանրային կապեր:

IV. Give the English equivalents of the following word-combinations:

science communicators; to protect from any threat; best standard for communication; encourage more diversity; a failure of accurate science communication; quantum phsysics; accurate science; intellectual property; level of knowledge, experience, morals and ethics; to negotiate with powerful publishing houses; capital consultation; public relations; professional communicators, tricky business of science; communicating complex subjects; a primetime television audience; face the challenge; the scientific outputs; the science communication network; to allocate science funding; capital consultation on research infrastructure; an insatiable appetite for knowledge; poorly devised and executed communications; immunisation rates; to combat the spread of misinformation; to encourage more diversity in science; clumsy, stereotypical messaging; effective communication of scientific information; prior knowledge; to take a tentative step towards; the first hurdle to overcome; complex subject matter; to deal with partners and collaborators; to sort intellectual property issues; a perceived lack of respect for science communicators; to erode credibility; to look into the practice of hype and sensationalism; in press releases; the need for self-promotion; seemingly unexplainable to people.

V. Arrange the words of the two groups in pairs with similar meaning.

1) participant, accommodation, speaker, to take place, exhibition, scientific associate, head, deputy director, to take the floor, to present a paper, seminar,overview paper, concurrent session, round table discussions.

2) to submit a paper, display, assistant director, round tables, attendee, reporter, chief, workshop, housing, research associate, review paper, parallel session, to be held, to speak.

VI. Arrange the words of the two groups in pairs with contrary meaning.

1) success; dependence; in general; interested; significance; order; approximately;

to win; up-date equipment; theoretician; formal discussion; include.

2) exclude; out-date equipment; failure; disinterested; disorder; accurately;

practitioner; independence; in particular; insignificance; to lose; informal discussion.

VII. Paraphrase the following sentences.

1. Science communication describes a variety of practices that transmit scientific ideas, methods, knowledge and research to non-expert audiences in an accessible, understandable or useful way.
2. Science communicators should come to grips with what science is, how to bring out its nuances and comprehend its vast, complex, technical and sometimes esoteric knowledge base.

3. Implementing good communication is proactive and ethical as it prevents reactive and unethical restrictive interventions, such as the abuse and punishment.
4. Scientists who want to communicate their work with people outside their specialist subject face particular challenges.
5. Recent years have seen widespread and dramatic changes in the way people seek or encounter information about science and the issues of concern to them.
6. Although the traditional infrastructure for science news is declining, communicators have new ways to participate in public debates about science, and more scientists than ever are now speaking directly to the public via blogs, podcasts.
7. Social media offer expanded opportunities for science communication and the exchange of ideas, but they differ in important ways from traditional media and even online versions of traditional media outlets.
8. The broad nature of science and its related disciplines allows for a diversity of employment options for individuals with a graduate education in scientific communication.
9. The curriculum in a master's in scientific communication program introduces students to the fundamental practices of storytelling across traditional and digital media, including print, visual, broadcast, and social media.
10. Scientific communication is the process of distilling technical information about science-related topics into understandable messages and stories for public consumption.

VIII. Match the words (1-7) with the correct definition of the word.

1. **session**
a) a formal meeting or series of meetings of an organisation such as a parliament or a law court
b) a period of time or meeting arranged for a particular activit

2. key
a) a piece of metal that is used for opening or closing a lock, starting a car engine, etc. (noun)
b) any of the set of controls that you press with your fingers on a computer or musical instrument to produce letters, numbers or musical notes (noun)
c) very important and having a lot of influence on other people or things (adj.)

3. to hold
a) to take and keep something in your hand or arms
b) to believe an idea or opinion
c) to make something, especially a meeting or an election, happen
d) to have something, especially a position or money, or to control something

4. culture
a) ways of working that are typical of an organisation
b) the ways of life, customs and beliefs of a group of people
c) activities involving music and the arts
d) the act of growing crops

5. forum

a) a situation or meeting in which people can talk about a problem or matter especially of public interest

b) a place on the internet where people can leave messages or discuss particular subjects with other people

6. to advance

a) to go or move something forward

b) to pay someone some money before the regular time

c) to develop or improve something

7. particular

a) special, great

b) specific, this and no other

c) demanding that close attention should be given to every detail

IX. Read the call for papers and put paragraphs A-E in the correct order.

A

We welcome participation by scholars of history, literature, anthropology, art, politics and related fields. We will accept complete panel proposals as well as individual paper proposals if they can be integrated into a viable panel.

B

The Mid-Atlantic Conference on British Studies will hold its annual meeting on 21-22 April 2014 at Pennsylvania State University, Abington. The Abington Campus is located in suburban Philadelphia 12 miles from the city centre. It is connected by road and rail links to central Philadelphia.

C

Proposals should include a brief (no more than 250 words) abstract of the paper and a curriculum vitae. Full panel proposals should also include a concise description o f the panel's overall aim and indicate which panel member will serve as the primary contact.

D

All submissions must be received by 20 December 2013. Please submit proposals via email to: Dept, o f History, College o f William and Mary.

E

The MACBS, an affiliate of the NACBS, solicits proposals for panels and papers on Britain, the British Atlantic World, and the British Empire broadly defined.

X. Look through the text again and find the equivalents of the following word-combinations:

a short expression of a guiding principle; a strong desire for smth.; extravagant or intensive publicity or promotion; to find better approaches; the number of people who are present for an event; to weaken reliability; very famous; to be involved in making a decision about smth.; hierarchy; to solve the problem; an indefinite step; to weaken reliability; a delicate business; to transfer the scientific product; to distribute; a collapse of precise scientific communication; to elucidate the ambiguity.

XI. Translate into Armenian.

1. The objective of scientific communication is to accurately and clearly communicate (new) scientific knowledge, hence it is intimately linked with the scientific method.

2. Your professional success in any future workplace relies on your technical communication skills (making effective presentations, writing proposals, compiling technical reports, etc.).
3. Proposals are often written to secure research funding, to win a consulting contract – the primary objective here is to persuade reviewers/funding agency to provide funding to solve a problem.
4. Professional science communicators (e.g., journalists) can take detailed, complex science from a range of fields, distill it to its key points, and translate those points into publicly accessible language.
5. When scientists communicate more effectively, science thrives. Science is increasingly interdisciplinary and the ability to communicate more effectively across disciplines fosters collaboration and innovation.
6. Being able to communicate the relevance and impact of their ideas and discoveries can enhance scientists' ability to secure funding or find a job. It allows them to write better and more comprehensible research papers. It also allows them to be better teachers and mentors for next-generation scientists.
7. When scientists are able to communicate effectively beyond their peers to broader, non-scientist audiences, it builds support for science, promotes understanding of its wider relevance to society, and encourages more informed decision-making at all levels, from government to communities to individuals.
8. Although having more scientists who are effective communicators benefits science and society greatly, there are still relatively few training opportunities for science students and professionals to develop these skills.

9. Show respect to your audience by avoiding undue informality and by crafting and proofreading your text carefully, but do not believe that you have to write or speak in a special way to "sound scientific."
10. The art of science communication is to pitch something as complicated as quantum mechanics in a way that is not only engaging but also faithful to the evidence.

XII. Translate into English.

1. Հաղորդակցումը բարդ գործընթաց է, և պատահական չէ, որ այն ուսումնասիրության նյութ է դարձել սոցիոլոգների, փիլիսոփաների, հոգելեզվաբանների, ինչպես նաև հանրալեզվաբանությամբ զբաղվողների համար:
2. Հաղորդակցման յուրաքանչյուր բաղադրիչ կարող է ազդել խոսքային գործընթացի և արդյունքի վրա:
3. Յուրաքանչյուր հասարակության մեջ խոսքային հաղորդակցման ձևերը խիստ կարևոր են, քանի որ դրանք ապահովում են տվյալ հասարակության անդամների փոխադարձ շփումները:
4. Վերջին տարիներին զգալի տարածում է գտել գիտական հետազոտության արդյունքների նախնական կամ նույնիսկ ամբողջական հրապարակումը գիտական հիմնարկների պաշտոնական կայքերում:
5. Գիտականորեն ուսումնասիրել՝ նշանակում է ոչ միայն դիտել, այլև տեսնել, նկատել կարևոր մանրամասնություններ, մեծը՝ փոքրի մեջ՝ այդ ընթացքում, իհարկե, չշեղվելով հետազոտության գլխավոր գծից:

6. Շատ վիճակագրական տվյալների վերլուծությունը հնարավոր է դառնում հատուկ նախագծված ալգորիթմների միջոցով, որոնք իրականացվում են համակարգիչների կողմից:
7. Սխալ հաշվարկը կարող է հանգեցնել նրան, որ մի ամբողջ հետազոտություն կամ նախագիծ լցված լինի սխալ տեղեկատվությամբ:
8. Գիտելիքի և համագործակցության տարածումը համացանցի միջոցով հնարավոր է դարձրել գիտական նախագծերի շուրջ միջազգային համագործակցությունը:
9. Բազմաթիվ հետազոտական ուսումնասիրություններ հնարավոր չէ իրականացնել առանց համակարգչի օգտագործման, մասնավորապես՝առանց, մոդելավորման և տվյալների վերլուծության հետ կապված բարդ հաշվարկների:
10. Բնական գիտություններից որևէ փորձի արդյունքում ստացվում են բազմաթիվ տվյալներ, որոնք պետք է պահվեն և վերլուծվեն կարևոր եզրակացություններ անելու, վարկածը հաստատելու կամ հերքելու համար:

✍ ***Render the following passage in English.***

Հետազոտական բնույթի ցանկացած աշխատանք կատարելիս հետազոտողն այս կամ այն չափով առնչվում է գիտությանը: Նման պարագայում հարց է ծագում. ի՞նչ է գիտությունը: Առաջին հայացքից շատ պարզ բացատրություն ենթադրող «գիտություն» հասկացությունն իրականում

այդքան էլ պարզ չէ: Գոյություն ունեն այս հասկացության հարյուրավոր սահմանումներ, որոնք, միմյանց փոխլրացնելով, փորձում են ներկայացնել նրա բուն էությունը: Այսպես, գիտությունը նախևառաջ մարդկային գործունեության՝ աշխարհի մասին օբյեկտիվ գիտելիքների մշակման և համակարգման ոլորտ է: Գիտությունը նաև սոցիալական ինստիտուտ է, որը համակարգում և ընդհանրացնում է տարբեր մարդկանց ճանաչողական գործունեությունը: Գիտությունը նաև հասարակական գիտակցության՝ մեթոդական ապարատով օժտված կարևոր մակարդակ է և այլն:

Եթե փորձենք ընդհանրացնել գիտությունը բնութագրող սահմանումներում առկա ընդհանուր դրույթները, ապա կարող ենք նշել, որ գիտությունը մարդկային ճանաչողության ձև է, որն իր որոշակի մեթոդներով ուղղված է աշխարհի մասին օբյեկտիվ, համակարգված և հիմնավոր գիտելիքների մշակմանը: Փաստորեն, այն ուղղված է նոր գիտելիքի ստեղծմանը և արդեն ստեղծված գիտելիքների հիման վրա աշխարհի գիտական պատկերի ամբողջացմանը:

Արդի հետարդյունաբերական ժամանակաշրջանում գիտությունը կոչված է ապահովելու կայուն զարգացում, այսինքն՝ նրա արդյունքների ստացումը ոչ թե ինքնանպատակ է կամ էլ արդյունաբերական առաջընթացն ապահովող պարզունակ մեխանիզմ, այլ՝ միջոց՝ հասարակության ներդաշնակ և հավասարակշռված զարգացումն ապահովելու համար: Բուհում սովորելու տարիներին ուսանողը կատարում է իր ուսումնական ծրագրով նախատեսված

պարտադիր հետազոտական աշխատանքներ, որոնք երիտասարդ հետազոտողի առաջին քայլերն են դառնում գիտության մեջ: Այդ քայլերը ճիշտ կատարելու համար ուսանողը պետք է տիրապետի գիտահետազոտական աշխատանք կատարելու կարևորագույն սկզբունքներին:

Further reading

Call for Papers

Preparation for the conference begins with the publication, mailing or posting on the site of information about the upcoming scientific event, its name, theme, place and time, conditions participation in it, working languages, possible cultural program, etc. A lot of similar announcements (circulars) are "hanging" on websites, published in professional journals, distributed to departments and other units of universities. Here is an example of a circular:

First circular: Conference announcement

The 17th International Conference of Historical Geographers will take place in Warsaw, at University of Warsaw in cooperation with the Tadeusz Manteuffel Institute of History, Polish Academy of Sciences, from Sunday 15 to Friday 20 July 2018. The venue was confirmed at the plenary session of the 16th ICHG held in London, August 2015.

Contributions are welcome on any aspect of historical geography, including focused empirical, theoretical, and historiographical contributions to historical geography and related fields including history of cartography, history of science, and environmental history.The participation of early career scholars and postgraduate research researchers is positively encouraged.

In order to help plan the Warsaw ICHG 2018 meeting and ensure the involvement and participation of the world-wide historical geography community, two committees have been set up. An International Scientific Committee, chaired by Michael Heffernan has been established, and a Local Organising Committee, with participation of historical geographers drawn from across Poland, is overseeing the running of the Conference.

A Call for Papers and Sessions will be issued in March 2017. The deadline for receipt of proposals will be September 2017. A draft programme will be published in January 2018.

The Conference will include a full range of academic sessions, plenary lectures, social events and field trips in Warsaw and different parts of Poland.

Points to consider:

- your scientific adviser has looked through your paper meant for the conference. He is making some critical remarks now;
- make a list of the most important points for a person to be qualified as a scientist in an English-speaking country.

UNIT VI

SUMMARY WRITING

An academic summary is a concise representation of an academic text. The summary's purpose is to enable the reader to determine, in a limited amount of time, if and why a paper, chapter or book is worth reading.

An academic summary is different from an abstract. An abstract is a brief representation of the main results and conclusions of the study. An academic summary characteristically shows the (argumentation) structure of the text; the skeleton of the argument skeleton.

The summary should be a flowing text, written in your own words. This means that copying exact phrases from the original text is not permitted. Moreover, the text should be written in well-formulated Dutch or English, and intelligible to an audience that is not acquainted with the original text.

Students are expected to be able to quickly penetrate the structure and core ideas of a text, and to reproduce them concisely in their own words. One way of doing this is writing a summary.

Summarising is pausing in order to get ahead. The purpose of the summary determines at which places to halt and what to see there. Students usually summarise texts to help them pass an exam. In such cases, a summary prepares the student for possible exam questions. However, a summary can have other functions as well: students may be asked to summarise a text in preparation of a critical discussion during a tutorial. Students could also summarise part of a text because they want to use certain data while writing an essay or thesis.

In short, a summary can serve three functions:

- Explaining a text: intended to explore the text type, the main themes, and the theoretical framework; focuses on the general content (annotated bibliography).
- Replacing a text: extracts the most important (sub) themes of a text based on a well-considered selection (extract, exam preparation, reading report).
- Discussing a text: a critical report with a substantiated final conclusion (review, essay, final paper, preparation for a group discussion).

The purpose for which you are examining a text or the aim of a summary can be different for each course. So, make sure you take a thorough look at the assignment before you start reading or summarising.

Selecting information for the summary can be difficult, yet it is very important. Certain aspects play an important role here:

- The general purpose for writing the summary, or the academic audience the target readers – scholarly readers – for whom the summary is written.
- Other researchers or readers should be able to reconstruct the general idea described in the investigation, using the information provided in the summary. This means that all information essential for this study should be discussed.
- The information must be presented as described in the original article. This means that you are not allowed to present the information according to your own interpretation unless the assignment/course instructor tells you to do so.
- A recurring problem is that in a scientific text discussion and conclusion may be intertwined. The discussion found in the original text has to be excluded from your summary.

The format of an academic summary is nearly always the same. If you have a valid reason, you can deviate from the original order in which the information is presented by the author. A summary of a research report must contain the following information:

- Research question/problem statement
- Motivation/relevance
- Theoretical framework
- Method
- Results/arguments
- Conclusion

The various components of a summary must be clearly recognisable. These will be discussed below.

Research question/Problem statement

- A well-written summary contains a clear research question or problem statement that will be answered or argued in the text by the author. What exactly is being examined? What is the specific issue the author wants to give insight in? On the basis of which specific case did he or she do that?

Motivation/relevance

- In this section of the summary you will answer the question why this investigation has been conducted. The research question or the definition of the problem statement is connected to an issue that is of importance to the author, either in a social or academic context. What is the author's motivation? What lacuna is the research text trying to fill?

Theoretical framework

- Subsequently, you should clarify within what framework the investigation has been conducted. From which theoretical perspective has the author approached the issue?

Which scientific theories or models does the author use as starting point to describe, analyse, interpret and explain the issue?

Method

- In this section you will explain how the investigation has been carried out. Only state the outlines; there is no need to explain in full detail. Deliver a concise description of how the investigation has been generated, analysed and interpreted by means of a scientifically proven method. Keep to the most important aspects, such as the structure of the most important data and the method used in the analysis.

Results/Arguments

- In this section you should process the outcome of the investigation. Do not mention all findings in the summary; narrow it down to the most important findings or arguments relevant for answering the research question or supporting the main thesis. Any unexpected outcomes are to be mentioned as well.

Conclusion

- The research question has to be answered in this part of the academic summary. You are not allowed to submit any new information.

Your own opinion (optional)

- Sometimes, depending on the assignment or the purpose of the summary, it can be useful to provide your own opinion on the text/quality of the investigation. Was it carried out in a way you agree with? Does the author use valid arguments? Make sure to provide your own opinion in a separate paragraph; the summary itself has to be objective.

Word choice, sentence structure, and style are of great importance when writing a summary of a scientific article. As a general rule, the text should be easy to read and understand. Moreover, your usage should match your scholarly/intended/involved readers. Naturally, you should not use inappropriate or vernacular language. It is also important to use proper academic style, which means that the summary must be objective. Formulations must be accurate, so vague terminology such as ‘all sorts’, ‘some’ and ‘a few’ are best avoided. Your text cannot contain any spelling errors, and the grammar must be adequate.Also, be consistent in the use of grammatical tense.

I. Answer the following questions.

1. What is the difference between an academic summary and an abstract?
2. What three functions does a summary serve?
3. Which aspects play an important role when selecting information for the summary?
4. What information must a summary of a research report contain?
5. What must be written under Research question/Problem statement?
6. What must be written under Motivation/relevance?
7. What must be written under Theoretical framework?
8. What must be written under Method?
9. What must be written under Results/Arguments?
10. What must be written under Conclusion?

