O'ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI OLIY TA'LIM, FAN VA INNOVATSIYALAR VAZIRLIGI

NAMANGAN DAVLAT UNIVERSITETI JAHON TILLAR FAKULTETI INGLIZ TILI KAFEDRASI

"AKADEMIK YOZUV"

fanidan

O'QUV - USLUBIY MAJMUA

Bilim sohasi:	100000 – Ta'lim
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Ta'lim yoʻnalishi:	60111800 – Xorijiy til va adabiyoti (ingliz tili) yoʻnalishi
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Namangan-2024

O'quv uslubiy majmua O'zbekiston Respublikasi Oliy va o'rta maxsus ta'lim vazirining 2017 yil 1-martdagi "Yangi o'quv uslubiy majmualarni tayyorlash bo'yicha uslubiy ko'rsatmani tavsiya etish to'g'risida" gi 107- sonli buyrug'iga asosida tayyorlandi.

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2024 yil ____ avgust ___ - sonli majlis bayoni.

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2024 yil ____ avgust ___ - sonli majlis bayoni.

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Q.Sidiqov

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GLOSSARY

Accent - Often used to refer to distinctive pronunciations which differ from that of Received Pronunciation. It differs from dialect which includes syntax and vocabulary as well.

acronym - A word formed from the initial letters of the words which make up a name, e.g. NATO (from North Atlantic Treaty Organisation).

alliteration - The repetition of the same sound at the beginning of two or more words in close proximity, e.g. 'time and tide'.

alveolar - In phonetics the sounds formed by the tongue closing the air passage at the alveolar ridge (immediately behind the front top teeth) Such sounds in English include /t/, /d/, and /n/

code switching - The change from one language or variety of language to another\within a conversation A speaker in Belgium might change from French to Flemish and back again depending on the subject matter and the other participants in the conversation

connotation - The associations attached to a word in addition to its dictionary definition; e.g. in addition to its colour meaning, white has the connotation of purity.

Creole - A pidgin which has been adopted as the mother tongue of some people

Dialect - A variety of language associated with a particular speech community, either geographically to give a regional dialect or socially to give a class dialect.

Diglossia - A situation in which two significantly different states of a single language are both used by a speech community

Euphemism - A term regarded as more acceptable socially which has replaced another term which has become tainted by the unfavourable associations of the concept it refers to Hence to spend a penny is a euphemism

Head - The obligatory element of a phrase on which all the other elements depend. In the noun phrase 'the happy man', man is the head and both the and happy are dependent on it

Onomatopoeia - The term used to refer to those words which are said to replicate natural sounds, e.g. woof woof as the noise made by a dog

Pidgin - A means of communication developed through language contact which is usually a simplified linguistic system of a single language with inputs from one or more other languages It is no one's mother tongue

Rankshift - A term describing the process whereby a linguistic unit is used lower down the grammatical hierarchy. Hence a word like free can be used as a morpheme in freewheel, and a clause like he is coming can be used as a phrase in I think he is coming.

Slang - Colourful colloquial usage often associated with particular groups of people, though the slang of one age may become accepted as standard in the next

Velar - In phonetics the sounds produced when the back of the tongue is in contact with the soft palate or velum

fan dasturi;

Lesson 1

Introduction. Assessment specification and syllabus

Introduction

When it comes to assessment specifications and syllabi, it's important to know that they can vary greatly depending on the educational system, subject, and level of study. However, I can give you a general overview of what these typically include:

Assessment Specification

- 1. **Purpose and Objectives**:
 - Clarifies what the assessment aims to measure (e.g., knowledge, skills, competencies).
 - Outlines the specific objectives or learning outcomes expected.
- 2. **Types of Assessment**:
 - Describes the format of the assessment (e.g., exams, essays, projects, practical tests).
 - Details the weighting of each type and how they contribute to the final grade.
- 3. **Criteria and Standards**:
 - Lists the criteria by which students will be evaluated.

- Defines the standards or benchmarks for achieving different grades or levels of performance.

4. **Marking Scheme**:

- Provides a breakdown of how marks are allocated.

- Includes rubrics or detailed descriptions of what constitutes different levels of performance.

5. **Timing and Schedule**:

- Outlines when assessments will take place.

- Specifies any deadlines for submissions or performance dates.

6. **Instructions and Guidelines**:

- Gives specific instructions on how students should approach the assessment.
- Includes any guidelines on formatting, word count, or materials allowed.

7. ******Academic Integrity******:

- Explains policies on plagiarism, cheating, and other forms of academic dishonesty.
- Details the consequences of violating these policies.

Syllabus

- 1. **Course Overview**:
 - Provides a summary of the course, including its aims and relevance.
 - Outlines the main topics or themes to be covered.
- 2. **Learning Outcomes**:
 - Lists what students are expected to know or be able to do by the end of the course.
 - These outcomes guide the teaching and assessment.
- 3. **Content and Schedule**:
 - Breaks down the course content into weekly or module-based segments.
 - Includes a timeline or schedule of topics, readings, and activities.
- 4. **Required Materials**:
 - Specifies textbooks, articles, software, or other resources needed for the course.
 - May include links or instructions on where to obtain these materials.
- 5. **Teaching Methods**:
 - Describes how the course will be delivered (e.g., lectures, seminars, online modules).
 - Details any interactive or practical components.
- 6. **Assessment Methods**:
 - Outlines how students will be assessed throughout the course.
 - Includes information on assignments, exams, presentations, or other forms of evaluation.
- 7. **Policies and Procedures**:
 - Details policies related to attendance, late submissions, and make-up work.
 - Includes any additional procedures specific to the course or institution.
- 8. **Support and Resources**:

- Provides information on available support services (e.g., tutoring, counseling).
- Includes contact details for the instructor or course coordinator.

These elements ensure that both instructors and students have a clear understanding of the course expectations and assessment processes. If you have a specific context or educational system in mind, I can offer more tailored information!

Lesson 2 Overview of the research paper syllabus

An overview of a research paper syllabus generally outlines the key components and expectations for students undertaking a research project or course focused on writing a research paper. Here's a typical structure you might find:

Overview of the Research Paper Syllabus

1. Course Description

- **Purpose:** Describes the aim of the course or project, such as developing research skills, critical analysis, and academic writing.
- **Scope:** Outlines what will be covered, including research methodologies, literature review, and paper structure.

2. Learning Objectives

- **Skills Development:** States the skills students will develop, such as formulating research questions, conducting literature reviews, and writing clearly and persuasively.
- Knowledge Gain: Specifies what students will learn about research methodologies, academic standards, and subject-specific content.

3. Research Paper Requirements

- **Topic Selection:** Guidelines for choosing a research topic, including relevance, scope, and originality.
- Research Questions: Instructions on formulating research questions or hypotheses.
- **Paper Structure:** Overview of the expected structure (e.g., introduction, literature review, methodology, results, discussion, conclusion).
- Length and Format: Details on the required length (e.g., word count or page number) and formatting style (e.g., APA, MLA, Chicago).

4. Research Methodologies

• **Types of Research:** Introduction to various research methods (e.g., qualitative, quantitative, mixed methods).

- **Data Collection:** Guidelines on collecting and analyzing data, including ethical considerations.
- **Tools and Resources:** Information on research tools, databases, and resources available to students.

5. Literature Review

- **Purpose and Scope:** Instructions on conducting a literature review, including how to find, evaluate, and synthesize relevant sources.
- Citations: Guidelines on citing sources correctly and avoiding plagiarism.

6. Writing and Revision Process

- **Drafting:** Expectations for initial drafts and how they will be evaluated.
- Feedback: How feedback will be provided and how students should incorporate it.
- **Revision:** Instructions on revising and finalizing the research paper.

7. Assessment and Evaluation

- **Criteria:** Description of how the research paper will be assessed, including the criteria for grading.
- Weighting: Information on how much the research paper contributes to the overall grade.
- **Deadlines:** Key deadlines for drafts, peer reviews, and final submission.

8. Academic Integrity

- **Plagiarism:** Explanation of academic integrity policies and the importance of originality.
- **Citation:** Detailed guidelines on proper citation practices to avoid plagiarism.

9. Resources and Support

- Library and Database Access: Information on accessing academic libraries and databases.
- Writing Assistance: Details on available writing centers, tutors, or workshops.
- Instructor Office Hours: Contact information and office hours for additional help.

10. Additional Policies

- Attendance and Participation: Expectations for attending class sessions and participating in discussions.
- Submission Guidelines: Instructions on how and where to submit the final paper.
- Late Submission: Policies regarding late submissions and penalties.

This structure helps students understand what is expected in their research paper and how to approach their project systematically. If you have a specific research paper course or discipline in mind, I can tailor this overview further to meet those needs!

Lesson 3 The aim of writing research paper

Lesson Plan

Teacher:Date:Class:Writing and Reading, Grade Level: 4th year studentsUnit:Research Papers Lesson: Introduction to Research Papers

PA Academic Standards:

1.5.11A- Write with a sharp, distinct focus. *Identify topic, task, and audience.

1.5.11C-Write with controlled and/or subtle organization. *Sustain a logical order throughout the piece.

1.6.11A-Listen to others *Ask clarifying questions *Synthesize information, ideas, and opinions to determine relevancy. *Take notes.

1.6.11D-Contribute to discussions. *Respond with relevant information or opinions to questions asked. *Listen to and acknowledge the contributions of others. *Introduce relevant, facilitating information, ideas, and opinions to enrich the discussion.

Goal of this lesson:

Students will understand the components and requirements of a research paper.

Materials I will need: Students will need: Chalkboard Notebook Chalk Pen/Pencil Poem Example Template List of Questions Two topic worksheets Homework Sheet

Clerical/Administrative Tasks: -Print out Poem Example -Print out List of Questions -Copy Template -Copy the two topic worksheets -Copy Homework Sheet

Instructional Objectives: TSWBAT create a template for a research paper in their notebooks within the class period. TSWBAT name the components of a research paper within the class period.

TSWBAT discuss the importance of the components and relate them to other pieces of literature.

When given a sample writing, TSWBAT identify the topic sentence within groups.

When given a sample topic, TSWBAT write possible topic sentences within groups.

TSWBAT construct an outline for a research paper for homework, including a sample introduction paragraph, transitions, and conclusion paragraph.

TSWBAT work cooperatively in groups.

Introduction:

We've read many different pieces of literature in this class and discussed different forms of writing, such as poetry, short stories, novels, and essays. But, what about when you need to deliver a bulk amount of factual, in-depth information on one subject? By a show of hands, how many people think that there is a type of writing for that purpose? (Students show hands.) You bet! It is called a research paper. And, although up to this point you haven't been asked to do one, you will be surprised to find out how much you already know about them. Together we are going to create a template for a research paper and discuss what you need to do to write one. (1 minute)

Developmental Activities:

1. I (teacher) will make an outline on the chalkboard and use a short Question and Answer session to help students fill in the template. (15 minutes) **(NOTES FOR QUESTION AND ANSWER PERIOD ARE ATTACHED TO LESSON PLAN.)

(TRANSITION)

Now that we all know the basics of a research paper and all the things that need to be in there, we're going to spend the next few class periods focusing on specific parts. The first step, and sometimes the most difficult, is picking the topic and creating the topic sentence. As we've already discussed the topic is the subject of your paper, or what it's all about. There are countless topics for a research paper, but in this class we're going to focus on Literary Analysis, which will really narrow your choices. Remember, you need to have enough information about your topic to be able to write a paper on it. If you lack factual information, you will be filling your paper with "verbal fluff."

The hardest part, after choosing your subject, is to decide what you want to say about it. The key to getting a good topic sentence for your subject is to know your argument. I could say, "I'm going to write a paper about William Shakespeare." or I could say, "I am going to write a paper about how William Shakespeare's plays changed the theater." The second option actual has an argument.

(5 minutes)

So, first of all I'm going to pass out some examples of introduction paragraphs for research papers and you're going to identify the topic sentence by either underlining, circling, or

highlighting it. Underneath the paragraph, write how you knew it was the topic sentence. The second sheet I am giving you has example topics that could be used for a literary analysis. Based on what we've learned in class, I want you to write a possible topic sentence for each subject. The directions are on both worksheets, so read them carefully. Each person must fill out the worksheets! You will be sharing examples with the class tomorrow, so you really want to finish these worksheets. (I pass out worksheets.) You will work in groups for this project, each row will be a group. Row 1 work in the right, front corner of the room, Row 2 you're in the left, front corner, Row 3 in the middle, Row 4 back, right corner, and Row 5 back, left corner. Go ahead and move. (Students move into groups.) (5 minutes)

2. Student work in groups identifying, creating and discussing topic sentences. (15 minutes.)

(TRANSITION)

Listen up! If you have not completed your worksheets in the group, I want you to take them home and do them for homework. Please move back to your seats so we can finish up and I can pass out the rest of your homework. (Students move back to their seats.) (2 minutes)

3. We will review the research paper template. I will call on students individually to name the component I am pointing to on the template. (4 minutes)

4. I pass out homework assignment. Students ask questions about the lesson or assignments.(3 minutes)

(IF TIME PERMITS: I will ask a few review questions concerning topics and topic sentences.

- What do need to make sure about your subject before you write a paper on it?

(There is enough information to write about.)

- What makes a good topic sentence?

(It makes a good argument.)

Assessment/Evaluation

(Question/Answer Session) This is a diagnostic form of evaluation. Even though they have not done a research paper yet, I will be able to gauge how much help they will need with organization based on their answers to the questions.

(Developmental Activity #2) This is a formative evaluation. As I walk around the class, I will be able to see if students are having difficulty with the worksheets. I can evaluate their each student's participation in the group to see who is catching on and who may need more explanations.

(Developmental Activity #3) This is a summative evaluation because we are reviewing a concept we covered earlier in class. We will review the research paper template. I will call on students individually to name the component I am pointing to on the template.

Conclusion

(Developmental Activity #4) I pass out homework assignment. Students ask questions about the lesson or assignments.

***all information about research papers is from The Bedford Handbook, 5th Edition by Diana Hacker.

QUESTION/ANSWER SESSION

Margins- between 1 inch and 1 and S inches

Spacing- double spaced

] Identification- Name, Instructor's Name, the Course Name, Date

] Title- Centered, Title Case

] Indentation- S inch, 5 spaces

] Introduction- Thesis or topic sentence

Transitions- First, Next, To continue

Conclusion- summary of ideas presented

) Works Cited

Headers

*Show example of poem and ask for the two things that make up poem.

1. Here is a poem, a piece of literature that you have already worked with this year. Think back to poetry and tell me the two important aspects of this poem. Raise your hand once you know one.

--If you're having trouble recalling, think what pops at you. What would you call the set up of this poem? (FORM)

2. Ok, if form is one part of this poem, what's the second part?

--What would you call what the poem is all about, or what it's trying to tell you? (CONTENT)

Form and content, things you already know about, are the same two things that you need to focus on for a good research paper, but the requirements are different. Now, we're going to use the template I gave you to put together all the components of form that you will need to know to organize your paper.

3. The paper you have is blank other than some lines, but I'm sure you can help me to fill this in. Let's start with some formatting. What are the spaces around the outside of the pages called? (MARGINS)

--Good, why would you use a margin for a research paper? (TO MAKE IT LOOK PROFESSIONAL AND KEEP IT UNCLUTTERED.)

4. Another formatting option that is very similar to margins occurs between each line of your text. Does anyone know what this is called? (SPACING)

--In what way is the importance of spacing like the importance of margins? (BOTH MAKE IT LOOK PROFESSIONAL AND KEEP IT UNCLUTTERED.)

5. Moving on down, can anyone guess what would go at the top of a paper in these four lines? (HEADING OR NAME, INSTRUCTOR'S NAME, THE COURSE NAME, DATE) --It may sound silly to ask this, but why is it important to have a heading like this? (EASY TO SEE WHO WROTE IT, WHEN IT WAS WRITTEN, AND FOR WHAT CLASS IT WAS WRITTEN)

6. Alright, on we go. If you look under the heading area of your template there is a line that is centered? What do you think this line would be? I'll give you a hint: almost all pieces of literature have this.

--If you're not sure, remember our poem example. What is at the top of a poem? (TITLE)

--Why put a title on a research paper? (SO THE READER KNOWS WHAT THE PAPER IS ARGUING)

7. As we move into the body of the text, you can see that there is a slight difference between the position of the first line of the paragraph and the rest of the paragraph. What is this extra spacing at the beginning of the paragraph called? (Indentation)

--Now, think about what we said concerning margins and spacing. Indentation is also used to keep the paper looking professional and uncluttered, but it also has another purpose.

When you're writing why do you indent a paragraph? (TO SHOW THAT YOU'VE MOVED ON TO A NEW IDEA.)

8. Ok, after all that naming and discussing, we're still only at the beginning of your text. I know you haven't learned this yet, but can anyone give a guess on what the first paragraph of a research paper would be called? It is the same as the first paragraph of a book report. (INTRODUCTION)

--Good, what's the purpose of an introduction? Meaning, what should it do? (TELL WHAT THE PAPER IS ABOUT)

--Obviously, why would you want to do this in the first paragraph of your paper? It's the same reason you have a title (SO THE READER KNOWS WHAT YOU'RE ARGUING)

9. As you write your paper, you're going to indent your paragraphs to start new ideas, but there's also another way to show that you are switching ideas, it is called transitioning. Transition words show order and change. For example, I might say "When I got up this morning I did many things. First, I ate breakfast. Second, I picked out clothes. Lastly, I

brushed my teeth. Can someone please tell me what the transition words were in that story? --Exactly, will someone else give me some other examples of transition words?

10. Finally, you make it to the end of the body of the paper. There is final paragraph or an ending. What's another word for an ending? (CONCLUSION)--What do you think the conclusion should do? (SUMMARIZE MAIN POINTS AND THESIS)

11. There is one very important page that will end your research paper. You haven't had to do one of these yet, so I will tell you it is called a WORKS CITED page. The title of the page will say WORKS CITED. Now, what does the title WORKS CITED make you think will be on that page? (WORKS THAT YOU USED IN THE DOCUMENT FOR INFORMATION) --By a show of hands, how many of you have heard the word plagiarism?

--Would one of you please explain to the class what plagiarism is? (COPYING SOMEONE'S WORK AND NOT GIVING THEM CREDIT FOR IT)

12. The final step of your research paper is to add headers with your name and page number to the top of each page like you've already done for your book reports.

Now you have a complete template for writing your paper. At the beginning of class we said that there were two aspects of a research paper. We just discussed form. What was the other one? (CONTENT) Exactly, we will be discussing content tomorrow. Also, I will be helping you to learn how to choose a good topic.

Lesson 4 Identifying the goals and objectives of a research paper

Identifying the goals and objectives of a research paper is crucial for guiding your research and writing process. Here's how to clearly define them:

Goals of a Research Paper

Advance Knowledge:

- 1. **Objective**: Contribute new insights or findings to the field of study.
- 2. **Example**: Identify gaps in existing research and provide new data or perspectives.

Address Research Questions:

- 1. **Objective**: Explore and answer specific questions posed at the outset of the research.
- 2. **Example**: Determine the relationship between variables or understand a phenomenon in detail.

Support or Refute Hypotheses:

- 1. **Objective**: Test hypotheses or theoretical propositions to validate or challenge them.
- 2. Example: Assess whether empirical evidence supports the proposed theories.

Enhance Understanding:

- 1. **Objective**: Deepen understanding of a particular topic, theory, or concept.
- 2. **Example**: Provide a comprehensive review of the literature to synthesize existing knowledge.

Inform Practice:

1. **Objective**: Offer practical recommendations or implications based on research findings.

1. **Example**: Suggest improvements for policies, practices, or procedures in a specific field.

Objectives of a Research Paper

Define the Research Problem:

- 1.
- 1. **Objective**: Clearly articulate the problem or issue that the research addresses.
- 2. **Example**: Formulate a precise problem statement or research question that guides the study.

