



English Language Centre

Northumbria English Language Pre-sessional

Academic Writing

Handbook

Table of Contents

	Page
Table of contents	3
Acknowledgements	4
1. The academic writing handbook	5
1.1 Introduction	5
1.2 Academic writing	5
1.5 If you have done a project before	7
1.3 Tracking your extended writing project	6
2. The Academic Word List	7
3. Learning about your topic	12
4. Requirements	14
4.1 Organisation	14
4.2 Length	14
4.3 Word processing	14
4.4 The sections of the paper	15
4.4.1 Title page	15
4.4.2 Table of contents	15
4.4.3 (Abstract)	15
4.4.4 Introduction	15
4.4.5 Body	16
4.4.6 Conclusion	17
4.4.7 List of references	17
4.4.8 (Appendix)	17
4.4.9 Headings and subheadings	17
4.4.10 Copies of your project	17
5. Joining the academic community	18
5.1 Example of referencing	20
5.2 The parts of a reference in your list of references	21
5.3 Writing your list of references, Harvard system	22
6. Assessment	26
Project marking	26
Criteria for an A level project	27
Appendix I, Doing research: Questionnaires	29
Appendix II, Writing on a computer	33
Spelling and grammar	33
Page numbers	33
Word count	34
Line spacing	34
Changing font styles, bold, italic or underlined	35
Making overhead transparencies	36
Appendix III, Giving a spoken presentation	37
Appendix IV, Assessment criteria for projects	39
List of references used in preparing this handbook	43

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Many teachers who taught on the Projects unit in 2001 contributed their ideas for the development and improvement of this handbook. Their responses, often through anonymous feedback, inform this handbook and are deeply appreciated, though they cannot be individually acknowledged.

Students who wrote projects and also took time to discuss their experiences after entering degree courses provided invaluable advice. Their contributions make this a better course for future students.

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1. The academic writing handbook

1.1 Introduction

Academic writing is a central feature of the British university education. You will be expected frequently to write at length during your study at Northumbria University, whether you plan to study on an undergraduate or postgraduate course. Papers will vary in length from 1,000 words to 10,000 words or more. Although you may face examinations, you will have to write many papers outside of class time and not under examination conditions. This booklet, along with your writing classes, will help you to write these papers successfully.

On the Pre-session course, your extended paper is called a *Project*.

1.2 Academic writing

The requirements of academic writing differ among different cultures. In Britain, you will need to learn:

- Academic vocabulary
- Academic style
- Paragraph structure
- How to paraphrase and summarise other people's writing
- Direct and indirect quotation
- The organisation of long papers

You will also need study skills so that you can:

- Work independently
- Organise a long paper
- Define key terms
- Find out what other people have said about your topic
- Include their ideas in your paper
- Include your own experiences and ideas in your paper
- Show the links between your ideas
- Create an academic paper using a computer so that it is attractive and easy to read

You may also need to be able to:

- Do original research on a topic
- Create a questionnaire to investigate a topic
- Ask people the questions on your questionnaire
- Report the results of your research

1.3 Tracking your extended writing project

Writing a long paper cannot be done quickly. The paper needs clear organisation and careful revision. To be sure that you are working successfully on this first paper, you must meet regularly with your tutor and show them portions of your extended writing task (also called your *Project*). You are responsible for keeping the form **below** (an A4 version of this sheet will be given to you in class), and getting your tutor to sign that they have seen your work regularly.

Your tutor must sign that they have seen:

- The title of your extended writing task
- At least **two** different sections of your extended writing task
- Photocopies (or printouts of web pages) for **two** sources that you are going to refer to in your Project; an example of one is **below**.

You must hand in this Project Tracking Sheet and the two sources when you submit your Project. Your Project will not be read without this sheet.

Project tracking sheet		
Student's name	ELLEN ZHANG XUEMEI	
Group	1	
Tutor	ERIK BORG	
<p><i>Project creation deadlines.</i> You must meet the following deadlines, including at least two of the <i>Project portion seen</i> dates. You must submit photocopies or web page handouts of at least two different sources of your reading on your topic. Your photocopy or printout should include the passage used in your project. If your source is in a language other than English, you need to translate the first paragraph.</p>		
Deadline	Date	Tutor's initials
Title or topic agreed	21 May 02	EB
Plan for project submitted	29 May 02	EB
500/750 words seen	3 June 02	EB
Project portion seen (e.g., introduction, definitions, chapter one, etc.)	10 June 02	EB
Project portion seen	17 June 02	EB
Project portion seen		
Sources provided	10 June 02	EB
<p><i>Project information</i></p>		
Title of Project	TO WHAT EXTENT HAS POPULATION CHANGE IN CHINA BEEN THE RESULT OF SOCIAL POLICY OR UNPLANNED DEVELOPMENT? HAS THE RESULT BEEN GOOD OR BAD?	
Reference for sources seen, as they will appear in the list of references (2 required)	<p>LI, Y. (2000/1935) MY COUNTRY AND MY PEOPLE. BEIJING: FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING AND RESEARCH PRESS.</p> <p>BECKER, J. (1996) HUNGRY GHOSTS. LONDON: JOHN MURRAY.</p>	

FROM: BECKER (1996)

China: Land of Famine 19

at there were 192,000 regular troops and an additional 10,000 militia and bandits living off the countryside.¹³ An earlier report, produced in 1929 by the International Famine Relief Commission in western China, concluded that famine was less the result of natural disasters than of man-made events. Millions of armed men in China fed themselves by seizing food from the peasants, taking their sons and animals, and demanding taxes years or even generations in advance. If the peasants refused to pay, then the troops would seize their entire belongings, creating more desperate men whose only recourse was banditry. Wherever the troops went there was starvation: the famine areas corresponded almost exactly to the main retreat areas and lines of march of the armies retreating from, and advancing to, the civil wars in the East.

The American Red Cross drew the same conclusions about famine in north-west China which began in 1929. It started as a severe drought but the ensuing destitution was caused by the 'crushing exactions of the warlords, the depredations of bandits and the enforced payment of confiscatory taxation'. In solution, it said, lay in the establishment of a strong, stable central government which could 'command the power and resources and continuity of policy necessary to lead China out of her condition of disorder into a new era of peace, security and prosperity'. It predicted that 'disastrous conditions leading to continued suffering will constantly recur until such a government comes into being'.

In the spring of 1943, an American reporter for *Time* magazine, Theodore White, was covering the war between the Japanese and Nationalist armies in Henan province, central China. Millions were fleeing the Japanese advance but White discovered to his horror that it was not the fighting itself which was killing most people but hunger. 'The blood was not my distress - it was my inability to make sense of what I was seeing. In a famine where no one kills but nature, there are no marks on the body where people die: nature itself is the enemy - and only government can save from nature. I could not understand this at the beginning.'

White, who later became the doyen of political reporters in America, was convinced that it would be the Communists, not the Nationalists, who would eventually provide this stable

2. The Academic Word List

The list below contains 570 word families that occur frequently in academic writing, but that are less common in general English. You should be able to understand and use these words correctly. Although some of these words are used in general English, they often have different meanings in academic English. An example of this is the word *vehicle*, which can be a general word for an auto, bus or truck used to carry people or things. In academic contexts, however, *vehicle* is often used in a more abstract way, to describe something that you use in order to achieve something or as a way of spreading your ideas, or opinions:

The present vehicle of this economic domination by the North of the South is the multinational corporation (Seitz, 2002, p. 16).

Because of this, it is important to learn these words in context.

This list contains the head words of the families in the Academic Word List. A head word is a noun or verb whose meaning is explained in a dictionary. The family of the head word includes derived words, that is, words that are closely related, such as *accommodate* and *accommodation*.

The list is divided into ten shorter lists. These Sublists indicate how common a word is in academic usage. For example, a word in Sublist 1 is approximately twice as common as a word in Sublist 2. The numbers therefore suggest how often you may find each word, and which are the most important to learn. For example, *abandon* and its family members are in Sublist 8 of the Academic Word List, and are much less common than *appropriate* and its family members (Sublist 2).

This list was developed by Averil Coxhead, and first described in Coxhead (2000).

References:

- Coxhead, A. (2000). A new academic word list. *TESOL Quarterly*, 34(2), 213-238.
- Seitz, J. L. (2002). *Global issues: An introduction* (2nd ed.). Oxford, UK: Blackwell.

abandon 8	author 6	concept 1
abstract 6	authority 1	conclude 2
academy 5	automate 8	concurrent 9
access 4	available 1	conduct 2
accommodate 9	aware 5	confer 4
accompany 8	behalf 9	confine 9
accumulate 8	benefit 1	confirm 7
accurate 6	bias 8	conflict 5
achieve 2	bond 6	conform 8
acknowledge 6	brief 6	consent 3
acquire 2	bulk 9	consequent 2
adapt 7	capable 6	considerable 3
adequate 4	capacity 5	consist 1
adjacent 10	category 2	constant 3
adjust 5	cease 9	constitute 1
administrate 2	challenge 5	constrain 3
adult 7	channel 7	construct 2
advocate 7	chapter 2	consult 5
affect 2	chart 8	consume 2
aggregate 6	chemical 7	contact 5
aid 7	circumstance 3	contemporary 8
albeit 10	cite 6	context 1
allocate 6	civil 4	contract 1
alter 5	clarify 8	contradict 8
alternative 3	classic 7	contrary 7
ambiguous 8	clause 5	contrast 4
amend 5	code 4	contribute 3
analogy 9	coherent 9	controversy 9
analyse 1	coincide 9	convene 3
annual 4	collapse 10	converse 9
anticipate 9	colleague 10	convert 7
apparent 4	commence 9	convince 10
append 8	comment 3	cooperate 6
appreciate 8	commission 2	coordinate 3
approach 1	commit 4	core 3
appropriate 2	commodity 8	corporate 3
approximate 4	communicate 4	correspond 3
arbitrary 8	community 2	couple 7
area 1	compatible 9	create 1
aspect 2	compensate 3	credit 2
assemble 10	compile 10	criteria 3
assess 1	complement 8	crucial 8
assign 6	complex 2	culture 2
assist 2	component 3	currency 8
assume 1	compound 5	cycle 4
assure 9	comprehensive 7	data 1
attach 6	comprise 7	debate 4
attain 9	compute 2	decade 7
attitude 4	conceive 10	decline 5
attribute 4	concentrate 4	deduce 3