II. Label each sentence true or false according to the article.

1. An academic summary is a brief representation of the main results and conclusions of the study.
2. The text should be written in well-formulated English, and intelligible to an audience that is not acquainted with the original text.
3. The format of an academic summary is always different.
4. The summary should be a flowing text, written as close to original text as possible. This means that copying exact phrases from the original text is advisable.
5. Word choice, sentence structure, and style are of great importance when writing a summary of a scientific article.

III. Give the Armenian equivalents of the following word-combinations:

an academic summary; a concise representation; in a limited amount of time; a brief representation of the main results; intelligible to an audience; penetrate the structure and core ideas of a text; to summarise a text; to use certain data; annotated bibliography; a well-considered selection; a substantiated final conclusion; to reconstruct the general idea; a recurring problem; the conclusion may be intertwined; to be excluded from one's summary; the format of an academic summary; motivation; relevance; theoretical framework; to be clearly recognizable; the specific issue; to give insight in; the definition of the problem; theoretical perspective; in full detail; deliver a concise description; a scientifically proven method; the outcome of the investigation; narrow down; an unexpected outcome; to submit any new information; the purpose of the summary; to provide one's own opinion on; valid arguments; a separate paragraph; to use inappropriate or vernacular language; vague terminology.

IV. Give the English equivalents of the following word-combinations:

հակիրճ ներկայացում, հատկանշական կերպով, էական գաղափարներ, տեսաբանական շրջանակ, կշռադատված փաստարկներ, գիտական լսարան, լրացնել բացը, արտասանական սխալներ, ակադեմիական ամփոփում, ամփոփման նպատակը, փաստարկ, բնօրինակ տեքստ, ներթափանցել, ամփոփել, գլխավոր թեմա, փոխարինել տեքսը, ընդհանուր գաղափար, կրկնվող խնդիր, հիմնավոր պատճառ, հետազոտական հարցեր, բառի ընտրություն, ակադեմիական ոճ, ուղղագրական սխալներ։

V. Fill in the gapes with the given words.

1. An abstract is a brief representation of the main …… and …..of the study.
2. Students are expected to be able to quickly penetrate the…… and …… of a text.
3. Other researchers or readers should be able to reconstruct the …… described in the investigation.
4. The discussion found in the …… has to be excluded from your summary.
5. If you have a…… you can deviate from the …… in which the information is presented.

general idea; results; original order; original text; conclusions; valid reason; structure; core ideas.

VI. Match the words with their explanations.

1. Research question statement	a. In this section of the summary you will answer the question why this investigation has been conducted.
2. Motivation/relevance	b. In this section you will explain how the investigation has been carried out.
3. Theoretical framework	c. In this section you will answer the research question.
4. Method	d. In this section you should clarify within what framework the investigation has been conducted.
5. Results/arguments	e. In this section of the summary you should present what exactly is being examined and what is the specific issue the author wants to give insight in.
6. Conclusion	f. In this section you should process the outcome of the investigation.

VII. Complete the gaps with the appropriate preposition.

1. An academic summary is different ….. an abstract. An abstract is a brief representation ….. the main results and conclusions of the study.
2. The summary should be a flowing text, written ….. your own words.
3. The text should not acquainted ….. the original text.

4. Students are expected to reproduce them concisely ….. their own words.
5. … short, a summary can serve three functions.
6. Explaining a text focuses ….. the general content.
7. Make sure you take a thorough look ….. the assignment before you start reading or summarising.
8. The discussion found in the original text has to be excluded ….. your summary.
9. You can deviate from the original order ….. which the information is presented ….. the author.
10. What is the specific issue the author wants to give insight …..?

VIII. Paraphrase the following sentences.

1. The more concise the summary the better, yet if any major details are omitted the purpose of the summary is lost--its readers will be uninformed on key aspects of the news and may make embarrassing errors as a result.
2. The summaries that you write in college are as important to your academic career as these summaries are to these politicians and business people, and accuracy and concision are just as important, too.
3. This will help you get an overall picture of the argument through the outline, and a more detailed reminder of the content via the summaries.
4. Certainly an important feature of the summary essay, then, is its fidelity to the source; you must represent your source accurately and comprehensively, with as little of your own interpretation as possible.
5. An alternative purpose of the summary essay, one that is very commonplace in college, is a demonstration of comprehension: teachers sometimes assign summary essays

when they want to make sure that students fully understand an assigned source.

6. You can prove that you've picked up on important themes in what you've read by condensing those themes into a coherent overview.
7. You will not only prove that you understand the arguments within a text, but you will also show that you can develop and support your own arguments in response to the text.
8. Although writers did not select the same text sentences for omission, it was possible to identify a core set of text sentences that was always preserved in summaries of the larger texts.
9. It should include enough information so the reader can understand what is discussed in the full report, without having to read it.
10. It is a concise description of the work, which means the writer uses as a few words as possible to convey the essential elements of the item being summarized.

IX. Translate into Armenian.

1. The summary's purpose is to enable the reader to determine, in a limited amount of time, if and why a paper, chapter or book is worth reading.
2. Students are expected to be able to quickly penetrate the structure and core ideas of a text, and to reproduce them concisely in their own words.
3. Other researchers or readers should be able to reconstruct the general idea described in the investigation, using the information provided in the summary.

4. This means that you are not allowed to present the information according to your own interpretation unless the assignment/course instructor tells you to do so.
5. A well-written summary contains a clear research question or problem statement that will be answered or argued in the text by the author.
6. Sometimes, depending on the assignment or the purpose of the summary, it can be useful to provide your own opinion on the text/quality of the investigation. Summar**y** is a short account of something that gives only the most important information and not all the details.
7. The summary writer appreciates the material from his point of view and uses as a rule a wide range of clichés.
8. A successful summary shows a thorough understanding of the piece that is summarized, as well as exhibiting sound language skills such as accuracy and range of vocabulary and grammar.
9. Creativity in a summary is a good way to introduce new ideas and topics into a summary, but consider that it is more important to give accurate information than creative opinions and fillers.
10. It is far more effective to keep a summary short – people are always more eager to read something short than something long, and the longer something is, the greater a chance there is of including mistakes or misinformation within a piece of writing.

X. Translate into English.

1. Նույնիսկ շատ կարճ և հապավումներով ամփոփումն ավելի լավ է քան ընդհանրապես ամփոփում չունենալը:

2. Ճշգրիտ լրացված ամփոփումները կօգնեն մարդկանց որոշել, արդյոք արժե, որ իրենք ժամանակ ծախսեն և ստուգեն թե հոդվածում ինչ փոփոխություններ են եղել և կհեշտացնի հետագայում, էջի պատմության մեջ կողմնորոշվելուն, և անհրաժեշտ տարբերակը գտնելու։
3. Ամփոփումները հաճախ հետաքրքրություն են առաջացնում և գրավում են այն վիքիպեդիացիների ուշադրությունը, ովքեր արդեն որոշակի փորձառություն կամ գիտելիքներ ունեն տվյալ թեմայի շուրջ։
4. Խուսափեք ամփոփման մեջ գնահատող կամ քննադատական ոճի խմբագրումներից ինչպես օրինակ՝ «ճշտված անգրագետ ուղղագրություն», «չհիմնավորված բարբաջանքի խմբագրություն»: Հիշեք, որ ամփոփման մեջ գրվածը հնարավոր չէ փոխել։
5. Գրքերի ամփոփագրեր գրելն օգնում է ձեզ հասկանալ ընթերցվող նյութը:
6. Բացի այդ, անհրաժեշտության դեպքում կարող եք օգտագործել ամփոփագիրը որպես հղում `գրքում կարևոր բաները հիշելու համար:
7. Գրքի լավ ամփոփագիր գրելու համար ուշադիր կարդացեք գիրքը `ընթերցանության մեջ նշելով հիմնական գաղափարները, սյուժեի փոփոխությունները և կարևոր հերոսները:
8. Օգտագործեք գրառումները՝ կազմելու և ստուգելու համար ձեր պատրաստած ամփոփագիրը:
9. Ամփոփումն ավելի դյուրին դարձնելու համար պատկերացրեք, որ ձեր ընթերցած գիրքն ունի 3 մաս:

10. Յուրաքանչյուր պատմություն ունի իր սկիզբը, կեսը և վերջը: Գրառումներ կատարելիս օգտագործեք նույն մեթոդը:

✍ ***Try to produce the summary of the text "Talking across the Gender Gap" making use of the instructions given above.***

People believe in sex differences. As one best-selling book puts it, when it comes to communication, ***Men are from Mars, Women are from Venus*** (Gray, 1992). Social scientists have helped to create and confirm that belief by conducting innumerable studies of every conceivable linguistic and stylistic variation between the sexes and by developing theories that stress differences rather than similarities and overlap (West and Zimmerman, 1985). In ***Language and Woman's Place*** (1975) the linguist Robin Lakoff proposed that women use a speech style that is ineffectual because it is overly polite, hesitant, and deferent. The assertiveness training movement of the 1970s and 1980s - a therapeutic fad led by psychologists whose clients were largely women - engaged perhaps hundreds of thousands of people in attempts to change their way of communicating. A rationale for the movement was that some people (especially women) suffer from poor communication skills and irrational beliefs that prevent them from expressing themselves clearly and directly. More recently, linguists and communication experts have created another conceptual bandwagon by applying theories o cross-cultural communication to women and men. According to this view, 'men from Mars' and 'women from Venus' are fated to misunderstand each other unless they recognize their deeply socialized differences. The view of gender and language encoded in these

writings and therapies is that fundamental differences between women and men shape the way they talk. The differences are conceived as located within individuals and prior to the talk as differences in personality traits, skills, beliefs, attitudes, or goals. For the millions of people who have become acquainted with issues of gender and language through reading bestselling books telling women how to be more assertive or how to understand the 'opposite' sex, or through watching television talk shows featuring communication experts who claim that talk between women and men is cross-cultural communication, a powerful narrative frame is provided and validated: that gender is difference, and difference is static, bipolar, and categorical. Absorbing such messages, it would be very difficult ***not*** to believe that women and men are indeed opposite sexes when it comes to talk.

As a feminist researcher/teacher in women's studies and thepsychology of women, I have found such gender-and-language research and theory both interesting and unsatisfying. I have often felt frustrated and disappointed after reading the latest journal article or book on sex differences in (fill in the variable): question intonation, talk time, tag questions, conversational topic, joke-telling. Like many people, I love to eavesdrop. Waiting on line at the bookstore, reading a bulletin board in the hallway while a couple of colleagues chat nearby, or sitting on a park bench where mothers talk while their children play, I listen to people's talk with a little thrill of voyeuristic joy. In people's casual, everyday talk we have a tantalizing glimpse into how they negotiate the terrains of their social worlds. As I listened, and later as I recalled such talk, I tried to fit it into the theories and conceptual categories of gender-and-language research. The difficulty of this task fed my frustration with the research. Increasingly, I began to feel that research on gender and talk needed to be reframed and reformulated:

✍ ***Render the following passage in English.***

Հղումներին ներկայացվող հիմնական պահանջները

Ուսումնա(գիտա)կան աշխատանքներում օգտագործվող աղբյուրներին ներկայացվող հիմնական պահանջները չորսն են՝ հղումների *քանակական և որակական բնութագրերը*, ինչպես նաև հղումների (աղբյուրների) *ստուգելիությունն ու վստահելիությունը*:

- Աշխատանքում մատենագիտական հղումների ***քանակը***, որպես կանոն, խոսում է քննվող հարցի տեսական մշակվածության մասշտաբների մասին: Սակայն սեփական աշխատանքը զանազան աղբյուրներին հղումներով ու մեջբերումներով հարստացնելուն զուգահեռ, անհրաժեշտ է հիշել, որ ***քննարկվող հարցին դուք պարտավոր եք տալ նաև սեփական գնահատականը***:
- Հարկ է հիշել նաև աղբյուրների ***որակի*** մասին և հղում կատարել միայն համեմատաբար նոր հրապարակված, հեղինակավոր ու թեմատիկ աղբյուրներին՝ հնարավորինս խուսափելով դասագրքերի և տեղեկատվական նյութերի, հանրամատչելի աղբյուրների օգտագործումից: Պետք է նաև հիշել, որ աշխատանքի որակի մասին է խոսում նաև դրանում տվյալ թեմայով հիմնարար կամ դասական համարվող աղբյուրների օգտագործումը՝ հատկապես քննարկվող հիմնախնդրի տեսական մշակվածու-

թյունը և, միաժամանակ, ուսանողի՝ դրանց հետ ծանոթ լինելը ցույց տալու համար:

- Ինչպես վերևում արդեն նշվեց, «ոսկե կանոնը» պահանջում է, որպեսզի հղումն օգտագործված աղբյուրին պարունակի բավարար չափով (թվով, մանրամասնությամբ) մատենագիտական տվյալներ, որոնք ընթերցողին հնարավորություն կտան՝ հեշտությամբ և արագ գտնելու օգտագործված աղբյուրն ու ծանոթանալու այն հատվածին, որին դուք հղում եք կատարում ձեր աշխատանքում: Սա ապահովում է ձեր օգտագործած տվյալների ***ստուգելիությունը***:
- Օգտագործվող աղբյուրները պետք է լինեն նաև ***վստահելի (հուսալի)***, այսինքն՝ գիտության տվյալ բնագավառում ընդունված և ճանաչված: Վստահելի և ոչ հուսալի աղբյուրները զանազանելը բավական դժվար է, հատկապես՝ սկսնակ հետազոտողների համար: Վստահելիության կարևոր, բայց ոչ որոշիչ ցուցիչներ կարող են լինել աղբյուրի վերնագիրը, հեղինակի և հրատարակչության մասին տեղեկությունները, շարադրանքի ոճը և ձևավորումը (հիմնականում՝ գրքերի դեպքում), ինչպես նաև հրապարակող ամսագրի հեղինակավորությունը (Impact factor), հեղինակին ու նրա հոդված(ներ)ին հղում անելու գործակիցը: Ամեն դեպքում, գոնե սկզբնական շրջանում աղբյուրների ընտրության հարցում ուսանողը պետք է խորհրդակցի իր դասախոսի կամ գիտական ղեկավարի հետ:

Further reading

Summaries are often found in academic work. A summary is the shortest account of the main content and conclusions of the original text. In fact it is enumeration of the main thematic point of the original paper which is made up of the words and phrases borrowed from the text and your own wording of them into a very small number of sentences. The manner of presenting the material is very concise and it tends to be critical. The key to writing an effective summary is combining the material you choose to include into concise, coherent sentences and paragraphs. If your sentences are carelessly formed, not only will the summary be unreadable, you will also lose the connection among the pieces of information in the summary. You could simply wind up with tossed word salad. On the other hand, carefully written sentences can help show how the separate facts and ideas fit together to build the meaning of the whole. Thoughtful word choice and sentence structure can help you reduce a summary by half with no loss of information, ideas, or clarity. Incidentally, because the summary form places such a premium on conciseness and clarity, writing summaries provides excellent practice for the improvement of your general writing style. When writing a summary, you may adhere to the following plan:

1) the heading.
2) the theme of the paper;
3) the key problems (thematic points) discussed,
4) the conclusion at which the author arrives.

Work on a summary.

1. make a plan;

2. state the problem. The key problem is the main part of your summary. It is usually in the beginning, in the conclusions. The title also can be very useful;

3. write out the keywords or combination of words related to your plan;

4. look through the questions which are often given after the text. They may be used as a plan sometimes;

5. don't forget to use linking words or connectors and the words of narration;

6. make a conclusion.

Points to consider:

- your ideas of a good academic summary;
- comment on the difference between an academic summary and an abstract.

UNIT VII

ORAL PRESENTATIONS

Like any form of presentation, an oral presentation needs you to pay close attention to research and planning. You should first consider your purpose, audience and setting.

Purpose

- What is the aim of your research?
- What is the key focus of your presentation?
- Why are you presenting it in oral form?
- If you are presenting as a group, what will the other group members say?

Audience

- Who are you presenting your findings to?
- What does your audience expect to gain from listening to you?
- What is the age group and educational background of your audience?
- Are they more or less knowledgeable on the topic than you?

Setting

- What facilities will be available?
- Is there a computer with a projector?
- How big is the room?
- Will you need a microphone?
- Can you visit the room beforehand to check the facilities?
- Will your audience be seated in rows or around tables?

When should I use PowerPoint?

Communication is both verbal and visual. Using visual aids can make your presentation more interesting and informative, besides helping you to engage your audience. PowerPoint is an effective way to present visual information. It provides several useful features and looks professional when used appropriately.

As with any effective essay, an oral presentation needs an introduction, a body and a conclusion.

The Introduction

An introduction is essential. It allows you to engage your audience and set the scene for the talk which follows. Without an introduction, your audience will not know where you are taking them and what your main points will be. A good introduction should include:

- your name (and perhaps your academic background)
- the subject of your talk
- a brief background to the subject
- a statement as to why the subject is important
- an outline of the main points
- any questions that you will address
- any questions or points you want the audience to consider while you're talking.

The introduction helps the audience to follow your talk by knowing what points to expect, and the order of these points. Do not spend too long on the introduction, but do give your audience time to assimilate what you are saying. You should spend most time on the body of the talk. For example, if you're giving a 10 minute presentation then 2-3 minutes is enough for the introduction. If you need to give a lot of background, you can move that to the body section.

The Body

The body is the major part of the presentation. This is where you elaborate on your points, perhaps with images or sound—as they say, 'A picture is worth a thousand words.' Be careful not to use gimmicks though; include only those things which will help you to make your point more clearly or forcefully. Remember to give examples for each point, and use graphs or tables if appropriate.

The Conclusion

Your conclusion should match the points in your introduction and body, but never be longer than the introduction. It should leave the audience with a final impression of the subject. You should consider the following questions:

- What were your major points?
- Did you answer any questions during the talk?
- Did you ask the audience any questions which you need to recap now?
- Is there anything the audience are not clear about?
- What do you want your audience to remember after your talk?

Not all presentations will include time for questions. Check with your tutor (or whoever is managing the presentations) about whether you need to do this. Prepare your talk thoroughly so that you can answer questions about what you have addressed. If you are asked questions you cannot answer, don't be afraid to say, 'I don't know, but I'll try and find out'. You could also try asking other members of the audience if they know the answer.

How do I prepare for an oral presentation?

Preparation will help to give you confidence. However, most people feel nervous before a presentation. Here are some points to consider:

Anxiety and Nerves - If you are feeling particularly anxious, try taking deep breaths before you start and focus on speaking slowly. The best method for coping with nerves is to act as though you feel confident. It helps to smile. Remember that you will probably look a lot less nervous than you feel. Even if you look nervous, most of the audience will be sympathetic, because they will be feeling nervous too! Try having a glass of water handy, to sip if your throat becomes dry.