Review Relevant Literature:

- 1. **Objective**: Conduct a thorough literature review to understand the context and background.
- 2. **Example**: Summarize key theories, previous studies, and current debates related to the topic.

Develop a Research Methodology

- 1. **Objective**: Outline the methods and procedures for conducting the research.
- 2. **Example**: Choose appropriate research design, data collection techniques, and analytical methods.

Collect and Analyze Data:

- 1. **Objective**: Gather data systematically and analyze it to answer the research questions.
- 2. **Example**: Employ statistical or qualitative analysis techniques to interpret the data.

Present Findings:

- 1. **Objective**: Clearly and systematically present the research findings.
- 2. **Example**: Use tables, charts, and narrative descriptions to convey results effectively.

Discuss Implications:

- 1. **Objective**: Interpret the findings in the context of the research problem and existing literature.
- 2. **Example**: Discuss the significance of the results, potential limitations, and future research directions.

Conclude and Summarize:

- 1. **Objective**: Provide a concise summary of the research and its contributions.
- 2. **Example**: Recap the main findings, their implications, and how they address the research problem.

Cite Sources Appropriately:

- 1. **Objective**: Ensure that all sources are properly cited and referenced.
- 2. **Example**: Follow a specific citation style (e.g., APA, MLA, Chicago) for all intext citations and references.

Practical Steps to Identify Goals and Objectives

Review the Research Topic:

- 1. Understand the scope and context of your research topic.
- 2. Identify the central question or issue you are addressing.

Consult Existing Literature:

- 1. Examine what has already been done in your field.
- 2. Identify gaps, trends, and areas where your research can contribute.

Define Your Research Questions:

- 1. Break down the main research question into smaller, manageable questions.
- 2. These will guide your objectives and methodology.

Establish Clear Hypotheses (if applicable):

- 1. Formulate testable hypotheses based on your research questions.
- 2. Determine how you will test these hypotheses

Outline Your Research Methodology

- 1. Decide on the methods for data collection and analysis.
- 2. Ensure they align with your research goals and objectives.

Draft Objectives and Goals:

- 1. Write specific, measurable objectives that detail what you intend to achieve.
- 2. Ensure they are aligned with your overall research goals.

By clearly defining these goals and objectives, you set a structured path for your research, making it easier to stay focused and organized throughout the project.

Lesson 5 Narrowing the topic for the Research paper

Narrowing the topic for a research paper is crucial for focusing your research and ensuring that it is manageable and relevant. Here's a step-by-step guide to help you refine and narrow down your topic effectively:

1. Start with a Broad Area of Interest

- **Identify General Topics**: Begin with a broad subject area that interests you or is relevant to your course or field of study.
- **Examples**: If you're interested in environmental science, you might start with topics like climate change, renewable energy, or pollution.

2. Conduct Preliminary Research

- **Read Background Information**: Look for general articles, textbooks, and overviews related to your broad topic.
- **Identify Key Issues**: Take note of key issues, debates, and current trends within the broad topic.

3. Refine Your Focus

- Select a Specific Aspect: Choose a specific aspect or subtopic within the broader area.
- **Examples**: Within climate change, you might focus on the impact on coastal cities, specific greenhouse gases, or adaptation strategies.

4. Formulate Research Questions

- Ask Specific Questions: Develop specific questions related to your refined topic.
- **Examples**: "How does sea-level rise affect the infrastructure of coastal cities?" or "What are the most effective adaptation strategies for urban areas vulnerable to climate change?"

5. Assess Feasibility

- Availability of Sources: Ensure that there are enough resources and research available on your narrowed topic.
- Scope and Depth: Confirm that your topic is neither too broad nor too narrow. It should be detailed enough to allow for a thorough analysis but focused enough to be manageable.

6. Consider Relevance and Significance

- **Current Relevance**: Ensure that your topic is timely and relevant to current discussions or problems in the field.
- **Significance**: Reflect on the potential impact or contribution of your research to the field.

7. Seek Feedback

- **Consult Advisors or Peers**: Discuss your narrowed topic with your instructor, advisor, or classmates for feedback and suggestions.
- **Revise Accordingly**: Use the feedback to refine your topic further if necessary.

8. Develop a Working Thesis Statement

- **Draft a Thesis**: Create a preliminary thesis statement that outlines the main argument or focus of your paper.
- **Example**: "This paper examines the effectiveness of green infrastructure in mitigating the impacts of sea-level rise on coastal urban areas."

Examples of Narrowed Topics

Broad Topic: Climate Change

- Narrowed Topic: The impact of climate change on coastal infrastructure.
- **Research Question**: "How do rising sea levels due to climate change affect the infrastructure of coastal cities like Miami?"

Broad Topic: Renewable Energy

- **Narrowed Topic**: The effectiveness of solar energy compared to wind energy in urban settings.
- **Research Question**: "Which renewable energy source—solar or wind—is more effective in reducing the carbon footprint of urban areas?"

Broad Topic: Mental Health

- Narrowed Topic: The impact of social media on adolescent mental health.
- **Research Question**: "What is the relationship between social media use and anxiety levels among teenagers?"

Tips for Effective Topic Narrowing

- **Be Specific**: Focus on a particular aspect, population, location, or time frame to make your topic manageable.
- **Stay Relevant**: Ensure that your topic aligns with your course requirements and academic interests.
- **Balance Depth and Scope**: Aim for a topic that allows for a deep dive without overwhelming you with too much breadth.

Lesson 6 Techniques for selecting a specific research topic

Selecting a specific research topic is a critical step in the research process, as it defines the direction of your study. Here are some techniques to help you choose a well-defined and viable research topic:

1. Identify Your Interests and Strengths

- **Self-Assessment**: Reflect on your interests, strengths, and academic background to find a topic that excites and motivates you.
- **Examples**: If you enjoy technology, you might consider topics related to artificial intelligence or cybersecurity.

2. Conduct a Literature Review

- **Explore Existing Research**: Read recent academic papers, reviews, and books in your field to understand current trends, gaps, and debates.
- **Identify Gaps**: Look for areas that have not been extensively studied or where new questions are emerging.
- **Example**: If you notice limited research on a new technology's impact in a particular industry, it might be a promising topic.

3. Consult with Experts

- Seek Guidance: Talk to professors, advisors, or professionals in your field to get their insights on potential topics.
- Feedback: Ask for their recommendations on current issues or under-researched areas.
- **Example**: A professor might suggest exploring the effects of a new policy on a specific community or industry.

4. Explore Current Issues and Trends

- **Stay Informed**: Keep up with news, industry reports, and emerging trends to find relevant and timely topics.
- **Examples**: Look at current debates in public health, technology advancements, or environmental issues.

5. Refine Your Broad Topic

- Narrow Down: Start with a broad area and gradually narrow it down by focusing on specific aspects or questions.
- **Examples**: If your broad topic is "renewable energy," narrow it to "the effectiveness of solar panels in urban environments."

6. Define the Scope

- Limit Your Focus: Ensure that your topic is specific enough to be manageable but broad enough to find sufficient research material.
- **Criteria**: Consider factors like geographical location, time frame, population, or specific variables.
- **Example**: Instead of "global warming," choose "the impact of global warming on coastal flooding in Southeast Asia."

7. Formulate Research Questions

• **Develop Questions**: Create specific research questions that your topic will address. This helps in clarifying the focus of your study. • **Examples**: "How does social media use affect the academic performance of high school students?" or "What are the most effective strategies for reducing water consumption in urban areas?"

8. Evaluate Feasibility

- Assess Resources: Ensure you have access to necessary resources such as data, literature, and expertise.
- **Consider Constraints**: Take into account time constraints, access to data, and any potential challenges.
- **Example**: Make sure you can access data or conduct experiments if your topic requires empirical research.

9. Check Relevance and Originality

- **Current Relevance**: Make sure your topic is relevant to current issues or academic discussions.
- **Originality**: Aim for a topic that offers a new perspective or approach, rather than duplicating existing studies.
- **Example**: Investigate how a recent technological advancement affects a specific sector in a way that hasn't been fully explored.

10. Test the Topic

- **Preliminary Research**: Conduct a brief review of available literature or pilot studies to see if there is enough material to support your research.
- Adjust as Needed: Refine your topic based on initial findings and feedback.
- **Example**: If you find that there is already extensive research on a similar topic, consider narrowing or adjusting your focus to find a unique angle.

Examples of Refining Topics

Broad Topic: Climate Change

- **Refined Topic**: The effect of climate change on marine biodiversity in the Pacific Ocean.
- **Research Question**: "How is ocean acidification due to climate change affecting coral reef ecosystems in the Pacific Ocean?"

Broad Topic: Artificial Intelligence

• **Refined Topic**: The impact of AI on job automation in the healthcare sector.

• **Research Question**: "What are the effects of AI-driven automation on employment and job roles within hospitals?"

By employing these techniques, you can effectively narrow down your research topic, ensuring it is specific, feasible, and of interest to you and the academic community.

Lesson 7 (2 hours)

Review of successful Introduction parts of research

Objective: By the end of the lesson, students will be able to identify key components of a successful introduction in research papers and apply these concepts to craft effective introductions for their own research projects.

Materials:

Projector/Smartboard

Whiteboard and markers

Handouts with sample introductions (good and poor examples)

Laptops or tablets (optional, for online research)

Research papers or excerpts (for analysis)

Lesson Structure:

1. Introduction (10 minutes)

Greeting and Objective: Welcome the students and outline the objectives for the lesson.

Importance of Introductions: Briefly discuss why a strong introduction is crucial in research papers (e.g., sets the stage, engages readers, outlines the research problem).

2. Key Components of a Research Introduction (15 minutes)

Presentation: Use a PowerPoint or whiteboard to outline the key components of an effective research introduction:

Hook/Attention-Grabber: An interesting fact, quote, or anecdote to engage readers.

Background Information: Contextualize the research topic by providing relevant background.

Problem Statement: Clearly define the research problem or question.

Objectives or Hypotheses: Outline the goals or hypotheses of the research.

Significance: Explain the importance of the research and its potential impact.

Thesis Statement: Provide a clear and concise thesis or research question.

Discussion: Briefly discuss each component with examples.

3. Group Activity: Analyzing Introductions (20 minutes)

Handouts: Distribute handouts with sample introductions (both strong and weak).

Instructions: In small groups, have students analyze the provided introductions using the key components discussed. Each group should:

Identify and discuss the presence of each component.

Evaluate the effectiveness of the introduction.

Debrief: Each group presents their findings, discussing what worked and what didn't in the sample introductions.

4. Crafting Your Own Introduction (20 minutes)

Individual Exercise: Students work individually to draft an introduction for a research topic of their choice or a given topic.

Guidelines: Students should use the components discussed and incorporate feedback from the group activity.

Peer Review: Pair up students to exchange introductions and provide constructive feedback based on the key components.

5. Wrap-Up and Q&A (10 minutes)

Summary: Recap the key points covered in the lesson and emphasize the importance of each component in crafting a successful introduction.

Q&A: Open the floor for questions and clarifications.

Homework: Assign students to revise their introduction drafts based on peer feedback and prepare them for the next lesson.

Assessment:

Evaluate participation in group activities and discussions.

Review the introductions crafted by students for adherence to key components.

Provide feedback during the peer review process.

Extension: Suggest additional readings or resources on writing research introductions for students who want to deepen their understanding.

Begin with the thesis statement.

I always begin teaching students how to write an introduction paragraph by asking students to define their view. We begin by discussing how we would write thesis statements for debates that students would understand without much research. I explain to students that in an argumentative essay, the thesis statement is also called a claim because they are arguing a specific point. I want them to associate the term thesis statement with every essay we write, but it's important that they know the word claim as well.

Identify the main points of argument.

Even though I don't ask students to list their main points in the introduction paragraph, I consider it part of writing an intro. They need to understand whether or not their thesis statement can be developed with sound research. I give my students a graphic organizer that allows them to view the main points as pillars that support the thesis statement. If they can identify at least three solid pillars and provide evidence from research, they are approved to move on. (I do require students to begin collecting sources during the pre-writing stage, and I encourage them to tweak their original Works Cited page as they draft and revise.)

Explore attention getter options.

I like to give my students specific examples of strategies they can use as hooks. I also provide examples of each and then ask them to practice, which can look many different ways. Here are a few ideas:

1.Display each hook strategy as a station around the room. Ask students to work in groups of 2 or 3 to write their own example for a topic they are assigned. They can then rotate around the room with the same topic, practicing different techniques, or they can present the strategy, example, and their own writing to the class.

2.Ask students to experiment by choosing three different hooks. Have them write an attention getter for their essay for each type. Then, put students in groups and have them provide peer feedback on which approach is the strongest.

3.Give students some task cards with attention getters already written. Ask them to identify the type of hook that is used on each task card. They can also evaluate that hook's effectiveness.

Regardless of the type of hook students select, I always ask them to frame the essay in their conclusion. More on that in another post.

Teach specific ways to add background.

Even if students manage to come up with a hook they like and a sound thesis statement, they generally struggle with what to write in the middle. I explain that the middle of the introduction is a bridge in two different ways.

One, it bridges the hook to the thesis. Those two typically don't flow naturally together. Two, it provides a bridge between the issue and the audience's understanding of it. I allow my students to choose topics they are passionate about, but I explain that other people who will read their essay might not know anything about the topic. I ask them, "What information does your audience need to know in order to fully understand this debate?"Does the topic have an important history? Are there relevant court cases? How long has this issue existed? Is it currently in the news? Does it impact people locally, nationally, or globally? Can it be related to or a cause of any other issues in our world? Are there any terms the audience might

need defined? Who disagrees about this topic, and why? These are some of the probing questions I ask students to ponder.

Use acronyms.

I'm a writer who appreciates structure. Not all students need it, but giving them an acronym to help them remember the basics of a paragraph can't hurt. I developed the ABC acronym for writing argumentative introductions because it's so easy to remember.

A: ATTENTION GETTER / HOOK

B: BRIDGE / BACKGROUND

C: CLAIM / THESIS

Even students who don't need much scaffolding must understand that those elements are necessary in order to grab the audience's attention, fill in gaps of knowledge, and establish a sound position.

Make feedback social.

I find it important to give students feedback on their introduction paragraphs before moving on to the body of the essay. Feedback is an opportunity to boost students' confidence. They will enter the next stage of their paper knowing their foundation is solid. But, feedback doesn't have to always come from the teacher.

My favorite activity I've ever done to make feedback social is this. Ask students to bring in three versions of their introduction paragraphs. Have them use a different hook in each but keep the rest the same. Make sure they are paper clipped or stapled together.

Then, sit in a circle. Ask students to pass the essays either to the right or the left one person. For five or ten minutes, just sit and allow students to respond to the introduction paragraphs. Students can write praises and suggestions either on the actual paper copies or on post-its. Give them some prompts to consider to guide their feedback.

After time has lapsed, have students pass again in the same direction. Do this as many times as you can before they lose focus or before the period is over. This activity can also be conducted digitally. I just prefer the paper version because it feels more authentic and is easier to manage.

And that's what I do to teach students how to write an introduction paragraph. I know some people encourage students to begin with the body paragraphs, and that's fine. We all have to find what works for our teaching style and for our students. Even if students begin in the middle, they'll have to come back to the beginning at some point.

After the title and abstract, the introduction is the next thing your audience will read, so it's vital to begin strongly. The introduction is your opportunity to show readers and reviewers why your research topic is worth reading about and why your paper warrants their attention.

The introduction serves multiple purposes. It presents the background to your study, introduces your topic and aims, and gives an overview of the paper. A good introduction will provide a solid foundation and encour-age readers to continue on to the main parts of your paper—the methods, results, and discussion.

In this article, we present 10 tips for writing an effective introduction. These tips apply primarily to full papers and letters reporting original research results. Although some tips will be more suited to papers in certain fields, the points are broadly applicable.

Introductory paragraph:

- Give a general introduction to the topic for a broad audience
- Narrow the focus to your particular topic
- State your research problem and aims

Literature review (usually several paragraphs):

- Summarize the relevant literature on your topic
- Describe the current state of the art
- Note any gaps in the literature that your study will address

Research targets (usually one paragraph):

- State your hypothesis or research question
- Briefly describe how you will accomplish your aims
- Give a preview of your main results and state the contribution of the work (optional)

Lesson 8. Analyzing Effective Strategies for Writing Research Paper Introductions

Objective: By the end of the lesson, students will be able to analyze and apply effective strategies for writing compelling and well-structured research paper introductions.

Materials: Projector/Smartboard

Whiteboard and markers

Handouts with sample introductions (both effective and ineffective)

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Research papers or excerpts (for analysis)
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Sticky notes or index cards

Laptops or tablets (optional, for online research)

Lesson Structure:

1. Introduction (10 minutes)

Greeting and Objective: Welcome students and outline the lesson's objective.

Importance of a Strong Introduction: Briefly discuss why the introduction is crucial for setting the tone and guiding the reader through the research paper.

2. Effective Strategies for Writing Introductions (15 minutes)

Presentation: Use a PowerPoint or whiteboard to present key strategies for crafting effective research paper introductions:

Engage the Reader: Start with a hook—an interesting fact, a question, or a brief anecdote.

Provide Context: Offer background information to frame the research problem.

Define the Problem: Clearly state the research question or problem.

State Objectives/Hypotheses: Outline the research objectives or hypotheses.

Establish Significance: Explain why the research is important and its potential impact.

Craft a Thesis Statement: Present a clear thesis or research question that guides the paper.

Examples: Show examples of introductions that use these strategies effectively.

3. Group Activity: Analyzing Introductions (20 minutes)

Handouts: Distribute handouts with sample introductions (both effective and ineffective).

Instructions: Divide students into small groups and have them analyze the provided samples. Each group should:

Identify the strategies used in the introductions.

Discuss how effectively these strategies are implemented.

Provide a critique on what could be improved.

Debrief: Have each group share their findings and discuss their analysis with the class.

4. Hands-On Practice: Writing Introductions (20 minutes)

Individual Exercise: Ask students to draft an introduction for a research topic of their choice or a given topic. They should apply the strategies discussed:

Start with a hook.

Provide context and background.

Define the research problem.

State the research objectives or hypotheses.

Establish the significance.

Craft a clear thesis statement.

Peer Review: Pair up students to exchange and review each other's introductions. Use sticky notes or index cards for feedback, focusing on the effectiveness of the applied strategies.

5. Wrap-Up and Q&A (15 minutes)

Summary: Recap the strategies covered and emphasize the importance of each in crafting a strong introduction.

Q&A: Open the floor for questions and clarifications regarding writing research paper introductions.

Homework Assignment: Ask students to revise their introductions based on peer feedback and prepare a final version for the next class.

Assessment:

Evaluate participation in group activities and discussions.

Review the introductions crafted by students for adherence to the strategies discussed.

Provide feedback during the peer review process.

Extension:

Recommend additional readings or resources on writing research paper introductions for further exploration.

In this article, we present 10 tips for writing an effective introduction. These tips apply primarily to full papers and letters reporting original research results. Although some tips will be more suited to papers in certain fields, the points are broadly applicable.

Introductory paragraph:

- Give a general introduction to the topic for a broad audience
- Narrow the focus to your particular topic
- State your research problem and aims

Literature review (usually several paragraphs):

- Summarize the relevant literature on your topic
- Describe the current state of the art

• Note any gaps in the literature that your study will address

Research targets (usually one paragraph):

- State your hypothesis or research question
- Briefly describe how you will accomplish your aims
- Give a preview of your main results and state the contribution of the work (optional)

Paper overview (optional; one paragraph):

• Give a section-by-section overview of the paper's contents

An example structure of an introduction

1 Start broadly and then narrow down

In the first paragraph, briefly describe the broad research area and then narrow down to your particular focus. This will help position your research topic within the wider field, making the work accessible to a broader audience, not just to specialists in your field.