define 1
 definite 7
 demonstrate 3
 denote 8
 deny 7
 depress 10
 derive 1
 design 2
 despite 4
 detect 8
 deviate 8
 device 9
 devote 9
 differentiate 7
 dimension 4
 diminish 9
 discrete 5
 discriminate 6
 displace 8
 display 6
 dispose 7
 distinct 2
 distort 9
 distribute 1
 diverse 6
 document 3
 domain 6
 domestic 4
 dominate 3
 draft 5
 drama 8
 duration 9
 dynamic 7
 economy 1
 edit 6
 element 2
 eliminate 7
 emerge 4
 emphasis 3
 empirical 7
 enable 5
 encounter 10
 energy 5
 enforce 5
 enhance 6
 enormous 10
 ensure 3
 entity 5
 environment 1
 equate 2

equip 7
 equivalent 5
 erode 9
 error 4
 establish 1
 estate 6
 estimate 1
 ethic 9
 ethnic 4
 evaluate 2
 eventual 8
 evident 1
 evolve 5
 exceed 6
 exclude 3
 exhibit 8
 expand 5
 expert 6
 explicit 6
 exploit 8
 export 1
 expose 5
 external 5
 extract 7
 facilitate 5
 factor 1
 feature 2
 federal 6
 fee 6
 file 7
 final 2
 finance 1
 finite 7
 flexible 6
 fluctuate 8
 focus 2
 format 9
 formula 1
 forthcoming 10
 foundation 7
 found 9
 framework 3
 function 1
 fund 3
 fundamental 5
 furthermore 6
 gender 6
 generate 5
 generation 5
 globe 7

goal 4
 grade 7
 grant 4
 guarantee 7
 guideline 8
 hence 4
 hierarchy 7
 highlight 8
 hypothesis 4
 identical 7
 identify 1
 ideology 7
 ignorance 6
 illustrate 3
 image 5
 immigrate 3
 impact 2
 implement 4
 implicate 4
 implicit 8
 imply 3
 impose 4
 incentive 6
 incidence 6
 incline 10
 income 1
 incorporate 6
 index 6
 indicate 1
 individual 1
 induce 8
 inevitable 8
 infer 7
 infrastructure 8
 inherent 9
 inhibit 6
 initial 3
 initiate 6
 injure 2
 innovate 7
 input 6
 insert 7
 insight 9
 inspect 8
 instance 3
 institute 2
 instruct 6
 integral 9
 integrate 4
 integrity 10

intelligence 6	minimum 6	plus 8
intense 8	ministry 6	policy 1
interact 3	minor 3	portion 9
intermediate 9	mode 7	pose 10
internal 4	modify 5	positive 2
interpret 1	monitor 5	potential 2
interval 6	motive 6	practitioner 8
intervene 7	mutual 9	precede 6
intrinsic 10	negate 3	precise 5
invest 2	network 5	predict 4
investigate 4	neutral 6	predominant 8
invoke 10	nevertheless 6	preliminary 9
involve 1	nonetheless 10	presume 6
isolate 7	norm 9	previous 2
issue 1	normal 2	primary 2
item 2	notion 5	prime 5
job 4	notwithstanding 10	principal 4
journal 2	nuclear 8	principle 1
justify 3	objective 5	prior 4
label 4	obtain 2	priority 7
labour 1	obvious 4	proceed 1
layer 3	occupy 4	process 1
lecture 6	occur 1	professional 4
legal 1	odd 10	prohibit 7
legislate 1	offset 8	project 4
levy 10	ongoing 10	promote 4
liberal 5	option 4	proportion 3
licence 5	orient 5	prospect 8
likewise 10	outcome 3	protocol 9
link 3	output 4	psychology 5
locate 3	overall 4	publication 7
logic 5	overlap 9	publish 3
maintain 2	overseas 6	purchase 2
major 1	panel 10	pursue 5
manipulate 8	paradigm 7	qualitative 9
manual 9	paragraph 8	quote 7
margin 5	parallel 4	radical 8
mature 9	parameter 4	random 8
maximise 3	participate 2	range 2
mechanism 4	partner 3	ratio 5
media 7	passive 9	rational 6
mediate 9	perceive 2	react 3
medical 5	percent 1	recover 6
medium 9	period 1	refine 9
mental 5	persist 10	regime 4
method 1	perspective 5	region 2
migrate 6	phase 4	register 3
military 9	phenomenon 7	regulate 2
minimal 9	philosophy 3	reinforce 8
minimise 8	physical 3	reject 5

relax 9
release 7
relevant 2
reluctance 10
rely 3
remove 3
require 1
research 1
reside 2
resolve 4
resource 2
respond 1
restore 8
restrain 9
restrict 2
retain 4
reveal 6
revenue 5
reverse 7
revise 8
revolution 9
rigid 9
role 1
route 9
scenario 9
schedule 8
scheme 3
scope 6
section 1
sector 1
secure 2
seek 2
select 2
sequence 3
series 4
sex 3
shift 3
significant 1
similar 1
simulate 7

site 2
so-called 10
sole 7
somewhat 7
source 1
specific 1
specify 3
sphere 9
stable 5
statistic 4
status 4
straightforward 10
strategy 2
stress 4
structure 1
style 5
submit 7
subordinate 9
subsequent 4
subsidy 6
substitute 5
successor 7
sufficient 3
sum 4
summary 4
supplement 9
survey 2
survive 7
suspend 9
sustain 5
symbol 5
tape 6
target 5
task 3
team 9
technical 3
technique 3
technology 3
temporary 9
tense 8

terminate 8
text 2
theme 8
theory 1
thereby 8
thesis 7
topic 7
trace 6
tradition 2
transfer 2
transform 6
transit 5
transmit 7
transport 6
trend 5
trigger 9
ultimate 7
undergo 10
underlie 6
undertake 4
uniform 8
unify 9
unique 7
utilise 6
valid 3
vary 1
vehicle 8
version 5
via 8
violate 9
virtual 8
visible 7
vision 9
visual 8
volume 3
voluntary 7
welfare 5
whereas 5
whereby 10
widespread 8

3. Learning about your topic

As a university student in Britain, you will have to research independently in your academic field. For your project, you will also be expected to learn about your topic, organise your paper, and write and revise it with the help of your projects teacher.

Writing an extended paper takes many steps. Some of these include:

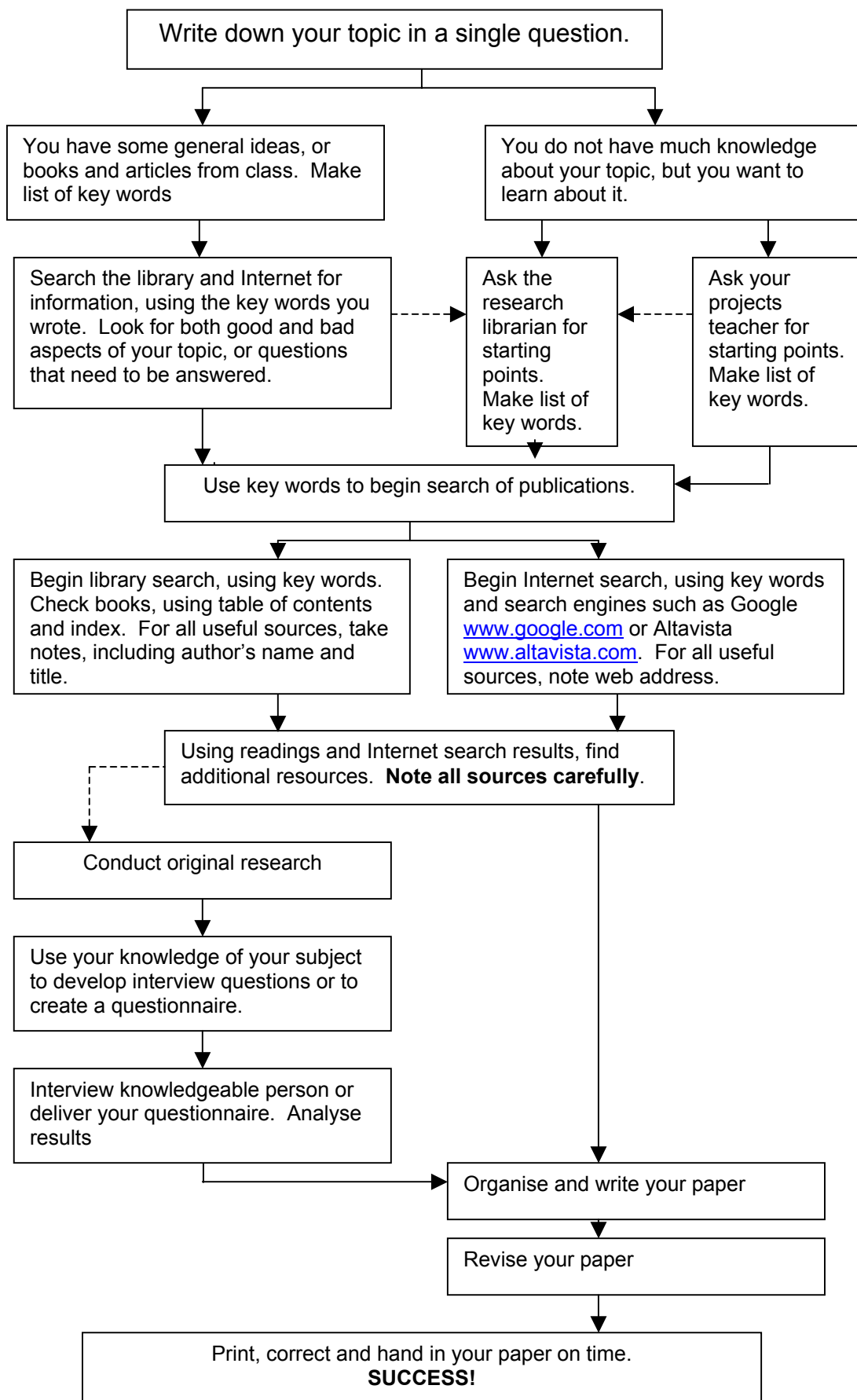
- Deciding on a topic
- Choosing a question you want to answer
- Finding out what other people have said about your question
- (Conducting original research to add to what is known about your question)
- Writing a first draft of your paper
- Revising your paper
- Correcting any errors in your paper
- Handing in on time.