Body Language - Your body can communicate impressions to your audience. Your audience will not only listen to you, but they will also watch you, so make sure you maintain good eye contact with them. Try to look at everyone, not just a few people in the front row. Slouching may suggest that you are uninterested in the topic or that you do not care. On the other hand, good posture may suggest to your audience that you know exactly what you are doing and it will also help you to speak more clearly. Above all, be enthusiastic. If you are excited by your topic, you will enthuse your audience too.

Notes/Cue Cards – Reading an essay out loud is not the same as doing a presentation. Spoken and written language often have a different purpose and audience. Reading from a text will make you lose eye contact, intonation and good posture. Reduce your original text to bullet points and practise filling in the gaps during your rehearsals. Use notes, either on cue cards or on a sheet of paper. Number the cards, in case you drop them.

Time Limit – Make sure you keep to the time limit. If you take too long, you are taking someone else's time and your

audience will become bored and restless. At the same time, do not finish too early, as it may seem that you did not understand the topic or that you did not do enough research.

Voice Projection – Speak loudly enough for your audience to hear you. Imagine you are speaking to someone at the back of the room; that way, everyone should hear you. If you have a quiet voice, consider using a microphone. Don't talk too quickly, and be careful to speak clearly. Try not to speak in a monotone, but vary the volume, speed and pitch of your voice.

Practice – Don't let the first time you give your presentation be the only time you give it. Practise with a critical friend, preferably in the same environment in which you will deliver the actual talk. Consider recording the practice so you can watch it several times and pick up areas for improvement.

Study the following requirements for an oral presentation as making an effective presentation is a vital skill.

- When making a presentation you must, first of all, ***present yourself.***
- Doing research for your presentation bear in mind that the content should be both ***educational and professionally relevant***.
- Your ***topic*** should be challenging, interesting, relevant, appropriate for the audience and off the beaten track.
- In your ***introduction*** you should get the audience's attention and give the outline of your speech. You should tell the audience what your presentation is about and what points you want to make.
- Make sure each part of your presentation logically follows from another The ***organization*** of your speech should be clear

and easy to follow; it should have at least 3 parts which will meet the requirements for the given type of text.

- There should be clear ***transitions*** between the parts of your presentation.
- Make sure each part of your presentation logically follows from another.
- End with a summary of your points.
- Make sure you can keep to the time limit (10 minutes). Think of parts you can leave out if you feel you exceed the time limit
- You should maintain proper ***eye contact*** (by looking at everyone, not focusing on the ceiling, windows or one person).
- Your ***voice*** should be enthusiastic, confident and of good volume.
- When making the presentation: stand rather than sit when speaking; do not read your notes or slides, speak; do not speak too fast, make pauses; remain calm and confident in your delivery.
- You should make sure that your ***pronunciation*** is easy to understand and you pronounce keywords correctly.
- The ***pace*** of your speech shouldn't be too fast (then it will be difficult to understand what you are saying) or too slow (the audience will get bored).
- You should ***interact*** with the audience: check if they are following you and encourage some feedback.
- You should use the board, handouts or power point to provide enough visual support.
- When preparing a power point presentation, follow these suggestions: use big enough typeface to be seen from the back of the room; avoid white printing on dark background; avoid putting too much text into one slide; have the title of the

presentation, your name and group number on the 1st slide; conclude with a thank-you slide.

Academic Vocabulary

Good morning everyone, I'd like to start by introducing myself. My name is...
I am a researcher from …
I've been working on the subject now for …years
I've had wide experience in the field of …
I am very pleased and proud to introduce … He/she is known for…
Now I'll turn the floor over to today's speaker. (to take the floor, to have the floor, to give the floor to someone.)
I plan to speak about...
The subject of my presentation is...
The theme of my talk is...
I've been asked to give you an overview of.
I will not speak about...
I have limited my speech to
My talk will last about 15 minutes
Today I'm going to talk about….
In this talk I will deal with the topic…
I would like to start by saying/ let me begin by saying that
This is a significant issue at the moment in many ways…
This is a really important topic today because…
What I'm going to tell you about today will change the way you think about...
This issue is particularly significant in this country.
To present /outline the structure/plan of my talk…
I'm going to look at this issue from different angles. Firstly, I will talk about …. Then, I will deal with… Finally, I will try to explain the …

Now let's take an example.
An example of this can be found...
To illustrate this…
Let's see this through an example
Now let's look at...
Let's turn to/move on to ...
What you really need to know about is ...
Let me now summarise what I have said about…
So, all of the above shows that …
As I have already said earlier...
As we saw in part one...
To repeat what I've said already…
I quote the words of ...
In the words of…
According to...
Here I'd like to quote…
It appears reasonable to conclude that…
So we can conclude beyond reasonable doubt.
Before I conclude I would like to sum up the most important points once again
To summarize …
To sum up
Let me summarize by saying…
So that concludes my overview…
In conclusion…
Briefly said…
In short…
What I've tried to show in this part...
To recap what we've seen so far…

I. Answer the following questions.

1. What are the main points that should be first considered as far as the oral presentations are concerned?
2. What does an oral presentation comprise?
3. What is the best method for coping with nerves?
4. Is it better to speak quickly or slowly while doing a presentation? Why?
5. What rules are suggested by the author to become an effective speaker?
6. How can you control the time during an oral presentation?
7. How can you use your voice so that it can be clear for the audience?
8. Is it acceptable to gesture during an oral presentation or will it destroy everything?
9. How do younger and older generations react to the gestures?
10. What is meant by saying "suit the action to the word and the occasion"?

II. Label each sentence true, false or not given according to the article.

1. Smiling helps to seem more comfortable and less nervous than you are.
2. The audience never watches you; the most important thing is that they listen to you.
3. Reading from a text will make you lose eye contact, intonation and good posture.
4. It doesn't matter how long you take the presentation. If the topic is interesting the audience will listen to you until the end.
5. The speaker should choose only one tone of voice, since various tones will disturb the audience to understand clearly.

6. The speaker should practice in different areas and in front of different people before the presentation.
7. While gesturing the focus should be on hands and the speaker should control his/her gestures.
8. The overdo of gesturing will draw the listener away from the message.
9. It is a good idea to inhibit your impulse to gesture, as you will feel tensed and nervous when overdoing it.
10. Videotaping is merely a loss of time and only disturbs you, since each time you notice something bad.
11. Good posture helps to speak more clearly.
12. Having notes makes the speaker lose eye contact, intonation, and good posture.
13. Speaking loudly means you perfectly understand your topic.
14. Practicing with a critical friend may help to have a good presentation.
15. Inhibiting a gesture is considered to be normal.
16. A speaker should think about gestures during a presentation.
17. Young and old audiences have different attitudes towards gestures.
18. Three parts of a gesture should be evident for the audience.
19. All the speakers may make natural gesturing a habit.

III. Give the Armenian equivalents of the following word-combinations:

particularly anxious; maintain good eye contact; to cope with nerves; slouching; sympathetic; good posture; handy; to sip; cue cards; anxiety and nerves; take a deep breath; handy; to enthuse the audience; bullet points; to speak in a monotone voice; to deliver the actual talk; reflections of individual personality; inhibit the impulse to gesture; to be totally involved; to suit the action; vigorous

gestures; lively and distinct; balanced posture; stilted and ineffective gestures; to eliminate bad habits; spontaneous gesture; areas of improvement.

IV. Give the English equivalents of the following word-combinations:

քննադատ ընկեր, աշխույժ ժեստեր, հիմնավորված լինել, անբնական կեցվածք, խանդավառ, տարված լինել թեմայով, համարակալել քարտերը, ժամանակային սահմանափակում, ճիշտ հաշվարկված, ձայնի հնչեղություն, տոնայնություն, խորը շունչ քաշել, փոխանցել տպավորությունները, ժեստերի հոսք, հմտանալ, անբնական ժեստեր, ներկայացնել բանավոր կերպով, ներկայացնել խմբով, ելույթի գլխավոր կետերը, ունկնդիրների տարիքային խումբ, պարզ պատկերացում ունենալ, թեմայի վերաբերյալ վերջնական տպավորություն թողնել, համառոտ ձևով ներկայացնել:

V. Find the English equivalents of the following definitions using the active vocabulary of the text:

preventing concentration or diverting attention; unnatural, very skilled or proficient at something; hinder, restrain, or prevent (an action or process); stand, move, or sit in a lazy, drooping way; drink (something) by taking small mouthfuls; a trick or device intended to attract attention; to create the conditions in which something can happen; not to be too long.

VI. Fill in the gaps with the following words and word-combinations.

visual communication; projector; visual aid; to assimilate; to set the scene; gimmick; to engage an audience; an oral presentation; to elaborate; to recap.

1. Don't just show a …… you should with comment on it or provide an explanation.
2. I had studied with him, because he is clearly a master at…….
3. You may be required to develop and deliver …… by yourself or with other students, and to answer questions from the audience about your presentation.
4. Visual literacy is a branch of …… research.
5. The contest was a ……to get people to sign up for their mailing list.
6. The congresswoman said she was resigning but refused to ……on her reasons for doing so.
7. You can go all-out and get gigantic televisions or …..or keep it simple with a good DVD player and television.
8. The seventh episode ….. the events of the first six days of the competition.
9. Some foreigners …… easily into our way of life.
10. These findings …… for further debate on the system.

VII. Imagine that you are going to make an oral presentation. Find out what the given situations refer to: audience, setting or purpose? Make up your own situations and add to the columns below.

1. “I am starting in 10 minutes! I still cannot find that PDF in my laptop!”

2. To a team member: “Your part is the longest one, are you able to speak loudly enough or do you need a microphone?”
3. “I have prepared for this presentation for a long time. I am certain about making everyone engaged into this topic and apprehend it.”
4. “There are no enough chairs in this room. Oh, yes, and do not forget to put a bottle of water on each table.”
5. “We should restrict the number of participants, let’s say people over 50 are not allowed to enter, as it will surely be boring to them to listen about the evolution of the iphone during the last 20 years”.

Audience	***Setting***	***Purpose***

VIII. Match the statements with the appropriate table column below.

1. The main purpose of you talk
2. Elaborating with your points
3. The name of your presentation
4. Give examples on your points
5. Using graphs for supporting your speech
6. Asking questions to the audience
7. Discussing the points misunderstood
8. Introducing the importance of your subject
9. Checking what the audience remembered
10. Introducing yourself

Introduction	***Body***	***Conclusion***

IX. Paraphrase the following sentences.

a. in your own words

1. The best method for coping with nerves is to act as though you feel confident.
2. Slouching may suggest that you are uninterested in the topic or you don't care.
3. If you are excited by your topic, you will enthuse your audience too.
4. Your gestures should be lively and distinct if they are to convey the intended impression.
5. Effective gestures are vigorous enough to be convincing and slow enough to be visible without being overpowering.

b. using the words and expressions from the text

1. Body language is the reverberation of the orator's personal characteristics.
2. If you restrain your stimulus to use body language, you will feel constrained.
3. Body language should be used without any difficulty and occur at an appropriate time.
4. Committing each gesture to memory will make the gestures unnatural and useless.
5. Realize your bad habits and don't hesitate to liquidate them one after another.

X. Match the words with their explanations.

1. Handy	a. to show enthusiasm
2. Sympathetic	b. telling or disposed to tell the truth
3. To enthuse	c. stiff and self-conscious or unnatural
4. To sip	d. defeat or overcome with superior strength
5. Pitch	e. drink (something) by taking small mouthfuls

6. To execute	f. the quality of a sound governed by the rate of vibrations producing it; the degree of highness or lowness of a tone.
7. Truthful	g. characterized by or involving physical strength, effort, or energy
8. To overpower	h. feeling, showing, or expressing sympathy
9. Vigorous	i. put (a plan, order, or course of action) into effect
10. Stilted	j. ready to hand

XI. Translate into Armenian.

1. Your guide will be knowledgeable about all aspects of your tour, from geography through history.
2. Some universities still ask questions about parents' occupations and educational background.
3. Using visual aids can make your presentation more interesting and informative, besides helping you to engage your audience.
4. The immigrant family found it difficult to assimilate to new customs because they were vastly different than their own culture.
5. At the beginning of the visit, visitors are invited to attend an oral presentation visually sustained by PowerPoint slides.
6. We can do nothing but wait for a while until the seats are available. With the help of visual aids your presentation will easily engage your audience into your talk and provide all the information in more communicative and interesting way.
7. Having set the scene, introduced yourself and the main points of your topic (it is preferable to spend on it 2-3 minutes in case of 10 minutes presentation) you should pass onto the main body.

8. You need to be careful and not to use improper gimmicks, instead of pay close attention to the ones which make your speech more clearly and forcefully.
9. Always remember keeping a bottle of water handy when you are giving a talk, in case of feeling dryness in your throat sip it.
10. It is suggested to videotape yourself and identify your bad habits, then work on eliminating them till evaluating your progress if you expect to eliminate your distracting mannerism.

XII. Translate into English.

1. Խոսելիս նայիր ունկնդիրներին, և եթե տեղի սովորությունները թույլ են տալիս, մի քանի վայրկյան հայացքդ ուղղիր նրանց աչքերին: Աշխատիր քո առջև տեսնել ոչ թե մարդկանց մի խումբ, այլ առանձին անհատների:
2. Մարդը չի կարող լիովին վերահսկել իր զգացմունքները, ուստի, եթե դուք սովորում եք «կարդալ» մարմնի լեզուն, կարող եք ճանաչել խաբեությունը, որոշել զրուցակիցի ցանկությունը, սովորել նրա վերաբերմունքը ձեզ եւ այլն:
3. Մարդու ներքին աշխարհը և նրա մարմնի և ժեստերի լեզուն իրար հետ կապված են:
4. Մարդկային ռեակցիաների մեծ մասի ռեֆլեքսային բնույթը թույլ չի տալիս նրան լիովին վերահսկել սեփական ժեստերը, կեցվածքը և դեմքի արտահայտությունները:
5. Դեմքի արտահայտությունները `դեմքի մկանների շարժը, որոնք արտացոլում են ներքին հուզական վիճակը,

կարող են ճշմարիտ տեղեկություններ հաղորդել այն մասին, թե ինչ է զգում մարդը։

6. Ելույթի նպատակը որոշելուց և համապատասխան թեմա ընտրելուց հետո (կամ տեսնելուց հետո, թե ինչպես է արդեն տրված թեման համապատասխանում այդ նպատակին) փնտրտուքներդ ավելի կոնկրետ կլինեն։
7. Փնտրիր այնպիսի նյութեր, որոնք հատկապես արժեքավոր կլինեն քո ունկնդրի համար։
8. Խուսափիր ընդհանուր մտքերից. գտիր այնպիսի մտքեր, որոնք հարուստ են տեղեկություններով և իսկապես օգտակար են։
9. Եթե ելույթի պլանը նախապես կազմես, ապա բավականին ժամանակ կունենաս այն մշակելու՝ նախքան ելույթով հանդես գալը։
10. Ելույթի հիմնական կառուցվածքը բաղկացած է երեք բաղադրիչներից՝ ներածություն, մարմին և եզրակացություն:

✍ ***Render the following passage in English.***

Գիտահետազոտական աշխատանքները կարևոր է դասակարգել ոչ միայն ըստ հիմքի կամ գործառույթի, այլև՝ ներկայացման ձևի: Շատ հաճախ թյուր կարծիք է ստեղծվում, թե գիտաշխատողը պետք է մշտապես զբաղվի միայն հետազոտություններով՝ մոռացության մատնելով դրանց արդյունքների ամփոփումը որոշակի ձևով: Մինչդեռ շատ կարևոր է ստացված արդյունքի ներկայացման ձևը: Հե-

տևաբար գիտահետազոտական աշխատանքները դասակարգվում են նաև ըստ ներկայացման ձևի:

Գիտահետազոտական աշխատանքների ներկայացման հիմնական նպատակն ստացված արդյունքի հանրահռչակումն է, քանի որ տվյալ արդյունքը գիտության մաս կարող է դառնալ միայն հրապարակումից հետո: Հրապարակման գիտական հարթակը գիտաժողովներն են, որտեղ էլ հետազոտողը գիտական զեկուցմամբ հրապարակում է իր գիտական հետազոտության արդյունքները: Վերջին տարիներին զգալի տարածում է գտել գիտական հետազոտության արդյունքների նախնական կամ նույնիսկ ամբողջական հրապարակումը գիտական հիմնարկների պաշտոնական կայքերում: Նույնիսկ եղել են դեպքեր, երբ որևէ գյուտ կամ հայտնագործություն առաջին անգամ ներկայացվել է գիտահանրամատչելի ֆիլմի միջոցով: Այսպես, 2009 թ. նորվեգացի գիտնական Յ. Հուրումն անգլիական առաջատար մի քանի հեռուստաընկերություններով ցուցադրեց հայտնաբերված հնագույն պրիմատներից մեկի՝ 47 մլն տարեկան Դարվինիուսի հայտնագործումը ներկայացնող հետաքրքիր ֆիլմ, որը հակասական ընդունելության արժանացավ գիտական հանրության կողմից: Քննադատները նշում էին, որ անհրաժեշտ էր նախապես գիտական շրջանակներում քննարկել հայտնագործությունը և դրանից հետո միայն ցուցադրել գիտահանրամատչելի ֆիլմը:

Այսպիսով, գիտական հանրության համար առաջնային են շարունակում դիտարկվել գիտական զեկուցումները գիտաժողովներում, քանի որ այստեղ ծավալվում են գիտա-

կան քննարկումներ տարբեր գիտնականների միջև, և հետազոտողը կարողանում է բացահայտել իր իսկ կատարած հետազոտության թույլ և ուժեղ կողմերը:

Further reading

How to Gesture Effectively

Gestures are reflections of every speaker's individual personality. What's right for one speaker may not be right for another; however, the following six rules apply to anyone who seeks to become a dynamic effective speaker.

1. Respond naturally to what you think, feel, and see. – It's natural for you to gesture, and it's unnatural for you not to. If you inhibit your impulse to gesture, you will probably become tense.

2. Create the condition for gesturing, not the gesture – When you speak, you should be totally involved in communicating, not thinking about your hands. Your gestures should be motivated by the content of your presentation.

3. Suit the action to the word and the occasion – Your visual and verbal messages must function as partners in communicating the same thought or feeling. Every gesture you make should be purposeful and reflective of your words so the audience will note only the effect, not the gesture itself. Don't overdo the gesturing. You'll draw the listener away from your message. Young audiences are usually attracted to a speaker who uses vigorous gestures, but older, more conservative groups may feel irritated or threatened by a speaker whose physical actions are overwhelming.

4. Make your gestures convincing – Your gestures should be lively and distinct if they are to convey the intended impressions. Effective gestures are vigorous enough to be convincing yet slow

enough and broad enough to be clearly visible without being overpowering.