2 State the aims and importance

Papers rejected for "not showing the importance of the topic" or "lacking clear motivation" usually neglect this point. Say what you want to achieve and why your reader should be interested in finding out whether you achieve it. The basic structure can be as simple as "We aim to do X, which is important because it will lead to Y."

3 Cite thoroughly but not excessively

Once you've narrowed your focus to the specific topic of your study, you should thoroughly cover the most recent and most relevant literature pertaining to your study. Your review of the literature should be complete, but not overly long— remember, you're not writing a review article. If you find that your introduction is too long or overflowing with citations, one possible solution is to cite review articles, rather than all the individual articles that have already been summarized in a review.

4 Avoid giving too many citations for one point

Consider the following sentence: "Many studies have found a significant association between X and Y [4-15]." This sentence cites too many studies at once. Although references [4-15] might provide a good overview of the topic, this sentence doesn't provide enough context or explanation for these past studies. If all of these references are worth cit-ing, they should be discussed in greater specificity. For example, "A significant association has been found between X and Y in men [4-7], women [8-11], and children [12-15]."

5 Clearly state your hypothesis or research question

For research in empirical sciences, stating a hypothesis can be an effective way of framing the research. For example, instead of stating "In this study, we show that X is related to Y by method A," you could say, "In this study, we hypoth-esize that X is related to Y, and we use method A to test this hypothesis." For research in formal sciences or explora-tory research, consider stating a research question instead: "In this study, we examine the following research question: Is X related to Y?" Note that the research question doesn't always have to be stated in the interrogative form (with a question mark); instead, you can put the question into a declarative sentence: "In this study, we investigate whether X is related to Y." Hypotheses and research questions are effective because they help give shape to the paper and serve as important "signpost phrases" that guide readers through your paper smoothly.

6 Consider giving an overview of the paper

An organizational overview is more common in some fields than others. It is particularly common in technology, but less so in medicine. In the last paragraph of your introduction, consider giving a section-by-section overview of your paper if it is appropriate for your field. For example, "In Section II, we describe our analysis methods and the datasets we used. In Section III we present the results. In Section IV, we discuss the results and compare our findings with those in the literature. In Section V, we state our conclusions and suggest possible topics for future research."

7 Keep it short

Try to avoid an overly long introduction. A good target is 500 to 1000 words, although checking the journal's guidelines and past issues will provide the clearest guidance.

8 Show, don't tell

One goal of the introduction is to explain why your research topic is worthy of study. One of the most common pitfalls is to simply say, "Subject X is important." Instead of simply saying that the topic is important, show why the topic is important. For example, instead of writing "The development of new materials is important for the automotive indus-try," you could write, "The development of new materials is necessary for the automotive industry to produce stronger, lighter vehicles, which will improve safety and fuel economy."

9 Don't bury your readers in detail

In the introduction, if your paper is in a field that commonly summarizes the study's main results before starting the methods, you should avoid stating too many detailed results because these results need the development in the other sections of your paper to be properly understood. Instead of saying "We find that our algorithm requires 55% of the memory and 45% of the computation time of the conventional algorithm," it is usually better to give a general overview of the findings in the introduction: "Here we compare the proposed algorithm with a conventional algorithm in terms of memory use and computational speed, showing that the proposed algorithm is both smaller and faster." Some older style guides suggest holding back the main result to build suspense, but now journals in many fields—medicine being a notable exception—encourage giving a preview of your main results in the introduction.

Many journals have specific requirements for the introduction in their guidelines for authors. For example, there might be a maximum word count stated or the guidelines might require specific content, such as a hypothesis statement or a summary of your main results.

Concluding remarks

I would like to close with one last piece of advice: When you begin drafting a paper, the introduction should be one of the first things you plan. The introduction serves as the roadmap for your paper; by clearly stating the study' s back-ground, aims, and hypothesis/research question, the introduction can guide you as you write the rest of the paper. It's such an important section—setting the scene for everything that follows—that

many authors write the methods, results, and discussion sections in full before completing the introduction.

I hope these tips help you to write effective introductions that capture the attention of readers and reviewers.

If you're interested in more writing tips, check out our 10 Tips for Writing an Effective Abstract. Also, through our EditingPLUS service, you can get writing tips and advice specifically about your manuscript from a specialist editor.

Lesson 9 (2 hours)

Source types. Primary or secondary

In this lesson, students will identify and compare the features found in primary and secondary sources.

Before Teaching

Main Idea

A **primary source** is evidence of history. Whether it is an object, text, or recording, a primary source was created at the time a particular event occurred or was created by someone with firsthand knowledge of an event.

A **secondary source** synthesizes or analyzes primary source material. Typically, researchers produce secondary sources after an historical event or era. They discuss or interpret evidence found in primary sources. Examples are books, articles, and documentaries.

Overview

Using materials from the Helen Keller Archive, students learn to identify and use primary sources in their research and historical writing. Students differentiate between primary and secondary sources and critically examine the authorship, purpose, and historical context of multiple primary sources.

Learning Objectives

- Define and differentiate between primary and secondary sources.
- Examine and analyze the contents of primary sources.

Guiding Questions

- What is a primary source?
- What is a secondary source?
- Where do I find primary sources?
- How do I read a primary source?

Materials

- Computer/tablet/laptop
- Internet connection
- Projector or Smartboard (if available)
- Worksheets (provided, print for students)
- Pen/Pencil/Paper

Time

Learning Objectives

Students will be able to identify features of primary and secondary sources.

Materials and preparation

Key terms

- One copy of <u>Primary Sources: Thomas Edison</u> primary source
- Class set of <u>Primary Sources: Passenger Lists</u> secondary source
- Two pieces of chart paper
- Class set of blank paper or printed Venn diagrams for students
- One index card per student (or scratch paper)
- Document camera and projector
- Computer or tablet
- One copy of <u>Thomas Edison</u> (optional)

Attachments

- Reading Primary Sources (PDF)
- Primary Sources: Carnegie Family (PDF)
- Historical Heroes: Thomas Edison (PDF)

Introduction (3 minutes)

- Tell students that today they will be comparing a primary source and a secondary source on the same topic.
- Ask students to think about what they know or what they can predict about primary and secondary sources. Give them a moment to talk with a seat partner. Encourage students to think about the words "primary" and "secondary" during their discussion.
- Call on students to share background knowledge and predictions.

Explicit Instruction/Teacher modeling (7 minutes)
- Draw a T-chart on a piece of chart paper. In the first column, write the title "Primary Source" and explain that a **primary source** is a first-hand account of something. Record the definition under the title and restate the definition in student-friendly terms (e.g., "A primary source is something that is written by a person who witnessed or experienced something themself.").
- Break down the term further by explaining that a "source" is something that gives information and "primary" means first, as in first-hand.
- In the second column, write the title "Secondary Source" and explain that a **secondary source** is an account of something that is not first-hand. Record the definition under the title and restate the definition in student-friendly terms (e.g., "A secondary source is written by someone who did not witness or experience the thing they are writing about. A secondary source may cite primary sources, but it is not
- Invite students to volunteer other nonfiction sources and help them categorize each as primary or secondary before adding them to the T-chart.
- Optional: show students specific examples of each type of source (e.g., Anne Frank's diary vs. a nonfiction book about Anne Frank).

Guided Practice (15 minutes)

- Tell students that you will be showing them an example of a primary and a secondary source about Thomas Edison.
- Read aloud the short paragraph at the top of the Thomas Edison worksheet to provide some background information about Thomas Edison (or provide a quick verbal summary to remind students that Thomas Edison was a scientist and inventor known for his work with electricity, light bulbs, and batteries).
- Use a document camera to display the primary source document on the Primary Sources: Thomas Edison worksheet. Read the information on the chart aloud (note: you do not need to complete the questions on the worksheet).
- Ask students what they noticed about the primary source document (the census). Give them a moment to talk with a seat partner, then call on volunteers to share their observations. Prompt students if needed (e.g., the document was handwritten, it provided numbers and facts).
- Use a tablet or computer to display an online article about Thomas Edison's later life, like the section of his biography entitled "Later Inventions & Business" (see suggested resources).
- Ask students what they noticed about the secondary source. Give them a moment to talk with a seat partner, then call on volunteers to share their observations. Prompt students if needed (e.g., the article is written in narrative form, it includes dates and facts).

- Draw a large Venn diagram on a piece of chart paper. Label one side "primary source" and the other side "secondary source." With the class, compare and contrast the two types of sources. Record features that were discussed in class and invite students to generate additional ideas to fill in the Venn diagram (e.g., they both provide facts, a primary source can be written as a list or chart, or a secondary source can be written as a narrative).
- Add specific examples of facts to the Venn diagram (e.g., "Primary Source: Thomas Edison was 72 years old in 1920," "Secondary Source: Thomas Edison was born in 1847.").

Independent working time (15 minutes)

- Hand out the Primary Sources: Passenger Lists worksheet and explain that it is a primary source document. Simultaneously, display an online article (secondary source) about Andrew Carnegie's childhood, like the section of his biography entitled "Early Life" (see suggested resources).
- Instruct students to independently read the two texts. (Note: students do not need to complete the questions on the primary source worksheet.)
- Hand out a sheet of paper and tell students to draw a Venn diagram (or provide a printed one). Instruct them to fill in their own Venn diagram comparing the two sources of information they read about Andrew Carnegie.
- As a class, discuss the two sources and the differences between them. Ask students to reflect on why there is conflicting information in the two sources (e.g., his age in 1848). Ask students to consider which source is more trustworthy and what they can do to figure out which source is correct (e.g., look for additional sources to confirm the disputed facts).
- Pre-teach challenging vocabulary that students will encounter in the primary and secondary source documents (e.g., "census," "philanthropist").
- Provide dictionaries for students to use as resources during independent practice.

Enrichment:

- Have students write a report about Thomas Edison or Andrew Carnegie using the sources studied in class. Encourage students to cite quotes from each source.
- Demonstrate how to compile a bibliography and have students create one for their own written research report.

• Encourage students to look for additional primary source documents at their local library.

Assessment (10 minutes)

- Use a 3-2-1 protocol to gauge student understanding. Have students answer the following prompts on an index card or piece of scratch paper:
 - List three features of a primary source document and three features of a secondary source document.
 - Name two things that primary sources and secondary sources have in common.
 - $_{\circ}$ Write one sentence about how you can use primary and secondary sources.
- Collect student responses. Randomly select a few student responses to read aloud. Discuss the responses as a class and correct misconceptions as needed. During the discussion, have students give a thumbs-up if they agree with a response or raise their hand if they have a correction or addition to suggest.

Review and closing (10 minutes)

- Reflect on and discuss the following questions as a class:
 - What is valuable about primary source documents?
 - Are there any problems/challenges with using primary sources for information? What about secondary sources?
 - Are there topics in which primary sources don't exist? People or events that are not represented by primary source documents?
 - Which type of source is more trustworthy? Why?
 - Which type of source would be easier to use when doing research? Why?

Primary Sources: Thomas Edison



A census is a primary source. The U.S. census is taken every 10 years. Census workers travel from home to home to list all the people living in the home, or household. Often the people in a household are family members, but sometimes they are visitors, employees or roommates.



Below is the 1920 U.S. Census for the famous inventor, Thomas Edison. Read the census and see what you can discover about his household.

1920 U.S. Census,	Edison Thomas a	head 17	m W 72 m	Ohio
Essex County, New Jersey	Thing M.	infres	7 W 54 m	ahis 2
	A. Mahon Mary	lowin	I W 50 J	England
	Flatter Joursh P	Houseman	7 W 54 WA	maine
	The state of the state	L'	a 200 m	Maine



					Status	e
Edison, Thomas A.	Head	M	W	72	M (Married)	Ohio
Edison, Mina M. Edison Thomas	Wife of head	1 F	W	54	M (Married)	Ohio New
M.	Son	M	W	21	S (Single)	Jersey
McMahon, Mary	Cook	F	W	50	S (Single) W	England
Doyle, Helena T. Flattery, Joseph	Maid	F	W	54	(Widowed)	Ireland
P. 1	Houseman	Μ	W	32	S (Single)	Maine

How was Thomas M. Edison related to Thomas A. Edison?

What was Helena T. Doyle's role in Edison's household?

Was Joseph P. Flattery a guest, employee or roommate in Edison's household?

Based on your previous answers, what does that tell you about Edison's household?



Primary Sources: Passenger Lists

Between 1841 and 1850, over 1,700,000 people moved to the US from other countries. Among those who moved, or immigrated, was the Carnegie family. Andrew Carnegie was just 15 years old when his family arrived in the US. He would grow up to become a wealthy businessman in the steel industry. He is also famous for his large charitable contributions, including building libraries throughout the US and large gifts to universities. He built Carnegie Hall, a concert hall in New York City.

little brother, Thomas, in 1849. Below is the passenger list for the Carnegie family from the ship, Wiscasset. They arrived in New York City on August 14, 1848.



The letters "do" mean "ditto" or the same information as the previous person. Here's what the form says about the Carnegie family: says:

Name	Age	Occupatio n	The Country to which they severally belong	The Country to which they intend to become inhabitants
William Carnegie	40	Weaver	Scotland	US
Margaret				
Carnegie	34		do (Scotland)	do (US)
Andrew Carnegie	15		do (Scotland)	do (US)
Thomas Carnegie	4		do (Scotland)	do (US)
C			. ,	

What does the passenger list tell you?

ACTIVITY 2: Primary & Secondary Sources LEARNING OUTCOME

Students will demonstrate their understanding of the difference between primary and secondary sources.

WHAŤ YOU NEED

- STUDENT SHEET: Primary & Secondary Sources [pdf]
- BACKGROUND INFORMATION: <u>Primary & Secondary</u> <u>Sources [.doc]</u>

WHAT TO DO

1. Explain to students the difference between a primary and a secondary source.

Primary sources are the raw material of history. They may be the leftovers or *relics* of the past (for example a building or a sword) or may be *records* of what happened, made by people at the time (for example the diary of Anne Frank or Samuel Pepys). Primary sources may have been preserved deliberately or by chance.

Historians use primary sources to find the evidence to answer their questions about the past.

Secondary sources are the products of the study of history – they are always based on other sources.

You might want to use this simple example to explain the difference between primary and secondary sources:

Suppose there had been a car accident. The description of the accident which a witness gives to the police is a primary source because it comes from someone actually there at the time. The story in the newspaper the next day is a secondary source because the reporter who wrote the story did not actually witness it. The reporter is presenting a way of understanding the accident or an *interpretation*. (Note: a

newspaper *may* be a primary source if it is *used* as an artefact from the period being studied)

Further information can be accessed on **Background Information** sheet

- 2. Cut up the <u>Student Sheet</u> and give one photo each to groups of two or three pupils.
- 3. Explain that each group or pair has to decide whether they have a primary or a secondary source. Students could also research to find out more about their particular item.
- 4. Ask groups to explain to the rest of the class why they think their photo shows a primary or secondary source.
- 5. Display photos under the headings 'primary source' or 'secondary source'. Leave room to add other items as they are encountered.

Background Information Secondary Sources

Primary and

Useful Links:

http://www.thenagain.info/Classes/Basics/UsingSources.html

http://www.historyonthenet.com/Sources/primary_or_secondary_sourc e.htm

(An interactive game on Primary and Secondary Sources)

Defining Primary and Secondary Sources

http://www.collectionscanada.gc.ca/education/008-3010-e.html

Adapted from Michael Eamon, historian and archivist, Library and Archives Canada

Libraries and archives hold objects, like documents and books, which help us to find out what happened in the past. One way to organize these objects is to divide them into **primary** and **secondary** sources. What makes an object a primary source or a secondary source often depends on how **you** use it.

Primary and secondary sources, when used together, help us to understand people, ideas and events from the past.

Primary Sources

People use original, first-hand accounts as building blocks to create stories from the past. These accounts are called primary sources, because they are the first evidence of something happening, or being thought or said.

Primary Sources are created at the time of an event, or very soon after something has happened. These sources are often rare or one-of-a-kind. However, some primary sources can also exist in many copies, if they were popular and widely available at the time that they were created.

All of the following can be primary sources:

- Diaries
- Letters
- Photographs
- Art
- Maps
- Video and film
- Sound recordings
- Interviews
- Newspapers
- Magazines
- Published first-hand accounts, or stories

Secondary Sources

Second-hand, published accounts are called secondary sources. They are called secondary sources because they are created **after** primary sources and they often use or talk about primary sources. Secondary sources can give additional opinions (sometimes called bias) on a past event or on a

primary source. Secondary sources often have many copies, found in libraries, schools or homes.

All of the following can be secondary sources, if they tell of an event that happened a while ago:

- History textbooks
- Biographies
- Published stories
- Movies of historical events
- Art
- Music recordings

When Is a Primary Source Not a Primary Source?

You may have noticed that some things are on both the lists of primary and secondary sources. This isn't a mistake. The difference between a primary and secondary source is often determined by how they were originally created and how you use them.

Here's an example: a painting or a photograph is often considered a primary source, because paintings and photographs can illustrate past events as they happened and people as they were at a particular time. However, not all artworks and photographs are considered primary sources as they may have been created after the event or by someone who was not actually there.

And Now the Most Important Question: Who Cares?

What's the big deal over primary and secondary sources anyway? Why should you care, especially if adults can't even make up their minds which is which?

A German historian, over 100 years ago, said it was important to write about the past, "As it really happened." Most people today agree that it is impossible to know what exactly happened in history. (Most people can't remember exactly what happened last week, let alone a long time ago!) However, if we aren't careful about the facts, we can really make a mess and even create some big lies about the past.

Think of it like playing the telephone game. That's the game where you whisper something in a friend's ear that they have to repeat to another friend, and so on. It works for the first little while, but the chance of someone getting it wrong increases with the number of people who repeat it. Going back to primary sources is like going back to the first person in the telephone game.

Doing research is all about trust. If you trust the person who created a secondary source, then there isn't a problem about using it. However, if you don't trust that person, if you think their version is exaggerated or biased, or if you want to see the original evidence for yourself, then you have to go to the primary sources.

Checklist

Primary sources:

- created at the time of an event, or very soon after
- created by someone who saw or heard an event themselves
- often one-of-a-kind, or rare
- letters, diaries, photos and newspapers (can all be

Secondary sources:

- created after event; sometimes a long time after something happened
- often uses primary sources as examples
- expresses an opinion or an argument about a past event
- history text books, historical movies and biographies (can



Lesson Plan

Part 1: What is a Primary Source?

Ask and Discuss:

- Does anyone keep a diary? Write texts? Take photos? Create art?
- If a historian found your diary/emails/photos 100 years from now, what would they learn about your life? Family? School? Town?
- For example, in an archaeological dig, researchers might uncover your local landfill, including the empty toothpaste tube you threw out last week. Looking through an archive, a researcher might find my gradebook from this very year...including your last test score.
- These everyday products of your life are potentially primary sources. Historians use items like these from ten, a hundred, a thousand years ago to learn about the past.

Explain and Connect:

A Primary Source ...

- Was created in the past, specifically at the time being researched.
- But just being "old" does not make something a primary source.
- Has firsthand knowledge or other direct evidence of the era or subject under research.
- Has provenance. Provenance means that the time and/or place of the production of a document or artifact can be reasonably believed to be true and provable.
- Needs to be evaluated based on its creators (who made it) and historical context (when and how it exists).
- Is found in an archive, museum, library/bookstore, or maybe in your backpack, right now.
- Define archive for students if necessary. See **<u>Definitions</u>** page.
- Explain that if your texts and videos are preserved, for example in an archive, library, or museum, scholars in the future may use your work to write a history of the early 21st century.
- Look at your last text conversation/email thread/search history. What could it show a historian about life in the 21st century?

Compare sources side-by-side, using worksheet at the end of this lesson plan.

- Read sources as a class.
- What is similar about these two sources? Different?