This sequence can be seen on the next page.

Because there are so many steps, it is important that you keep to the schedule that your projects teacher has set.

Papers that do not keep to the schedule will not be marked and you will not receive a passing grade on your project!

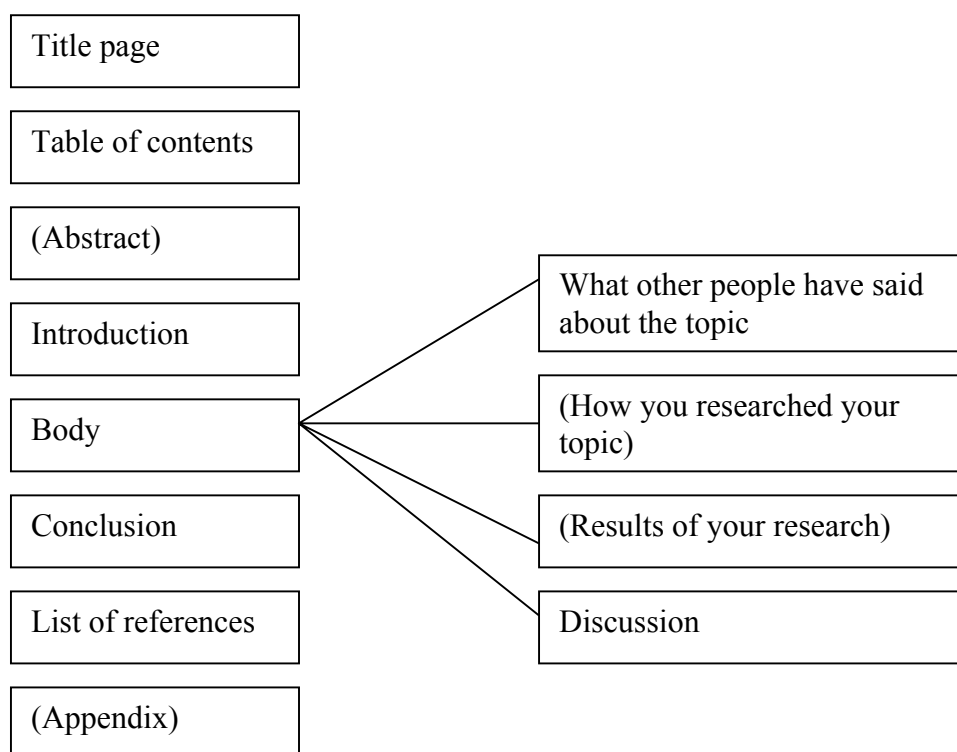
Researching and writing about your topic



4. Requirements

4.1 Organisation

Your project should have a structure similar to the structure of a British university course paper. Below are the sections normally found in an academic paper. The sections in (brackets) are optional, depending on your topic.



4.2 Length

If the course you plan to enter is at the undergraduate level, you should write a project that is 2,000-words long. If you plan to study on a post-graduate course, you should write a Project that is 3,000-words long. Your paper should be no more than 10% longer or shorter than the assigned length.

4.3 Word Processing

You must prepare your paper on a computer, that is, you must use a word processor such as Microsoft Word to produce your paper. It should be printed on only one side of the paper and should have page numbers. It should be either double spaced or 1.5 lines. Tools to help you prepare your paper are described in Appendix II.

4.4 The sections of the paper

4.4.1 Title page

This should have the following information:

The title of your paper
Your name
Your group
The date the project is handed in
Your project teacher
The number of words in your paper
The course you are planning to enter and the level (undergraduate or postgraduate)

4.4.2 Table of contents

Example

From a paper entitled:		
<i>How global economy affects women's lives in China</i>		
Introduction		Page 1
Chapter One	The positive effects to women's lives	Page 3
Chapter Two	The negative effects to women's lives	Page 9
Conclusion		Page 15
References		Page 16

4.4.3 (Abstract)

Normally, course papers do not have abstracts, though some courses ask for an “executive summary.” You may wish to include this element as part of your paper. If you include an abstract, it should give a reader an idea of your topic and what you found out in your study. It should be no more than 100 words long, and it should be separate from your paper. That is, you should not have to read the abstract to understand the paper.

4.4.4 Introduction

Your introduction presents the topic of your project and also provides a “roadmap” explaining how you organised your paper. It will usually have the following parts:

1. A statement of the theme or topic of the project, saying why it is important or interesting;
2. Some background on the topic;
3. A statement of the problem or question you were trying to answer;
4. A description or outline of the organisation of the paper.

Your introduction may also include:

5. A very brief description of how you studied your topic or did your research;
6. A description of your findings.

Example

From a project entitled:

Implication for Chinese national identity and local traditions by international media

Nowadays, The rapid growth of the web, the power of television, the promise of Hollywood movies, effectiveness of advertisements, pop music and Internet are combining to create an international media culture. On the one hand, it provides great entertainment and the latest information for people. On the other hand, it has an unprecedented impact on national identity and local culture.

In the case of China, many people realise that Chinese people's lifestyle, especial the younger generation is becoming more and more western. Alternatively, the national identity and local traditions have been paying less and less attention. Actually, what is the implication for Chinese national identity and local tradition by global media?

In this project, I will focus on the global media's impact on Chinese national identity and local culture. In the first chapter, I will take a close look at the national identity and media. How have fashion and music changed China? In the second chapter, taking food and marriage as examples, the global media impact on local traditions in China will be discussed. The final part will describe the future. After considering these three chapters, I will draw a conclusion for this report. To sum up, global culture could entertain and benefit people, at the same time; it could also destroy many local traditions and national identity and lead to a homogeneous culture.

4.4.5 Body

The body of your project is the main part of the paper. It will often have the following parts:

1. A look at what other people who have written about your topic have said (there will be more on this in Section 5, *Joining the academic community*);
2. Definitions of key terms. These are not dictionary definitions, but what you mean or understand about important ideas in your topic. For example, if you are writing about “e-commerce,” you need to describe how “e-commerce” is different from other types of commerce, and what things are included in your meaning (only Internet sales or also telephone sales?).
3. Positive and negative aspects of your topic;
4. If you did research, such as interviews or questionnaires, how you did your research;
5. The results of your research;
6. A discussion or evaluation (this could be part of your conclusion).

4.4.6 Conclusion

The conclusion should relate the body of your paper to the question that you said you would answer in your introduction. It should not introduce new information. It should include your evaluation of your topic, and, if you have recommendations, your conclusion should include these.

4.4.7 List of references

The list of references is a list of all the books, articles or web sites you referred to in the paper. It should be in alphabetic order (A – Z order) by the writers’ family names. **It should not include anything that you did not mention in your paper, but it must have everything that you did.** More detail can be found in Section 5 and in *Cite Them Right!* This can also be found on the Northumbria website at <http://www.unn.ac.uk/central/isd/cite/>.

4.4.8 (Appendix)

Your *appendix* (or *appendices* if you have more than one) contains information that is important but not necessary for your paper. For example, if you did research using a questionnaire, a sample of your questionnaire may be your first appendix, while a complete analysis of your results may be in a second appendix.

4.4.9 Headings and subheadings

You should use headings and subheadings to the sections of your paper to make it easier to read. These are usually set in different type sizes or type styles, to set them off from the rest of your paper. Instructions on how to do this can be found in Appendix II.

4.4.10 Copies of your project

You must submit **two copies** of your project. You do not have to put your project in a special binding. You should staple only the upper left corner of the paper.

5. Joining the academic community

Introduction

You are about to enter the British academic community. In this community, you will take part in a conversation or discussion. You will discuss what people said about the topic you are studying before you arrived, and you will add to the discussion by drawing on your own experiences and interests.

In the University community, it is important to show how your experiences relate to what others have said and thought. This is done by noting in your assignments and other writing what other people have written through a system of *citations* and *references*. Although this system of acknowledging what other people have said is shared in many communities, it is not universal. In other cultures, memorising and quoting from widely known texts is expected of students. To say whom you are quoting would insult the reader. This is not the practice in the British academic community.

Citations and references

In this community, you must show that you have studied what other people have said about your topic, and you need to say where you have taken the words or the ideas of other people from. Showing that you have read widely earns you credit and may improve your mark. However, you must say in your paper that you have used someone else's words or ideas, and you must say clearly what the person you have read believes and what you believe. You can show what you have read by quoting from your reading or by mentioning what you have read. It is also important that you say where you learned any fact that you mention, for example, the number of homes in Britain that have televisions. Each quotation or fact needs to have a *citation*. In the English Language Centre, we use a particular system of citations, called the *Harvard system*, or the *author-date* system.

In this system, when you quote someone or use a fact that someone else has discovered, you put the author's surname in brackets after the quotation, and the year that it was written, for example (Carter, 2000). If you quote an author's exact words, then you must also include the number of the page where the words are found, for example (Carter, 2000, p. 14). You must do this whether you get the information from a book, a newspaper, or a web site. Then, at the end of your paper, you need to provide more information. That is your list of references. You must provide a citation whether you use the exact words of the source or whether you are paraphrasing the source in your own words.