5. Make your gestures smooth and well timed – Every gesture has three parts:

- **The Approach** – Your body begins to move in anticipation.
- **The Stroke** – The gesture itself.
- **The Return** – This brings your body back to a balanced posture.

The flow of a gesture - the approach, the stroke, the return- must be smoothly executed so that only the stroke is evident to the audience. While it is advisable to practice gesturing, don't try to memorize your every move. This makes your gesturing stilted and ineffective. The last rule is perhaps the most important but also the hardest.

6. Make natural, spontaneous gesturing a habit- The first step in becoming adept at gesturing is to determine what, if anything, you are doing now. The best way to discover this is to videotape yourself. The camcorder is completely truthful and unforgiving. If you want to become a better speaker, you need to make the camcorder your best friend.

Videotape yourself and identify your bad habits, then work at eliminating them, one at a time. You will need to continue to record yourself and evaluate your progress if you expect to eliminate all your distracting mannerisms.

To improve gestures, practice - but never during a speech. Practice gesturing while speaking informally to friends, family member, and coworkers.

Points to consider:

- prepare an oral presentation for a conference describing your research, with hand-outs and slide;
- discuss your methodology and compare the views of the two groups, discussing any similarities and differences.

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APPENDIX 1

GLOSSARY OF TERMS USED TO DISCUSS ACADEMIC WRITING

Abbreviation	The short form of a word or phrase.
Abstract	A short summary of the aims and scope of a journal article.
Acknowledgements	A list of people the author wishes to thank for their assistance, found in books and articles.
Appendix	(plural – appendices) A section at the end of a book or article which contains supplementary information.
Applied linguistics	The application of insights from theoretical linguistics to practical matters such as language teaching, remedial linguistic therapy, language planning or whatever.
Arbitrariness	An essential notion in structural linguistics which denies any necessary relationship between linguistic signs and their referents, e.g. objects in the outside world.
Areas of linguistics	Any of a number of areas of study in which linguistic insights are implemented. For instance sociolinguistics in which scholars study society and the way language is used in it. Another example is psycholinguistics which is concerned with the psychological and linguistic development of the child.
Assignment	A task given to students, normally for assessment.

Authority	A well-known expert on a subject.
Back issue	A previous issue of a journal or magazine.
Bias	A subjective preference for one point of view.
Bibliography	A list of sources an author has read but not specifically cited.
Brainstorm	A process of collecting ideas on a topic at random.
Case study	A section of an essay that examines one example in detail.
Citation	An in-text reference providing a link to the source.
Cohesion	Linking ideas in a text together by use of reference words.
Competence	According to Chomsky in his *Aspects of the theory of syntax* (1965) this is the abstract ability of an individual to speak the language which he/she has learned as native language in his/her childhood. The competence of a speaker is unaffected by such factors as nervousness, temporary loss of memory, speech errors, etc. These latter phenomena are entirely within the domain of *performance* which refers to the process of applying one's competence in the act of speaking. Bear in mind that competence also refers to the ability to judge if a sentence is grammatically well-formed; it is an unconscious ability.
Conclusion	The final section of an essay or report
Context	A term referring to the environment in which an element (sound, word, phrase) occurs.

Contraction	A shortened form of pronoun and verb e.g. she's, I'd.
Contrast	A difference between two linguistic items which can be exploited systematically. The distinction between the two forms arises from the fact that these can occupy one and the same slot in a syntagm, i.e. they alternate paradigmatically, e.g. the different inflectional forms of verbs contrast in both English and German. Forms which contrast are called *distinctive*. This can apply to sounds as well, for instance /p/ and /b/ contrast in English as minimal pairs such as *pin* /pɪn/ : *bin* /bɪn/ show.
Convention	An agreement, usually reached unconsciously by speakers in a community, that relationships are to apply between linguistic items, between these and the outside world or to apply in the use of rules in the grammar of their language.
Coursework	Assessed assignments given to students to complete during a course.
Creativity	An accepted feature of human language deriving from the phenomenon of sentence generation which accounts for speakers' ability to produce and to understand a theoretically infinite number of sentences.
Criteria (singular – criterion)	The principles on which something is judged or based.
Deadline	The final date for completing a piece of work.
Descriptive	An approach to linguistics which is concerned with saying what language is like and not what it should be like (prescriptivism).

Diachronic	Refers to language viewed over time and contrasts with *synchronic* which refers to a point in time. This is one of the major structural distinctions introduced by Saussure and which is used to characterise types of linguistic investigation.
Displacement	One of the key characteristics of human language which enables it to refer to situations which are not here and now, e.g. *I studied linguistics in London when I was in my twenties*.
Draft	The first attempt at a piece of writing.
Duality of patterning	A structural principle of human language whereby larger units consist of smaller building blocks, the number of such blocks being limited but the combinations being almost infinite. For instance all words consist of combinations of a limited number of sounds, say about 40 in either English or German. Equally all sentences consist of structures from a small set with different words occupying different points in the structures allowing for virtually unlimited variety.
Economy	A principle of linguistic analysis which demands that rules and units are to be kept to a minimum, i.e. every postulated rule or unit must be justified linguistically by capturing a generalisation about the language being analysed, if not about all languages.
Edited book	A book with contributions from a number of writers, controlled by an editor.

Extract A piece of text taken from a longer work Formality In written work, the use of a non-idiomatic style and vocabulary.

Extralinguistic Any phenomenon which lies outside of language. An extralinguistic reason for a linguistic feature would be one which is not to be found in the language itself.

Figurative Any use of a word in a non-literal sense, e.g. *at the foot of the mountain* where *foot* is employed figuratively to indicate the bottom of the mountain. Figurative usage is the source of the second meaning of polysemous words.

Formalist An adjective referring to linguistic analyses which lay emphasis on relatively abstract conceptions of language structure.

Format The standard pattern of layout for a text.

General linguistics A broad term for investigations which are concerned with the nature of language, procedures of linguistic analysis, etc. without considering to what use these can be put. It contrasts explicitly with *applied linguistics*.

Generative A reference to a type of linguistic analysis which relies heavily on the formulation of rules for the exhaustive description (generation) of the sentences of a language.

Head The centre of a phrase or sentence which is possibly qualified by further optional elements, in the phrase *these bright new signs* the head is *signs* as all other elements refer to it and are optional. The term is also used in lexicology to refer to the determining

	section of a compound; in *family tree*, the element *tree* is head and *family* is modifier.
Heading	The title of a section of text.
Hierarchy	Any order of elements from the most central or basic to the most peripheral, e.g. a hierarchy of word classes in English would include nouns and verbs at the top and elements like adjectives and adverbs further down with conjunctions and subordinators still further down. The notions of top and bottom are intended in a metaphorical sense.
Higher degree	A Master's degree or Doctorate.
Hypothesis	A theory that a researcher is attempting to explore/ test.
Idealisation	A situation where the linguist chooses to ignore details of language use for reasons of greater generalisation.
Introduction	The first part of an essay or article.
Journal	An academic publication in a specialised area, usually published quarterly.
Language	A system which consists of a set of symbols (sentences), realised phonetically by sounds,which are used in a regular order to convey a certain meaning. Apart from these formal characteristics, definitions of languages tend to highlight other aspects such as the fact that language is used regularly by humans and that it has a powerful social function.
Lay speaker	A general term to refer to an individual who does not possess linguistic training

and who can be taken to be largely unaware of the structure of language.

Level A reference to a set of recognisible divisions in the structure of natural language. These divisions are largely independent of each other and are characterised by rules and regularities of organisation. Traditionally five levels are recognised: phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics. Pragmatics may also be considered as a separate level from semantics. Furthermore levels may have subdivisions as is the case with morphology which falls into inflectional and derivational morphology (the former is concerned with grammatical endings and the latter with processes of word-formation). The term 'level' may also be taken to refer to divisions within syntax in generative grammar.

Linguistics The study of language. As a scientific discipline built on objective principles, linguistics did not develop until the beginning of the 19th century. The approach then was historical as linguists were mainly concerned with the reconstruction of the Indo-European language. With the advent of structuralism at the beginning of the 20th century, it became oriented towards viewing language at one point in time. The middle of this century saw a radically new approach — known as generative grammar — which stressed our unconscious knowledge of language

	and underlying structures to be found in all languages.
Linguistic determinism	Refers to the view, propounded by Edward Sapir and Benjamin Lee Whorf, that language determines the way in which people think. Also termed the *linguistic relativity hypothesis.*
Main body	The principal part of an essay, after the introduction and before the conclusion.
Margin	The strip of white space on a page around the text.
Marked	A term used to state that a particular form is statistically unusual or unexpected in a certain context. For instance zero plurals in English such as *sheep* or *deer* are marked.
Metalanguage	The language which is used to discuss language; see also *object language*.
Metaphor	An application of a word to another with which it is figuratively but not literally associated, e.g. *food for thought*. This process is very common in the use of language and may lead to changes in grammar as with the verb *go* in English where its spatial meaning has come to be used metaphorically for temporal contexts as in *He's going to learn Russian*.
Module	Most academic courses are divided into modules, which examine a specified topic.
Onomastics	The linguistic study of names, both personal and place names. This field is particularly concerned with etymology and with the general historical value of the information which names offer the linguist.

Outline A preparatory plan for a piece of writing.

Paradigm The set of forms belonging to a particular word-class or member of a word-class. A paradigm can be thought of as a vertical list of forms which can occupy a slot in a syntagm. Pronounced [ˈpærədaim].

Parameter Any aspect of language which can obtain a specific value in a given language, e.g. canonical word-order which can have the verb in a declarative sentence either before the subject, after the subject or after both subject and object. Contrast *principle* in this respect.

Paraphrase A re-writing of a text with substantially different wording and organisation but similar ideas.

Peer-review The system used to assess the quality of a manuscript before it is published. Independent researchers in the relevant research area assess submitted manuscripts for originality, validity and significance to help editors determine whether a manuscript should be published in their journal.

Performance The actual production of language as opposed to the knowledge about the structure of one's native language which a speaker has internalised during childhood.

Phrase A few words that are commonly combined.

Plagiarism Using another writer’s work without acknowledgement in an acceptable manner.

Primary research Original research.

Productivity A reference to the extent that a given process is *not* bound in its application to a certain input. For instance the prefixation of *re-* to verbs in modern English is productive because this can be done with practically all verbs, e.g. *re-think, re-do, re-write*. The term also refers — in syntax — to the ability of speakers to produce an unlimited number of sentences using a limited set of structures.

Psychological reality The extent to which the constructs of linguistic theory can be taken to have a basis in the human mind, i.e. to somehow be reflected in human cognitive structures. Many linguists are divided on this issue, one extreme claiming that this requirement of a theory is not necessary, other saying that it is the ultimate test of any respectable theory.

Quotation Use of the exact words of another writer to illustrate your writing.

Redundancy The unnecessary repetition of ideas or information.

References A list of all the sources you have cited in your work.

Reflexiveness The possibility of using language to talk about language; this is one of its delimiting characteristics with respect to other communication systems.

Register The level of formality in language.

Rhetoric The technique of speaking effectively in public. Regarded in the past as an art and cultivated deliberately. **Root** 1) In

	grammar the unalterable core of a word to which all suffixes are added, e.g. *friend* in *un-friend-li-ness*. 2) In etymology, the earliest form of a word. 3) In phonetics, the part of the tongue which lies furthest back in the mouth.
Sapir-Whorf hypothesis	The notion that thought is determined by language. While few linguists nowadays accept this strict link, there would seem to be some truth to the postulation of the two American anthropologists/linguists.
Scan	A method of reading in which the eyes move quickly over the page to find a specific item.
Sign language	A communication system in which people use their hands to convey signals. In recent years sign language has been the object of linguists' attention and has come to be regarded as a fully-fledged system comparable to natural language with those individuals who are congenitally deaf and who learn sign language from childhood.
Skim	A related reading technique to quickly find out the main ideas of a text.
Source	The original text you have used to obtain an idea or piece of information.
Structuralism	A type of linguistic analysis which stresses the interrelatedness of all levels and sub-levels of language. It was introduced at the beginning of the century by Ferdinand de Saussure (1957-1913) as a deliberate reaction to the historically oriented linguistics of the 19th century and subsequently

established itself as the standard paradigm until the 1950's when it was joined, if not replaced, by generative grammar.

Summary A shorter version of something.

Synchronic A reference to one point of time in a language. This may be the present but need not be. Forms a dichotomy with *diachronic*. Structural studies of language are usually synchronic and the Indo-Europeanists of the 19th century were diachronic in their approach.

Synopsis A summary of an article or book.

Taxonomic A scheme of classification, especially a hierarchical classification, in which things are organized into groups or types.

Theoretical linguistics The study of the structure of language without any concern for practical applications which might arise from one's work.

Underlying representation A representation of what is assumed by the linguist to be the structure which lies behind or forms the initial stage in the generation of a surface structure item.

Unproductive Refers to a process which is bound to specific lexemes and hence cannot be used at will by speakers.

Zero Any element which is postulated by the linguist but which has no realisation in language.

Zoosemiotics The investigation of communication systems used by animals.

APPENDIX 2

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS MOST FREQUENTLY USED IN SCIENTIFIC LITERATURE

A.	academician
abbr.	abbreviation
abr.	abridged
a.f.	as follows
afsd	aforesaid
a.m.	above mentioned
a.o.	and others
app	approximate
Appx	appendix
BA	Bachelor of Arts
B. A.	British Academy
B.R.	book of reference
BS	Bachelor of Science
c.c.	chapters
ch.	chapter
cit.	cited
chron.	chronology
d.	degree
diss.	dissertation
DM	Doctor of Sc. Medicine
Dr.	doctor
e.	error
ed.	edition
e.g.	exempli gratia (Lat.)
Enc.	Encyclopedia
etc.	et cetera (Lat.)
ff	following
fig.	figure

fn	foot-note
hdbk	hand-book
hf	half
H.Q.	high quality
hum.	human
i.e.	id est (Lat.)
i.f.	in full
ill.	illustration
int	international
intr	introduce; introduction
i.o.	in order
iss.	issued
lang.	language
lect.	lecture
Lib.	library
lit.	literature
log.	logic
Ltd.	limited
MA	Master of Arts
marg.	marginal
mem., memo	memorandum
meth.	method misc. – miscellaneous
MSc	Master of Science
Nb., Nbr.	number
n.d.	no date
N.E.	new edition
n/m	not marked
no.	number
n.p.	no place of publication mentioned
o/a, o.a.	overall
o.a.t.	one at a time
O.C.	official classification

opp.	opposite
ors	others
p.a.	per annum (Lat), yearly
P. G.	post-graduate
Ph. D.	Doctor of Philosophy
prec.	preceding
Pref.	preface
pref.	preference
R&D	research and development
re.	reference (to)
ref.	reference
res.	research
rev.	reverse
rev.	revised
S/sec.	section
Sig.	signature
sym.	symbol
syst.	system
t.o.	turn over
tech.	technique
term.	terminology
u.	unit
u.m./umn	undermentioned
unf.	unfinished
vol.	volume
v.v.	vice versa (Lat.)
Wks.	works
Y.	year

APPENDIX 3

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

AUTHENTIC AUDIO MATERIALS IN ESP

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Abstract
A contemporary approach to acquiring good listening skills in a foreign language has recently emerged due to audio publishing online. It is known as 'podcasting' and has become common because it offers language learners extra listening practice both inside and outside of English classes. Moreover, podcasting as online communication technology is a new way to inspire learning: it provides an exciting way for students and educators to explore and discover educational content. However, applicability of podcasting to teaching English needs researching. This paper describes research into learners' perceptions of online listening to podcasts, self-evaluation of their own performance in individual listening practice and reflections on ways of improving listening skills. The findings give insights into a practice of developing listening competence. Some implications of research are described including a recommendation for a so called 'blended learning', i.e. combination of multiple approaches to learning by harmonizing online listening with classroom audition activities in learning English for Specific Purposes.

Introduction

Online audio and podcasts are the innovative tools of learning communicative English. The best place to explore what can be used in English classes is either the BBC website, or the BBC World Service website, or English learning websites. To start

listening to online radio materials, the first step is to download the BBC iPlayer. Another online option is listening to podcasts. A podcast, in plain English, is an audio program that needs to be subscribed to, quite often free of charge. It can be listened to either on one's computer, or MP3 player or iPod. Podcasts are supposed to be the best options because students can listen to them anywhere outside the class – in the street, on a public transport, etc. There are a number of podcasts related to learning English. The British Council has just created some new LearnEnglish Podcasts Web pages that are free fro teachers and students to use. Some of the available websites are reproduced below.
http://www.bbc.co.uk/radio
http://www.bbc.co.uk/radio/podcasts
http://www.britishcouncil.org/learningenglish-podcasts
http://www.elanguages.ac.uk/podcast/index.html
http://a4esl.org/p/ which include:
VOA Special English
Links to Podcasts for ESL
Links to Podcasts for Native English Speakers
Links to Downloadable MP3 File

Advantages of podcasting and its research

A novel approach to teaching listening skills has emerged due to the hi-tech developments. It is a so called 'podcasting' (a portemanteau of the words iPod and broadcasting), which has recently become very popular. The term 'podcast' was coined in 2004, and it means the publishing of audio via the Internet. Audio recording is designed to be downloaded and listened to on a portable MP3 player of any type, or on a personal computer. Listening to audio is nothing new to the Internet. Audio files available for downloading and other means of online listening have

been around for some time. Podcasting differs from other ways of delivering audio online by the idea of automatically downloaded content. Podcasting offers language teachers and students a wide range of possibilities for extra listening practice both inside and outside of the classroom. Moreover, podcasts enable students to practice listening in a self-directed manner and at their own pace. By 2005, the concept of 'podcasting' reached its top point: thousands of podcasts were created, and The New Oxford American Dictionary named a 'podcast' its official 'Word of the Year'.

The advantages of podcasts are numerous: they can enhance the range and register of English language listening practice material available for the students to use in a variety of ways, provide increased connectivity between different elements of the course, give the language teacher a wealth of materials for teaching listening skills. P. Constantine (2007) covers the subject of podcasts on several levels and deals with the questions of the podcast advantages, selection of the most beneficial podcasts, and discusses how to maximize learning from podcasts: 1) learners can benefit from global listening, even if they only listen from three to five minutes a day; 2) students will be exposed to the new language; 3) the intermediate learner has a need for authentic texts and to be exposed to a variety of voices. Podcasts are not just intended for listening. Often there is a transcript provided along with worksheets. A number of websites interact with the students and ask them to write in with questions or comments. According to P. Constantine (2007), one innovative usage of podcasts is to have a student listen to a podcast and read along 3 its transcript. Then the student will make a recording of the material on a cassette tape and hand it out to the teacher along with a written journal. The teacher then listens to the student's recording and gives appropriate

feedback to the student. This type of activity helps the students to develop fluency in reading, to improve pronunciation, to acquire new vocabulary words, and to perfect listening skills.