- Both of these documents are about Helen Keller and her advocacy. One was written 100+ years later by a historian, and one was written by Helen herself.
- The letter is a **primary** source.
- The biography is a **secondary** source.

A secondary source...

- Was written after the time under research.
- Brings together primary source material to tell a larger story.
- Some sources can be either a primary or secondary source, depending on how it is used.
- For example: if someone in the 19th century is writing about the 17th century, that source is a secondary source for the 17th century and a primary source for the 19th century.
- Is found in classrooms, libraries/bookstores, movies, or new media.

Brainstorm Examples of Primary and Secondary Sources

Optional: Which of the following are primary sources? Secondary? Both?

- Your history textbook
- A diary written in 1940
- Leonardo's The Last Supper
- A documentary on the life of Helen Keller
- Tax records
- A photograph of the attack on Pearl Harbor during World War II
- A musical about American history
- A history of the Roman Empire written in 1776
- Yesterday's newspaper

Part 2: How Do I Use Primary Sources?

Demonstrate:

- Pull up the <u>digital Helen Keller Archive</u>.
- Explain that the class will be using primary sources found in the HKA, which collects documents and objects by and about Helen Keller.
- Navigate to primary source used in earlier exercise:

Correspondence between M. R. Barnett, NYC and Helen Keller, Westport, CT regarding tax bill H. R. 3687 on income taxes on the employed blind. • Detail that this letter is preserved in material/physical format at the Helen Keller Archive facility.

Let's Find Out More About this Primary Source.

- Explain that a digital archive includes metadata/source information that will allow researchers to analyze and contextualize the source.
- Highlight the **Metadata** section and explain the information available in metadata, including description, subject, date, original type, person to/from, place.
- This metadata tells us the 5W1Hs of the primary source: who, what, when, where, why, and how.
- Highlight transcript section and explain that archivists and volunteers transcribe any text found in the document.

Transcription is important because:

- It helps us read unfamiliar handwriting or faded letters.
- It helps people with visual impairment use text-to-speech technology to read documents.

Ask and Discuss

- To analyze a **primary source**, start with the basics: Who, what, when, where, why, and how.
- Who wrote this letter? When?
- To what is the letter responding?
- What does the author say about the topic under consideration? What alternatives do they propose?
- What names or terms in this letter are unfamiliar? What additional information would you need to more fully understand this letter?
- Based on this letter, what can we infer about the economic position of blind Americans in the 1940s?
- Let's refer back to the **secondary source**.
- Where does the author of the secondary source refer to the letter?
- How does she use the letter to prove a point? What is she trying to prove?
- What additional information does she provide to contextualize this letter?

– **OR** –

Activity

Students complete "Spotlight on Helen Keller" individually or in groups.

Activities

<u>Homework: Using Primary Sources</u> (Downloadable PDF of Homework: using Primary Sources)

<u>Worksheet: Comparing Sources</u> (Downloadable PDF of Worksheet: Comparing Sources

Activity: Be the Historian (for students) (Downloadable PDF of Activity: Be the Historian for students)

Activity: Be the Historian (for teachers) (Downloadable PDF of Activity: Be the Historian for teachers)

Lesson 10. Evaluating the Relevance and Reliability of Different Source Types

Objective: By the end of the lesson, students will be able to evaluate the relevance and reliability of various source types and apply these criteria to their research.

Materials:

Projector/Smartboard

Whiteboard and markers

Handouts (described below)

Sample sources (printed or digital)

Sticky notes or index cards

Handouts:

Handout 1: Evaluating Source Relevance and Reliability

Criteria for Evaluating Relevance:

Alignment with Research Question: Does the source address the research question or topic?

Scope: Is the source too broad or too narrow for your research?

Timeliness: Is the information current and relevant to your research context?

Criteria for Evaluating Reliability:

Authorship: Who is the author? Are they an expert in the field?

Publication Source: Is the source published in a reputable journal, publisher, or platform?

Citations and Evidence: Does the source provide evidence to support its claims?

Bias and Objectivity: Is the source free from bias? Does it present information objectively?

Handout 2: Sample Sources

Source A: A peer-reviewed journal article on climate change.

Source B: An opinion piece from a popular magazine.

Source C: A blog post on a personal website about new technology trends.

Source D: A book chapter from an academic textbook.

Source E: A government report on health statistics.

Handout 3: Evaluation Worksheet

Source Name:

Type of Source:

Relevance:

Alignment with Research Question:

Scope:

Timeliness:

Reliability:

Authorship:

Publication Source:

Citations and Evidence:

Bias and Objectivity:

Overall Evaluation:

Lesson Structure:

1. Introduction (10 minutes)

Greeting and Objective: Welcome students and outline the lesson objectives.

Importance of Source Evaluation: Discuss why evaluating the relevance and reliability of sources is crucial for academic research.

2. Criteria for Evaluating Sources (15 minutes)

Presentation: Use a PowerPoint or whiteboard to explain the criteria for evaluating the relevance and reliability of sources. Refer to Handout 1 for the key points. Examples: Provide examples of how to apply these criteria using a wellknown source.

3. Group Activity: Source Evaluation (20 minutes)

Instructions: Divide students into small groups and distribute Handout 2 with sample sources.

Task: Each group evaluates the provided sources using the criteria from Handout 1 and records their findings on Handout 3.

Discussion: Groups discuss their evaluations and compare their assessments of the different sources.

4. Class Discussion: Evaluation Findings (15 minutes)

Group Presentations: Have each group present their evaluations for one source. Discuss the relevance and reliability based on the criteria.

Class Discussion: Facilitate a discussion on the findings, highlighting key takeaways and differences in evaluations.

5. Practical Application: Individual Evaluation (15 minutes)

Individual Exercise: Students select a source from their own research or from a provided list and complete Handout 3 to evaluate its relevance and reliability.

Peer Review: Students exchange their evaluations with a partner for feedback and suggestions.

6. Wrap-Up and Q&A (5 minutes)

Summary: Recap the importance of evaluating source relevance and reliability and summarize the key criteria.

Q&A: Open the floor for any final questions or clarifications.

Homework Assignment: Ask students to apply these evaluation criteria to at least three sources they plan to use in their research and prepare a brief summary of their evaluations for the next class.

Assessment:

Evaluate participation in group activities and discussions.

Review individual evaluations for completeness and accuracy.

Provide feedback during peer review and class discussion.

Extension: Suggest additional readings or resources on source evaluation for students who want to delve deeper into the topic.

Evaluating Information Sources

As a student, you will be gathering information from a variety of types of sources for your research projects including books, newspaper articles, magazine articles, specialized databases, and websites. As you examine each source, it is important to evaluate each source to determine the quality of the information provided within it. Common evaluation criteria include: purpose and intended audience, authority and credibility, accuracy and reliability, currency and timeliness, and objectivity or bias. Each of these criteria will be explained in more detail below.

Purpose and intended audience

What is the purpose of the source? For example:

To provide information (e.g., newspaper articles)

To persuade or advocate (e.g., editorials or opinion pieces)

To entertain (e.g., a viral video)

To sell a product or service (e.g., advertising or marketing materials on a company website)

Who is the intended audience? For example:

Scholars and academic researchers with specialized knowledge

The general public (without specialized knowledge)

Students in high school, college or university (e.g., textbooks for students learning a new subject).

Authority and credibility

Who is the author?

Is it a person?

Is it an organization such as a government agency, nonprofit organization, or a corporation?

What are the qualifications of the author?

What is the author's occupation, experience, or educational background?

Does the author have any subject matter expertise?

Is the author affiliated with an organization such as a university, government agency, nonprofit organization, or a corporation?

Who is the publisher?

For books, is it a university press or a commercial publisher? These types of publishers use editors in order to ensure a quality publication.

For journals or magazines, can you tell if it is popular or scholarly in nature? See: Peer-reviewed, popular magazine, or journal?

For websites, is it an organizational website, or a personal blog?

Accuracy and reliability

Is the information well researched?

Are there references (e.g., citations, footnotes, or a bibliography) to sources that will provide evidence for the claims made?

If the source includes facts or statistical data, can this information be verified in another source?

If the data was gathered using original research (such as polling or surveys), what was the method of data collection? Has the author disclosed the validity or reliability of the data?

Currency and timeliness

When was the information published?

For books and articles - you should be able to easily verify the publication date.

For websites, try to determine the date the web page was created or updated

Is current information required? If not, then accurate, yet historical, information may still be acceptable.

Objectivity or bias

Does the source contain opinions or facts?

Is the information presented in the source objective (unbiased) or subjective (biased)?

Does the information promote a political, religious, or social agenda?

Is advertising content (usually found in business magazines or newspapers) clearly labelled?

In Summary

Does the source provide you with high-quality information? Is the information useful in answering your questions and meeting your information need?

Adapted from Burkhardt, J.M & MacDonald, M.C. (2010). Teaching information Literacy: 50 standards-based exercises for college students.Chicago: American Library Association.

Evaluating Internet Sources With RADAR

Relevance - How is this information relevant to your assignment?

Authority - Who is the author? What makes this person or organization an authoritative source?

Date - When was this information published and is the publication date important to you?

Accuracy - Where are they getting their information from? Does it have citations and references? Are they using reputable sources or explaining how they gathered their data?

Reason for writing - Why did the author publish this information?

Lesson 11 (2 hours)

Collecting materials. Learning how to work successfully on selecting appropriete sources for the research paper

Objective: By the end of the lesson, students will be able to effectively identify, select, and organize appropriate sources for their research papers.

Materials:Projector/Smartboard

Whiteboard and markers

Handouts (described below)

Sample sources (printed or digital)

Laptops or tablets (optional, for online research)

Sticky notes or index cards

Handouts:

Handout 1: Criteria for Selecting Sources

Relevance:

Alignment with research question or topic.

Scope and depth of coverage.

Timeliness of information.

Reliability:

Authorship and expertise.

Source credibility (peer-reviewed journals, reputable publishers).

Quality of evidence and citations.

Objectivity and bias.

Diversity of Sources:

Variety of perspectives.

Types of sources (scholarly articles, books, reputable websites).

Handout 2: Source Evaluation Worksheet

Source Title:

Source Type (e.g., journal article, book, website):

Author(s) and Credentials:

Publication Date:

Relevance:

How does this source align with your research question?

Does it provide the necessary depth and scope?

Is the information current?

Reliability:

What is the author's expertise?

Is the source from a credible publisher or journal?

Does the source provide evidence and citations?

Is there any noticeable bias?

Overall Assessment:

Handout 3: Sample Sources for Evaluation

Source A: A scholarly article on climate change impacts.

Source B: A book chapter on environmental policy.

Source C: A blog post about climate change solutions.

Source D: A government report on greenhouse gas emissions.

Source E: An opinion piece in a popular magazine.

Lesson Structure:

1. Introduction (10 minutes)

Greeting and Objective: Welcome students and outline the lesson objectives.

Importance of Source Selection: Discuss the importance of selecting appropriate sources for research and the impact on the quality of the research paper.

2. Criteria for Selecting Sources (15 minutes)

Presentation: Use a PowerPoint or whiteboard to explain the criteria for selecting sources, referring to Handout 1.

Examples: Illustrate how to apply these criteria to different types of sources (e.g., scholarly articles vs. opinion pieces).

3. Group Activity: Evaluating Sample Sources (20 minutes)

Instructions: Divide students into small groups and distribute Handout 3 with sample sources.

Task: Each group evaluates the provided sample sources using Handout 2, focusing on relevance, reliability, and diversity.

Discussion: Groups discuss their evaluations and how they would use or exclude each source for a research paper.

4. Class Discussion: Evaluation Findings (15 minutes)

Group Presentations: Have each group present their evaluations for one sample source. Discuss the relevance and reliability based on the criteria.

Class Discussion: Facilitate a discussion on the evaluation process, highlighting key considerations and any differences in evaluations.

5. Practical Application: Selecting Sources for Your Research (15 minutes)

Individual Exercise: Students select a few sources from their own research or provided options and complete Handout 2 to evaluate their relevance and reliability.

Peer Review: Students exchange their evaluations with a partner for feedback and suggestions.

6. Wrap-Up and Q&A (5 minutes)

Summary: Recap the key points on selecting and evaluating sources and emphasize the importance of using appropriate materials for research.

Q&A: Open the floor for any final questions or clarifications.

Homework Assignment: Ask students to finalize their source list for their research paper using the criteria discussed and prepare a brief summary of their selected sources.

Assessment:

Evaluate participation in group activities and discussions.

Review individual source evaluations for completeness and accuracy.

Provide feedback during peer review and class discussion.

Extension:

Recommend additional readings or resources on source evaluation and selection for students who wish to explore further.

Lesson 12 Selecting Relevant Sources Based on Research Objectives

Objective: By the end of the lesson, students will be able to critically select sources that align with their research objectives and enhance the quality and focus of their research papers.

Materials:

Projector/Smartboard

Whiteboard and markers

Handouts (described below)

Sample research objectives and sources (printed or digital)

Laptops or tablets (optional, for online research)

Sticky notes or index cards

Handouts:

Handout 1: Criteria for Selecting Relevant Sources

Alignment with Research Objectives:

How well does the source address the specific research objectives?

Does the source provide information that directly contributes to answering the research question?

Scope and Depth:

Does the source cover the necessary breadth and depth of the topic?

Is it detailed enough to support specific aspects of the research objectives?

Source Type and Context:

Is the source type (e.g., primary, secondary, empirical, theoretical) appropriate for the research objectives?

What is the context of the source (e.g., historical, cultural, disciplinary)?

Handout 2: Source Evaluation Worksheet

Source Title:

Source Type (e.g., journal article, book, report):

Author(s) and Credentials:

Publication Date:

Research Objectives Addressed:

How does this source relate to your research objectives?

What specific objectives does it address?

Scope and Depth:

How comprehensive is the source on the topic?

Does it provide necessary details for your research objectives?

Relevance to Research Question:

How closely does the source align with your research question?

Overall Assessment:

Handout 3: Sample Research Objectives and Sources

Research Objective 1: Analyze the impact of social media on political engagement among young adults.

Source A: A journal article on social media algorithms.

Source B: A book chapter on political participation.

Research Objective 2: Evaluate the effectiveness of renewable energy technologies in reducing urban carbon footprints.

Source C: A government report on renewable energy adoption.

Source D: An empirical study on urban carbon emissions.

Lesson Structure:

1. Introduction (10 minutes)

Greeting and Objective: Welcome students and outline the lesson's objectives.

Importance of Source Selection: Discuss how selecting relevant sources based on research objectives enhances the focus and quality of research.

2. Criteria for Selecting Relevant Sources (15 minutes)

Presentation: Use a PowerPoint or whiteboard to explain the criteria for selecting sources based on research objectives, referring to Handout 1.

Examples: Illustrate with examples how to match sources with specific research objectives.

3. Group Activity: Evaluating Sample Sources (25 minutes)

Instructions: Divide students into small groups and distribute Handout 3 with sample research objectives and sources.

Task: Each group evaluates the provided sources based on the research objectives using Handout 2.

Discussion: Groups discuss their evaluations and how each source aligns with the research objectives.

4. Class Discussion: Evaluation Findings (15 minutes)

Group Presentations: Have each group present their evaluations for one set of research objectives and sources.

Class Discussion: Facilitate a discussion on how well each source aligns with the research objectives and address any differing evaluations.

5. Practical Application: Selecting Sources for Your Research (10 minutes)

Individual Exercise: Students select a few sources from their own research or provided options and complete Handout 2, focusing on how the sources address their specific research objectives.

Peer Review: Students exchange their evaluations with a partner for feedback and suggestions.

6. Wrap-Up and Q&A (5 minutes)

Summary: Recap the key points on selecting sources based on research objectives and emphasize the importance of alignment.

Q&A: Open the floor for final questions or clarifications.

Homework Assignment: Ask students to finalize their source list for their research paper, ensuring each source aligns with their research objectives, and prepare a brief summary of their selected sources for the next class.

Assessment:

Evaluate participation in group activities and discussions.

Review individual source evaluations for alignment with research objectives.

Provide feedback during peer review and class discussion.

Extension:

Recommend additional readings or resources on advanced source selection and research methodologies for further exploration.

Selecting an Appropriate Source

It is common in academic research to see sources grouped into three main categories: Scholarly, Peer-Reviewed, and Other Credible Sources. The category for each is determined by considering who is publishing the source and what level of editorial review the source goes through before it can be published. The Hierarchy of Sources guide can help you when examining the level of credibility for a source.

When choosing sources, note that scholarly articles and books are considered appropriate for academic use, while other types of sources require further evaluation. When evaluating research to use in an academic paper or professional documents, consider the following criteria and apply the C.R.A.A.P.O. test.

Lesson 13

Lesson Plan 13: Critical Reading of the research papers (using checklist, distinguish fact from opinion, finding authors` ideas)

Objective:

Students will learn how to critically read research papers by using a checklist, distinguishing between fact and opinion, and identifying the authors' ideas.

Grade Level: Undergraduate students Duration: 80 minutes Materials Needed: - Whiteboard and markers - Projector (for presentations) - Handouts (checklist, comprehension questions) - Sample research papers (printed or digital) - Highlighters and sticky notes

Lesson Outline:

Introduction to Critical Reading

1. Introduction (15 minutes)

- Discuss the importance of critical reading in research.
- Introduce the objectives of the lesson.

2. Presentation on Critical Reading (20 minutes)

(https://www.slideshare.net/slideshow/critical-reading-73298094/73298094), https://www.slideserve.com/blooney/criticalreading-skills-powerpoint-ppt-presentation,

- Define critical reading.
- Explain the difference between fact and opinion.
- Introduce the concept of the author's thesis and main ideas.

3. Checklist for Critical Reading (20 minutes)

- Distribute the "Critical Reading Checklist" handout.
- Go through each item on the checklist:
 - Identify the thesis statement.
 - Look for supporting evidence.
 - Note any biases or assumptions.

- Distinguish between facts and opinions.
- Assess the credibility of sources.

4. Group Activity (25 minutes)

- Divide students into small groups.

- Provide each group with a short research paper.

- Instruct them to use the checklist to analyze the paper and prepare a brief presentation.

5. Homework Assignment

- Read a selected research paper and complete the checklist.

Day 2: Application and Discussion

1. Review Homework (15 minutes)

- Discuss findings from the homework assignment.
- Encourage students to share their thoughts on the authors' ideas.

2. Distinguishing Fact from Opinion (20 minutes)

- Present examples of statements from research papers.
- Have students categorize each statement as a fact or an opinion.
- Discuss why this distinction is important in research.

3. Finding Authors' Ideas (20 minutes)

- In pairs, have students identify the main ideas and arguments of a new research paper.

- Use sticky notes to annotate key points in the text.

4. Comprehension Questions (25 minutes)

- Distribute the "Comprehension Questions" handout.

- Students will answer questions based on their readings and discussions.

5. Wrap-Up and Reflection (10 minutes)

- Recap key points from both days.

- Encourage students to think about how they can apply critical reading skills in their future studies.

*Handouts

*Critical Reading Checklist

1. Thesis Statement:

- Is there a clear thesis statement?
- 2. Supporting Evidence:
- What evidence supports the thesis?
- 3. Biases/Assumptions:
- Are there any biases? What assumptions are made?
- 4. Fact vs. Opinion:
 - Identify facts in the paper.
 - Identify opinions in the paper.
- 5. Credibility of Sources:
 - Are the sources cited credible?

Comprehension Questions

- 1. What is the main thesis of the research paper?
- 2. List three pieces of evidence that support the thesis.

3. Identify one opinion expressed by the author and explain why it is an opinion.

4. How does the author address counterarguments?

5. What are your thoughts on the author's conclusions? Do you agree or disagree? Why?

Assessment:

- Participation in group activities and discussions.

- Completion of homework assignment using the checklist.
- Responses to comprehension questions.