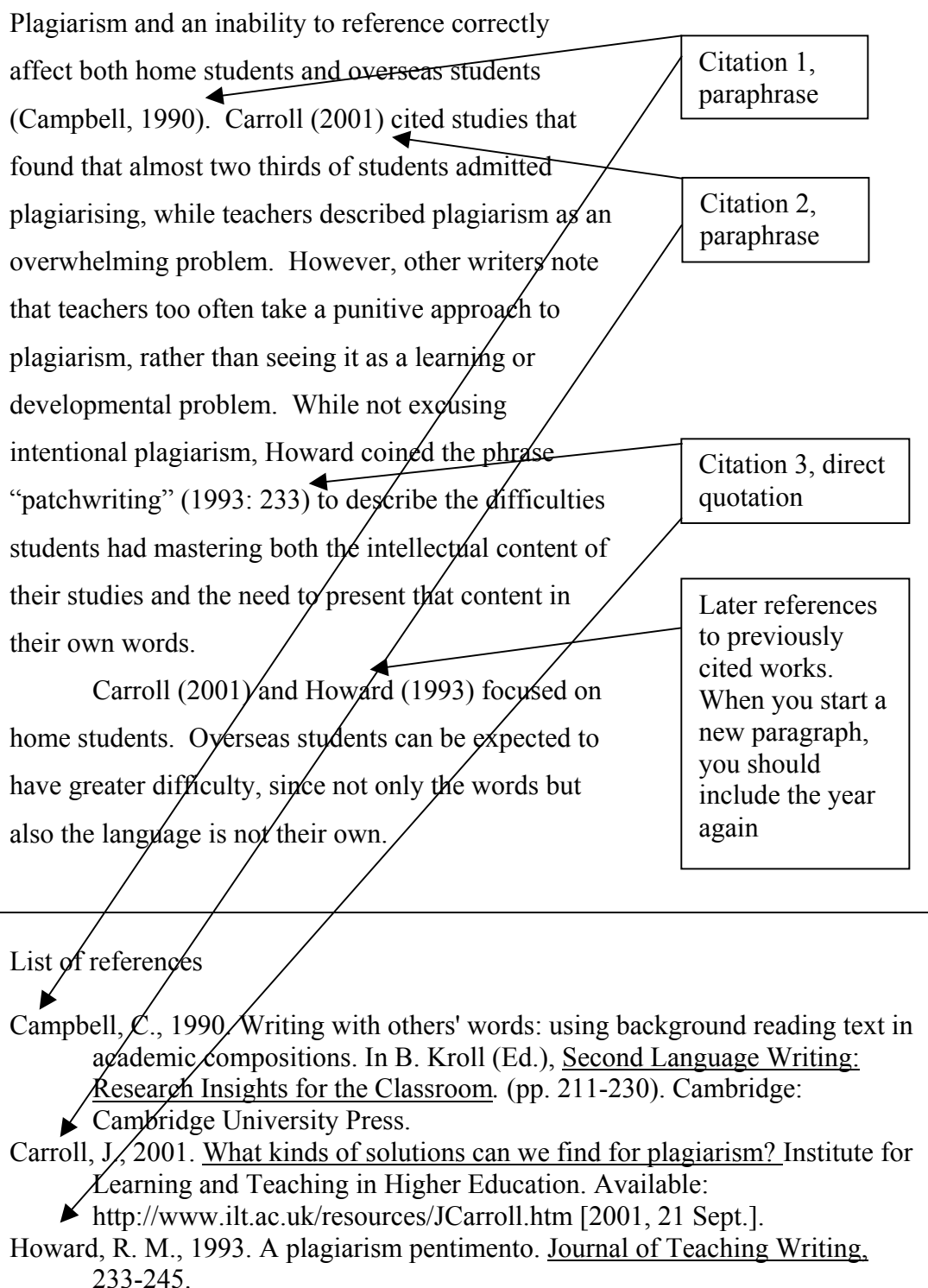
Avoiding plagiarism

If you do not provide this information, you may be guilty of *plagiarism*, which is considered a very serious problem in this community. Your assignment may lose marks, or you may fail your course.

5.1 Example of referencing

Below is an example of how citations in the text relate to the list of references.

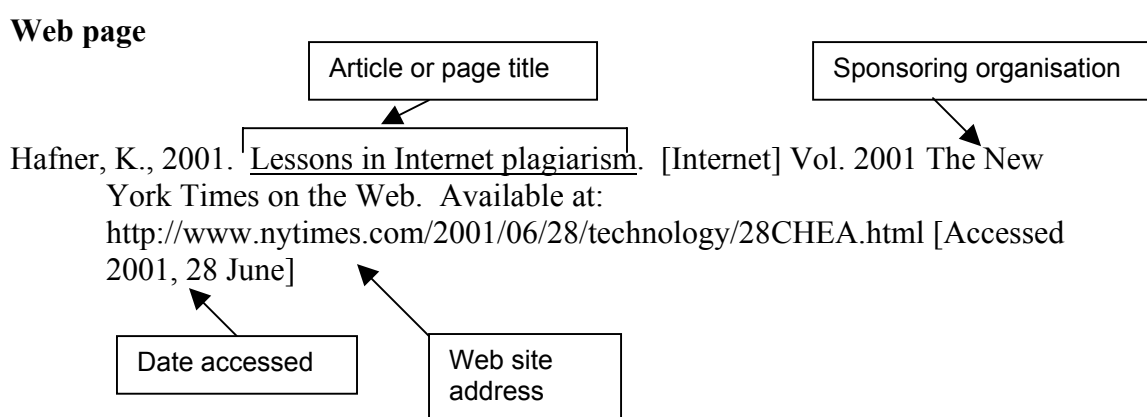
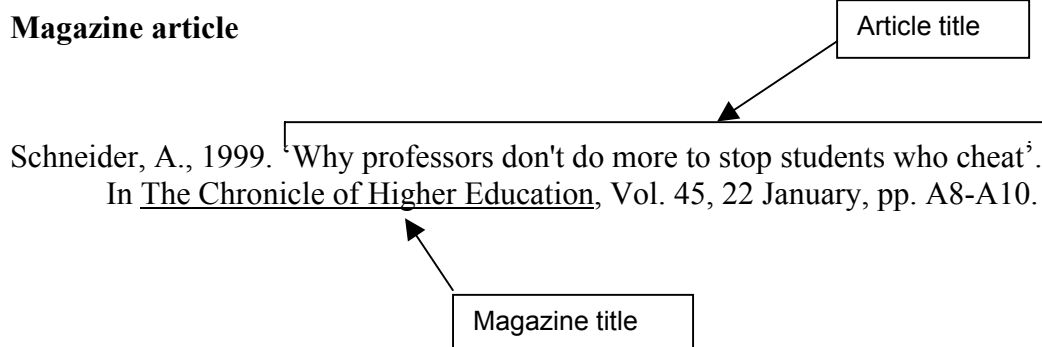
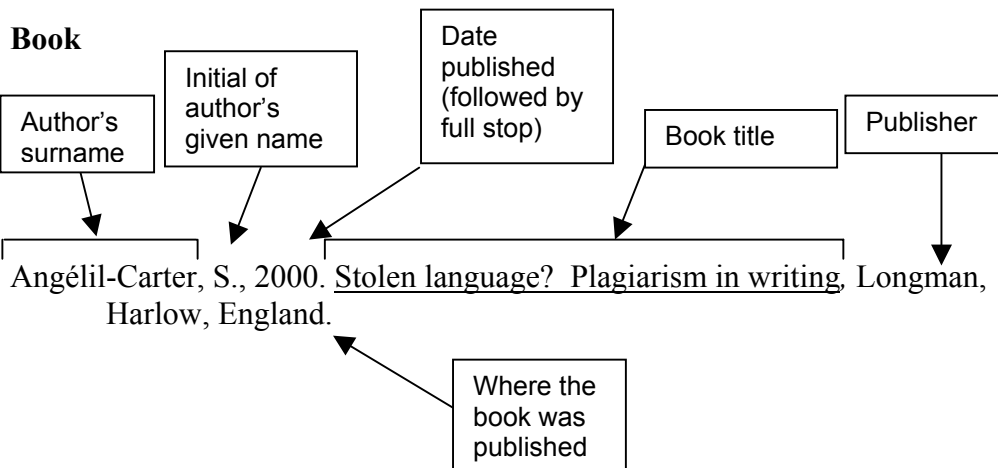
Plagiarism



You can find out more information about how to cite and write a list of the books you referred to in writing your paper from:

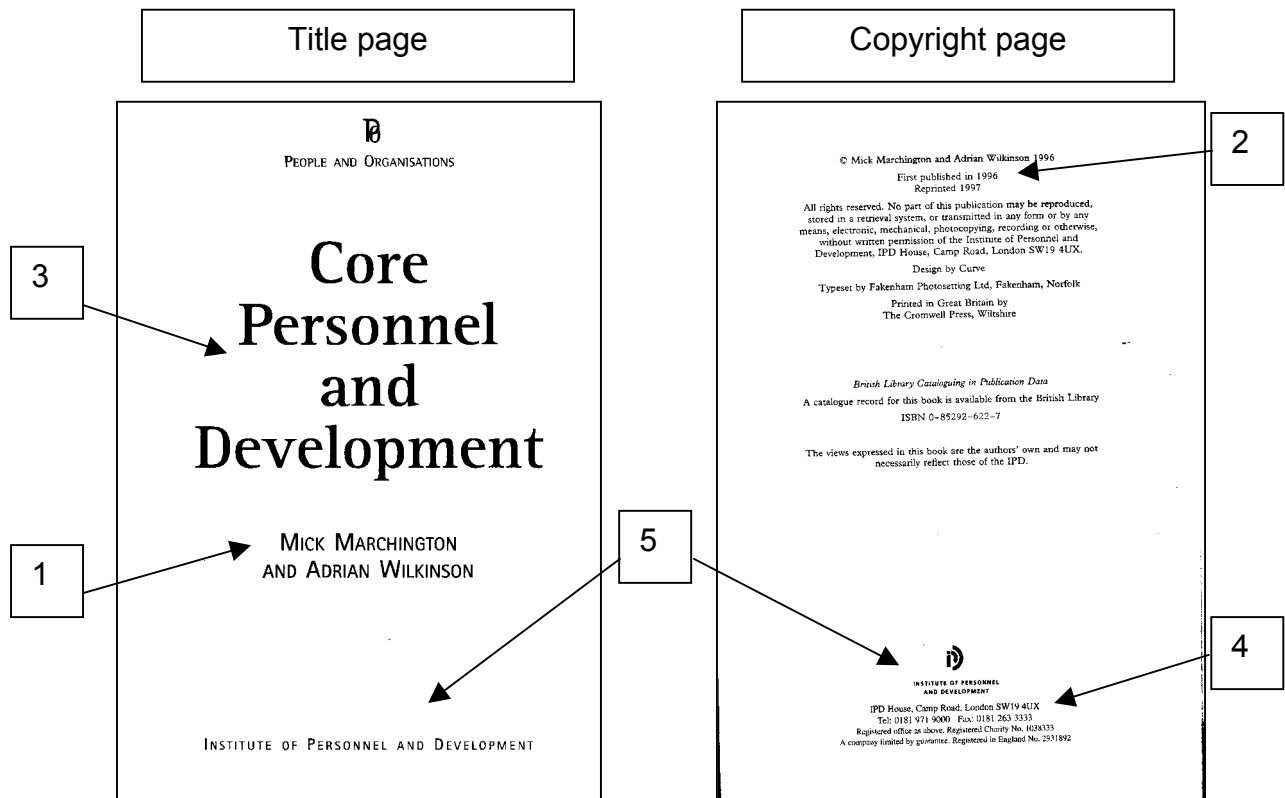
<http://www.unn.ac.uk/central/isd/cite/>