It is thought that podcasting is particularly beneficial for English learners as it provides a means for students to get access to 'authentic' listening sources about almost any subject that may interest them. Teachers can take advantage of podcasts as a basis for comprehension exercises, as a way of generating conversation based on students' reaction to podcasts, and as a technique of providing each and every student diverse listening materials.

In his guide to using computers in language teaching, J. Szendeffy (2005) argues that computers provide students and teachers with greater access and integration of material than tape recorders or videocassettes. Moreover, this guide gives useful information how to digitalize materials and easily create recordings for class activities as well as good suggestions for finding online broadcasts, TV materials, and prepare students' own recorded speeches.

The substantial contribution into the problem of listening comprehension in the CALL environment was paid by the Special issue on Technology and Listening Comprehension of the Language Learning and Technology Journal (Volume 11, Number 1, February 2007). R. Robin (2007) argues that although "off-the-shelf technology is not ready for interactive oral-aural instruction…, but it is ideal for use by the strategically independent learner to acquire and improve receptive skills in an authentic environment". R. Robin suggests reexamining the value of pre-packaged listening comprehension materials in which L2 listeners are guided in listening strategies but are not encouraged to make use of technological innovations that native listeners are coming to use on a regular basis. On the other hand, M. Rost (2007) claims

that teachers have to plan interventions that develop students' skill at making the input comprehensible: "Helpful interventions in teaching listening promote the listener's motivation by advancing the listener's goals for listening". In M. Rost's opinion, the interruptions in the listening process can lead to a desire to listen more closely and with heightened curiosity. Therefore, providing targeted interventions that focus on the component processes of listening can allow learners to get more out of each listening encounter. Having examined the available sources on developing learners' listening skills in language classes, it is easier to understand why Internet audio has become so popular now. Although Internet audio and video files have been around for many years, recent technical innovations allow subscribers with portable MP3 players to use technology for downloading podcasts and to 4 listen to files at one's own convenience. This opens up new educational potential of using unproductive time for learning (McCarty, 2005).

Research into the student reaction to podcasting is still in progress but early indications from student feedback collected so far and analysis of course tracking suggest that the podcasts were highly appreciated and extensively used by students. The podcasts were frequently downloaded, and students reported listening to each several times over both for the listening practice they provided as well as for their entertainment or informational value (http://www.elanguages.ac.uk/podcast/index.html). Various research projects have investigated the use of podcasting in education. Details of these can be found on the website of the IMPALA Project (http://www.impala.ac.uk/index.html), a Higher Education Academy research project into podcasting. Current plans on e-languages podcasting include introducing a podcast strand to

all academic skill courses being delivered online. The BBC world service website published the survey on the users of podcasts.

It appeared that out of 285 responses there were 31% of females of various ages: 2% - under 20, about 15% aged 20 to 30, 6% aged 30 to 40, 8% - 40 to 50. There were 69 % of male users: 6% - under 20, 21% - aged 20 to 30, 17% - aged 30 to 40, 15% - aged 40 to 50, 10% - aged 50 plus. It shows that men are more active in downloading podcasts – 69% versus 31%. The age range of English learners is from 20 to 50 plus. (http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/radio/specials/1720_ten_years/page8.shtml)

A brief overview of how podcasting can be used in English Language Teaching is provided by T. N. Robb (http://www.cc.kyoto-su.ac.jp/~trobb/podcasting2.html), who suggests that there are three basic modes of activities for podcasting: 1) students as consumers, and teachers create material for students or assign them to listen to one of the many available ESL podcast sites; 2) students as producers or publishers, and teachers have students create material for others to listen to; 3) students practice through various exercises.

Aims and intended outcome of research

The aims of research are, firstly, to examine the challenges of listening to diverse authentic podcasts, and, secondly, to analyze learners' self-evaluation data on various ways of improving listening skills. The intended outcome of research is to formulate the tips for good practice in teaching / learning the techniques of perfecting skills of listening in ESP.

Research Techniques and Respondents

The research methods included, first, the survey of students' self-evaluation of their performance in listening to various podcasts at upper-intermediate, advanced, native speakers, or intermediate level (for learners of lower proficiency), and, second, students' reflections on their experience of online listening. The research techniques employed learners' reflections on their difficulties to listening to authentic recordings. Practice of listening to podcasts aimed to demonstrate to learners the opportunities of improving listening skills outside English classes.

Listening to podcasts had to serve a number of purposes:

1) to enhance the range and register of English language listening practice material available for the students to use in a variety of ways;

2) to provide increased connectivity between different elements of the course;

3) to increase the scope for discussion activity in the classroom in pairs after students have shared their listening experiences.

The major learners' task for podcasting practice was the evaluation of their ability to understand authentic language. The individual self-assessment involved checking one's comprehension (doing relevant exercises), reading transcript for clarification, looking up unknown vocabulary items in a dictionary, and summing up one's performance (very good, good, satisfactory). The participants in this research were the 1st and the 2nd year full-time students of the same specialization – psychology, who at the Faculty of Social Policy, Mykolas Romeris University, 6 Lithuania. The students were requested to accomplish listening to podcasts assignments and answer relevant questions of a specially designed questionnaire. The podcasts were chosen by learners themselves

from the website http://a4esl.org/p/ which included the following sections:

VOA Special English Links to Podcasts for ESL

Links to Podcasts for Native English Speakers

Links to Downloadable MP3 Files.

The reason why learners were free to choose podcasts for themselves was the aim of selfevaluating their own listening abilities individually. The idea was to motivate learners in the future to develop listening comprehension skills without the threat of teacher's evaluation. It has been assumed that none-threatening practice may help learners who dread taking risks and who will enjoy some success in listening individually.

Corporate listening to records in class differs from individual listening to podcasts in many aspects. The most obvious features of corporate listening are: either top-down or bottom-up techniques are employed, students work in pairs or small groups, listening themes are brainstormed, essential vocabulary is generated, students do various exercises before the listening procedure, e.g. matching vocabulary items with their definitions, predicting the contents or the details of the recorded material, etc., followed by checking learners' comprehension after the listening procedure has been accomplished.

Contrarily to corporate listening activity, listening autonomously in one's spare time ensures independence of learner's judgment of one's performance and helps develop critical approach to evaluation of success or failure in the activity. Also, there is an opportunity of improving listening skills from reading transcripts as a follow-up exercise. A fruitful idea of learning from transcripts was applied and discussed by T. Lynch (2007).

The students were asked to carry out the tasks of listening to podcasts for homework. The deadline of two weeks was agreed

with each group, by the end of which learners submitted feedback in writing.

It should be noted that performing their assignments some learners have chosen easier recordings while others looked for more challenging and difficult podcasts available at the above mentioned websites. Having completed the assignment and done comprehension exercises, students were able to evaluate their performance impartially by checking results (if an answer keywas available), or reading a transcript and looking up the meanings of unknown words. Such approach to independent self-evaluation helps learners assess their abilities to follow authentic English speech impartially. Learners submitted their feedback in writing which makes it easier to analyze.

Results of the self-evaluation survey

Results of learners' feedback: reflections on listening activities There are various ways of developing listening skills in a foreign language: listening activities in class, individual listening practice outside classes, using multi-media in one's spare time. In the classroom, activities of listening to authentic records are the most common ways of practicing listening comprehension. In accordance with students' feedback (Appendix), not every learner is keen on such activities. The major cause is most probably the diversity in language proficiency – what is beneficial to some students might be problematic to others, and some learners are reluctant to admit their difficulties in front of the class. Another way of practicing listening skills is podcasting which enables learners to conduct the activity at their own pace and at the convenient time. Students' assignment of podcasting, which was used in this research, revealed a variety of attitudes. In the online reflections, students admit to having problems in listening and

reason how to cope with difficulties. This is a positive point in itself as a student learns what she/he can do about it, e.g. keep practicing individually. Real life listening, e.g. socializing with the native speakers of English, is not feasible on the daily basis in this country but highly appreciated by learners. Passive listening by watching TV films is also ranked high and can be easily exercised nowadays due to the availability of the cable TV and the diversity of unabridged foreign films in local cinemas. In this research, students evaluated their listening skills individually by writing self-assessment entries in their weblogs.

It should be noted that some students compare listening activities in English classes with the autonomous activities of listening to podcasts online or listening to authentic speech of English speakers outside classes while others describe generally their opinions on listening experiences.

Conclusions

Two important aspects, the extent to which learners consciously focus on aspects of language, and the degree of noticing its particular features, have been currently debated by linguists and practitioners. This article documents the ways of raising language awareness by assigning a task of evaluating one's ability to understand authentic speech outside language class. Such an activity seems important for language processing and learner development. In this paper, the author infers that there is an opportunity for raising language awareness by employing podcasting which allows learners to carry out homework assignments at their own pace and under non-threatening conditions. The online methodology involves downloading a variety of podcasts and listening to them at the convenient time. Follow-up classroom discussions on benefits or failures of listening

to podcasts enable each learner to evaluate their ability to understand authentic records. Summarizing various types of listening experiences in individual weblogs allows learners to store written records of their progress. The tips of good practice in teaching / learning skills of listening are numerous. First, individual online listening to podcasts at one's own pace and at the convenient to a learner time prompts and motivates learners to improve skills of listening without being intimidated by possible failure. Second, raising learners' awareness of suitable individual ways of perfecting skill of listening promotes language learning. Third, the novelty and diversity of outside class listening motivates learners to perfect their skills without being observed by peers or teachers. Fourth, harmonizing online listening with classroom audition activities in teaching / learning English should benefit all learners. Fifth, learners become aware that listening skills can be improved through a lot of practice of their own choice. Finally, self-evaluating one's achievements and publishing a self-evaluation report in individual weblogs encourage learners to keep improving. Catering for the learners of diverse personalities, the teacher must acknowledge the fact that not all learners enjoy using digital technology in learning. Therefore, blended learning, which is a combination of multiple approaches to learning, might be preferable (Sharma and Barrett, 2007). A typical example of blended learning is a combination of e-learning and face-to-face sessions in the classroom. Students' reflections prove the importance of such an approach.

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REASSESSING THE ESP COURSES OFFERED TO ENGINEERING STUDENTS IN IRAN (A Case Study)

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Abstract

The aim of the present paper was twofold: first, to study the language skills and components of ESP textbooks offered to students at universities in Iran. Second, to investigate to what extent these ESP courses have been successful in fulfilling the job requirements of the prospective engineers. For the first purpose, the ESP textbook for "engineering students" being taught to university students in Iran was studied and its linguistic components and skills were identified. For the second purpose, a "needs analysis questionnaire" was sent to the engineers working in "production line" section of Mobarakeh Steel Complex. The results of the needs analysis revealed that ESP courses proposed at universities can make the grounds for the subjects' future job purposes but they are not sufficient to account for the specific job requirements of individual engineers. In other words, in-service ESP courses based on on-going analysis of the employees' needs should be administered in order to account for their specific job requirements. At last, based on the results of the "needs analysis" undertaken in this study (through using a questionnaire), a proposed model of a "skillbased syllabus" for an in-service ESP course for the present subjects (engineers working in "production line" section of Mobarakeh Steel Complex) has been suggested.

Introduction

On-going changes and increasing globalization have increased the importance of communicating in English at workplaces both within and across boundaries (Purpura and King 2003). Professional schools may need to re-asses the degree to which their students' career needs are being met by the existing language programs, so that policy and resources can be adjusted accordingly. In other

words, the concern is that whether the courses adequately equip students to communicate effectively in contexts that graduates are likely to encounter in their careers. This requires consideration of language needs expressed by graduates in their career contexts and reflection of those needs in language programs so that language instruction can better match learners' target situation needs. Given the diversity and evolving nature of workplace requirements, this study attempts to investigate the occupational needs of a group of engineers in order to see whether the ESP instructional materials offered to them at their B. S. studies have been in line with their workplace needs and have equipped them to communicate effectively in their careers.

Aims of the study

Although recently ESP courses favor a great deal of attention and emphasis among the EFL practitioners, there is a common belief among both learners and practitioners that ESP courses in Iran are not helpful. In other words, they believe university ESP courses offered to students of different fields of study suffer from a kind of inefficiency because they fail to account for the learners' future job requirements. When the learners graduate and start their job, they observe that their English knowledge is insufficient to fulfill their job purposes. This study, therefore, attempts to examine the objectives of the ESP courses specific to engineering students, and then investigate the target situation needs of a group of engineers in order to see whether the objectives of the ESP courses are in line with the subjects' target needs; if not, where the discrepancies lie. Finally, it hopes to propose a more efficient model of "syllabus design" based on the subjects' target situation needs mentioned by them in order to signify those linguistic components and skills which need to be emphasized in ESP course.

Statement of the problem

To serve these purposes, this study tries to examine the ESP textbook for engineering students and the job-related needs of a group of engineers working in Mobarakeh Steel Complex. The research questions to be considered are as follows:

1) At first place, what language skills and components are mostly focused on in ESP textbooks for engineering students?

2) What are the language skills and components that the engineers mention as their needs?

3) Are language skills and components of ESP textbooks in line with target needs of prospective engineers?

English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

In the past 35 years, ESP has attracted the attention and favor of so many practitioners in the field of TEFL. ESP is viewed as a cover term for teaching and learning English for multiple specific purposes: EAP (English for Academic Purposes), EOP (English for Occupational Purposes) and others. The main rationale behind ESP courses is the diversity and specificity of learners' objectives and needs for learning English. Considering the diversity and specificity of learners' needs, it seems crucial to conduct an in-depth needs assessment before planning and
implementing ESP courses.

Assessing foreign language needs

"Needs assessment" consists of the procedures designed to gather and analyse information about the target language needs of a specific group of learners in an existing or proposed setting so that inferences about curriculum can be drawn and informed decisions can be made (Purpura and King 2003). Focusing on the situation in which the learners are supposed to work after graduation reveals

the target needs. Literature on needs analysis reveals that the concept of "need" has been considered through different perspectives. Berwick (1989) defines need as the 'discrepancy between a current state of affairs and a desired future one'. The related research offers other dichotomies on "need", for instance, target vs. present situation needs, felt vs. perceived needs, subjective vs. objective needs, etc. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) define target needs as those required by the learners' in the context of use. They identify target needs as necessities and distinguish them from wants (what the learnersbelieve they need). Although wants are more subjective, both necessities and wants should be considered in the process of "needs analysis". A present situation analysis according to Robinson (1991) seeks to establish what the students are like at the start of their language course, investigating their strengths and weaknesses. Richterich (1983) suggests 3 sources of information for present situation analysis: the students themselves, the language teaching establishment and the user institution, for example the students' place of work. Berwick (1989) defines perceived needs as those that the educators make judgements about in other peoples' experience, while felt needs are defined as the ones that the learners have. Elsewhere, Brookfield (1988) defines felt needs as wants, desires, and wishes of the learner. Robinson (1991) states that all factual information about the learner e. g. language proficiency, L1 background, age, etc. form objective needs while cognitive and affective needs of the learner in language learning e. g. motivation, expectation, attitude, etc. form subjective needs.

Significance of implementing a needs analysis

Regarding the diversity of needs and their unique & situation-based nature, needs analysis has been considered as a prerequisite to the

process of course design. It enables the curriculum planners to see to what extent the existing programs are in line with the learners' real language needs. In other words, it shows whether the language programs are responsive to the learners' needs. This kind of evaluation not only helps administrators plan language courses which are more satisfying to the learners in terms of fulfilling their needs but also may improve the existing language programs in terms of objectives, topics, and materials. On the other hand, according to Kuter (2000), asking learners about their needs can motivate them and maximize the likelihood of their participation. However, it has been frequently mentioned in the literature (Richterich 1983, Huchinson and Waters 1987, Robinson 1991) that needs analysis should be an on-going process carried out during the life of each course since the learners' needs are changing too. This can help both the administrators and the teachers to take the changes into account in a way that promotes learners' success and fulfillment.

An overview of ESP courses for engineering students in Iran

After passing the EGP course, engineering students are supposed to pass two ESP courses. The first one is sub-technical, common to all engineers across all fields of study. The second course, however, is completely specialized for specific groups of engineers. The aim of the first course is to develop the learners' reading comprehension through using general engineering texts and comprehension exercises and to enhance the learners' sub-technical vocabulary (the terminology common to different fields of engineering). This course prepares the learners for reading texts specific to their own field of study. In the second ESP course, the learners are supposed to comprehend highly specialized texts and learn technical vocabulary.

A brief overview of ESP textbooks for engineering students in Iran

First ESP course

The ESP textbook for engineering (covered in the first ESP course) consists of 3 main parts:

I. Pre-reading

A. Pronunciation practice
B. Word study: Definitions
C. Definitions and exemplification
D. Grammatical points

In the pre- reading section, first the pronunciations and stresses of new words of the reading passage are provided. Then, their definitions and exemplification in the context of the new passage is presented. Finally, a grammar point is deductively introduced: the rule is explicitly stated and then is exemplified in the context of engineering. The difference between EGP & ESP grammar points seems to be that in EGP the grammar points are graded on some criterion (level of difficulty, usefulness, etc.) and are exemplified through general sentences. However, in ESP, there is no grading at work; the grammatical points typical for engineering discourse (most frequently occurred in engineering texts) are presented and illustrated in sentences specific to engineering texts.

II. Reading for comprehension

A. T/F questions
B. Multiple-choice comprehension questions
C. Oral questions.

The passages are about general engineering topics and their typical feature is that all of them are accompanied by pictures and all the pictures have subscriptions.

III. Homework

Section 1: Vocabulary

A. Vocabulary exercises (Parts of speech)

Fill in the blanks with the appropriate words from the list

C. Matching exercises

The entire vocabulary is taken from the passage or similar contexts.

Section 2: Grammatical exercises

In this section, there are lots of mechanical drills based on the grammar point presented in pre-reading part.

Section 3: Reading comprehension exercises

A passage with similar context along with multiple-choice comprehension questions has been given in this section.

Section 4: Translation practice and terminology

In this section, first the students are required to translate parts of the reading text and similar passages into Persian. Then, they are supposed to write the Persian equivalents of some technical/sub-technical terms.

Second ESP course

The book covered in this course consists of 3 main parts too:

I. Reading comprehension

A. Comprehension exercises

B. Language practice

a. Vocabulary

b. Word study (parts of speech)

c. Making a paragraph by using some scrambled sentences

II. Further reading

III. Translation activities

As it is observed, the focus of this book is on reading comprehension, terminology, and translation too. Other language skills and components have, however, been neglected.