Follow-Up:

Encourage students to apply these skills in their future readings and consider hosting a workshop for peer review of research papers using these critical reading techniques.

What Is Critical Reading & Why Is It Important?

Critical reading is an essential skill every reader should possess. While reading is already well-known for its numerous physical and mental health benefits, critical reading turns all the knobs up to eleven. Here at Basmo, we are well aware of the importance reading plays in your life and we want you to be able to maximize the knowledge and value you are able to extract from each individual reading session.

That is why we decided to tackle one of the most interesting aspects of reading and serve you every piece of information you can possibly need in order to become not only the ultimate reader but the ultimate critical reader as well.

What Is Critical Reading?

The critical reading definition describes the process as a form of language analysis to a certain extent, involving a deeper examination of the text, the ideas, themes, and claims presented. The critical reading meaning goes a lot deeper than that.

Critical reading involves a higher level of involvement from a reader than recreational reading. The reader is supposed to apply certain theories and thought processes, and raise questions and the final result is better comprehension and enhanced clarity. As a process, this means that the reader should always keep an open mind, <u>read slower than usual</u>, pay extra attention, <u>take notes</u>, and try to put himself or herself in the shoes of the author's target audience.

Why Is Critical Reading Important? The Benefits of Critical Reading

Critical reading plays an important role in the reader's development and comes with a plethora of benefits. Even though reading simply for pleasure and as a pass-time activity is an incredibly rewarding activity, critical reading takes things to a new level. Here's why critical reading is important.

1. Mental Development

One of the most obvious aspects we need to take into consideration when discussing the importance of critical reading is the effect it has on our minds. Like any complex mental task we take on, critical reading is an amazing workout for our brains.

While reading is already known to <u>have a beneficial effect on our brain</u>, critical reading is actually an even better exercise. By getting more involved in the text, taking notes, and analyzing more aspects of the language and subtext, more areas of our brain are being activated compared to classical reading. The neuronal connections are being strengthened, new neural paths are built and our brains develop better and faster.

Needless to say, mental development achieved through critical reading can be extremely valuable in many aspects of our lives.

2. Better Understanding of the Text

Somewhat obvious, reading critically has an immensely positive effect on how much, how well, and how quickly we understand what we read. While during regular reading quite a lot of skimming occurs, which eventually leads us to inevitably miss out on certain pieces of information we are forced to deduct later from context, critical reading means no stone is left unturned.

Reading critically implies a level of involvement in the activity of reading that doesn't allow us to skip any unknown words, or any connections to other events the author is making, which in turn means that any given sentence, paragraph, or section of the text cannot be considered read until the reader understands it 100%.

Lesson 14

Lesson Plan 14 : Developing Skills for Critically Analyzing Research Papers

Objective:

Students will develop skills to critically analyze research papers, focusing on identifying the thesis, evaluating evidence, distinguishing between fact and opinion, and assessing the credibility of sources.

Grade Level:

Undergraduate students (can be adjusted for high school) Duration: 3 class periods (80 minutes each) Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers
- Projector (for presentations)
- Handouts (checklist, comprehension questions, sample research papers)
- Highlighters and sticky notes
- Access to academic databases or printed research papers

Lesson Outline:

Introduction to Critical Analysis

1. Introduction (15 minutes)
- Discuss the importance of critical analysis in academic research.
- Outline the objectives of the lesson.
- 2. Presentation on Critical Analysis (30 minutes)
 - Define critical analysis and its relevance in research.
 - Explain key components to consider:
 - Thesis statement
 - Supporting evidence
 - Author's biases and assumptions
 - Distinction between fact and opinion
 - Source credibility
- 3. Critical Analysis Checklist (20 minutes)
 - Distribute the "Critical Analysis Checklist" handout.
 - Go through each item on the checklist with examples:
 - Identify the thesis statement.
 - Analyze supporting arguments and evidence.
 - Recognize biases or assumptions.
 - Distinguish between facts and opinions.
 - Evaluate sources for credibility.
- 4. Group Activity (20 minutes)
 - Divide students into small groups.
 - Provide each group with a short research paper.
- Instruct them to use the checklist to analyze the paper and prepare a brief presentation.
- 5. Homework Assignment
 - Read a selected research paper and complete the checklist.

Comprehension Questions

- 1. What is the main thesis of the research paper?
- 2. List three pieces of evidence that support the thesis.
- 3. Identify one opinion expressed by the author and explain why it is an opinion.
- 4. How does the author address counterarguments?
- 5. What criteria did you use to evaluate the credibility of the sources?
- 6. What are your thoughts on the author's conclusions? Do you agree or disagree? Why?

What Is "Critical Analysis"?

"Critical analysis" is a desirable skill in all aspects of your university work, but what actually is it? As Brown and Keely discuss, analysing critically is a process of deconstructing what you read, write and listen to in a rational and logical manner (2012). It requires you to move beyond describing and analysing to evaluating, criticising and postulating on what you process.

However, while you are encouraged to critique, your response always has to be informed and well-grounded in research and wide reading. Critical analysis moves beyond simple description of a particular topic into the realms of analysis and evaluation, as visualised in the diagram below:



Image transcription

Description: Who? What? Where? When? Analysis: How? Why?

Evaluation: So What? What If? What Next?

As shown in the diagram, description and simple analysis must precede evaluation, which is where critical analysis lies. With your evaluative skills you must be able to ask yourself what all the description and analysis actually means, what it says about the author or topic and what its implications are.

Critical analysis is associated with a "deep approach" to your learning, which means that you relate new knowledge to what you already know. It also requires the examination of theoretical concepts and ideas; comparing and contrasting issues and perspectives to challenge your own understandings and to speculate and seek out implications. Furthermore, you must be able to distinguish between what is evidence and what is an argument. This involves questioning assumptions, recognising generalisations, and identifying bias in what you see, read and hear. Thinking critically helps you to uncover links across large and diverse bodies of knowledge enabling you to synthesise your own informed ideas.

Why is it so important?

At university, it is essential to think critically as it allows you to understand and analyse the evidence, ideas and claims within your particular field of study. Critical analysis allows you to have greater clarity on the issues and information you process. Academic disciplines are kept alive through constant reflection, debate and refinement of ideas. Critical analysis is thus crucial to the survival and renewal of all fields of enquiry.

How do I start to think and analyse "critically"?

In an academic context, critical analysis requires you to do the following in all your endeavours:

- Provide informed reasoning backed by evidence and ideas from trustworthy academic resources such as books and peer-reviewed journal articles.
- Identify context, background and/or bias that may lead to distortion within what you read and hear.
- Identify and question unfounded assumptions.
- Explain the significance and consequences of particular data, arguments and conclusions made by others (Drew & Bingham 2001, pp. 281 282)

Questions to ask when critically analysing information

- What do I already know?
- What do I need to work out?
- Is this fact or opinion?
- What evidence do they use to back their claim?
- What are the stated and unstated assumptions in this information?
- Are there other ways we can think about this?
- Is it convincing and relevant?

Critical Analysis Checklist

Study Development Worksheet

Critical Questions	Analysis
What is the main argument?	
What is the key evidence used to support the argument? Are there any flaws in the evidence?	
Are there any flaws in the argument? Is evidence interpreted and used correctly?	
Is there any bias in the writer's argument?	
Has the writer considered alternative points of view?	
Is the conclusion convincing?	

Lesson 15

Lesson Plan 15 : Literature review (Peer editing literature review)

Objective:
Students will learn how to conduct peer editing of literature reviews, focusing on structure, clarity, coherence, and adherence to academic standards.
Grade Level:
Undergraduate students (can be adjusted for graduate level)
Duration:
2 class periods (80 minutes each)
Materials Needed:
Whiteboard and markers
Projector (for presentations)
Handouts (Peer Editing Checklist, Comprehension Questions, Sample Literature Review)
Access to literature review drafts (students' own or provided samples)
Highlighters and sticky notes

Lesson Outline:

Day 1: Introduction to Literature Reviews and Peer Editing

- 1. Introduction (15 minutes)
 - Discuss the purpose of a literature review in research.
 - Explain the importance of peer editing in improving academic writing.
- 2. Presentation on Literature Reviews (30 minutes)
 - Define what a literature review is and its components:
 - Introduction
 - Thematic organization
 - Critical analysis of sources
 - Conclusion
 - Discuss common pitfalls in literature reviews.
- 3. Peer Editing Checklist (20 minutes)

- Distribute the "Peer Editing Checklist" handout.
- Go through each item on the checklist with examples:
 - Structure and organization
 - Clarity and coherence
 - Use of sources and citations
 - Grammar and spelling
- 4. Group Activity (25 minutes)
 - Divide students into pairs or small groups.
 - Each student shares their draft literature review with their partner(s).
 - Using the checklist, students provide feedback on each other's drafts.
- 5. Homework Assignment

- Revise the literature review based on peer feedback received. Read and analyse this article. ISSN 2348-3156 (Print) International Journal of Social Science and Humanities Research ISSN 2348-3164 (online) Vol. 9, Issue 1, pp: (205-216), Month: January - March 2021, Available at: www.researchpublish.com Page | 205 Research Publish Journals Peer Editing Strategy: Key to Successful Academic Writing Airis Kim M. Codiñera



How important is the literature review and how to write a good one?

A literature review is much more than just another section in your research paper. It forms the very foundation of your research. It is a formal piece of writing where you analyze the existing theoretical framework, principles, and assumptions and use that as a base to shape your approach to the research question.

Curating and drafting a solid literature review section not only lends more credibility to your research paper but also makes your research tighter and better focused. But, writing literature reviews is a difficult task. It requires extensive reading, plus you have to consider market trends and technological and political changes, which tend to change in the blink of an eye.

What is a literature review?

A literature review is a collation of survey, research, critical evaluation, and assessment of the existing literature in a preferred domain. Eminent researcher and academic Arlene Fink, in her book Conducting Research Literature Reviews [Los Angeles, 2019], defines it as the following:

A literature review surveys books, scholarly articles, and any other sources relevant to a particular issue, area of research, or theory, and by so doing, provides a description, summary, and critical evaluation of these works in relation to the research problem being investigated. Literature reviews are designed to provide an overview of sources you have explored while researching a particular topic, and to demonstrate to your readers how your research fits within a larger field of study. Simply put, a literature review can be defined as a critical discussion of relevant pre-existing research around your research question and carving out a definitive place for your study in the existing body of knowledge. Literature reviews can be presented in multiple ways: a section of an article, the whole research paper itself, or a chapter of your thesis.

A literature review does function as a summary of sources, but it also allows you to analyze further, interpret, and examine the stated theories, methods, viewpoints, and, of course, the gaps in the existing content.

As an author, you can discuss and interpret the research question and its various aspects and debate your adopted methods to support the claim.

What is the purpose of a literature review?

A literature review is meant to help your readers understand the relevance of your research question and where it fits within the existing body of knowledge. As a researcher, you should use it to set the context, build your argument, and establish the need for your study.

What is the importance of a literature review?

The literature review is a critical part of research papers because it helps you:

- Gain an in-depth understanding of your research question and the surrounding area
- Convey that you have a thorough understanding of your research area and are up-to-date with the latest changes and advancements
- Establish how your research is connected or builds on the existing body of knowledge and how it could contribute to further research
- Elaborate on the validity and suitability of your theoretical framework and research methodology
- Identify and highlight gaps and shortcomings in the existing body of knowledge and how things need to change
- Convey to readers how your study is different or how it contributes to the research area

What are the different types of literature reviews?

All literature reviews are not the same. There are a variety of possible approaches that you can take. It all depends on the type of research you are pursuing. Here are the different types of literature reviews:

Argumentative review

It is called an argumentative review when you carefully present literature that only supports or counters a specific argument or premise to establish a viewpoint.

Integrative review

It is a type of literature review focused on building a comprehensive understanding of a topic by combining available theoretical frameworks and empirical evidence.

Methodological review

This approach delves into the "how" and the "what" of the research question — you cannot look at the outcome in isolation; you should also review the methodology used.

Systematic review

This form consists of an overview of existing evidence pertinent to a clearly formulated research question, which uses pre-specified and standardized methods to identify and critically appraise relevant research and collect, report, and analyze data from the studies included in the review.

Meta-analysis review

Meta-analysis uses statistical methods to summarize the results of independent studies. By combining information from all relevant studies, meta-analysis can provide more precise estimates of the effects than those derived from the individual studies included within a review.

Historical review

Historical literature reviews focus on examining research throughout a period, often starting with the first time an issue, concept, theory, or phenomenon emerged in the literature, then tracing its evolution within the scholarship of a discipline. The purpose is to place research in a historical context to show familiarity with state-of-the-art developments and identify future research's likely directions.

Theoretical Review

This form aims to examine the corpus of theory accumulated regarding an issue, concept, theory, and phenomenon. The theoretical literature review helps to establish what theories exist, the relationships between them, the degree the existing approaches have been investigated, and to develop new hypotheses to be tested.

Scoping Review

The Scoping Review is often used at the beginning of an article, dissertation, or research proposal. It is conducted before the research to highlight gaps in the existing body of knowledge and explains why the project should be greenlit.

State-of-the-Art Review

The State-of-the-Art review is conducted periodically, focusing on the most recent research. It describes what is currently known, understood, or agreed upon regarding the research topic and highlights where there are still disagreements.

Lesson Plan 16 : Enhancing the Quality of Literature Review Sections

Target Audience: Graduate students, researchers, academic writers

Learning Objectives: By the end of this lesson, participants will be able to:

- Identify key elements of a strong literature review.
- Apply strategies to critically analyze and synthesize existing research.
- Construct a clear, concise, and persuasive literature review section for their own writing.
- Utilize various resources and tools for effective literature review writing.

Time Allotment: 2-3 hours

Materials:

- Handout 1: "Elements of a Strong Literature Review"
- Handout 2: "Critical Analysis & Synthesis Techniques"
- Handout 3: "Literature Review Structure & Organization"
- Handout 4: "Literature Review Writing Checklist"
- Sample Literature Review Examples:
 - **Positive Example:** An exemplary literature review showcasing best practices.
 - **Negative Example:** A literature review demonstrating common pitfalls to avoid.
- **Optional:** Online database resources (e.g., JSTOR, Google Scholar), citation management software (e.g., Zotero, Mendeley)

Lesson Activities:

I. Introduction (15 minutes)

- **Icebreaker:** Begin with a brief discussion on students' experiences with literature reviews. What are their current challenges?
- **Overview:** Introduce the importance of a strong literature review in academic writing, emphasizing its role in establishing credibility, context, and research gaps.

II. Key Elements of a Strong Literature Review (30 minutes)

- **Handout 1:** Distribute "Elements of a Strong Literature Review" and discuss each point.
 - **Clear Focus and Scope:** How to define the scope and ensure relevance to the research question.
 - **Critical Analysis and Synthesis:** Moving beyond summarizing to analyzing, comparing, and contrasting.
 - **Organization and Structure:** Logical organization and transitions for readability.
 - **Clarity and Conciseness:** Avoiding unnecessary jargon and repetition.
 - **Credibility and Currency:** Choosing relevant and up-to-date sources.

III. Critical Analysis & Synthesis Techniques (45 minutes)

• **Handout 2:** Distribute "Critical Analysis & Synthesis Techniques" and engage in an interactive activity.

- **Group Exercise:** Divide participants into small groups and assign each group a different research article.
- Activity: Each group critically analyzes the assigned article using techniques from Handout 2 (e.g., identifying key arguments, comparing and contrasting with other studies, identifying biases, evaluating methodology).
- **Discussion:** Each group presents their analysis, highlighting key takeaways and challenges.

IV. Literature Review Structure & Organization (30 minutes)

- Handout 3: Distribute "Literature Review Structure & Organization" and discuss different approaches:
 - **Chronological:** Organizing by historical development of the topic.
 - **Thematic:** Grouping research based on common themes or concepts.
 - **Methodological:** Organizing by research methods used.
 - **Problematic:** Focusing on specific research gaps or inconsistencies.
- Activity: Present the sample literature review examples (positive and negative) and analyze their structure, highlighting strengths and weaknesses.

V. Writing a Strong Literature Review (30 minutes)

- Handout 4: Distribute "Literature Review Writing Checklist" and discuss practical tips for writing:
 - **Developing a Thesis Statement:** A clear argument or statement of purpose.
 - **Creating a Working Outline:** Organizing the research based on the chosen structure.
 - **Synthesizing Findings:** Connecting and integrating research to support the thesis.
 - **Ensuring Clarity and Coherence:** Using transitions, key terms, and a consistent style.
 - **Avoiding Plagiarism:** Properly citing sources and paraphrasing accurately.
- Activity: Participants can begin working on their own literature review using the checklist and resources provided.

VI. Conclusion (15 minutes)

- **Recap:** Review key takeaways and answer any remaining questions.
- **Next Steps:** Encourage students to continue refining their literature review by seeking feedback from peers, instructors, or writing centers.

Comprehension Questions:

- 1. What are the key elements that differentiate a strong literature review from a weak one?
- 2. How can you critically analyze and synthesize research findings to create a compelling argument in your literature review?
- 3. What are the advantages and disadvantages of different literature review structures?
- 4. What are some practical tips for writing a clear, concise, and persuasive literature review?
- 5. How can you ensure your literature review is free from plagiarism?

Lesson Plan 17: Synthesis of a Successful Research Paper: Literature Review (Proofreading & Editing)

Target Audience: Graduate students, researchers, academic writers

Learning Objectives: By the end of this lesson, participants will be able to:

- Identify common errors and weaknesses in literature review sections.
- Apply proofreading and editing techniques specifically for literature review writing.
- Understand the importance of clarity, conciseness, and accuracy in the literature review.
- Refine their existing literature review for enhanced clarity, coherence, and impact.

Time Allotment: 2 hours

Materials:

- Handout 1: "Common Errors in Literature Reviews"
- Handout 2: "Proofreading & Editing Techniques for Literature Reviews"

- Sample Literature Review (with Errors): A literature review containing common errors for students to identify and correct.
- Checklist: "Literature Review Proofreading Checklist" (optional)

Lesson Activities:

I. Introduction (15 minutes)

- **Icebreaker:** Discuss common challenges students face when proofreading and editing their literature reviews.
- **Overview:** Emphasize the importance of thorough proofreading and editing in creating a polished and impactful literature review. Discuss how a well-written and edited literature review strengthens the overall research paper.

II. Common Errors in Literature Reviews (30 minutes)

- **Handout 1:** Distribute "Common Errors in Literature Reviews" and discuss each point:
 - Lack of Clarity & Coherence: Disjointed arguments, unclear transitions, and repetition.
 - **Insufficient Critical Analysis:** Summarizing without analyzing, comparing, or contrasting.
 - **Bias and Unbalanced Representation:** Focusing on certain viewpoints and ignoring opposing perspectives.
 - **Inaccurate or Outdated Information:** Using unreliable sources or failing to cite current research.
 - **Poor Citation Format:** Incorrectly formatted citations or a lack of consistency.
 - **Grammatical and Typographical Errors:** Proofreading oversights that affect the clarity and professionalism.

III. Proofreading & Editing Techniques (45 minutes)

- Handout 2: Distribute "Proofreading & Editing Techniques for Literature Reviews" and engage in an interactive activity.
 - **Group Exercise:** Divide participants into small groups and assign each group a section of the Sample Literature Review (with Errors).
 - Activity: Each group identifies and discusses the errors and weaknesses within their assigned section using techniques from Handout 2 (e.g., reading aloud, reading backwards, focusing on specific areas, using a checklist).

• **Discussion:** Each group presents their findings and suggests potential solutions for improving clarity, conciseness, and accuracy.

IV. Refining the Literature Review (30 minutes)

- Sample Literature Review (with Errors): Distribute the corrected version of the Sample Literature Review, highlighting the changes made.
- **Discussion:** Compare the original and corrected versions, focusing on the impact of the changes made.
- Activity: Participants can begin working on their own literature reviews using the "Literature Review Proofreading Checklist" (optional) to guide their editing process.