5.2 The parts of a reference in your list of references:



5.3 Writing your list of references, Harvard system

Book:




1. List author in the order they are given on the title page, with their family names (surnames) first, followed by the initial of their given names.
2. Follow with the year the book was published. This is the most recent copyright date, and NOT the printing (or reprinting) date.
3. Give the full title of the book and underline it or put it in *italics*.
4. Give the city in which the book was published, followed by a colon.
5. Give the name of the publisher.

The reference for the book above:

Marchington, M. & Wilkinson, A., 1996. Core Personnel and Development.
London: Institute of Personnel and Development.

Journal article:

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Journal title, underlined	 Pergamon www.elsevier.com/locate/worlddev	<i>World Development</i> Vol. 29, No. 1, pp. 1-22, 2001 © 2000 Elsevier Science Ltd. All rights reserved. 0305-755X/00/00088-7	Year of publication
Article title	What Do We Know About Economic Growth? Or, Why Don't We Know Very Much?		
Authors' names: Family name followed by initial(s) of given name(s)	CHARLES KENNY <i>The World Bank, Washington, DC, USA</i> and DAVID WILLIAMS * <i>University of Oxford, UK</i>		
	Pages of article		
	Volume, part: the number of years the journal has been publishing, followed by the number of parts		

Summary. — The last 10 years has seen an explosion in cross country econometric studies of growth, driven by two factors: new mathematical models of the growth process that lend themselves to econometric testing, and new data sets that make such testing possible. This paper looks at a selective review of these studies. It concludes that the results are disappointing in that no model has grown robust to trial by repeated regression. The paper suggests some reasons for this—including that the tested model tend to be ahistorical and over-sample in terms of their causal outcome. It concludes with possible lessons for econometric work in this area. © 2000 Elsevier Science Ltd. All rights reserved.

Key words. — economic growth, theory, cross country regressions

1. INTRODUCTION¹

In June 1996, *The Economist* magazine published a piece based on results from a global statistical study concluding that had African countries followed better policies, such as those followed in eight fast-growing economies over the last few decades, the region would have grown 4.6% per annum faster than its historical growth rate—incoed, faster than the comparator set of fast-growing economies. A year later, *The Economist* published another piece based on results from a global statistical study that concluded "for much of the world, bad climates, poor soils and physical isolation are likely to hinder growth whatever happens to policy." This study concluded that, even had Africa followed better policies, it would have grown 2.3% slower per year than the countries of South and South East Asia.

These two articles, with their markedly different conclusions, provide an illustration of the problems facing even the best development economists. Indeed, both articles were written by Jeffrey Sachs (Sachs, 1996, 1997a).² Overall, attempts to divine the cause or causes of long-term economic growth, testing a wide range of possible determinants using statistical techniques, have produced results that (like the two Sachs articles) are frequently contradictory to results reported elsewhere. That is, empirical evidence is hardly unanimous in support of a particular view of the growth process.

If this is right, it might pose a serious problem for development practitioners. As others have argued, many of those concerned with stimulating growth in developing countries have a more or less universally applicable set of policy prescriptions for achieving that goal. The empirical evidence, however, seems to provide little firm guidance for the universal efficacy of any particular policy prescriptions. Indeed, we will argue that if the evidence shows anything at all, it is that markedly different policies, and markedly different policy mixes, may be appropriate for different countries at different times.

¹The opinions expressed here are the authors' own and do not necessarily reflect those of the World Bank, its executive directors, or the countries that they represent. Final revision accepted: 8 July 2000.

Magazine article, anonymous author:

ANON., 2001. The case for brands. *The Economist*, (8 Sept), 9.

No author given, write Anon. for "anonymous" (author unknown)	Leaders	<i>The Economist</i> September 8th 2001	Page
Title of article	The case for brands		
	Year published		
	Date published		
	Title of magazine, underlined		

Paraphrasing instruments of oppression, they make firms accountable to consumers

LOGO

They seek out Budweiser instead of their local brew, drink nameless shirts for Gap, prefer Marlboros to home grown smokes. What should one conclude? That people are pawns in the hands of giant companies with huge advertising budgets and global reach? Or that brands bring something that people think is better than what they had before?

The power is argued, forcefully if not always coherently, by Naomi Klein, author of "No Logo", a book that has become a bible of the anti-globalisation movement. Her thesis is that brands have come to represent "a fascist state where we all share the logo and have little opportunity for criticism because our newspapers, television stations, Internet servers, stores and retail spaces are all controlled by multinational corporate interests." The ubiquity and power of brand advertising curtails choice, she claims, produced cheaply in third-world sweatshops, branded goods displace local alternatives and force a grey culture homogeneity on the world.

Brands have thus become stalking horses for international capitalism. Outside the United States, they are now symbols of America's corporate power, since most of the world's best-known brands are American. Around them accrete all the worries about environmental damage, human rights abuses and sweated labour that anti-globalists like to put on their placards. No wonder brands seem bad.

Product power or people power

Yet this is a wholly misleading account of the nature of brands (see our special report on pages 27-29). They began as a form of exploitation, but of consumer protection. In pre-industrial days, people knew exactly what went into their meat pies and which butchers were trustworthy, once they moved to cities, they no longer did. A brand provided a guarantee of reliability and quality. Its owner had a powerful incentive to ensure that each pie was as good as the previous one, because that would persuade people to come back for more.

Just as distance created a need for brands in the 19th century, so in the age of globalisation and the Internet it reinforces their value. A book buyer might not entrust a company based in Seattle with his credit-card number had experience not taught him to trust the Amazon brand; an American might not accept a bottle of French wine were it not for the name of Brian. Because consumers trust the basis of all brand values, companies that own the brands have an immense incentive to work to retain that trust.

Indeed, the dependence of successful brands on trust and consistent quality suggests that consumers need more of them. In poor countries, the arrival of foreign brands points to an increase in competition from which consumers gain. Anybody in Britain old enough to remember the hideous Wimpy, a travesty of a hamburger, must recall the arrival of McDonald's with gratitude. Public services in a No Logo world, at least at government branding, are a deviation. That is because brands have value only where consumers have choice, which rarely exists in public services. The absence of brands in the public sector reflects a world like that of the old Soviet Union, in which consumer choice has little role.

Brands are the tools with which companies seek to solidify and retain customer loyalty. Because that often requires expensive advertising and good marketing, a strong brand can raise both prices and barriers to entry. But not to insuperable levels: brands fade as tastes change (Oscar de la Renta, while Starbucks has risen the vapours of fashion, can rebuild a brand that once seemed moribund (think of cars like the Mini or Bertel). And quality of service still counts (despite the rise of Amazon). Many brands have been around for more than a century, but the past two decades have seen many more displaced by new global names, such as Microsoft and Nokia.

Now a change is taking place in the role of brands. Increasingly, customers pay more for a brand because it seems to represent a way of life or a set of ideas. Companies exploit people's emotional needs as well as their desires to consume. Hence Nike's "Just do it" attempt to persuade runners that it is selling personal achievement, or Coca-Cola's relentless effort to associate its fizzy drink with carefree fun. Companies deliberately concoct a story around their service or product, trying to turn a run-of-the-mill purchase (think of Kitagawa-Daas ice cream) into something more thrilling.

This peddling of superior lifestyles is something that irritates many consumers. They disapprove of the rapid notion that spending more on a soft drink or ice cream can bring happiness or social cachet. Fair enough, and yet people in every age and culture have always hunted for ways to acquire social cachet. For medieval European gaudes, it was the details of dress, and sumptuary laws sought to stamp out imitations by the lower orders; now the poorest African country has its clothing markets where second-hand designer labels command a premium over pre-worn No Logo.

The flip side of the power and importance of a brand is its growing vulnerability. Because it is so valuable to a company, a brand must be protected, sustained and protected. A failed advertising campaign, a drop-off in quality or a hint of scandal can all quickly send customers fleeing. Indeed, protesters, including Ms Klein's anti-globalisation supporters, can use the power of the brand against companies by drumming up evidence of workers ill-treated or rivers polluted. Thanks, ironically enough, to globalisation, they can do this all round the world. The more companies protect the value of their brands, the more they will need to seem ethically robust and environmentally pure. Whether protesters will actually succeed in advancing the interests of those they claim to champion is another question. The fact remains that brands give them far more power over companies than they would otherwise have. Companies may grumble about that, but it is hard to see why the enemies of brand "fascism" are complaining. ■

Web page:

Buruma, I. 2001. Nothing surprises the Chinese. [online]. The Guardian

Unlimited, Available at

<http://www.guardian.co.uk/china/story/0,7369,579120,00.html> [Accessed 23 Oct. 2001].