Outlook of the ESP textbooks

The aim of this overview was not evaluating the ESP books for engineering; its purpose was only to have an outlook of the content, linguistic components, and language skills of those textbooks in order to see to what extent they are in line with the engineers' occupational needs mentioned by them in the questionnaire. However, regarding the main purpose of this research that is observing the extent to which engineering ESP textbooks can fulfill learners' future job requirements, one pointseems necessary to be mentioned here. It seems that the primary focus of the book is on reading comprehension, terminology, and translation: there are long reading passages accompanied by lengthy comprehension exercises and also there are lots of mechanical drills for one grammar point. There is no trace of writing and listening. Speaking is also too pale only observed in oral questions not seriously taken by either teachers or learners.

Procedure

Subjects

One of the aims of the this research was to find out whether the ESP courses that university students are supposed to pass are in fact helpful for their future job requirements or not. For this purpose, a group of employees with almost similar or the same field of study and almost similar or the same job requirements was needed. It was supposed that a workplace like "Mobarakeh Steel Complex" is suitable for this purpose. However, although there are

lots of workers and technicians there, most of them mechanically operate on some systems and their job does not demand any knowledge of English.Therefore, a brief survey was undertaken among the staff of the complex to find the group of employees who use English for their job purposes. The results of the survey revealed that the engineers working in "production line" section need some knowledge of English for their daily job requirements. So, they were selected as the target group. Then, the questionnaire was prepared and sent to them. However, only 30 persons sent the questionnaires back. All of them were male and received their B. S. in engineering in Iran. The details of the questionnaire are briefly mentioned in the next section.

Instrumentation

The method of collecting data adopted in this research was a subjects' "needs analysis questionnaire". This questionnare had the intention of collecting data on subjects' exact jobs, the extent to which they use English for their daily job purposes, the language components and skills that they mostly deal with, the probable preservice or in-service English courses that they had passed, the language skills and components that those courses focused on, and finally their felt needs for learning English. Some of the questions were open-ended and some others just needed the subjects' selections: the subjects were supposed to checkmark (√) the questions on the sub-skills (e.g. speaking in the international conferences, talking to foreign engineers who come to visit the production line, writing e-mail, etc.).

Discussion and conclusion

As the analysis of "English for engineering" (the ESP book passed by the subjects in their B. S. studies) reveals, the focus of ESP

courses in Iran is mostly on reading comprehension and sub-technical/technical terminology. However, as the data confirms none of the subjects mentioned "reading skill" as their felt needs and only 4 persons expressed their need to learn vocabulary. Therefore, it can be concluded that the usefulness of ESP university courses cannot be denied since they have been successful in establishing background knowledge at least on terminology and reading proficiency of that specific field in the prospective engineers' minds. On the other hand, when the subjects were asked about their present needs for learning English, they answered quite "individually" according to their exact job requirements. Therefore, it can be concluded that ESP courses for university students cannot be so vast that can account for the idiosyncratic needs of individual people with individual prospective job requirements. However, they can establish the background knowledge of that specific field of study/job in terms of terminology, discourse, and culture of the related discourse community. In fact, although they were absent in this case, in-service ESP courses seem more effective and more efficient. If based on a pervasive and comprehensive "needs analysis", in-service ESP courses can accommodate for ESP needs of individual employees. However, it should be emphasized that "needs analysis" is not a process administered once and for all at the beginning of the course; rather, it should be an on-going process repeated during the life of a language program.

Implications of the study

The results of this study revealed the skills and components of ESP textbooks for engineering students as well as the occupational needs mentioned by a group of engineers as the alumni who had passed the same courses. This study has pedagogical implications

for re-assessing the present ESP courses for engineering students in Iran. In other words, it implies that learners' on-going needs for English, which are in line with technological advances in communication, should be taken into consideration. For instance, "writing e-mail", the felt need mentioned by all the subjects, can be added to the list of instructional points of ESP textbooks. Finally, based on the results of the "needs analysis" undertaken in this study (through using a questionnaire), a proposed model of "syllabus design" for an in-service ESP course for the present target group (engineers working in "production line" section of Mobarakeh Steel Complex) is suggested in the following part.

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GENERAL ENGLISH AND ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES (ESP)

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Abstract
Studies of the English language take place on different levels, in various settings and contexts. This article is an attempt to survey the link between two types of English – General and Specific – as much as they are involved in teaching English the students of a higher technical school. Recognizing the fact that teaching English is always based on the language skills acquired at a secondary school one must understand the necessity to make language a professionally oriented subject because it should help to build students' better professional skill as well as to contribute to their education as persons maturing active members of a society.

Introduction

Nobody argues that language knowledge is very important nowadays. It is not only reliable basis for better communication. Today it is the source of technological progress as it enables rapid exchange of information and research of common global problems.

The development of language skills aims at active expansion of students' proficiency in English. Language classes at a higher school always make use of the texts of specific professional areas (architecture, business, civil engineering, electronics, environment, management, etc.). Such texts should usually be focused on the communicative needs of the students of a certain higher school. However, teaching/learning ESP includes much more than the teaching of English through specific material and content. Teaching ESP combines development of linguistic skills together with the acquisition of specific information. Even homework

assignment should be associated both with the speciality and with the skills mentioned.

Active participation in various interdisciplinary cooperative programmes on the international level requires academic knowledge, scientific competence and objective evaluation of new ideas. The knowledge of English facilitates the access to the resources of new information. Students and teachers are given opportunities to study or to teach for some period at the most prominent schools abroad.

Teaching languages is aimed at raising the quality of language studies and of higher education as well.

Two Types of English

The division of the English language studies into two types requires careful scrutiny of the needs and interests of the learner. Traditionally a secondary school learner or even a college student does not think much of the way he is going to use his foreign language knowledge. He realizes he needs this subject as it is included in the general curriculum and may become an important component when entering a higher school. On the other hand, general language teaching covers the teaching of the fundamentals of grammar, of expression as well as of phonetics and provides a stronger or weaker basis for possible later language studies. In any case the language teacher both at a secondary and at a higher school is in charge of the correct use of the language by its learners.

Teaching language for specific purposes is determined by different – professional/occupational, social and other – needs of the learner. Therefore English for specific purposes (ESP) includes specialized programmes which are designed to develop the communicative use of English in a specialized field of science,

work or technology. To be able to speak on a professional subject is not enough to know general vocabulary. However, a great part of professional vocabulary consists of general words, which either have a shift of meaning or make a new unit, usually becoming a compound word or a combination of words.

In the case of ESP language teaching/learning is purposeful, i. e. predetermined by the need of the student not only to get familiarized with both the language of science and technology, thus with the English language of the subject he studies but also with the subject itself.

Making use of a foreign language the student acquires profound professional knowledge. So the language becomes a means of teaching profession and appears to be significant in the context of the professional world. Nowadays the student has access to the Internet, and the knowledge of English opens him the doors to getting global information and the exchange of the information on the items he is interested in. Therefore, teaching/learning ESP is said to be speciality-oriented as it is submitted to specific (professional) needs of the student. Specific skills come from the selected texts which present special vocabulary and show the richness of the language in that field. Thus, it is difficult to determine where language learning ends and where subject learning starts or vice versa.

On the other hand, language study at a higher technical school does not confirm itself as a discipline in its own. Language becomes an interdisciplinary subject, a kind of intermediary directed towards increasing one's professional s professional career having in view of possible studies abroad according to a great variety of students' exchange programmes or in search of a job which gives satisfaction – the task not easily achieved under conditions of competition in the labour market.

If the student is aware of difficulties of communication he solves this problem by learning languages. In order to provide a proper and thorough foundationin the use of English for professional purposes it is necessary to revise and further develop the student's command of general s command of general English, particularly, for many different everyday uses of English. The student, of course, is expected to use English in his professional environment as well as in everyday situations. He must be able to take part in real life events – to ask questions and to answer them demonstrating his knowledge.

V. Cook asks "What does another language do?" And the answer is: "Learning another language makes people think more flexibly, increases language awareness and leads to better understanding of other cultures." (Cook 2001: 197). But this is one side of the matter. The other is that the person becomes competent in his professional field. Communicative competence is the term which "has come to be used in language teaching contexts to refer to the ability to convey the meaning to successfully combine a knowledge of linguistic and sociolinguistic rules in communicative interactions" (Savington 1983: 123). H. Pham thinks that in order "to attain effective communication in international settings, nonnative speakers must use linguistic and cultural norms which are mostly set by native speakers of English" (Pham 2001: 7).

Here we again approach to teaching the two types of English – the General and the Specific. Both of them develop one's ability to communi- s ability to communicate in any form – oral or written. In both cases linguistic knowledge includes the correctness of grammatical structures, proper choice of words and precision of their meaning. The primary goal in teaching ESP is to provide the student with practical use of English revising the knowledge built earlier. ESP concentrates not only on the recognition of particular

structures of sentences or word combinations, but also on the choice of terms and meanings of words in different kinds of texts. Grammatical competence is the domain of linguistic studies proper, while specific competence includes interdisciplinary field together with the understanding of the particular context the language is used in.

Ann Johns states that while teaching English for Specific Purposes "all language teaching must be designed for the specific learning and language use purposes of identified groups of students" (Johns 1991: 67).

The specific needs of the subject content may not require grammar or phonetics but the latters are always integrated into the process of teaching as they make an important part of the conveyance of the meaning both of the entire utterance and of its separate parts.

What concerns discussions on the analyses of student needs, particularly related to learning interests, one must agree that "curricula should be based upon the most systematic accurate and empirical measures of students' needs and of the language required by the tasks they must perform outside of the classroom" (Johns 1991: 67).

On the other hand, in order to proceed with day-to-day classroom work the teacher must understand the needs of the student and carefully examine them. There should be close cooperation between the language teacher and his students. Supervising the work of his group the teacher should give his students job satisfaction and organize his classes in such a way that it should be not only some new information but also a pleasant and amusing occupation, and it is not easily achieved.

M. Bojarovį notices that sometimes happens that "a number of students tend to become complacent and play safe within a limited

range of structure and vocabulary" (Bojarova 1998: 8). Such a situation is very unfavourable as it prevents the student from active learning of the language. The teacher must make the student feel that language learning is "a never-ending process" (Bojarova 1998: 8) and the teacher is to move the student out of the dead point by all possible means (giving someinteresting or more complex material for studies, assigning special tasks, etc.).

The student uses a specific language which is the general language with additional spices inherent to a professional language (unknown terms, new meanings of familiar words, some grammar structures peculiar to the language of science or technology, etc.). General English should not be opposed to ESP or vice versa. ESP always rests on the knowledge of general English. The latter is more devoted to learning grammar structures and general vocabulary. The first one aims at consolidating grammar, pronunciation and other skills and at acquisition of a specialized meaning of words in specific professional contexts.

Language teaching is of complex multifolded nature. Considering language is "the means for communication among members of a culture" we realize that it "is the most visible and available expression of the culture" (Brown 1994: 169).

However, the first thing the student is to do is to overcome the feeling of fear and shyness because of possible mistakes. Many a student still may feel like being at school, thus, they wait for the teacher's instructions. Such students must learn how to learn language independently, that is how to study the language by oneself and become an independent learner. The language teacher should encourage the student to attend the classes and be active during them. Such activity is profitable as it makes him think and share his ideas expressing them in English. Only speaking he learns the language. The teacher must always stress "the need to develop

"speakers" sense as communicators at a global level by adding an extra dimension (i. e. cultural awareness) to our communicative competence" (Sifakis and Sougari 2003: 64).

Developing linguistic skills responding to professional needs of the student the language teacher always deals with educational work as he reflects his disposition and attitude to the problems and topics discussed during language classes.

Language learning humanizes student's activities developing his cognitive and social experience as well as his understanding of his own needs and preferences. Being a learning process it encourages him to seek and find ways how to connect what is in the book to what is in his mind, |thus his creative thinking is being developed. The student is taught to extract new information from the text, to reveal his speaking skills on a given topic or to construct a presentation according to an assignment. Graduates of a higher school are expected to be competent users of English and later to be able to work at language studies independently.

Although teaching/learning ESP is related to professional training it also gives a lot of information on everyday life, on the culture of one's own or of other countries, development of new technologies in the field of studies, favourable or unfavourable situations there, etc. Familiarity with such items widens the insight of the student, forms his attitude to human – spiritual and moral – values, develops his intellectual skills and ability to think, makes him sensitive to cultural problems.

Education is always included in the curriculum of each school – be it comprehensive or specialized, secondary or higher. It means that education is a part of teaching which contributes to the quality of the result – it builds human personality making him an important member of the community. It is important to train a competitive, productive individual. However, it is no less important to form an

individual which is participatory and open, compliant and selfconfident, independently thinking and ready to help. Education builds the human being for the community. Even textbooks are compiled taking into account education. Education and training activities go together. It is impossible to separate activities associated with the development of language skills and acquisition of professional knowledge from educational goals.

Conclusions

1. The basic assumption is that professional language development is to be rooted in the curriculum based both on the knowledge stored earlier at a secondary school and on the needs and interests of the student at a higher school.

2. The aim of teaching ESP is to develop both linguistic and professional skills and/or abilitiesas well as knowledge and competence.

3. To achieve constructive results in teaching/learning ESP the classroom practice is oriented towards developing language skills.

4. Textbooks or texts selected should have special subject orientation. Task-based exercises should be constructed according to professional interests.

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TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

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Abstract
Teaching English for Specific Purposes and General English is analysed in the article. The scientific approachof a scientist M. Rosenberg is presented. The experience of teaching English for Specific Purposesat VGTUis alsopresented. The ideas and teaching methods from the classes of general English can be transferred tothe classes of English for Specific Purposes.

Keywords: *English for Specific Purposes, Business English, geodesy.*

Introduction

Teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) at a technical university has its own challenges. Teacher has to answer a lot of questions: Are there really major differences between teaching English for Specific Purposes / Business Englishand teaching general English? Do the goals of the students differ widely? Is there a noticeabledifference in motivation?

English for Specific Purposes and General English

Recently in the magazine English Teaching Professional (Rosenberg 2004: 36) I have read an article where these issues were analyzed. The author of the article, Marjorie Rosenberg, is an instructor at the Padagogische Akademie in Austria. Marjorie Rosenberg considers where English for Specific Purposes / Business English and General English overlap.To address these questions specifically, the author of the article asked a group of teachers of the English language to brainstorm the differences and the similarities between general and Business English. The diagram

below shows a number of the ideas that teachers have come up with.

General English

* free-time activity
* more freedom in deviation from plan
* more time for games
* more relaxed atmosphere
* songs
* literature
* general writing skills
* social event

Business English

* specialized vocabulary
* motivation related to job
* teach negotiation and presentation
* techniques
* students very goal-oriented
* more serious
* business correspondence

What Business and general English have in common?

* grammar and functions
* general vocabulary
* anxiety about capabilities
* everyday English
* small talk
* travel vocabulary
* survival English
* tour skills
* current event

After doing this exercise, many teachers were surprised at the large amount of overlap which exists. Marjorie Rosenberg wrote "we often tend to separate Business English and English for Special Purposes from general English. Although the vast majority of teachers are trained first as general English teachers, they feel that they need to teach these specialised fields in a totally different way. Communicative teaching has become an important part of our classrooms in general English courses, but activities which are lively and fun are not always transferred into the more 'serious' world of Business English. On the other hand, many ideas which are taken directly from the business world and used successfully to teach business students could be also transferred to the general English classroom, giving our learners a new perspective on the communication skills involved in becoming proficient in a language" (2004: 36).

How is English for Specific Purposes taught at Vilnius Gediminas Technical University? During the first semester the first year students of geodesy at Vilnius Gediminas Technical University were taught general English, but gradually specific material on geodesy was also presented. During the first lecture every student introduced himself / herself speaking in front of others. They answered different questions. One of the questions was about their choice to study geodesy. Their home task was to specify scientifically, i.e. to define the term "geodesy". Students were using different sources and the best definition was that from the Internet: "Geodesy is the discipline that deals with the measuement and representation of the earth, its gravity field and geodynamic phenomena (polar motion, earth tides, and crustal motion) in three-dimentional time varying space. Geodesy is primarily concerned with positioning and the gravity field and geometric aspects of their temporal variations". Students were not

happy to speak facing the audience, and they were right. In her article Marjorie Rosenberg writes, that "speaking in front of others is one of the greatest fears that people have, so training in giving presentations is not only useful for business people who have to do this as part of their jobs, but also for learners who work in a wide variety of professions" (2004: 37).

The geodesy students had many opportunities to give presentations: introducing Vilnius Gediminas Technical University, presenting their dream country or speaking about their favourite author. Preparing for the presentation on introduction of the euro, students visited the museum of the Bank of Lithuania, where they watched a film on money in English and enjoyed the excursion. An effective presentation requires skills such as clarity in speech and phrasing, linking and control language, timing interventions, assertiveness, defending a vulnerable position and handling and asking questions. During the first month of studies much time was spent in the computer class of the university, revising grammar and questions. That was interesting for the students, and according to Marjorie Rosenberg "our students deserve the best we can give them and that includes a relaxed, but energetic and lively atmosphere in the classroom, creating a community to which both learners and teachers are eager to belong." (2004:37). After translation of the texts about seven wonders of the world (the Statue of Zeus at Olympia, the Hanging Gardens of Babylon, the Great Pyramid of Giza, the Temple of Artemis at Ephesus, the Mausoleum at Halicarnassus, the Colossus of Rhodes, the Lighthouse of Alexandria), the students had interesting discussions, made drawings of the piramid of Giza, painted the colossus of Rhodes.

Students love material that they feel is tailormade for them. The article of Discussion on the Orthometric Height Realization

from the magazine Geodesy and Cartography (Tenzer 2005: 12–19) was complicated to translate but interesting from the point of view of geodesy. We analyzed this article together in class and the students had to chose another article for themselves for home reading and make a presentation on the article afterwards. During the second semester we usually read texts on geodesy from text-books and scientific magazines as well as articles from Geographical Magazine, such as Paper or Pixels: Where to Next for Maps (Ashworth 2003: 56–57). A Distorted View of the British Isles. Ptolemy's British Isles map (Distorted 2004: 21) and others. Finishing the map theme we visit Varnelis' Museum to widen our knowledge on maps, where one can enjoy a wonderful collection of pictures, books and especially that of maps. Students are happy to chose some readings from the Internet, e. g. A Brief History of Early Geodesy. They are given such a task as to find terms in the text (e.g. geoid, geodesy, ellipsoid, latitude and others) and compile cross-words.

Conclusion

As you can see from the examples presented in this article, we can conclude that though the motivation and goals of the students studying English for Specific Purposes and General English are slightly different, various ideas and teaching methods can be transferred to the classes of English for Specific Purposes from the classes of general English and vice verce, giving our learners the opportunity to acquire better skills in a foreign language.