V. Conclusion (15 minutes)

- **Recap:** Review key takeaways and answer any remaining questions.
- Next Steps: Encourage students to seek feedback from peers, mentors, or writing centers for additional guidance and to revise their literature reviews further.

Comprehension Questions:

- 1. What are some common errors that students make when writing their literature reviews?
- 2. How can you effectively proofread and edit your literature review for clarity, conciseness, and accuracy?
- 3. What are the benefits of using a checklist when proofreading your literature review?
- 4. What strategies can you employ to ensure your literature review is balanced and unbiased?
- 5. How can you effectively integrate your own research findings into the existing literature?

Lesson Plan 18: Integrating Ideas and Concepts from the Literature Review

Target Audience: Graduate students, researchers, academic writers

Learning Objectives: By the end of this lesson, participants will be able

to:

- Understand the importance of seamlessly integrating ideas from the literature review into their own research.
- Identify different methods for integrating sources effectively.
- Apply techniques for synthesizing information from multiple sources.
- Create a cohesive and persuasive narrative that weaves together existing research and their own original ideas.

Time Allotment: 2 hours

Materials:

- Handout 1: "Integrating Sources: Techniques & Strategies"
- Handout 2: "Synthesis vs. Summary: A Guide to Effective Integration"
- **Sample Literature Review:** A well-structured literature review with relevant sources.
- Sample Research Paper Excerpt: An excerpt from a research paper showcasing effective integration of literature review findings.
- **Optional:** Whiteboard or flip chart, markers, sticky notes

Lesson Activities:

I. Introduction (15 minutes)

- **Icebreaker:** Start with a brief discussion about participants' experiences with integrating sources into their writing. What are their biggest challenges?
- **Overview:** Emphasize the importance of effectively integrating ideas from the literature review into the research paper's narrative. Explain how this strengthens the argument and establishes a strong foundation for original research.

II. Techniques for Integrating Sources (30 minutes)

• Handout 1: Distribute "Integrating Sources: Techniques & Strategies" and discuss different methods:

- **Direct Quotations:** When to use direct quotes and how to format them properly.
- **Paraphrasing:** Re-expressing information in your own words while retaining the original meaning.
- **Summarizing:** Briefly summarizing key points from a source.
- **Synthesizing:** Combining information from multiple sources to create a new understanding.
- Activity: Use a whiteboard or flip chart to create a visual representation of different integration techniques. Participants can provide examples from their own research or from the Sample Literature Review.

III. Synthesis vs. Summary (30 minutes)

- Handout 2: Distribute "Synthesis vs. Summary: A Guide to Effective Integration" and lead a discussion on the key differences:
 - **Summarizing:** Restates information from a source without adding your own interpretation.
 - **Synthesizing:** Combines information from multiple sources, analyzes relationships, and draws connections.
- Activity: Divide participants into small groups and provide each group with a different section from the Sample Literature Review. Each group identifies key points from the sources and practices synthesizing them into a new paragraph or argument.
- **Discussion:** Each group presents their synthesis, highlighting the key connections and insights they drew from the sources.

IV. Demonstrating Effective Integration (30 minutes)

- **Sample Research Paper Excerpt:** Distribute the excerpt showcasing effective integration of literature review findings. Analyze the excerpt together, highlighting:
 - **Clear transitions:** How the author smoothly moves between sources and their own ideas.
 - **Synthesis of ideas:** How the author combines information from multiple sources to create a coherent argument.
 - **Original contribution:** How the author builds on existing research and adds their own unique perspectives.
- Activity: Participants can brainstorm how they could integrate their own research findings into the broader context of the literature review.

V. Conclusion (15 minutes)

- **Recap:** Review key takeaways and answer any remaining questions.
- Next Steps: Encourage students to continue refining their research paper by applying the integration techniques learned and seeking feedback from peers or mentors.

Comprehension Questions:

- 1. What are the benefits of effectively integrating ideas from the literature review into your research paper?
- 2. Explain the difference between summarizing and synthesizing information from sources.
- 3. What are some strategies for using direct quotations, paraphrasing, and summarizing effectively?
- 4. How can you create a cohesive narrative that seamlessly integrates your own research with existing literature?
- 5. How can you ensure your integration of sources is accurate, clear, and ethical?

Note: This lesson plan is a template and can be adapted to fit the specific needs of your audience and context. You can adjust the activities, materials, and time allocation based on the level of your participants and the available resources.

Handout 1: Integrating Sources: Techniques & Strategies

- **Direct Quotations:** Use sparingly and only when the original wording is crucial.
- **Paraphrasing:** Rephrase information in your own words, but make sure to cite the original source.
- **Summarizing:** Briefly restate the main points of a source, keeping your own voice and style.
- **Synthesizing:** Combine information from multiple sources to create a new understanding or argument.

Handout 2: Synthesis vs. Summary: A Guide to Effective Integration

- **Summarizing:** Simply retells the main points of a source, without analysis or interpretation.
- **Synthesizing:** Brings together information from multiple sources, analyzes their relationships, and draws connections to create new insights.

Theme 19. Comparing and contrasting ideas

When comparing and contrasting ideas in academic writing, it's important to approach the task systematically to ensure clarity and coherence. Here's a step-by-step guide on how to effectively compare and contrast ideas:

1. Understand the Purpose

Comparing involves examining the similarities between two or more subjects, while **contrasting** involves examining the differences. The goal is to provide insights that help readers understand the subjects more deeply or to highlight why one might be preferable to another.

2. Choose a Clear Framework

Decide whether you'll use a **block method** or a **point-by-point method**:

Block Method: Discuss all aspects of one subject before moving to the next. For example, if comparing two theories, you might first outline Theory A in detail and then Theory B in detail.

Point-by-Point Method: Alternate between aspects of each subject. For instance, if comparing two historical events, you would discuss one point about Event A and then immediately discuss the corresponding point about Event B.

3. Develop a Thesis Statement

Craft a thesis statement that clearly indicates the purpose of the comparison and contrast. This statement should guide your discussion and let readers know what to expect. For example:

• "While both the feminist and Marxist theories offer critiques of societal structures, the feminist theory focuses on gender inequality, whereas the Marxist theory emphasizes class struggle."

4. Identify Key Points for Comparison and Contrast

Determine the main points of comparison. These might include:

Criteria: What are the specific aspects you are comparing? (e.g., effectiveness, historical significance, theoretical assumptions)

Relevance: Why are these points significant? How do they contribute to understanding the subjects?

5. Organize Your Ideas

For each point of comparison, ensure that you:

Describe: Provide a detailed description of each subject's approach or characteristics related to that point.

Compare: Highlight how the subjects are similar in this aspect.

Contrast: Point out the differences in this aspect.

6. Provide Evidence

Support your comparisons and contrasts with evidence. This could include:

Examples: Specific instances or case studies that illustrate the points.

Data: Statistical or empirical evidence supporting your claims.

Scholarly Sources: Citations from academic literature that provide additional context or support.

7. Use Transition Words

To maintain coherence and guide readers through your comparisons and contrasts, use transitional phrases such as:

Similarities: "In the same way," "Similarly," "Likewise."

Differences: "On the other hand," "However," "Conversely."

8. Draw Conclusions

Summarize the key findings from your comparison and contrast. Discuss the implications of these findings, and how they contribute to a broader understanding of the topic.

9. Review and Revise

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Ensure your writing is clear and logically structured. Check that:

Your comparisons and contrasts are balanced: Avoid giving more weight to one side without justification.

Your arguments are well-supported: Verify that evidence is relevant and properly cited.

Your writing flows well: Ensure smooth transitions between sections and clarity in your explanations.

Example

Here's a brief example illustrating a point-by-point comparison:

Thesis: "While both renewable energy sources and fossil fuels have been used to meet global energy needs, they differ significantly in their environmental impacts and sustainability."

Point 1: Environmental Impact

- **Renewable Energy**: Produces minimal pollution and reduces greenhouse gas emissions.
- Fossil Fuels: Contributes to air pollution and global warming.

Point 2: Sustainability

- **Renewable Energy**: Sources such as solar and wind are virtually inexhaustible and sustainable long-term.
- **Fossil Fuels**: Finite resources that will deplete over time and are not sustainable.

Conclusion: "In conclusion, while renewable energy sources offer a sustainable and environmentally friendly alternative to fossil fuels, the latter remains a significant source of global energy, albeit with considerable environmental drawbacks."

By following these steps, you can create a well-structured and insightful comparison and contrast in your academic writing.

Topic 20. Identifying similarities and differences in research findings

When identifying similarities and differences in research findings in academic writing, it's crucial to be systematic and clear. This helps ensure that your analysis is coherent and provides valuable insights. Here's a structured approach to guide you:

1. Clarify Your Objective

Understand the purpose of comparing the research findings. Are you highlighting trends, evaluating theories, or synthesizing evidence from multiple studies? Clearly defining your objective will help shape your analysis.

2. Review the Research Findings

Carefully examine the research findings from each study you're comparing. Take note of:

- **Key Results**: What were the main outcomes or conclusions of each study?
- **Methods**: How were the studies conducted? Were there differences in methodology?
- **Sample**: What was the size and composition of the study populations?

3. Organize Your Comparison

Choose a method to organize your comparison:

• Thematic: Group findings according to themes or categories.

- Chronological: Compare findings in the order of publication.
- Methodological: Compare findings based on research methods or approaches.

4. Identify Similarities

To identify similarities:

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Find Common Patterns: Look for recurring results or conclusions across studies. For example, if multiple studies find that a specific intervention improves outcomes, note this common finding.

Compare Outcomes: Highlight where different studies reach similar conclusions regarding their research questions.

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- •

Consistent Variables: Point out any variables or factors that are consistently identified as significant across studies.

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Example: "Both Study A and Study B found that increased exercise leads to improved mental health, suggesting a consistent positive impact of physical activity on psychological well-being."

5. Identify Differences

To identify differences:

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Highlight Variations: Look for discrepancies in findings. For example, if one study finds a strong effect of a treatment while another finds a negligible effect, this is a key difference.

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Examine Methodology: Differences in study design, sample size, or data collection methods can lead to variations in findings. Address these methodological differences if they explain the discrepancies.

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Consider Contextual Factors: Different studies might be conducted in varied contexts or with different populations, leading to different results.

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Example: "Study A reported a significant increase in cognitive function due to the intervention, while Study B found no effect. These differences may be attributed to variations in sample age and intervention duration."

6. Use Comparative Language

Employ transitional phrases to articulate similarities and differences clearly:

- Similarities: "Both studies demonstrate...," "Similarly...," "In alignment with..."
- **Differences**: "In contrast...," "However...," "Unlike..."

7. Discuss Implications

Discuss what the similarities and differences mean for the field:

- **Theoretical Implications**: How do the findings contribute to or challenge existing theories?
- **Practical Implications**: What are the real-world applications or consequences of these findings?
- **Future Research**: Suggest areas for further investigation based on the similarities and differences.

Example: "The consistent finding across studies of a positive effect of the intervention suggests it could be broadly applicable. However, the differences in outcomes highlight the need for further research to understand the contextual factors influencing effectiveness."

8. Present Your Analysis

Structure your analysis in a clear and logical manner. You might organize it as:

- **Introduction**: Briefly introduce the studies and the purpose of your comparison.
- **Similarities**: Discuss common findings and their significance.
- Differences: Address variations and their potential reasons.
- **Conclusion**: Summarize the main points and implications.

Example Outline:

1.

Introduction

2.

- Overview of studies
- Purpose of comparison

3.

Similarities

4.

- Common findings
- Impact of these findings

5.

Differences

6.

- Variations in results
- Possible explanations

7.

Conclusion

- Summary of insights
- $_{\circ}$ $\,$ Implications for theory and practice

9. Review and Revise

Finally, review your analysis for clarity and coherence:

- **Ensure Balance**: Make sure you equally address both similarities and differences.
- **Check Evidence**: Verify that all claims are well-supported with evidence from the studies.
- Maintain Objectivity: Present findings impartially, without bias.

By following these steps, you can effectively compare and contrast research findings, providing a thorough and insightful analysis that contributes to academic understanding.

Вы сказали:

Identifying similarities and differences in research findings in academic writing

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When identifying similarities and differences in research findings in academic writing, the goal is to present a clear and organized comparison that highlights significant patterns and contrasts. Here's a detailed approach to effectively analyze and present these elements:

1. Define the Scope of Comparison

Before diving into the analysis, clarify the purpose of comparing the research findings:

- **Objective**: Are you assessing the consistency of results, evaluating the effectiveness of interventions, or exploring theoretical implications?
- Scope: Which specific aspects or variables are you focusing on? For example, are you comparing results across different methodologies, populations, or time periods?

2. Summarize the Research Findings

For each study, provide a brief summary of the key findings:

- **Purpose and Hypotheses**: What were the research questions or hypotheses?
- Key Results: What were the main outcomes or conclusions?
- **Methods**: Briefly describe the research design, sample, and methodology.

3. Identify Similarities

To identify similarities:

- **Compare Results**: Look for common outcomes or trends across studies. For example, if multiple studies find that a certain intervention improves performance, note this common finding.
- **Consistent Variables**: Highlight variables or factors that show similar effects in different studies. For example, if several studies find that age affects the outcome similarly, document this.

Example:

• "Both Study 1 and Study 2 found that increased social support significantly reduces stress levels among college students. This

similarity suggests that social support is a consistent factor in mitigating stress across different settings."

4. Identify Differences

To identify differences:

- **Contrasting Outcomes**: Point out where results diverge. For example, if one study finds a significant effect and another does not, highlight these discrepancies.
- Methodological Variations: Differences in research design, such as sample size or data collection methods, can lead to differing results. Address how these methodological differences might explain variations in findings.

Example:

 "While Study 1 reported a significant improvement in academic performance due to the intervention, Study 3 found no such effect. These differences might be attributed to variations in the duration of the intervention and the demographic characteristics of the participants."

5. Use Comparative Language

Employ language that clearly articulates similarities and differences:

- Similarities: "Similarly," "In the same vein," "Consistent with," "Both studies show."
- **Differences**: "In contrast," "However," "Unlike," "While Study X found..., Study Y..."

6. Discuss Implications

After identifying similarities and differences, discuss their implications:

- **Theoretical Implications**: How do these findings contribute to or challenge existing theories or models?
- **Practical Implications**: What do the findings mean for practice, policy, or further research?
- **Future Research**: What gaps or questions remain that future research could address?

Example:

• "The consistent finding of positive effects across studies suggests that the intervention is generally effective. However, the variation in outcomes highlights the need for further research to explore how different contexts and methodologies might influence the intervention's effectiveness."

7. Structure Your Analysis

Organize your analysis in a clear and logical manner:

- 1. **Introduction**: Introduce the studies being compared and state the purpose of the comparison.
- 2. Similarities: Discuss common findings and their significance.
- 3. **Differences**: Address variations and potential reasons.
- 4. **Implications**: Summarize the implications of these findings for theory, practice, and future research.
- 5. Conclusion: Recap the main points and highlight key insights.

Example Outline:

Introduction

2.

- Overview of the studies
- Purpose of comparison
- 3.

Similarities

4.

- Common outcomes
- Implications of these similarities

5.

Differences

6.

- Divergent results
- Possible explanations for these differences

7.

Implications

- Theoretical and practical implications
- Suggestions for future research
- 9.

Conclusion

10.

- Summary of insights
- Overall significance of the comparison

8. Review and Revise

Ensure your comparison is balanced, clear, and well-supported:

- **Balance**: Equally address both similarities and differences to provide a comprehensive view.
- **Evidence**: Support your analysis with appropriate citations and evidence from the studies.
- **Clarity**: Ensure that your writing is clear and that transitions between points are smooth.

By following these steps, you can effectively analyze and present the similarities and differences in research findings, contributing to a deeper understanding of the topic and advancing academic discourse.

Theme 21. Citation and Referencing (Citation APA format, Citation Uzbek style

Citations and references are essential in academic writing to give credit to original sources and allow readers to trace the research. Different citation styles have specific formats for citing sources. Here's a guide on how to use APA format and an overview of citation in Uzbek style.

APA Citation Style

APA (**American Psychological Association**) **Style** is commonly used in social sciences. Here's a brief overview of how to format citations and references in APA style:

In-Text Citations

1.

Author-Date Format:

2.

- 1. Paraphrasing: (Author, Year)
 - 1. Example: (Smith, 2020)
- 2. Direct Quote: (Author, Year, p. Page Number)
 - 1. Example: (Smith, 2020, p. 15)
- 3.

Multiple Authors:

- 4.
- 1. Two Authors: (Author1 & Author2, Year)
 - 1. Example: (Smith & Jones, 2020)
- 2. Three or More Authors: (Author1 et al., Year)
 - 1. Example: (Smith et al., 2020)

Reference List

Books:

2.

- 3. Format: Author, A. A. (Year). *Title of the book*. Publisher.
- Example: Smith, J. (2020). Understanding psychology. Random House.

3.

Journal Articles:

4.

- Format: Author, A. A. (Year). Title of article. *Title of Journal, volume*(issue), page range. https://doi.org/xx.xxx/yyyy
- Example: Doe, J. (2020). Exploring cognitive biases. Journal of Psychology, 15(3), 45-67. https://doi.org/10.1037/xyz123

5.

Websites:

- 1. **Format**: Author, A. A. (Year, Month Date). Title of webpage. *Website Name*. URL
- Example: Johnson, M. (2023, April 12). The future of artificial intelligence. *Tech Insights*. https://www.techinsights.com/future-ai

Edited Books:

8.

7.

- Format: Author, A. A. (Year). Title of chapter. In E. Editor (Ed.), *Title of book* (pp. page range). Publisher.
- Example: Brown, L. (2020). Cognitive development in early childhood. In R. Green (Ed.), *Child psychology* (pp. 99-120). Sage Publications.

Uzbek Citation Style

Uzbek Citation Style (often aligned with local conventions and may not be standardized like APA) involves specific practices which may vary slightly based on institutional requirements. Here's a general guide for Uzbek citation practices:

In-Text Citations

1.

Author-Date Format:

- 1. Paraphrasing: (Author Last Name, Year)
 - 1. Example: (Tashkentov, 2020)
- Direct Quote: (Author Last Name, Year, p. Page Number)
 1. Example: (Tashkentov, 2020, p. 25)
- 3.

Multiple Authors:

4.

- 1. Two Authors: (Author1 and Author2, Year)
 - 1. Example: (Tashkentov and Karimov, 2020)

2. Three or More Authors: (Author1 et al., Year)

1. Example: (Tashkentov et al., 2020)

Reference List

1.

Books:

- 2.
- 1. **Format**: Author Last Name, First Initial. (Year). *Title of the book*. Publisher.
- 2. **Example**: Tashkentov, A. (2020). *O'zbek adabiyoti*. Yangi Nasiya.
- 3.

Journal Articles:

- 1. **Format**: Author Last Name, First Initial. (Year). Title of article. *Title of Journal*, volume(issue), page range.
- Example: Karimov, B. (2020). O'zbek tili va adabiyoti.
 O'zbek Tili Jurnali, 10(2), 112-130.
Websites:

6.

- 1. **Format**: Author Last Name, First Initial. (Year). Title of webpage. *Website Name*. URL
- Example: Ahmedov, M. (2023). Sun'iy intellekt kelajagi. *Texnologiya.com*. https://www.texnologiya.com/suniyintellekt

7.

Edited Books:

8.

- Format: Author Last Name, First Initial. (Year). Title of chapter. In Editor Initials. Editor Last Name (Ed.), *Title of book* (pp. page range). Publisher.
- Example: Davronov, S. (2020). Yoshlar psixologiyasi. In N. Usmanov (Ed.), O'zbekiston psixologiyasi (pp. 45-70). Toshkent Nasha.