Website address

Website publisher

Author's name (if available)

Date article published (if available)

Date you accessed the website

Secondary references:

If you want to refer to a source that you found quoted in another book or article, you should describe this secondary relationship, either in your text:

As Angélil-Carter wrote, Bakhtin claims ‘language... is populated – overpopulated – with the intentions of others’ (Angélil-Carter, 2000: 35).

or in your citation:

Bakhtin described language as ‘is populated – overpopulated – with the intentions of others’ (Bakhtin, quoted in Angélil-Carter, 2000: 35).

Your list of citations should refer to your source (Angélil-Carter, 2000), NOT the original source (Bakhtin, 1981). However, you should always look up and check the original source if you can.

Long quotations

In general, it is better to use short quotations. If you want to include an extended selection of the ideas another writer expressed, you should try to rewrite those ideas in your own words (paraphrase them). However, if you include a quotation that is longer than 40 words, it should be set off with a blank line and indented (set in from the margin) about 1.5 cm. It does not need speech marks (quotation marks) – “like this” – the way other direct quotations do.

Pennycook (1996, p. 213) nicely caught the dilemma facing students studying in a language that is not their own:

This problem is most obvious for undergraduate students ... who, while constantly being told to be original and critical, and to write things in their “own words,” are nevertheless only too aware that they are at the same time required to acquire a fixed canon of knowledge and a fixed canon of terminology to go with it.

List of References:

- Angélil-Carter, S., 2000. Stolen language? Plagiarism in writing. Harlow, England: Pearson Education.
- Anon., 2001. The case for brands. The Economist, (8 Sept), 9.
- Buruma, I., 2001. Nothing surprises the Chinese. The Guardian Unlimited, [website]. Available at <http://www.guardian.co.uk/china/story/0,7369,579120,00.html> [Accessed 23 Oct. 2001].
- Kenny, C. & Williams D., 2001. What do we know about economic growth? Or, why don't we know very much? World Development, 29 (1), 1-22.
- Marchington, M. & Wilkinson, A., 1996. Core Personnel and Development. London: Institute of Personnel and Development.
- Pennycook, A., 1996. Borrowing others' words: Text, ownership, memory and plagiarism. TESOL Quarterly, 30(2), 201-230.

Your list of references should be sorted by the authors' family names, so *Angélil-Carter* is first, *ANON.* next and *Buruma* after them.

6. Assessment

Your course teachers will tell you how you will be assessed on each part of your course. However, the procedure for marking extended papers (Projects) will be similar to that given below.

Project marking

After your project is handed in, it will be mixed with other students' projects and distributed to all course teachers. One teacher give a first mark to a paper, and then a second teacher reads and marks the paper. The two teachers together will decide on the final mark.

Teachers use the criteria given in Appendix IV to mark all papers. Below are the criteria for an "A" project, that is, a project that reaches the level that would allow a student to enter a postgraduate-level programme.

Criteria for an A level paper

Structure and organisation

30% of total

<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Is the paper coherent?• Does the paper announce a topic and develop it?• Is the organisation clear?• Is the paper relevant to the topic?• Do the sections of the paper support the topic?• If there is original research, is it relevant?• Has the writer described how the research was carried out?	<p>The paper announces a clear topic, describes it and develops it. The sections of the paper do what they say they will do (i.e., the introduction introduces the topic and provides a roadmap to the paper; another section may describe how the study was undertaken (methodology section); the conclusion sums up the paper and does not introduce new material. Original research is relevant to the topic and appropriately applied, that is, conclusions drawn from the research are supported by it. There is clear evidence that claimed research has been done.</p>
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Language and style

30% of total

<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Does the language used make it difficult to read?• Is there complexity and variety in the language used?• Are tenses chosen correctly?• Is the writer able to maintain an academic register?• Are cohesive markers used appropriately?	<p>The writing is mainly satisfactory. There may be errors in the writing that make it occasionally difficult to understand, though these are not frequent. The writing uses some complex sentence structures, including subordinate clauses. Signposts (e.g., <i>firstly</i>, <i>therefore</i>, <i>then</i>) are used though they may not all be right for the purpose. The vocabulary chosen is correct for an academic paper; that is, the paper maintains an academic register.</p>
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Content and reading

30% of total

<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Is there a coherent argument or point of view?• Is there evidence of reading?• Is it clear to the reader what the student wrote and what he/she found?• Is there primary research?	<p>The writer develops a coherent argument or point of view. Conclusions are justified by research or reading. The writer read a variety of sources, and tried to show this by citations and a list of references. There is an accurate description of research and findings.</p>
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Layout and presentation

10 % of total

<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Paper should be word-processed.• Titles and sub-titles are used.• Data are presented clearly.• Citations and reference list are clear.	Spelling is correct throughout and punctuation is largely correct. The paper uses titles and subtitles to help the reader understand the organisation of the paper. Charts and graphs provide adequate information to interpret the data. There is a consistent pattern for in-text citations and a reference list of readings.
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Overall evaluation

Additional credit

<ul style="list-style-type: none">• These items present additional factors that may increase the mark of the paper.• They do not need to be present.• No marks will be taken if they are not present in the paper.	The paper is strongly relevant to student's target programme or their life in Britain. There is evidence of significant secondary readings or original research. The writer shows evidence of having developed new knowledge.
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A paper that meets these criteria is above the minimum entry requirement at Northumbria University for undergraduate courses and meets the minimum entry requirement for most post-graduate courses.

Appendix I, Doing research: Questionnaires

One of the most common ways of getting data for a study is through the use of a questionnaire. This next section will give you some general ideas about how to make a questionnaire and what to do with the data you collect from the questionnaire.

1. Your research question.

The starting point for your questionnaire must be what you want to find out, that is, your *research question*. Your questionnaire should ask questions that help answer that question. Since people don't like spending too long answering questionnaires, you shouldn't ask any questions that don't help answer your main question.

As an example of a questionnaire, we will use the research question:

What are the differences in the people who like the movie, *The Lord of the Rings*, and those who don't like it.

2. Writing the questions:

There are two types of questions used in a questionnaire: we call them **open** questions and **closed** questions.

a) **Closed** questions are questions for which you ask people to choose one answer (or sometimes more than one) from a choice that you give them. People filling in the questionnaire are not allowed to write any answer they want.

For example:

- | | | |
|----|------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. | Male | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | Female | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. | Age: | |
| | Under 18 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | 19 – 29 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | 30 – 39 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | 40 – 49 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | 50 + | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. | How often do you go to the cinema? | |
| | 1-2 times a week | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | 1-2 times a month | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | 1-2 times a year | <input type="checkbox"/> |

4. How do you feel about the new movie, *The Lord of the Rings*?

- | | |
|-------------------|--------------------------|
| I love it | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I like it | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| It's ok | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I didn't like it | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I hated it | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I haven't seen it | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Closed questions are easy to answer and easy to analyse. They are especially useful for getting personal background information that you need to understand your data.

BUT there is also a problem with closed questions – they force people to choose your words and so might not tell you how people feel exactly. Think about your answer to question 4. Could you choose one of the answers given or would you like to answer, “well I thought the special effects were ok, but I was a little bored by all the fighting in it” or something else?

b) The other type of question is **open** questions. These are questions where people can write free answers. For example

5. How do you feel about the new movie, *The Lord of the Rings*?

6. Do you like movies that mix computer-created characters and real people? Why or why not?

Open questions can give you a lot more information to write about in your assignment and can be more interesting. BUT you need to remember that people don't like to spend too much time writing answers on a questionnaire, and open questions will take you a lot more time to analyse.

So the best questionnaire will combine both kinds of questions – some closed questions and some open ones. When you write your questionnaire you should think very carefully about which questions should be open and which closed.

3. Testing your questionnaire:

Before you send your questionnaire or start using it you should try it out on a friend – ask them to answer the questions and then ask them if they had answers which were not on the questionnaire (this is called a pilot test). Ask your friend if the instructions and questions were clear – this is very important because when people answer they won't be able to ask you what you mean and if they are confused then their answers might not be true.

After you have changed anything you should send or give your questionnaire to other people to make sure you improved it.

4. Analysing the data from questionnaires:

When you are analysing the information you got from the questionnaire it is useful to deal with the data from open questions and the data from closed questions differently.

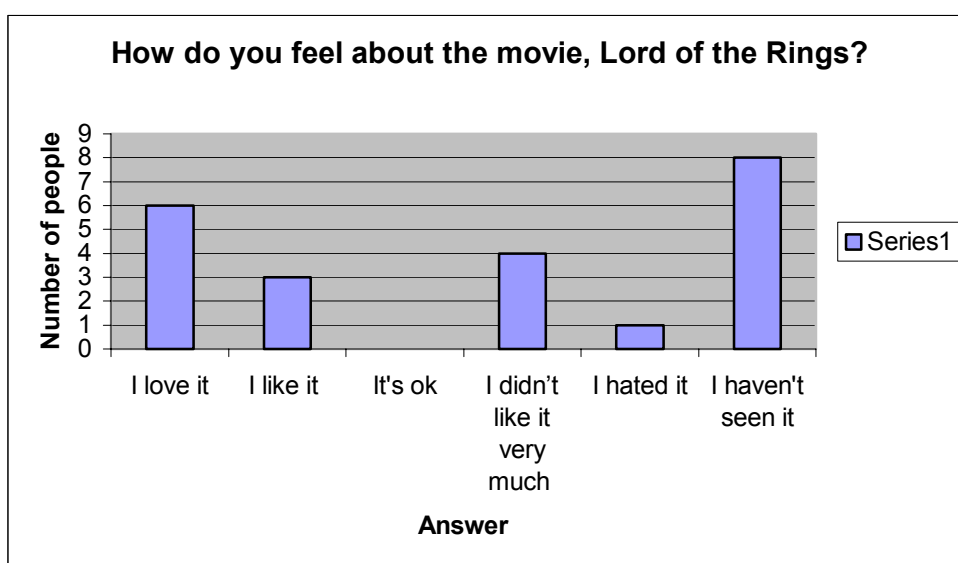
a) Closed questions:

This data needs to be counted. The results can be displayed in a table or on a graph if you can do this. For example, from question 4 above:

How do you feel about the movie, *The Lord of the Rings*?