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TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC BUSINESS PURPOSES: BEST PRACTICES FOR MATERIALS AND METHODS

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Introduction

The global dominance of English is well established in the fields of science and technology, international business, and among aviation and marine navigation professionals. Consequently, there is a demand for English for Specific Purposes (ESP) training. In particular, the market for business English courses is described as "booming" (St John, 1996, p. 3).

ESP has spawned a bewildering array of categories and acronyms. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) and Johns and Price-Machado (2001) provide guidance in categorizing ESP's various components. ESP is a broad umbrella term with two main categories: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). Various academic disciplines fall under EAP, such as Business (henceforth referred to EAP-B), Science and Technology, Medicine, and the Law.

Likewise, EOP can be subdivided: English for Professional Purposes (EPP) and English for Vocational Purposes. Under EPP comes English for Business Purposes (EBP). Dudley Evans and St John (1998) suggest a further subdivision of EBP: English for General Business Purposes (EGBP) and English for Specific Business Purposes (ESBP). EGBP courses are for "pre-experience learners or those at the very early stages of their career" (Dudley-Evans and St John, p. 55, 1998). In contrast, ESBP courses are

aimed at "job experienced learners who bring business knowledge and skills to the language learning situation" (p. 56).

This paper is primarily concerned with ESBP: English for Specific Business Purposes. In order to discover best practices for ESBP materials and methods, several publications were selected for review. The selected publications explore issues confronting ESP, EAP-B and EBP practitioners.

Review of ESP Literature

Strevens (1980) offers the following working definition: "ESP entails the provision of English language instruction (i) devised to meet the learner's particular needs; (ii) related in themes and topics to designated occupations or areas of study; (iii) selective (i.e. 'not general') as to language content; (iv) where indicated, restricted as to the language 'skills' included" (pp. 108-109).

Strevens (1980) continues by outlining five analytical stages for determining a particular ESP requirement and designing a suitable course to meet that requirement. Stage One involves a needs analysis, based on information provided by the ESP training stakeholders such as learners, sponsors or clients, and other interested parties. Stage Two involves a content analysis, based on the field or discipline in question. In Stage Three, the practitioner determines whether the training needs fall under the EAP or the EOP side of the ESP umbrella. In Stage Four, it is further determined whether the training will precede, follow, or be concurrent with contentspecific training. Regarding Stage 4, Strevens notes that ESP learners who are already established in their professions are likely to be more motivated, mature, and demanding. Finally, in Stage Five, the practitioner prepares a targeted syllabus and appropriate training materials.

For Strevens (1980), the fundamental principle of ESP is that it "is based on a close analysis of the learner's needs" (p. 112). He offers several assumptions regarding ESP: time and effort are focused exclusively on learners' needs; mastery of the target material takes less time; ESP learners are more motivated than learners of general English; both learners and teachers are more satisfied with the results; and, ESP is more cost-effective.

Strevens (1980) concludes that ESP requires significant amounts of preparation time and well-seasoned, highly qualified teaching professionals. Practitioners must possess superb collaboration and innovation skills as well as more traditional skills in classroom management and the preparation of syllabi, materials, and tests. Therefore, Strevens says, ESP costs are higher per student because ESP preparation time is greater and ESP teachers are more expensive.

Regarding methods and materials, Strevens (1980) mentions notional, functional, and communicative approaches as being most relevant to ESP. However, he states that ESP is not harnessed to any particular method, technique, or materials. In fact, he sees the "freedom to innovate" as one of the "major attractions" of ESP (p. 120).

Like Strevens, Phillips (1981) emphasizes the crucial importance of the "learner's purpose" (p. 92). Phillips suggests four principles that practitioners should consider before deciding on an ESP methodology for a particular course. These principles are Reality Control (manipulating a task's difficulty/simplicity); Nontriviality (ensuring that learners perceive tasks as meaningful); Authenticity (ensuring that acquired language is the same language naturally generated by the learner's discourse community); and, Tolerance of Error (overlooking errors unless they prevent communication).

Johns and Dudley-Evans (1991) characterize ESP as a process of careful research followed by the design of materials and activities for a specific group of adult learners within a specific learning context. They discuss two principal components, needs assessment and discourse analysis, as being integral elements in materials design.

Explaining the international scope of ESP, Johns and Dudley-Evans (1991) offer three reasons: countries requiring English for internal communication (e.g., some African and Asian countries), the widespread use of scientific and technical English, and English for international communications (e.g., related to air and sea traffic, and to business).

Johns and Dudley-Evans (1991) feel that ESP's development has been dominated by needs and materials, and that ESP requires methods and approaches unlike those found in more general ESL classes. They regret that "few empirical studies have been conducted to test the effectiveness of ESP courses" (p. 303). They also see the need for analytical research targeted to the discourse that must be comprehended or produced by a particular discourse community.

Review of EAP-B and EBP Literature

Dudley-Evans & St John (1998) state that most business English communications are between non-native speakers using "International English" (p. 53). Key issues are discourse communities (including factors that affect business relationships); business genres (e.g., letters, meetings, and negotiations); communicative events (e.g., telephoning, socializing, making presentations, participating in meetings, negotiating, corresponding, and reporting); and functions, grammar, and lexis.

In addition, the roles of learners' expectations and strategies must be considered, as well as cross-cultural issues.

Dudley-Evans & St John (1998) emphasize the role of needs analysis as being fundamental, and consisting of a language audit with two dimensions: analyses of the Target Situation and the Present Situation. Although a professional business background is not required, teachers should be interested in business and knowledgeable about business contexts and people. They should also have "some knowledge of management theories and practice" (p. 61), excellent interpersonal and cross-cultural skills, and "first-class training skills" (p. 61).

St John (1996) discusses many types of EBP teaching materials: case studies and simulations; scripted and authentic data; publications providing models for written documents such as letters and reports; readers and textbooks; supplementary materials offering grammar, vocabulary and/or games; software applications; and audiocassettes, videotapes, and CD-ROMs.

St John (1996) cautions that business executives "do not want to be transported back to a typical classroom" (p. 14) and suggests that textbooks are "intended for pre-experience students and not for the executive" (p. 13).

St John (1996) concludes that EBP is "a materials-led movement rather than a researchled movement" (p. 15). While admitting that this situation has some advantages, St John feels that intuition and experience are not enough and that research is needed for a fuller understanding. Yogman and Kaylani (1996) endorse a "task-centered, project and portfolio approach" to teaching business English with "content-based instruction" at its core (p. 312). They suggest small group interactions with a focus on fluency, in which language is a tool rather than a product.

Yogman and Kaylani also recognize the process of needs analysis "as one of the defining characteristics of ESP and key to planning both ESP curricula and classroom activities" (p. 314).

Boyd (1991) contends that the purpose of EAP-B "is not to teach students how to think like business managers, but rather how to communicate like business managers in English" (p. 731). Boyd describes the case method in business education, and how it can be adapted for use in the EAP-B classroom. Although Boyd sees the case method as ideal, she feels that case texts need to be segmented into smaller units and supplemented with audio and visual media. Each of these segments can be exploited with various interactions and tasks, while the teacher serves as "process and language consultant" (p. 733).

Edwards (2000) presents an ESBP case study based on a one-year course he taught for executives at the German Central Bank. He describes the process of assessing needs and drawing up a "teacher-learner contract" (p. 292). Then, he designed a syllabus based on functions, topics, and vocabulary. Edwards suggests "selectively exploiting and supplementing ready-made materials" (p. 293). He used information-gap and opinion-gap communicative exercises; jumbled texts and sentences; charts, graphs, tables, statistical summaries and financial reports; short articles from The Economist and other magazines and newspapers; and videotape recordings of the BBC's World Business Report. Edwards feels that current and authentic materials are appreciated by learners and instrumental in motivating them.

De Beaugrande (2000) presents an EAP-B case study in which he struggled with the fact that most business discourse available in Botswana, be it public (i.e., the news), academic (i.e., textbooks) or professional (i.e., communication among business practitioners) was unclear and lacking in precision. He collected authentic

samples, analyzed them, and produced alternatives that were more clear and precise. Then, he trained his students to do the same. He found this to be an excellent device for developing EAP-B expertise among his students.

Bauman (1998) argues that the nature of written business communications is shifting from formal print letters to the simplified register of a new genre: e-mail. Although standards for e-mail are lacking and the technology is evolving, "Business E-mail Style" (p. 38) must be taught as well as possible. In addition, Bauman suggests that e-mail itself is a powerful new teaching tool.

Schleppegrell and Royster (1990) find that ESBP learners typically possess two strengths: "professional expertise and some minimum competence in English" and that "the experience they already have in negotiating proposals, making presentations, and performing business functions in their own language aids them in learning English" (p. 5). Therefore, the authors suggest that ESBP courses should provide learners with authentic materials and with "opportunities to role play, discuss business cases, and participate in business situations" (p. 12).

Discussion

The reviewed publications reveal useful information to ESBP practitioners seeking best practices for materials and methods. For example, the authors recommend a learner-centered approach in which courses are tailored to specific clients' needs. It is clear that needs assessment and target situation analysis are obligatory in the ESBP course design process. The literature offers practical suggestions for how to carry out these functions. Unfortunately, however, the reviewed publications have little to offer regarding methods for assessing the outcome of a given course or the progress of its participants.

In ESBP courses, the clients are usually corporate employers and/or the learners themselves. ESBP learners are mature adults and practicing business professionals. Often, their mastery of English is at the intermediate level or above. The learners are likely to be highly motivated, and equally demanding of themselves and their instructors. ESBP learners have a solid foundation in business-related principles and practices. It is not hard to imagine why many of the reviewed publications suggest that qualities such as professional maturity and shared background knowledge can be important assets in ESBP courses.

Authenticity and relevance are important for ESBP learning materials. Business cases are mentioned several times and appear to provide an ideal source of material in support of authentic communicative practice:

"Business cases are records of problematic business situations that a manager or organization has actually faced. In business administration programs, they are presented to students to analyze, discuss, and determine possible courses of action and their consequences" (Jackson, 1998, p. 152).

However, business cases were not designed with non-native speakers of English in mind.

Therefore, appropriate scaffolding and facilitation are needed to use business cases effectively with ESBP learners.

Another powerful source of authentic learning material is the interaction between teachers and students. Some of the reviewed publications suggest that teachers who are interested in, but not deeply knowledgeable about, business topics can simply ask their ESBP students authentic open-ended questions. In responding, students are given productive opportunities for communicative practice. At the same time, they feel valued for their professional expertise. Thus, relationships between ESBP teachers and students

can be seen as richly collaborative because all participants have their areas of expertise and are trying to share with and learn from each other.

Other sources of authentic and relevant material mentioned by the reviewed articles are corporate reports, articles from magazines such as Business Week, Forbes, and The Economist, articles from the business section of newspapers, recordings of televised news programs, and actual correspondence. A few of the authors mentioned that, for reasons of security, it was often difficult to acquire in-house client resources. The authors did not suggest "dot.com" Web pages or feature films with business-related plots, both of which seem to be obvious candidates for ESBP course materials.

Conclusion

With the exception of Bauman (1998), the authors seem to be insufficiently aware of information technology (IT) and its impact on international business transactions. The role of IT should be thoroughly accounted for when planning ESBP courses. In particular, the Internet can serve as a powerful source of authentic material and is responsible for at least two new business discourse genres: Web pages and e-mail messages.

ESP appears to have been more focused on practical outcomes from learner-centered, context-based learning than on empirical research. The following research needs are readily apparent: what role should IT-related topics play in ESBP course design? can the Internet can serve as an effective delivery mechanism for self-access ESBP courses? can a core ESBP grammar and lexis be identified by using computer software analysis? how effective are ESBP courses? how effective are commercially produced ESBP textbooks?

Most of the reviewed publications make a point of differentiating ESP from general ESL.

The many distinctive characteristics shared by ESBP learners seem to argue for considering ESBP to be fairly unique. On the other hand, much of what has been said about ESP can also be said about general ESL. For example, needs assessment, careful advance planning, authentic materials, relevant communicative practice, and sensitivity to contextual issues should be characteristic of any second language course regardless of its purpose

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THE TEXT IN AN ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES CONTEXT

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English language teachers search the learning strategies to help students improve their acquisition of the language. These strategies can be valuable instructional tools, especially for the reading skill, because many English as a Foreign Language teachers find that there is insufficient practice time for students who are required to cope with studying a new language and to read for content. English suddenly becomes increasingly important for students who must take English for Specific Purposes courses and read technical subject matter in English. In some cases English is the medium of instruction and a vehicle of content information. Although there are clear prescriptions from curriculum developers to encourage activities that require the use of strategies such as scanning – reading a text quickly for specific details, and skimming – reading or previewing a text to find the main idea, very little training is provided on how to use these strategies. As a result, students experience difficulties when reading research articles related to science and technology. In this context, we present a lesson on how to teach skimming for reading specialized texts for those who learn English for Specific Purposes. Even if students receive lectures on strategies, this does not mean that they will use them in the process of learning a foreign language. Strategy training should include instructions on when and how to use a particular strategy, and there should be elements of planning, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation into the task. When it is accomplished, strategy

improves students efficiency in reading research articles, when the tasks require fast, selective reading – skimming. Indeed, to decide whether to read a text selectively or straight through, and to separate relevant from irrelevant information, one first needs to have a clear sense of the purpose of reading. Different purposes may require different approaches to reading, such as scanning the table of contents, reading quickly to get an overall impression of s document, skipping whole parts if the information is familiar and reading more carefully when something important is spotted. This is a lesson for students who read scientific texts. The objective of the lesson is to instruct students in how to use skimming when reading technical material. The presentation and discussion of the framework takes one ninety-minute session and the guided practice takes another ninety minutes. 1. Presentation and discussion. To begin, the teacher brings several research articles of approximately ten pages and asks students to select and read an article, and to report on the main ideas. After students have been reading for 2-3 minutes the teacher stops the students and asks for possible answers. Students show surprise and shock. How could they possibly give correct answers after having read just the first three paragraphs from the ten-page article. The students were using their traditional reading technique, which was a slow, linear reading of the text, they have barely begun the article. The teacher uses this moment of confusion to start a discussion on why people read, whether it is for the main idea, for specific details, or to find supporting ideas. The teacher extends the discussion to show that how people read is closely connected to why they read. Contrasting the reading of a train schedule with treading the local newspaper reinforces this point, and the discussion creates an awareness of the different purposes for reading. The students are asked to speculate on the purposes of reading texts in science and how these purposes

may influence the way they approach the technical reading material. At this point, the teacher explains that skimming is reading quickly to discover the main idea of a text. Students look at how skimming would be productive for reading in general, when working online and deciding quickly whether it is worthwhile to download a document. Then, the students discuss how skimming can be used in the research context, such as reading the headings, introduction, and conclusion and gleaning information from any nontextual cues, such as pictures and diagrams [1; 76]. 2. Guided practice. There is a three-step framework that can help teachers guide students to use skimming with a research article.

Step 1 of the process sets up the general macro-structure of the research article by focusing on its content schemata and discourse features. This helps the students determine the genre, the textual organization, and the rhetorical strategies of the article, and serves to activate any background knowledge and expectations associated with the text. it also helps students recognize any similarities with reading a similar article in their native language, so they can consider the transferability of strategies to the English for Specific Purposes context.

In Step 2, readers ask themselves these preliminary questions:
–What is the topic?

–Am I the intended reader of the article?

–What is the source and date of publication of the article?

–What is the research problem?

–What is the purpose of the study?

–Does the research article contain headings familiar to me?

–Do these indicators help me activate any relevant background / content knowledge?

The teacher then discusses how a particular genre might affect the manner of reading. For example, reading the headings and

subheadings may not always be useful as a reading strategy for research articles because the same general headings are often used – Introduction, Background, Methods, Results, Discussion, and Conclusion. Therefore, focusing on headings may not provide useful information about the article's content. All these questions are teacher-initiated at the early stages of the course and then, with practice, become a self-initiated competency that students may draw on when engaging in independent reading.

Step 2 asks the students to evaluate the requirements of the task. Here, readers establish goals for their reading, as they realize that skimming is a purposeful activity to determine meaning. The teacher demonstrates to students how they can determine the general idea of a research article by first reading the abstract and then by reading selectively through the whole article. Here three worksheets are used to introduce students to the various skimming choices they can make, which will be contingent on the purpose of reading. The different goals and sub-goals on the worksheets are represented by pairs of If …Then statements, which allow for students involvement in the choice of the skimming strategies. The use of the worksheets demonstrates a step-by-step process for the different strategies one can use when skimming a research article for main ideas, namely, reading different sections like the abstract, introduction, and conclusion, reading the title and subtitles, reading the first and the last lines of a paragraph, and looking at nonverbal information, such as figures and tables, and reading their captions. As students become acquainted with these proposed lists of strategies for handling this task, they may later combine different pairs of If…Then statements as they monitor and adjust their skimming strategy. Step 3 provides students with a repertoire of strategic behaviors requiring certain decisions to be taken concerning the reading speed and level of processing to be adopted,

which interfaces with the skimming strategies chosen from Step 2 [2; 34]. Finally, students engage in the evaluation of the reading outcome and determine if the strategies improved their skimming ability. If their success is not satisfactory, they can begin again at Step 3, the choice of strategy; at Step 2, the assessment of task requirements; or at Step 1, the very beginning of the process of setting up a macrostructure for the text. Although this example of strategy training was for skimming, practitioners will find the framework and worksheets applicable to other reading strategies, such as scanning and vocabulary enrichment, and to other activities associated with speaking, listening, and writing skills.

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THE EFFECT OF ICT-BASED TEACHING METHOD ON MEDICAL STUDENTS' ESP LEARNING

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Abstract Background: In recent years, explosion of knowledge and internet access seriously challenged the traditional language of teaching and learning methodologies. Most teachers and experts recognize the need for a teaching method using Information & Communication Technology (ICT) facilities.
Purpose: To assess and compare the students' English for Specialized Purpose (E.S.P.) learning in two approaches of traditional text-based and internet–based articles.
Methods: This quasi-experimental study was conducted on 60 second-year students of medicine having ESP course. They were assigned into two groups based on their average scores: one group attended a class of which materials were chosen from the latest published medical articles in internet and the other attended a traditional text-based class. Care was taken to select texts of the same level of legibility. The language proficiency of the students was measured by English Language Battery Test (ELBA Test).
Results: The students achieved better results with internet-based medical English articles, compared to the traditional text-based method. The students were mostly satisfied with the former method (77.2%); 72.3% were willing to continue with that method, and some 75% of them achieved good scores in final exam.
Conclusion: Instruction based on ICT specialized articles is a more effective method for teaching ESP to the students of medicine linguistically and methodologically.