Tips for Both Styles

- 1. **Consistency**: Maintain consistency in formatting throughout your document.
- 2. **Punctuation**: Pay attention to punctuation, such as the use of periods, commas, and parentheses.
- 3. **Consult Guidelines**: Always refer to the specific guidelines provided by your institution or publication, as there might be slight variations or additional requirements.

By adhering to these citation formats, you ensure proper credit is given to original sources and maintain academic integrity in your writing.

Theme 22. Familiarizing with citation styles specific to Uzbek academic standards

Familiarizing yourself with citation styles specific to Uzbek academic standards involves understanding local conventions for referencing and citing sources. While there may not be a universally standardized Uzbek citation style, academic institutions in Uzbekistan often follow particular practices or guidelines. Here's a general guide to help you navigate citation styles that align with Uzbek academic standards:

1. Understand Local Practices

In Uzbekistan, citation practices can vary by institution and field of study. It is essential to check the specific guidelines provided by your university or academic department. Commonly followed styles might be adapted from international standards or customized to fit local requirements.

2. General Citation Practices

Here are some general practices and formats that are often used in Uzbek academic writing:

In-Text Citations

1.

Author-Date Format:

2.

- 1. Paraphrasing: (Author Last Name, Year)
 - 1. Example: (Tashkentov, 2020)
- 2. Direct Quote: (Author Last Name, Year, p. Page Number)
 - 1. Example: (Tashkentov, 2020, p. 45)
- 3.

Multiple Authors:

- 4.
- 1. Two Authors: (Author1 and Author2, Year)
 - 1. Example: (Tashkentov and Karimov, 2020)
- 2. Three or More Authors: (Author1 et al., Year)
 - 1. Example: (Tashkentov et al., 2020)

Reference List

1.

Books:

- 2.
- 3. **Format**: Author Last Name, First Initial. (Year). *Title of the book*. Publisher.
- Example: Tashkentov, A. (2020). O'zbek adabiyoti. Yangi Nasiya.
- 3.

Journal Articles:

- 5. **Format**: Author Last Name, First Initial. (Year). Title of article. *Title of Journal*, volume(issue), page range.
- Example: Karimov, B. (2020). O'zbek tili va adabiyoti.
 O'zbek Tili Jurnali, 10(2), 112-130.

5.

Websites:

6.

- 1. **Format**: Author Last Name, First Initial. (Year). Title of webpage. *Website Name*. URL
- Example: Ahmedov, M. (2023). Sun'iy intellekt kelajagi. *Texnologiya.com*. https://www.texnologiya.com/suniyintellekt

7.

Edited Books:

8.

- Format: Author Last Name, First Initial. (Year). Title of chapter. In Editor Initials. Editor Last Name (Ed.), *Title of book* (pp. page range). Publisher.
- Example: Davronov, S. (2020). Yoshlar psixologiyasi. In N. Usmanov (Ed.), O'zbekiston psixologiyasi (pp. 45-70). Toshkent Nasha.

3. Local Citation Guidelines

4.

Many academic institutions in Uzbekistan provide their own citation guidelines, which might be adapted from international styles such as APA, MLA, or Chicago, but with local modifications. Check with your institution's library or academic office for specific guidelines.

Common Modifications:

- Language: References might be provided in Uzbek, and translations or transliterations might be required for non-Uzbek sources.
- **Formatting**: Pay attention to local preferences for formatting, such as font type, size, and spacing.
- **Details**: Include additional details specific to Uzbek academic requirements, such as the use of the Uzbek alphabet or transliterations.

4. Practical Examples

Here's how you might format citations and references in Uzbek academic writing, adapting general citation formats to local practices:

Books:

- Example:
 - In-Text Citation: (Tashkentov, 2020)
 - Reference List: Tashkentov, A. (2020). *O'zbek adabiyoti*.
 Yangi Nasiya.

Journal Articles:

• Example:

- In-Text Citation: (Karimov, 2020)
- Reference List: Karimov, B. (2020). O'zbek tili va adabiyoti. *O'zbek Tili Jurnali*, 10(2), 112-130.

Websites:

- Example:
 - In-Text Citation: (Ahmedov, 2023)
 - Reference List: Ahmedov, M. (2023). Sun'iy intellekt kelajagi. *Texnologiya.com*. https://www.texnologiya.com/suniy-intellekt

5. Consult Institutional Guidelines

Always refer to the specific citation guidelines provided by your institution, as they may have particular requirements or preferences for citing sources. This ensures that your work adheres to the expected academic standards and practices.

By understanding and applying these citation practices, you'll be able to accurately credit sources and maintain academic integrity in your Uzbek academic writing.

Theme: 23. Further reading, writing and discussion

Further reading, writing, and discussion are crucial components of academic writing that help deepen understanding, refine arguments, and contribute to scholarly dialogue. Here's how to effectively engage in these activities:

Further Reading

1.

Purpose:

2.

- 1. **Expand Knowledge**: Gain a comprehensive understanding of your topic.
- 2. **Identify Gaps**: Discover areas where your research could contribute new insights.
- 3. **Understand Context**: Place your work within the broader academic discourse.
- 3.

Strategies:

4.

- 1. **Literature Reviews**: Read existing reviews to identify key works and trends in your field.
- Academic Databases: Use databases like Google Scholar, PubMed, JSTOR, or specific databases relevant to your discipline.
- 3. **Reference Lists**: Review the reference lists of key papers to find additional relevant sources.
- 4. **Follow Citations**: Track how influential papers are cited in recent research to find current discussions and developments.

5.

Organize Findings:

- 6.
- 1. **Annotated Bibliography**: Create annotations for each source, summarizing its main points and relevance.
- 2. **Literature Matrix**: Use a matrix to categorize and compare sources based on themes, methods, or findings.

Academic Writing

1.

Developing Your Argument:

2.

- 1. **Thesis Statement**: Craft a clear and concise thesis that outlines your main argument or research question.
- 2. **Structure**: Use a coherent structure with an introduction, literature review, methodology, results, discussion, and conclusion.
- 3. **Evidence**: Support your arguments with robust evidence from your research and literature.
- 3.

Writing Process:

- 4.
- Drafting: Start with a rough draft to organize your ideas and arguments. Focus on getting your thoughts down before refining.

- 2. **Revising**: Revise for clarity, coherence, and argument strength. Check that each section transitions smoothly and supports your thesis.
- 3. **Editing**: Edit for grammar, spelling, and formatting. Ensure adherence to the required citation style and academic standards.
- 4. **Feedback**: Seek feedback from peers, advisors, or mentors to gain different perspectives and improve your work.
- 5.

Documentation:

- 6.
- 1. **Citations**: Use the appropriate citation style (APA, MLA, Chicago, etc.) consistently throughout your document.
- 2. **References**: Include a comprehensive list of all sources cited in your work. Ensure that all entries are complete and formatted correctly.

Discussion in Academic Writing

1.

Purpose:

- 2.
- 1. **Interpret Results**: Discuss the significance of your findings in relation to your research question and the literature.
- 2. **Explore Implications**: Consider the implications of your findings for theory, practice, or future research.

- 3. Acknowledge Limitations: Identify any limitations of your study and how they might impact your conclusions.
- 3.

Components:

- 4.
- 1. **Summary of Findings**: Recap the main findings of your research.
- 2. **Comparison with Existing Research**: Compare your results with previous studies and discuss similarities or discrepancies.
- 3. **Theoretical Implications**: Relate your findings to theoretical frameworks or models discussed in your literature review.
- 4. **Practical Implications**: Discuss how your findings might affect practice or policy in your field.
- 5. **Future Research**: Suggest areas for further research based on your findings and limitations.
- 5.

Engaging in Scholarly Dialogue:

- 6.
- 1. **Conferences**: Present your research at academic conferences to get feedback and engage with other scholars.
- 2. Academic Journals: Publish your work in peer-reviewed journals to contribute to the academic community.

3. **Collaborations**: Collaborate with other researchers to enhance your study and explore new perspectives.

Practical Tips

- **Stay Organized**: Keep detailed notes and records of your research and writing process.
- **Manage Time**: Allocate specific times for reading, writing, and revising to maintain progress.
- Engage Critically: Analyze and question the sources and arguments you encounter to develop a well-rounded perspective.

By actively engaging in further reading, diligent writing, and thoughtful discussion, you enhance the quality and impact of your academic work and contribute meaningfully to scholarly conversations.

Theme 24. Exploring additional resources for research paper writing

Exploring additional resources for research paper writing can significantly enhance the quality of your work and provide deeper insights into your topic. Here's a guide to accessing and utilizing various resources effectively:

1. Academic Databases

Databases are essential for finding credible and relevant sources. They provide access to journal articles, conference papers, and other scholarly materials.

- **Google Scholar**: A broad search engine for scholarly articles and books.
 - Google Scholar

• **PubMed**: For research in life sciences and biomedical fields.

• <u>PubMed</u>

• **JSTOR**: A digital library for academic journals, books, and primary sources.

• JSTOR

- ScienceDirect: Offers articles from scientific journals and books.
 - <u>ScienceDirect</u>
- **IEEE Xplore**: For engineering, computer science, and electronics literature.
 - IEEE Xplore

2. University Libraries

University libraries often provide access to a wide range of physical and digital resources, including:

- Library Catalogs: Search for books, theses, and other resources available at your institution.
- **Interlibrary Loan Services**: Request books and articles from other libraries if your institution does not have them.
- **Research Guides**: Many libraries have subject-specific guides that can help you find relevant resources.

3. Academic Journals

Journals are peer-reviewed sources where researchers publish their findings. Identifying key journals in your field can provide high-quality information.

- **Find Top Journals**: Look for journals that are highly cited and respected in your discipline. For example, *Nature* and *The Lancet* for life sciences, or *Journal of Finance* for finance research.
- Use Journal Websites: Most journals have their own websites where you can access recent issues and archives.

4. Online Repositories and Archives

Repositories and **archives** offer access to a wealth of research materials, including dissertations, theses, and preprints.

- **arXiv**: A preprint repository for physics, mathematics, and computer science.
 - <u>arXiv</u>
- **SSRN**: Social Science Research Network for working papers and preprints.
 - o <u>SSRN</u>

5. Citation Management Tools

Citation Tools help manage references and format them correctly. They are crucial for organizing your sources and creating a bibliography.

• Zotero: A free tool to collect, organize, and cite research sources.

o <u>Zotero</u>

- Mendeley: A reference manager and academic social network.
 - <u>Mendeley</u>
- EndNote: A comprehensive reference management tool.

• EndNote

6. Writing and Research Guides

Guides offer detailed instructions on writing, formatting, and research methodologies.

- **The Purdue OWL**: Offers guidelines on various citation styles and writing tips.
 - Purdue OWL
- The Chicago Manual of Style: Comprehensive guide to Chicago style citations and writing.
 - The Chicago Manual of Style
- **Books on Academic Writing**: Titles like *"They Say / I Say"* by Gerald Graff and Cathy Birkenstein can provide valuable insights into effective academic writing.

7. Online Courses and Workshops

Courses and **workshops** can provide structured learning and additional skills.

- **Coursera**: Offers courses on academic writing and research methods from various universities.
 - <u>Coursera</u>
- **edX**: Provides online courses on research and academic writing.

• <u>edX</u>

• LinkedIn Learning: Offers courses on writing, research, and productivity.

• LinkedIn Learning

8. Professional Organizations

Professional Organizations often provide resources, networking opportunities, and professional development.

• American Psychological Association (APA): Offers guidelines and resources for writing in psychology and related fields.

• <u>APA</u>

- Modern Language Association (MLA): Provides guidelines and resources for writing in the humanities.
 - <u>MLA</u>
- Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers (IEEE): Offers resources and publications for engineering and technology fields.
 - o <u>IEEE</u>

9. Research Forums and Communities

Forums and **communities** can be useful for getting feedback and discussing research ideas.

- **ResearchGate**: Connect with other researchers and access a vast amount of research papers.
 - <u>ResearchGate</u>
- Academia.edu: Share papers and follow research in your field.
 - <u>Academia.edu</u>

10. Academic Advisors and Mentors

Advisors and **mentors** can provide personalized guidance and feedback on your research.

- **Consult with Advisors**: Discuss your research ideas and progress with your academic advisor or mentor.
- Attend Seminars: Participate in departmental seminars and workshops to gain insights and feedback.

By exploring these resources, you can enrich your research paper, improve your writing, and engage effectively with the academic community.

25 Lesson Plan: Using another's writing: Paraphrasing

Grade Level: Undergraduate students

Duration: 80 minutes

Objectives:

1. Understand the concept of paraphrasing and its importance in writing and academic integrity.

2. Identify key ideas in a text that can be paraphrased.

3. Practice paraphrasing a given passage while maintaining the original meaning.

Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers

- Projector (optional)
- Printed handouts with a short passage for paraphrasing practice
- Paraphrasing guidelines handout
- Access to online tools or dictionaries (optional)

Standards Alignment:

- Insert relevant standards, e.g., Common Core State Standards for Reading and Writing

Lesson Outline:

Introduction (15 minutes)

1. Engage Students: Ask students if they've ever had to restate something someone else said in their own words. Discuss why they might need to do this (e.g., summarizing, avoiding plagiarism).

2. Define Paraphrasing: Explain what paraphrasing is—rewriting a passage in your own words while retaining the original meaning.

Direct Instruction (20 minutes)

- 1. Discuss Why Paraphrase?
 - Avoiding plagiarism
 - Demonstrating understanding of material
 - Making information clearer or more relevant to your audience

2. Show Examples:

- Present an example on the board:
 - Original Text: "The quick brown fox jumps over the lazy dog."
- Paraphrase: "A fast, dark-colored fox leaps over a sleepy dog."
- Analyze how key ideas were retained but wording changed.
- 3. Introduce Guidelines for Effective Paraphrasing:
 - Read the passage thoroughly and understand it.
 - Identify key concepts and ideas.
 - Use different vocabulary and sentence structures.
 - Ensure that you do not change the original meaning.

Guided Practice (20minutes)

1. Distribute printed handouts with a short passage for students to work on.

2. As a class, read through the passage together.

3. Ask students to highlight or underline key phrases/ideas within the text.

4. Have students work individually or in pairs to create their paraphrase of the passage using guidelines provided.

Independent Practice (20 minutes)

1. Provide another short passage or allow students to choose one from their recent reading material.

2. Instruct them to write a paraphrase of their chosen text on their own.

3. Encourage them to use online tools or dictionaries if needed.

Closure (5 minutes)

1. Invite volunteers to share their paraphrases with the class.

2. Discuss any challenges they faced during the exercise and clarify any misunderstandings about paraphrasing.

Assessment:

- Collect both guided practice and independent practice paraphrases for evaluation based on clarity, accuracy, and adherence to guidelines.

Extensions:

- Encourage students to practice by summarizing articles from newspapers, journals, or online sources as homework.

Reflection:

After completing the lesson, reflect on student understanding of paraphrasing and adjust future lessons accordingly based on observed challenges or misconceptions.

This lesson plan provides a comprehensive approach to teaching high school students how to effectively use paraphrasing skills while emphasizing originality and comprehension in writing tasks.

How can you include another writer's ideas in your work without plagiarizing?

Paraphrasing, or rewriting information in your own words, is an essential tool in a writer's toolbox. It comes in handy when you want to demonstrate understanding, transform dense text into plain language, adjust the tone, or build on another person's work.

But just because you're not using the writer's actual words, it doesn't mean you don't have to provide credit where it's due. Proper attribution when paraphrasing is essential in order to avoid plagiarizing and potentially running into academic or legal trouble.

Knowing how to paraphrase without plagiarizing is a valuable skill to hone in order to craft blog posts, research papers, marketing copy, social media posts, and more. This guide explains how to paraphrase without compromising copyright laws or your integrity. Read on for paraphrasing rules, techniques, key strategies, and examples.

What is paraphrasing, and why is it important to do correctly? Paraphrasing refers to restating another piece of writing in new words while retaining the original passage's meaning. Unlike summarizing, in paraphrasing you include roughly the same amount of detail as the original work but adjust the language to demonstrate comprehension or make the text more understandable.

Paraphrasing is essential in academic writing as a way to use other people's ideas in your own work. Mixing in paraphrasing alongside direct quotes works well and can help your paper flow more naturally. Paraphrasing is also widely used on social media and in marketing copy or other business writing contexts, where it helps pass on information to various audiences.

Paraphrasing examples1. Original Text 2.Paraphrase

1.Some plants release certain aromas to alert their plant neighbors that they're under attack.2.Some vegetation emits special scents to warn other plants that there's danger nearby (Daniels, 1982).

1.Polar bears are almost undetectable by infrared cameras because of how they conserve

heat.

2.Polar bears cannot be detected easily by infrared cameras due to their unique heat

conservation (Rodriguez, 2002).

1. The observable universe consists of more than 100,000,000,000 galaxies.

2.More than a hundred billion galaxies comprise the known universe (Livio, 2022).

1.Human eyes get used to darkness after an hour, but by then they'll be 100,000 times more sensitive to light.

2.If you sit in a dark room, your eyes will eventually adjust and become 100,000 times more sensitive to light (Martin, 1992)—but be careful when you turn on the light again!

Ethical paraphrasing vs. plagiarism

Plagiarism is passing off someone else's ideas as your own. Some people think that changing a few words from the original is enough to avoid plagiarism, but that's not true—test it with our free plagiarism checker to see for yourself.

Plagiarism isn't just about words; it's also about ideas.To avoid plagiarism completely, you must rewrite the idea(s) with new words and credit the source material with a citation.

When writing online in more casual contexts, you can provide proper attribution by linking to the original source and nodding to the author with phrases like "To paraphrase the work of . . ." or "As [writer's name] shares in their work titled . . ." or "Research from [name] reveals . . ."

Academic and some business contexts require that you follow additional specific citation guidelines, such as APA, MLA, and Chicagostyle citation formats.

26. Lesson Plan: Avoiding Plagiarism While Accurately Representing Others' Ideas

Grade Level: Undergraduate

Objective:

Students will understand what plagiarism is, why it is important to avoid it, and how to accurately represent others' ideas through paraphrasing, summarizing, and proper citation.

Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers

- Projector and screen (for presentations)

- Handouts on plagiarism definitions and citation styles (APA, MLA)

- Sample texts for practice

- Laptops or tablets (optional for research)

Lesson Duration: 80 minutes

Lesson Outline:

Introduction (10 minutes)

1. Hook:

- Begin with a brief discussion on the importance of originality in academic work. Ask students why they think originality matters.

2. Define Plagiarism:

- Write the definition of plagiarism on the board: "The act of using someone else's work, ideas, or intellectual property without proper attribution."

- Discuss different forms of plagiarism (e.g., direct copying, paraphrasing without credit, self-plagiarism).

Direct Instruction (20 minutes)

3. Examples of Plagiarism vs. Original Work:

- Present examples that illustrate plagiarism vs. properly cited content. Use slides to show side-by-side comparisons.

4. Importance of Attribution:

- Explain why giving credit is essential—academic integrity, respect for original ideas, and contribution to scholarly conversation.

5. Overview of Paraphrasing and Summarizing:

- Define both concepts:

- Paraphrasing: Restating someone else's ideas in your own words while maintaining the original meaning.

- Summarizing: Condensing the main ideas of a source into a brief overview.

Guided Practice (30 minutes)

6. Practice Activity: Paraphrasing and Summarizing

- Divide students into small groups.

- Provide each group with a short paragraph from an article or book.

- Task them with paraphrasing the text and writing a summary.

- After 15 minutes, have groups share their paraphrases and summaries with the class.

7. Discuss Citation Styles:

- Briefly introduce various citation styles (APA, MLA).

- Show examples of how to cite both paraphrased information and direct quotes in each style.