Answer	Number
I love it	6
I like it	3
It's ok	0
I didn't like it very much	4
I hated it	1
I haven't seen it	8

Total number who responded: 23 people



Total number who responded: 19 people

b) Open questions:

When you analyse the answers to open questions do each question in turn, that is, first look at how everyone answered question 5. Put the answers together that are similar, for example all the people who said they liked the movie in one pile and all the ones who didn't in another, with those who were in the middle in a third pile.

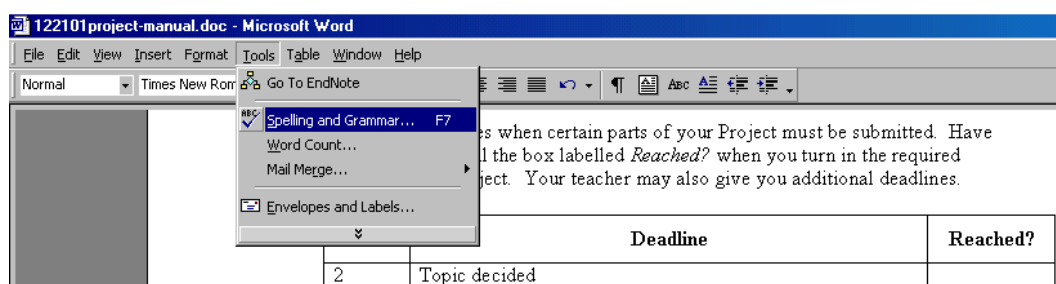
When you write in your assignment about how people answered this question you should summarise some of the opinions that people had in each of your groups (piles) and then choose a short quote from one or two to illustrate your point. Remember DO NOT fill your paper with long quotes – use them sparingly only to back up your summary. When you have analysed and written about one of the open questions move onto the next one.

Appendix II, Writing on a computer

A computer programme, such as Microsoft Word®, can simplify many of the problems of presenting your work. For instance, you can check your spelling, find out how long your paper is, and make your paper easier to read by adding page numbers and additional line spacing.

Spelling and Grammar

You can use the Spelling and Grammar function to correct your spelling and eliminate any typing errors you might have made. It is found in the Tools menu.

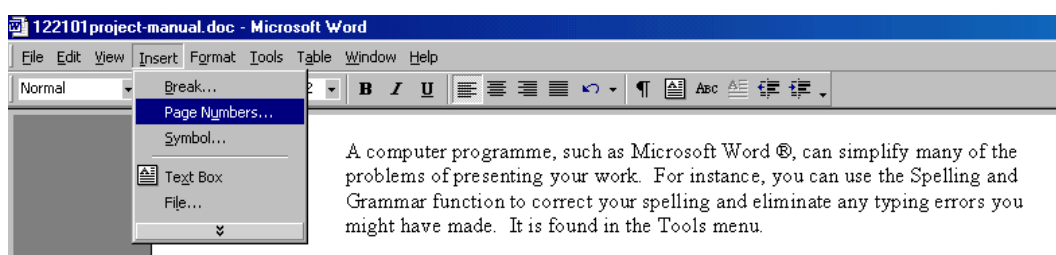


The Spelling correction will offer you a list of words that might be the word that you are trying to write. However, it is important that you consider the choice of words offered. Many words in English have similar spellings, and simply because the word offered is at the top of the list does not mean it is the correct word.

Also, the Grammar correction is designed to correct many of the most common errors committed by writers whose first language is English. The advice given may not help you. If you are not sure if the advice is correct, don't accept it.

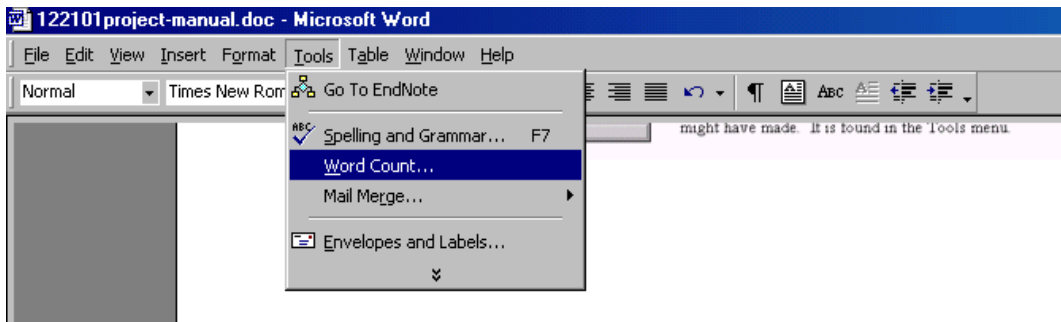
Page Numbers

One feature that will help you and your teachers is the ability to automatically insert page numbers in your project. On a long paper, the ability to refer to a particular page makes the reader's job easier, and this will help them give you advice on your writing. There are several ways to insert page numbers, but the easiest is found in the Insert menu.



Word Count

Most academic papers have strict word limits; they must be a certain length, and not too much shorter or longer. Most teachers can estimate the length of a paper from the number of pages. It is easier, both for the teacher and for the writer, to know exactly how many words are in the paper. (Normally, appendices and the list of references are not included in the word length of the paper.) To find the word count, you should first select the section of your paper you want to find out the word count for. If you don't select a section, all of the paper is counted. Word Count is under the Tools menu.

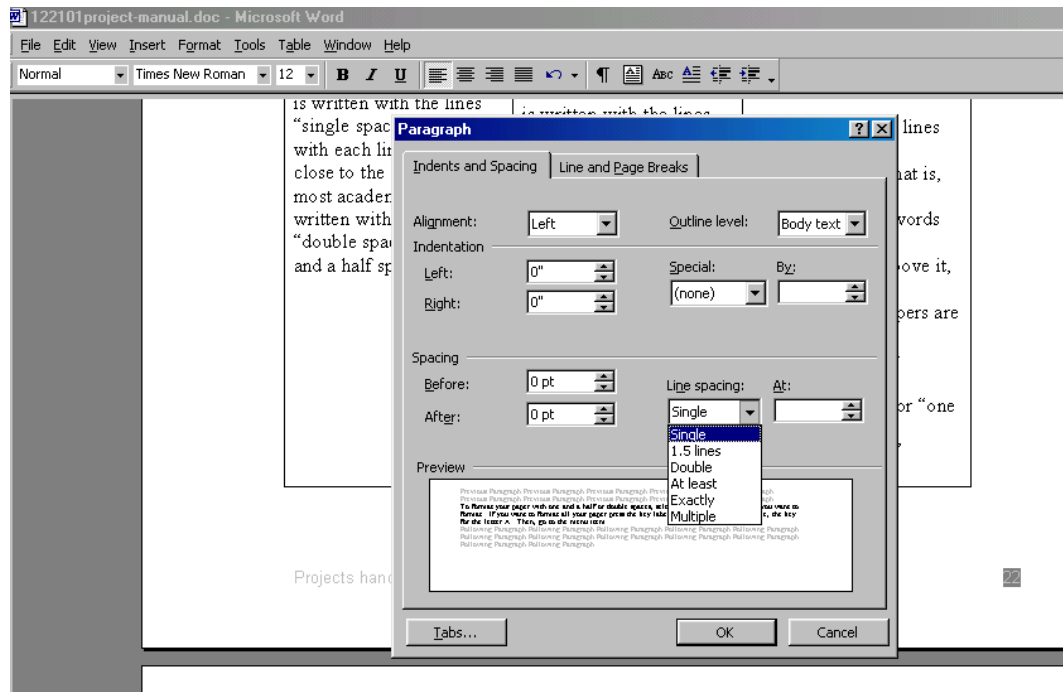


Line spacing

Although this handbook is written with the lines “single spaced,” that is, with each line of words close to the one above it, most academic papers are written with either “double spacing” or “one and a half spaces” (1.5 lines). This gives the reader a place to write their comments or corrections. Here are examples of different line spacing.

Single space	1.5 lines	Double space
Although this handbook is written with the lines “single spaced,” that is, with each line of words close to the one above it, most academic papers are written with either “double spacing” or “one and a half spaces.”	Although this handbook is written with the lines “single spaced,” that is, with each line of words close to the one above it, most academic papers are written with either “double spacing” or “one and a half spaces.”	Although this handbook is written with the lines “single spaced,” that is, with each line of words close to the one above it, most academic papers are written with either “double spacing” or “one and a half spaces.”

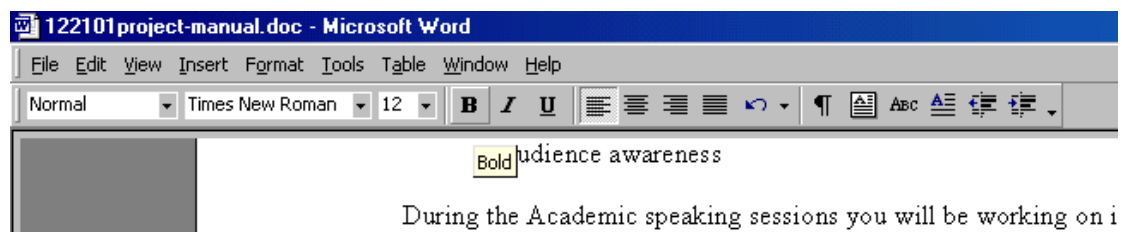
To format your paper with 1.5 or double spaces, select the section of your paper you want to format. If you want to format all your paper press the key labelled Ctrl, and at the same time, the key for the letter A. Then, go to the menu Format. Choose Paragraph, and the screen below will come up.



Under Line spacing, choose either 1.5 lines or Double.