Keywords*: ICT, ESP, medical students, methodology.*

Introduction

One of the most important techniques in teaching a foreign language is adopting a method in accordance with objectives,

learners and contents (1,2). Researches point out that language learners learn more and at a faster rate when they are stimulated enough (3). By means of improved teaching techniques, especially applying network and internet applications, language teachers may have higher achievements in instructing English for Specialized Purposes (ESP) than was previously thought (4). In teaching ESP, teachers should know that the participants need English for educational purposes in order to pursue part or all of their studies (5). A course for someone who needs English in order to do one's job must take into account the environmental and social aspects, relationships, and the last but not the least, authenticity and up to date language (5,6). The present study evaluates the effect of internet-chosen articles in ESP courses in medical university compared to traditional method using ESP text.

Materials & Methods

A quasi-experimental study was conducted on 60 second-year students of medicine having ESP course. The students were divided into case (n=32) and control (n=28) groups according to their average grades. The data were collected with a pretest-posttest and a questionnaire for demographic information. A pretest was given to both groups two weeks prior to the beginning of the semester. In one group, the students were taught the traditional book, English for the Students of Medicine. In the other group, ESP was taught according to the articles chosen from internet. The subjects and texts studied in the two groups were of the same level of legibility and the students' proficiency was measured by English Language Battery Test (ELBA Test). To minimize contact between the two groups, posttest was taken a few days after each course. The difference between the pretest and posttest scores was considered as the students' learning level and was categorized in three levels

of poor, moderate and good. Test validity and reliability were determined by content validity evaluation and a pilot study, respectively. Analysis was done with SPSS software. The scores of the two groups were compared by T test.

Results

In each group the posttest scores were significantly higher than pretest scores. The majority of students achieved good learning level in the case group (75%) and moderate learning level in the control group (50%).

In the case group, 77.2% considered ICT-based articles instruction as satisfactory and 72.3% preferred other courses to be presented in the same way. In addition, 81.1% of students found this method an effective one and 83.2% believed that ICT-based ESP class encourages them to continue studying ESP

Discussion

The ESP texts in traditional method are less attractive than the specialized articles chosen from internet. The latter is continually updated, so that the articles are always new, while the ESP books were written at least a decade ago. Students show more interest when they find the materials real, authentic and new (7). Science changes rapidly and the material chosen for the students should be up to date (8); once Crimean-Congo Hemorrhagic Fever, then Ebola, yesterday SARS, and today other conditions are the current subjects in medicine. The language taught in ESP classes must be up to date since students learn it for their near future occupations and responsibilities (9). Nowadays internet can meet this need. When students find the language and subjects instructed in class the same as those presented in TV or other media, they are encouraged to participate in class activities (11). Teachers who

apply approaches using both informal and formal language are successful in reinforcing all four language skills: speaking, listening, reading and writing (10). Some researchers limit the use of articles from internet only to those written by experts and having scientific value. They believe that this matter is only of value when monitored by teachers (11). It may be concluded that English medical articles chosen from internet and controlled by teachers can replace costly books containing last decades' articles and materials. Therefore, regarding the cost effectiveness, learner motivation and output of teaching ESP based on articles presented in internet, this method can facilitate ESP teaching and learning where inefficiency of ESP books is most pronounced.

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TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGE FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES: TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract
Foreign Language Teachers for Specific Purposes have a lot in common with teachers of general foreign language. For both it is necessary to consider linguistic development and teaching theories, to have insights in contemporary ideas regarding their own position and role as well as the position and role of foreign language learners in education and to face new technologies offered as an aid to improve their methodology. The needs to understand the requirements of other professions and willingness to adapt to these requirements differentiate the foreign language teachers for specific purposes and their colleagues teaching general foreign language. ESP teaching presumes teaching of English as a foreign language regarding specific profession, subject or purpose.

Keywords: *ESP, teacher, teacher development, methodology.*

Introduction

The teaching of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) has been seen as a separate activity within English language teaching (ELT). It is believed that for some of its teaching ESP has developed its own methodology and its research draws on research from various disciplines in addition to applied linguistics – this is the key distinguishing characteristic of ESP. ESP, if sometimes moved away from the established trends in general ELT, has always been with needs analysis and preparing learners to communicate effectively in the tasks prescribed by their field of study or work situation. The emphasis of ELT is always on practical outcomes.

The theory of ESP could be outlined based on specific nature of the texts that learners need knowledge of or need-related nature of teaching.

What is ESP?

As with most disciplines in human activity, ESP was a phenomenon grown out of a number of converging trends of which we will mention three most important: 1) the expansion of demand for English to suit specific needs of a profession, 2) developments in the filed of linguistics (attention shifted from defining formal language features to discovering the ways in which language is used in real communication, causing the need for the development of English courses for specific group of learners), and 3) educational psychology (learner's needs and interests have an influence on their motivation and effectiveness of their learning). Definitions of ESP in the literature are relatively late in time, if we assume that ESP began in the 1960s. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) define ESP as an approach rather than a product – meaning that ESP does not involve a particular kind of language, teaching material or methodology. The basic question of ESP is: Why does this learner need to learn a foreign language? The purpose of learning English became the core. Strevens' (1988) definition of ESP makes a distinction between 1) absolute characteristics (language teaching is designed to meet specified needs of the learner; related in content to particular disciplines, occupation and activities; centred on the language appropriate to those activities in syntax, text, discourse, semantics, etc., and analysis of the discourse; designed in contrast with General English) and 2) two variable characteristics (ESP may be restricted to the language skills to be learned, e.g. reading; and not taught according to any pre-ordained methodology).

Robinson's (1991: 3) definition of ESP is based on two criteria: 1) ESP is normally 'goal-directed', and 2) ESP courses develop from a needs analysis which aim to specify what exactly it is that students have to do through the medium of English, and a number of characteristics which explain that ESP courses are generally constrained by a limited time period in which their objectives have to be achieved and are taught to adults in homogenous classes in terms of the work or specialist studies that the students are involved in.

Each of these definitions have validity but also weaknesses. Considering Hutchinson and Water's definition, Anthony (1997) noted that it is not clear where ESP courses end and General English courses begin because numerous non-specialist ESP instructors use ESP approach in that their syllabi are based on analysis of learner needs and their own specialist personal knowledge of English for real communication. Strevens' definition, by referring to content in the second absolute characteristic, may confirm the impression held by many teachers that ESP is always and necessarily related to subject content. Robinson's mention of homogenous classes as a characteristic of ESP may lead to the same conclusion. However, much of ESP work is based on the idea of a common-core of language and skills belonging to all academic disciplines or cutting across the whole activity of business. ESP teaching should always reflect the underlying concepts and activities of the discipline. Having all these on mind, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) modified Strevens' definition of ESP

1. Absolute characteristics: a) ESP is designed to meet specific needs of the learner; b) ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines it serves; and c) ESP is centred on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities.

2. Variable characteristics: a) ESP may be related or designed for specific disciplines; b) ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English; c) ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation; it could be used for learners at secondary school level; d) ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced learners; and e) Most ESP courses assume basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners.

Types of ESP

ESP is traditionally been divided into two main areas according to when they take place: 1**) English for Academic Purposes** (EAP) involving pre-experience, simultaneous/in service and post-experience courses, and 2) **English for Occupational Purposes** (EOP) for study in a specific discipline (pre-study, in-study, and post-study) or as a school subject (independent or integrated). Pre-experience or pre-study course will omit any specific work related to the actual discipline or work as students will not yet have the needed familiarity with the content; the opportunity for specific or integrated work will be provided during inservice or in-study courses.

Another division of ESP divides EAP and EOP according to discipline or professional area in the following way: 1) EAP involves English for (Academic) Science and Technology (EST), English for (Academic) Medical Purposes (EMP), English for (Academic) Legal Purposes (ELP), and English for Management, Finance and Economics; 2) EOP includes English for Professional Purposes (English for Medical Purposes, English for Business Purposes – EBP) and English for Vocational Purposes (Pre-vocational English and Vocational English); in EAP, EST has been

the main area, but EMP and ELP have always had their place. Recently the academic study of business, finance, banking, economics has become increasingly important especially Masters in Business Administration (MBA) courses; and 2) EOP refers to English for professional purposes in administration, medicine, law and business, and vocational purposes for non-professionals in work (language of training for specific trades or occupations) or pre-work situations (concerned with finding a job and interview skills).

The classification of ESP courses creates numerous problems by failing to capture fluid nature of the various types of ESP teaching and the degree of overlap between "common-core" EAP and EBP and General English - e.g. Business English can be seen as mediating language between the technicalities of particular business and the language of the general public (Picket, 1989), which puts it in a position between English for General Purposes (EGP) and specialist English. Therefore, some authors suggest (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998) the presentation of the whole of ELT should be on a continuum that runs from General English courses to very specific ESP courses.

Features of ESP courses

Considering the characteristics of ESP courses, Carver (1983) states that there are three characteristics common to ESP courses: 1) authentic materials – the use of authentic learning materials is possible if we accept the claim that ESP courses should be offered at an intermediate or advanced level. The use of such materials, modified by teachers or unmodified, is common in ESP, especially in self-directed studies or research tasks. The students are usually encouraged to conduct research using a variety of different resources including the Internet;

2) purpose-related orientation – refers to the simulation of communicative tasks required by the target situation. The teacher can give students different tasks - to simulate the conference preparation, involving the preparation of papers, reading, note-taking and writing. At Faculty of Agronomy in Cacak, English course for Agribusiness Management involves students in the tasks of presenting a particular agricultural product, logo creation, negotiating with the clients (suppliers and buyers), telephone conversation. They also practice listening skills, though the application is restricted because they employ newly acquired skills during their ESP classes with their colleagues and teacher.

3) self-direction – means that ESP is concerned with turning learners into users. For self – direction, it is necessary that teacher encourage students to have a certain degree of autonomy – freedom to decide when, what, and how they will study. For high-ability learners it is essential to learn how to access information in a new culture.

Since ESP courses are of various types, depending on specific scientific field or profession, and have specific features, teachers teaching such courses need to play different roles and acquire certain knowledge.

Roles of ESP teachers

As ESP teaching is extremely varied some authors (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998) use the term "practitioner" rather than "teacher" to emphasize that ESP work involves much more than teaching. ESP practitioner can have several roles.

The ESP practitioner as a teacher ESP is a practical discipline with the most important objective of helping students to learn. However, the teacher is not the primary knower of the carrier content of the material. The students, especially where the course is

specifically oriented towards the subject content or work the students are engaged in, may know more about the content than the teacher. The teacher has the opportunity to draw on students' knowledge of the content in order to generate communication in the classroom. When the teaching is a specific course on, for example, how to write a business report, it is vital that the teacher adopts the position of the consultant who has the knowledge of communication practices but needs to "negotiate" with the students on how best to explore these practices to meet the objective they have. The relationship is much more of a partnership. In some situations the role of ESP teacher extends to giving one-to-one advice to students (e.g., in non-English speaking countries students will have to publish in international journals and need advice in both language and discourse issues). ESP teachers need to have considerable flexibility, be willing to listen to learners, take interest in the disciplines or professional activities the students are involved in, and to take some risks in their teaching.

The ESP practitioner as course designer and material provider Since it is rarely possible to use a particular textbook without the need for supplementary material – sometimes no really suitable published material exists for identified needs - ESP practitioners often have to provide the material for the course. This involves selection of published material, adapting material if it is not suitable, or writing it. ESP teachers also need to assess the effectiveness of the teaching material used whether it is published or self-produced. However, since the teachers are encouraged by their employees to write new material there is a danger of constant re-invention of the wheel; advantages of published materials are ignored even when they are suitable for a given situation.

The ESP practitioner as researcher Research has been particularly strong in the area of EAP (genre analysis). Regarding

the research into English for Business Purposes, there is a growing interest in investigating the genres, the language and the skills involved in business communication. ESP teachers need to be in touch with the research. Teachers carrying out a needs analysis, designing a course, or writing teaching materials need to be capable of incorporating the findings of the research, and those working in specific ESP situations need to be confident that they know what is involved in skills such as written communication.

The ESP practitioner as collaborator. It is believed that subject-specific work is often best approached through collaboration with subject specialist. This may involve cooperation in which ESP teacher finds out about the subject syllabus in an academic context or the tasks that students have to carry out in a work or business situation. Or it may involve specific collaboration so that there is some integration between specialist studies or activities and the language. It might involve the language teacher specifically preparing learners for the language of subject lectures or business presentations. Another possibility is that a specialist checks and comments on the content of teaching materials that the ESP teacher has prepared. The fullest collaboration is where a subject expert and a language teacher team-teach classes; in EAP such lessons might help with the understanding of subject lectures or the writing of examination answers, essays or theses, while in EOP they might involve the language teacher and a business trainer working together to teach both the skills and the language related to business communication.

The ESP practitioner as evaluator The ESP practitioner is often involved in various types of evaluation - testing of students, evaluation of courses and teaching materials. Tests are conducted 1) to assess whether students have the necessary language and skills to undertake a particular academic course or career which is

important in countries such as the UK, USA, Australia where large numbers of international students do postgraduate course or research and need internationally required tests, e.g. International English Language Test Service (IELTS), Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), and 2) to asses the level of their achievement – how much learners have gained from a course. Evaluation of course design and teaching materials should be done while the course is being taught, at the end of the course and after the course has finished, in order to assess whether the learners have been able to make use of what they learned and to find out what they were not prepared for. Evaluation through discussion and on-going needs analysis can be used to adapt the syllabus.

Training of ESP teachers

Most teacher training courses contain four basic elements:

1. Selection, initial and terminal, is necessary because not every human being would become an adequate language teacher. Each teacher has continuing responsibility throughout a career which can last for thirty years or longer. This responsibility makes it essential that potentially ineffective individuals should be discouraged from entering the profession by adequate pre-training or post-training selection procedures.

2. Continuing personal education. Teachers should be well-educated people. Minimum standards accepted for teachers vary from country to country. There are variations in how the trainee's personal education is improved – either simultaneously with his/her professional training; or consecutively where first two or three years of study with no elements of training as a teacher are followed by the fourth year containing methodology of foreign language teaching or one year post-graduate course of teacher training; or, as in many countries, by in-service courses. Either

way, the assumption is that graduates' level of education is to be regarded as insufficient.

3. General professional training as an educator and teacher. This element involves what all teachers need to know regardless of which subject they teach – the components are as follows: a) educational psychology, the study of child development, social psychology, and the principles of educational thought – the component intended to lead the trainee to understanding of the nature of education; b) an outline of the organization of education in a particular country – the teacher should be aware of the different kinds of schools, of normal and unusual pathways through educational network, of responsibility, control and finance, of sources of reform and change, of the main features of history of education in the country where he will teach; c) an awareness of the moral and rhetorical function of the teacher: the building of standards, character, enthusiasm; d) knowledge of, and skill in, class management, discipline and handling of various groups of students; e) knowledge of, and skill in, basic instructional techniques, and understanding teacher-learner interaction; f) Acceptance of the fundamental need for the preparation of lessons; g) understanding the role of curriculum, syllabus and teaching materials; h) a teacher should be committed to keeping in touch with the teaching profession. 4. Special training as a teacher of a foreign or second language. The complexity of this training which constitutes the core of most teacher training courses can be made simpler if the distinction is to be made between three aspects of it. They are: 1) **The skills component** which includes three different skills required by the teacher: a) command of the language the teacher is teaching – this component must ensure that teacher's command of foreign language is at least adequate for class purposes; b) teaching techniques and classroom activities – the

major part of teacher training is to assimilate a great body of effective techniques; c) the management of learning – it is a crucial part of teacher's classroom skills to learn how to assess from moment to moment the progress of each individual in the class and how to manage the classroom activities so that most able learners are not frustrated by being held back, while the slowest are not depressed by being left behind.

The skills component requires practical training in performing the skills themselves. There is a great range of activities which can be summarized as follows: a) the observation of specially-devised demonstrations of specific techniques and of complete lessons; b) the observation of actual class; c) practice in the preparation of lesson plans; d) micro-teaching – the teaching (by the trainee) of several items or techniques with the possible use of camera recordings; e) peer group teaching (i.e. teaching fellow-trainees) as a form of exercise; f) being a teacher's assistant in real class; g) teaching real classes under supervision; h) discussion of the trainee's teaching; i) post-training, in-service courses of various kind (ESP courses for teaching EMP or EBP).

2) The information component – the needed body of information can be divided into three parts: a) information about education – about different approaches to the task of teaching language; b) information about the syllabus and materials he will be using – the syllabus, the prescribed textbooks, other teaching materials (readers, workbooks, etc.) and aids (flashcards, wallcharts as well as tape recorders and language labs) make up the tools of the teacher's profession; c) information about language – when the teacher enters his course of training, his understanding of the nature of language is likely to be scanty; this information refers to knowledge of normal stages in the infant's acquisition of his mother tongue, the existence of common speech defects and whose

job is to treat them, relation between speech and writing, literacy and education, notions of the 'correctness' and social judgments on language, language variety including dialects and accents, language in contact, artificial language, language and thought, and many more. The information content can be learned from reading or lectures.

3) The theory component – the language teaching profession makes connection with theoretical studies in several disciplines such as linguistics, psychology, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, social theory, education. The theoretical studies are likely to find a place when the trainee has attained a sufficient level of personal education and when he is preparing to teach high-level learners. Alternatively, they can be included in postgraduate teacher training as the interdisciplinary approach of applied linguistics which integrates appropriate parts of the disciplines most relevant to language teaching. The theory component can be assimilated from discussion, practice in solving problems, tutorial explanations and time to absorb new ways of thinking.

Currently, in Serbia ESP teacher training courses are run as in-service courses; as high-education level courses they are for the first time included in new curriculum as an optional subject in fundamental academic studies (the fourth year of study) at the institutions dealing with educating language teachers, Faculty of Philology in Belgrade in particular (Faculty of Philology, 2006).

Conclusion

Using skills as a framework of ESP, ESP teachers are provided with the necessary knowledge and tools to deal with their own students' specializations. It should be remembered - ESP teachers are not specialists in the field, but in teaching English, their subject is English for the profession but not the profession in English. They

help students, who know their subject better than the teachers do, develop the essential skills in understanding, using, and/or presenting authentic information in their profession. A professional ESP teacher must be able to switch from one professional field to another without being obliged to spend months on getting started. He/she simply brings the necessary tools, frameworks, and principles of course design to apply them to new material. The material (the content) should be provided by the professors or experts in the subject. It should always be authentic (the main purpose of teaching skills is to enable students to deal with authentic information despite their level of English), up-to-date (the informational exchange is growing more intense), and relevant for the students' specializations (they ought to be given the information representative for their target language use situation). Unfortunately, ESP teachers often feel isolated both from professionals in their students' specializations and their colleagues in other institutions. They also have difficulty in getting or exchanging information in the field. We can conclude, therefore, that the necessary ESP network should be provided.

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