Independent Practice (20 minutes)

8. Plagiarism Check Activity:

- Hand out a new paragraph with intentional plagiarism included.

- Ask students to identify instances of plagiarism and suggest how to correct them by paraphrasing or summarizing while providing proper citations.

9. Reflection Writing Prompt:

"Why do you think avoiding plagiarism is important? How can you ensure that you represent others' ideas accurately in your writing?"

Closure (10 minutes)

10. Class Discussion & Q&A:

- Invite students to share their reflections from the writing prompt.

- Address any questions regarding plagiarism or citation practices.

11. Homework Assignment:

Assign students to find an article related to their current research topic, create one paraphrase and one summary from it, along with proper citations in their chosen format (APA or MLA).

Assessment:

- Evaluate group participation during practice activities.

- Review submitted homework for understanding of paraphrasing/summarizing techniques and correct citation usage.

Extensions:

- Provide resources for online tools that can help check for plagiarism.

- Offer advanced lessons on integrating sources into writing effectively using quotations alongside paraphrases/summaries.

This lesson plan aims to equip students with the skills necessary not only to avoid plagiarism but also to engage ethically with others' intellectual contributions in their academic work.

Best Practices for Avoiding Plagiarism

The entire section below came from a research guide from Iowa State University. To avoid plagiarism, one must provide a reference to that source to indicate where the original information came from (see the "Source:" section below).

"There are many ways to avoid plagiarism, including developing good research habits, good time management, and taking responsibility for your own learning. Here are some specific tips:

1.Don't procrastinate with your research and assignments.

Good research takes time. Procrastinating makes it likely you'll run out of time or be unduly pressured to finish. This sort of pressure can often lead to sloppy research habits and bad decisions. Plan your research well in advance, and seek help when needed from your professor, from librarians and other campus support staff.

2.Commit to doing your own work.

If you don't understand an assignment, talk with your professor. Don't take the "easy way" out by asking your roommate or friends for copies of old assignments. A different aspect of this is group work. Group projects are very popular in some classes on campus, but not all. Make sure you clearly understand when your professor says it's okay to work with others on assignments and submit group work on assignments, versus when assignments and papers need to represent your own work.

3. Be 100% scrupulous in your note taking.

As you prepare your paper or research, and as you begin drafting your paper. One good practice is to clearly label in your notes your own ideas (write "ME" in parentheses) and ideas and words from others (write "SMITH, 2005" or something to indicate author, source, source date). Keep good records of the sources you consult, and the ideas you take from them. If you're writing a paper, you'll need this information for your bibliographies or references cited list anyway, so you'll benefit from good organization from the beginning.

4. Cite your sources scrupulously.

Always cite other people's work, words, ideas and phrases that you use directly or indirectly in your paper. Regardless of whether you found the information in a book, article, or website, and whether it's text, a graphic, an illustration, chart or table, you need to cite it. When you use words or phrases from other sources, these need to be in quotes. Current style manuals are available at most reference desks and online. They may also give further advice on avoiding plagiarism.

5. Understand good paraphrasing.

Simply using synonyms or scrambling an author's words and phrases and then using these "rewrites" uncredited in your work is plagiarism, plain and simple. Good paraphrasing requires that you genuinely understand the original source, that you are genuinely using your own words to summarize a point or concept, and that you insert in quotes any unique words or phrases you use from the original source. Good paraphrasing also requires that you cite the original source. Anything less and you veer into the dangerous territory of plagiarism."

Source: Vega García, S.A. (2012). Understanding plagiarism: Information literacy guide. Iowa State University. Retrieved from http://instr.iastate.libguides.com/content.php?pid=10314. [Accessed January 3, 2017]

Plagiarism Prevention

Plagiarism Prevention (onlinecolleges.net)

This resource provides information about preventing plagiarism, understanding the various types of plagiarism, and learning how to cite properly to avoid plagiarism.

27. Lesson Plan: Narrowing the topic and work with the first draft

The Water Cycle

Grade Level: Undergraduate level

Duration: 80 minutes **Learning Objectives:** 1. Students will be able to identify and describe the stages of the water cycle.

2. Students will understand the importance of the water cycle to Earth's ecosystems.

3. Students will be able to illustrate and label a diagram of the water cycle.

Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers

- Projector/computer for presentation

- Handouts with water cycle diagrams

- Art supplies (colored pencils, markers, paper)

- Short video about the water cycle (3–5 minutes)

- Quiz (to assess understanding)

Lesson Outline:

1. Introduction (10 minutes)

- Begin with a question: "Where does rain come from?"

- Allow students to share their thoughts.

- Introduce the topic by explaining that rain is part of a larger process called the water cycle.

2. Direct Instruction (15 minutes)

- Present a slideshow that explains each stage of the water cycle:

- Evaporation
- Condensation
- Precipitation
- Collection/Runoff

- Include visuals and simple animations if possible to illustrate each stage.

- Discuss how these processes are interconnected and their significance in nature.

3. Video Presentation (5 minutes)

- Show a short educational video that summarizes the water cycle and its components.

- Encourage students to take notes during the video.

4. Hands-On Activity (20 minutes)

- Distribute handouts with an incomplete diagram of the water cycle.

- In small groups, have students complete and color their diagrams, labeling each part accurately.

- Ask groups to present their diagrams to class, explaining each component briefly.

5. Conclusion/Discussion (5 minutes)

- Facilitate a discussion about how human activities can affect the water cycle (e.g., pollution, climate change).

- Have students share one new thing they learned about the importance of the water cycle.

6. Assessment (5 minutes)

- Administer a short quiz with questions covering key concepts discussed in class.

Example questions:

1. What are three stages of the water cycle?

2. Why is evaporation important?

3. Define precipitation.

Homework Assignment:

- Write a paragraph about how you use or interact with water every day and relate it back to one stage of the water cycle.

Reflection/Follow-up:

After teaching this lesson, reflect on student engagement during discussions, clarity in explanations, and group activity involvement for future improvements.

Selecting and Narrowing a Topic

When you need to write something longer than a text or an email, whether it's a class assignment, a report for work, or a personal writing task, there's work to be done before you dive in and begin writing. This phase is called prewriting (even though some types of prewriting involve actual writing).

Note that even though instructors may describe a writing process as having steps that seem to go in order, writers usually skip back and forth between those steps as they work toward a final draft. While you're in the early stage of prewriting, you might use freewriting (a technique for generating text that you'll learn more about in the section titled "Gathering Ideas") and then use that technique again after revising your first draft. When instructors describe writing as "recursive," this process is what they are talking about. The techniques described for prewriting may come in handy later in your own writing process.

Narrowing/Choosing Your Topic

If you're working on a course assignment, you may get to select your own topic or a topic may be assigned to you.

If you get to choose your topic, be sure that you understand the kind of topic that will fit the assignment. For example, if your instructor asks you to write an argument about a local problem in your community, you wouldn't choose to write about the national debt—that's not a local problem, but a national one. You might try some of the techniques in this resource, like freewriting, listing, or clustering, to discover topics you are interested in. You might use your library's online databases to search for interesting topics, especially databases that give pros and cons for current issues.

But even if the instructor assigns the topic, you can find ways to make it your own.

Some More Types of Assignments from Instructors

Most of the time, instructors give specific assignments that relate to the course and perhaps to assigned readings or discussions from class. When you are given a specific topic, be sure that you understand what you have been asked to do. Look for the verbs used in the assignment. Here are some common verbs from writing assignments and what they usually mean:

Summarize: If you are asked to write a summary of something you've read, you will be giving the main points and the supporting points from the text. A summary usually does not include your personal opinion.

Respond: When you are asked to respond to a text, you can give your opinion in a variety of ways. You might talk about the quality of the text, connections you made with the text, or whether you agree or disagree with the author's ideas. You may need to incorporate a little bit of summary so that the reader has enough background to understand your response. The summary might be in the form of a single paragraph after your introduction, it might be a few sentences within your introduction, or it might be incorporated in multiple paragraphs in a sentence or two.

Analyze: An analysis breaks something down into parts in order to understand the whole.

Synthesize: A synthesis combines two or more ideas into a larger whole. For more on synthesis, see "Synthesizing" in this text.

Compare and contrast: When you are asked to compare and contrast (or sometimes the instructor will just say compare, but mean both), you will be looking at two items and stating how they are alike and how they are different.

Reflect: A reflection asks you to deeply consider something, often on a personal basis. For example, you might be asked to write a personal reflection about your own writing or about your progress during a course. Or you might be asked to reflect on how a particular issue affects you.

Other terms: There are many possible verbs that you might find in an assignment. If you are unsure what the assignment calls for, be sure to ask your instructor.

Picking Your Own Topic When One Isn't Assigned

For some assignments, you may be able to write about a topic that is personally significant to you. Being able to write about a topic like this can improve your motivation. Be wary, though, of just writing opinion without backing up your ideas with reasons and evidence that your readers will find convincing. If you want to write about a deeply personal topic, be sure that you are willing to share that with others and also consider whether or not your readers want to know that information about you.

One way to narrow your topic is to decide what you DON'T want to write about. What ideas or subtopics could you eliminate?

Using Preliminary Research

Another way to narrow your topic is to do some preliminary research—not the kind of research you would include in an essay, but rather quick online research to inform yourself about the topic. This is one example of when it's okay to use a simple Google search or use Wikipedia. Once you see what other people are writing about your topic, it can help you see areas that are interesting to you, and it can also help you understand what people, in general, agree on and what is still undecided and needs to be further explored.

CAUTION: Make sure that you don't let preliminary research sway your own ideas on a given topic. You are creating an assignment that is purely yours—no one has ever created this assignment before now. Proceed carefully when checking out what others have to say about your proposed topic—make your assignment yours.

Using Purpose to Determine Topic

You can also use your purpose for writing to define your topic:

Informative: if your purpose in writing is to inform your readers, what are topics that you already know a lot about? What are some interesting topics that you could easily research?

Persuasive: if your purpose is to persuade readers to think a certain way or to take an action, what are some topics that you feel strongly about? What are some topics that are currently under discussion that you could explore and form an opinion on?

Reflective: if your purpose is to reflect on a personal experience or on your learning process, you can explore your knowledge and experience.

Analytical: if your purpose is to analyze something (usually a text of some kind), is there an assigned list or a specific text? If you get to choose, what books, essays, poems, films, songs, etc. have you recently been exposed to that you could analyze?

28. Lesson plan: Strategies for further narrowing down the research topic

Objective:

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to apply strategies to narrow down a broad research topic into a specific, manageable question or thesis statement.

Duration: 80 minutes

Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers

- Projector (optional)

- Handouts with examples of research topics and narrowing strategies

- Post-it notes

- Pens/Pencils

Lesson Outline:

1. Introduction (10 minutes)

- Begin with a brief discussion about the importance of having a focused research topic.

- Ask students to share their initial ideas for research topics.

- Introduce the concept of narrowing down topics by explaining that broad topics can lead to overwhelming amounts of information, while specific topics are more manageable and yield better results.

2. Direct Instruction (15 minutes)

- Present the following strategies for narrowing down a research topic:

1. Specify the Scope: Define what aspect of the broad topic interests you (e.g., instead of "climate change," consider "the impact of climate change on coastal cities").

2. Identify a Particular Time Period: Focus on a specific time frame relevant to your topic (e.g., "the effects of climate change in the last decade").

3. Target a Specific Geographic Area: Limit your study to one location (e.g., "the impact of climate change on Miami").

4. Consider Different Perspectives: Look at various stakeholders or viewpoints within your topic (e.g., "how climate change affects local fishermen versus tourism in Florida").

5. Use Research Questions: Develop questions that guide your focus (e.g., "What adaptations are coastal cities implementing in response to rising sea levels?").

3. Guided Practice (15 minutes)

- Divide students into small groups and provide each group with handouts containing sample broad topics.

- Ask each group to pick one broad topic and discuss ways they could narrow it down using the strategies presented.

- After 10 minutes, have each group share their narrowed-down ideas with the class.

4. Independent Practice (15 minutes)

- Have students individually choose their own broad research topics.

- Using sticky notes, ask them to write down at least three ways they could narrow their chosen topic based on the strategies discussed.

- Students should then write out one specific research question or thesis statement that reflects their narrowed focus.

5. Closure (5 minutes)

- Invite a few students to share their narrowed-down topics and questions with the class.

- Summarize key points from the lesson, emphasizing how narrowing down helps create more effective and manageable research projects.

6. Assessment:

- Collect sticky notes as an informal assessment of student understanding.

- Optionally assign students to submit their final narrowed-down research question/thesis statement as homework.

Extensions:

- Provide resources for researching specific aspects related to their narrowed topics.

- Encourage students to use academic databases or library resources for further exploration.

Follow-Up:

In subsequent lessons, guide students in creating outlines or conducting preliminary literature reviews based on their narrowed-down questions.

This lesson plan aims not only at helping students refine their topics but also encourages them to think critically about how they approach research projects overall

Strategies For Narrowing A Research Question

Developing a clear, focused research question can be challenging. A good research question should

match the purpose for an assignment and provide a thesis statement or argument. These strategies can

help you turn a mishmash of general information into a good research question.

What does a good research question look like? Research questions ask us to consider all the small

questions and answers we find as part of a single problem. They usually are:

ü Focused on a specific area of curiosity within the discipline or assignment

ü Clear and precisely stated

ü Not a topic, a fragment, a phrase, or a statement

NOTE: Research questions should not be simple questions of fact that can be answered

quickly.

Strategy One: Answer the simple questions

Freewriting with the following steps can quickly generate ideas for a research question.

1. List your interests as they pertain to your specific discipline or assignment.

2. Consider one of the items on your list. Jot down everything you know about the topic as quickly

as you can (lists or paragraphs are equally useful).

3. Find the answers to the following questions, and add them to what you already have: "Who?

What? When? Where? Why? How? So what?" and "What if?" These represent possible "gaps" in

your knowledge; the last four are particularly tough because they are open-ended. Open-ended

questions often lead to good research questions.

4. Continue steps 2 and 3 with each item on your initial list until you have found an open-ended

question you would like to explore further.

Strategy Two: Read to write

We often do not know what we are curious about until we read subjects that interest us. Go to the

library. Search academic and professional websites. Talk with one of the research librarians. Look for

more general information about the topic or discipline you are in.

After you have read, try doing Strategy One again! You may have found something more specific that

you would like to explore.

Strategy Three: Pick it apart

All speakers and writers use the same basic Rhetorical Modes to organize ideas. Asking questions about

these can give you a research question with clear direction.

- Comparison & Contrast
- Cause & Effect

• Process

Problem & Solution

Classification or Division

Ask the same questions ("Why?" "How?" "So what?" "What if?") for each of these modes. Use those

answers to look for ideas that you can arrange your interests around. What argument do you want to

communicate? Using these tips will put you well on your way to developing a strong research question

that will serve as your purpose for the assignment. The answer to your research question will eventually

become your thesis or primary argument. Do not be alarmed if the process of selecting a research

question changes the way you think; that is part of writing!

29. Lesson Plan: Feedback on your writing

Subject: English Language Arts Grade Level: 6th Grade Lesson Title: Enhancing Writing Skills: Descriptive Language

Duration: 80 minutes

Objectives:

1. Cognitive Objective: Students will be able to identify and use descriptive language in their writing.

2. Affective Objective: Students will appreciate the impact of vivid descriptions in enhancing their writing.

3. Psychomotor Objective: Students will demonstrate their understanding by rewriting a paragraph using descriptive language.

Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers

- Handouts with examples of descriptive vs. non-descriptive writing

- Writing journals or paper

- Pens or pencils

- Projector (optional)

Introduction (10 minutes):

1. Hook Activity: Read a short paragraph without descriptive language and then read a revised version full of vivid descriptions.

- Ask students how they felt about each version.

- Discuss what made the second paragraph more engaging.

2. Objective Sharing: Explain that today's lesson will focus on how to enhance their writing through the use of descriptive language.

Direct Instruction (15 minutes):

1. Introduction to Descriptive Language:

- Define descriptive language and its importance in writing.

- Discuss adjectives, adverbs, similes, metaphors, and sensory details as tools for description.

2. Examples:

- Show examples of sentences before and after adding descriptive elements (e.g., "The dog ran" vs. "The fluffy golden retriever bounded joyfully across the sunlit meadow.").

Guided Practice (15 minutes):

1. Distribute handouts containing several bland sentences.

2. In pairs, students rewrite these sentences using descriptive language.

3. Monitor pairs as they work; provide support where needed.

Independent Practice (15 minutes):
1. Ask students to choose a topic for a short paragraph (e.g., their favorite place, an exciting event).

2. Instruct them to write a descriptive paragraph incorporating at least three types of descriptive language discussed earlier.

3. Encourage them to focus on engaging the reader's senses.

Closure (5 minutes):

1. Invite a few students to share their paragraphs with the class.

2. Discuss how each writer used descriptive language effectively.

Assessment:

- Formative assessment via observation during group work and discussions.

- Evaluate students' written paragraphs using a rubric that assesses use of descriptive language, creativity, and overall coherence.

Extensions/Modifications:

- For advanced learners: Challenge them to incorporate figurative language such as alliteration or personification into their paragraphs.

- For struggling learners: Provide sentence starters or word banks with adjectives and sensory words.

30. Lesson Plan: Giving and Receiving Constructive Criticism in Writing

Grade Level: Undergraduate level

Duration: 60 minutes

Objectives:

1. Students will understand the importance of constructive criticism in the writing process.

2. Students will learn how to give constructive feedback effectively.

3. Students will practice receiving and incorporating feedback into their writing.

Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers

- Projector (optional)

- Handouts with criteria for constructive criticism

- Sample pieces of writing (can be excerpts from student work or published pieces)

- Paper and pens/pencils for students

- Feedback forms (for peer review)

Lesson Outline:

Introduction (10 minutes)

1. Hook: Start with a brief discussion about the importance of feedback in improvement. Ask students about their experiences with feedback in writing or other areas.

2. Define Constructive Criticism:

- Write the term "Constructive Criticism" on the board.

- Discuss what it means, emphasizing its purpose to help someone improve rather than discourage them.

Direct Instruction (15 minutes)

1. Characteristics of Constructive Criticism:

- Clarity: Be specific about what works and what doesn't.

- Positivity: Start with something positive before moving to suggestions for improvement.

- Actionable Suggestions: Provide clear steps for improvement.

2. Giving Feedback Activity:

- Distribute handouts outlining key elements of giving constructive criticism.

- Discuss examples and non-examples of constructive feedback.

Guided Practice (15 minutes)

1. Sample Analysis:

- Divide students into small groups and provide each group with a sample piece of writing.

- Ask them to identify strengths and areas for improvement using the criteria discussed.

2. Group Share-Out:

- Each group shares one strength and one area for improvement they found in the sample writing.

Independent Practice (15 minutes)

1. Peer Review Activity:

- Have students exchange their own drafts with a partner.

- Instruct them to use the feedback forms provided to give constructive feedback on each other's work, focusing on clarity, positivity, and actionable suggestions.

2. Reflection:

- After providing feedback, each student should write a brief reflection on how they felt giving feedback and what they learned from receiving it.

Closure (5 minutes)

1. Class Discussion:

- Invite students to share their reflections on both giving and receiving criticism.

2. Wrap-Up:

- Reinforce that constructive criticism is essential not only in writing but also in personal growth across various aspects of life.

3. Homework Assignment:

- Ask students to revise their drafts based on the feedback received during peer review and submit both the original draft and revised version by the next class.

Assessment:

- Participation in group discussions

- Quality of written feedback provided to peers

- Reflection responses assessing understanding of constructive criticism principles

- Submission of revised writing based on peer input

This lesson plan encourages collaboration, critical thinking, and self-awareness among students as they engage with both giving and receiving constructive criticism within their writing process.

ASOSIY VA QOʻSHIMCHA OʻQUV ADABIYOTLAR HAMDA AXBOROT MANBALARI

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