Bold, *italic* and underlined: changing font styles

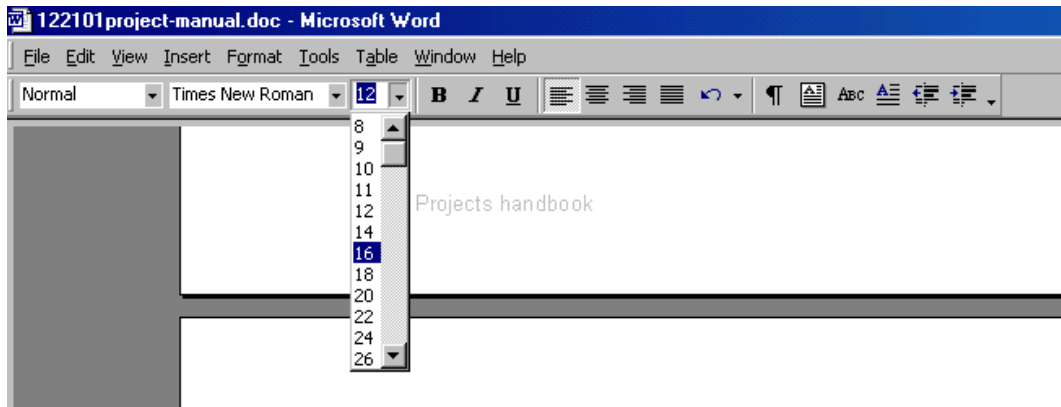
You can put portions of your text in **bold**, *italic* or underlined styles. This can be used (occasionally) for emphasis, to create headings and subheadings, or to indicate particular types of text. For instance, in your list of references, book and journal titles should be either in *italic* style or underlined. The easiest way to create these effects is first to select the word or passage you would like to change the style for, then to select the button on your tool bar showing **B**, *I* or U.



Making Overhead Transparencies

For your speaking presentation, you will want to have visual aids to help your audience understand your talk. Frequently, these will be overhead transparencies. Although you can make your own transparencies, using transparency sheets and special marking pens (available from your teacher), you can also make your transparencies on the computer, and your teacher can transfer your print to a transparency using a photocopier. Because you want everyone to be able to see what you have written, your letters need to be large enough. They should be at least 16 points (the traditional measure used to measure the size of letters).

This is available from the top of your screen. Select the text you want to enlarge (Ctrl + A to select all of your document). Choose a number from the menu of at least 16 points.



Appendix III, Giving a spoken presentation

Your presentation should be lively and brief. Although you have learned a great deal about your topic, you will have only 5 to 7 minutes to speak, plus a few minutes to answer questions from your fellow students and the teachers who will listen to you.

Select a portion of your project to speak about. Don't try to cover your whole project; it'll never fit.

Practise, but don't memorise or read your presentation. Rather than reading or memorising your presentation, use notes or your overhead transparency to remind yourself of your most important points. Presentations that are memorised or read sound flat and uninteresting. **If the teachers who are listening to your presentation feel that you are reading or have memorised your presentation, you will lose marks.**

Use visual aids. Your teacher will help you make overhead transparencies. Your overhead transparency should have only a few points, probably five or less. If you are not using graphs or illustrations, you should only have one transparency. Remember, **select**: you have only five minutes. Make your transparency either by hand or on the computer. Your teacher will supply you with the type of transparencies you need for your presentation. Be careful with photographs as they are often unclear on a transparency.

Make the words **readable**. See Appendix II on how to prepare text for overhead transparencies on the computer.

Using the Overhead Projector (OHP).

- Put the transparent sheet so that it looks right as you face the audience.
- Point to the OHP, not the wall (this way, you will always face your audience)
- Do not stand in front of the projection.
- Use a pencil to point to your transparency, or gradually uncover the transparency with a sheet of paper.
- Switch off the projector when you're not referring to your transparency.

Below are two examples of students' overhead transparencies:

**How Globalization Affects
Construction Industry in China**

Positive Effects

- 1 Housing level**
- 2 Project Management**

Negative Effects

- 1 Corruption**
- 2 Unemployment**
- Loss of tax**

**The negative features of modern
communication tools**

1. Brief background and positive features
2. The negative features:
 - a. Physical problems
 - b. Mental problems
 - c. Personal time
 - d. Crime
 - e. Human relationship
3. Conclusion: Some solution of these problems

Appendix IV

Marking criteria for Projects

	Band A	Band B	Band C	Band D	Band E
Structure and organisation 30% of total <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Does the paper announce a topic and develop it? Is the organisation clear? Is the paper relevant to the topic? Do the sections of the paper support the topic? Is the paper coherent? 	<p>The paper announces a clear topic, describes it and develops it appropriately. Whether self-developed or writing to a title, the paper is generally relevant to the topic. The sections of the paper support the organisation (i.e., the introduction introduces the topic and provides a roadmap to the paper; the conclusion is a summation which does not introduce new material). Original research is relevant to the topic and appropriately applied. Clear evidence that research has been done.</p>	<p>The paper has irrelevant sections and strays from the topic in part, but generally addresses the topic. There is a general understanding of organisation (intro, methodology, research, discussion and conclusion), but sections do not always fulfil their intention. Points may lack support. Original research may not adequately address the research question. Evidence that research has been done, though it may not be well described in methodology section.</p>	<p>The paper often is irrelevant to the topic. When presenting arguments, ideas and evidence, they may be limited in number or insufficiently developed. Section divisions exist but do not appropriately describe their content. Original research is unfocused and not integrated with topic of paper.</p>	<p>The paper seems to be about the topic but does not address it in any coherent manner. Arguments lack clarity, relevance, consistency and support. Research is thin and does not address the topic.</p>	<p>The paper lacks a coherent statement or description. There is no clear progression to the argument. There may be signs of a point of view, but main ideas are difficult to distinguish from supporting material. The ability of the reader to follow the argument or thought pattern is sharply limited by language difficulties.</p>

<p>Language and style</p> <p>30% of total</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does the language used limit comprehension? • Is there complexity and variety in the language used? • Are tenses chosen correctly? • Is the writer able to maintain an academic register? • Are cohesive markers used appropriately? 	<p>The writing is mainly satisfactory. There are errors in the structures of the sentences and these errors interfere slightly with comprehension. However, the writing features some more complex sentence structures, including subordination. Organisational devices are evident, though may not be appropriately applied. The paper maintains an appropriate academic register, though there may be excess repetition of words or phrases, or, contrarily, inappropriate synonyms.</p>	<p>The writing is less satisfactory, because of the use of simple structures and errors of grammar. However, by limiting sentence structure complexity, language is generally clear. Simple connectives (e.g., and, but) are overused and organisational devices are sometimes misused. Words and phrases are often repeated. Synonyms and word forms (e.g., noun vs. adj.) are sometimes poorly chosen. Language is generally in an appropriate register.</p>	<p>The student could be described as a modest user of English. Structures are simple and there are errors of grammar that limit understanding. There are errors in areas such as agreement of tenses. Simple connectives are predominant and organisational devices are frequently misused. Language is repetitious. There is poor control of register.</p>	<p>The writing is often difficult to understand. Sentences are simple, and words are chosen without understanding of connotations.</p>	<p>The student attempts communication but the meaning may come through only after considerable effort by the reader. Sentence-to-sentence coherence is very poor. There are difficulties in choice of words.</p>
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<p>Content and reading</p> <p>30% of total</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is there a coherent argument or point of view? • Is there evidence of reading? • Are there clear signals of source material and student-written text? • Is there primary research? • Is it adequately described? 	<p>The writer develops a coherent argument or point of view. Conclusions are justified by research or reading. There is evidence of external reading, and efforts at acknowledging sources, though full academic norms may not be followed. There is an accurate description of research and findings.</p>	<p>There is an effort to develop a sustained argument or point of view, but it is not fully developed. There is some evidence of external reading and sources are generally acknowledged though with omissions in reference list or in text. There is an attempt to describe research.</p>	<p>Text is descriptive with little effort to develop an argument or point of view. There is little evidence of external reading and/or there are unclear boundaries between student's text and sources. (This can be described as limited plagiarism.) There is a list of sources that is limited or significantly incomplete. There is little effort to describe research and/or it is poorly described.</p>	<p>There is little evidence of external reading and/or there are extended passages that are not in the student's own writing (half a page that the student did not write).</p>	<p>There is little or no evidence of external reading and/or there is extensive plagiarism (half a page or more that the student did not write). There is an apparent effort to claim work that is not the student's own as being written by them (strong implications of deception).</p>
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<p>Layout and presentation</p> <p>10 % of total</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Paper should be word-processed. • Titles and subtitles are used. • Data is presented clearly. • Citation and reference list is clear. 	<p>Spelling is correct throughout and punctuation is largely correct. The paper uses subtitles to help the reader orient her/himself. Charts and graphs that are used to present data provide adequate information to interpret that data. Graphics are not overused. There is an effort at a consistent pattern for in-text citations and reference list.</p>	<p>Spelling is largely correct. There may be punctuation errors. The paper uses titles and subtitles, though not always appropriately. Data is presented in chart or graph form but may lack adequate information for proper interpretation. Graphics may be overused. Citations are not properly formatted, but there is a list of references.</p>	<p>There are errors of spelling and or punctuation that indicate a lack of re-reading. The paper has few or inappropriate signposts (subtitles). Data is poorly presented. Graphics may be intended as padding. List of references provides noticeably incomplete information.</p>	<p>Word-processed papers should not have more serious problems with presentation than those indicated in Band C. Organisation and language problems should be addressed in those areas.</p>	<p>Word-processed papers should not have more serious problems with presentation than those indicated in Band C. Organisation and language problems should be addressed in those areas.</p>
<p>Holistic appraisal</p> <p>Additional credit, no more than one half band</p>	<p>If self-selected topic, paper is strongly relevant to student's target programme or life in Britain. There is evidence of significant secondary readings or original research. The writer shows evidence of having developed new knowledge.</p>	<p>If self-selected topic, paper is relevant to area of student's target programme or life in Britain. There is evidence of external reading and/or original research. The writer demonstrates interest in topic.</p>	<p>There is evidence of some external reading and/or research.</p>		

List of references used in preparing this handbook:

- Angélil-Carter, S., 2000. *Stolen language? Plagiarism in writing*. Harlow, England: Pearson Education.
- Anon. 1990. *BS 5605: 1990. Citing and referencing published material*. London: British Standards Institution.
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- Lunsford, A. A., & Connors, R. J. 1996. *The St. Martin's Handbook* (3rd ed.). New York: St. Martin's Press.
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Created by Erik Borg

erik.borg@unn.ac.uk

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