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**ENGLISH FOR POST-
GRADUATES**

**АНГЛИЙСКИЙ ЯЗЫК
ДЛЯ АСПИРАНТОВ**

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Целью данного пособия является учебно-методическое обеспечение системы постдипломного образования Белгосуниверситета. Оно предназначено для аспирантов, соискателей, а также магистрантов гуманитарных и естественных специальностей. Пособие включает в себя основные тематические разделы, необходимые для подготовки к сдаче кандидатского экзамена по английскому языку. Оно составлено в соответствии с программными требованиями и с учетом кросс-культурных особенностей научной деятельности в вузах нашей страны и за рубежом.

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PREAMBLE

Address to Young Researchers

Dear friends,

Choosing a post-graduate course as the starting point of your career-making you will have to deal with a number of science-related activities.

First, you should socialize yourself as a research student and know everything about post-graduate education at BSU and other educational establishments.

Second, you should select a research adviser whose supervision and assistance may be crucial for conducting your research and successful preparation of the text of your future dissertation.

Third, a young researcher's life can't be imagined without specific professional contacts – conferences, research and study visits.

Fourth, you'll be engaged in the extensive library work collecting materials for reports, articles, studying global scientific problems.

Finally, you will have to submit the text of your research paper to the Academic Council.

These are the problem areas of the present textbook aimed at helping you to get acquainted with research activities, scientific terminology.

Success attend you!

The authors

SECTION I

UNIVERSITIES AND FURTHER EDUCATION

FOCUS VOCABULARY

graduate (from) – закончить высшее учебное заведение

graduation paper – дипломная работа

post-graduate (student) – аспирант

~ studies – учеба в аспирантуре

campus – университетский комплекс

certificate – удостоверение, сертификат

council – совет

academic ~ – ученый совет

course – курс (теоретический)

compulsory ~ – обязательный курс

optional ~ – необязательный/факультативный курс

to take a post-graduate ~ in – поступить/учиться в аспирантуре

to design / to tailor ~ – разработать курс

in-service training ~ – курс повышения квалификации

curriculum – программа, учебный план

syllabus – программа (обучения)

department – кафедра, отделение

head of (the) ~ – заведующий кафедрой, руководитель отделения

the ~ of English/the English ~ – кафедра английского языка

correspondence ~ – заочное отделение

full time ~ – дневное отделение

part time ~ – вечернее отделение

diploma – диплом

the ~ in higher education – диплом о высшем образовании

education – образование

higher ~ – высшее образование, высшая школа

further (post-diploma) ~ – последипломное образование

college – колледж

~ of higher education – колледж

~ of further education/further education college –

~ of technology/commerce/art – технологический, коммерческий, художественный колледж

technical ~ – техникум

school – школа, училище, курсы

language ~ – языковые курсы

ballet ~ – хореографическое училище

art ~ – художественное училище

vocational ~ – профессиональное техническое училище

medical ~ – медучилище

university – университет

pedagogical (teacher-training) ~ – педагогический университет

polytechnical ~ – политехнический университет

technological ~ – технологический университет

medical ~ – медицинский университет

agricultural ~ – агротехнический университет

Oxford/Cambridge university

London university, **but** the University of London

faculty – факультет

~ of arts (arts faculty) – факультет гуманитарных наук (языки, история, философия и др.)

~ of social sciences – факультет общественных наук

~ of education – педагогический факультет

~ of science – факультет естественных наук (биология, химия, физика и др.)

~ of engineering – факультет технических (прикладных) наук

~ of medicine/law – факультет медицины/права

~ of economics/history – экономический, исторический факультет

philological faculty or faculty of arts / arts faculty – филологический факультет

field of study – область изучения

grant – стипендия, материальная поддержка

to train – обучать

~ smb. for a job/profession – готовить кого-либо к профессии

laboratory – лаборатория, кабинет

biology/chemistry ~ – кабинет биологии/химии

staff – штат

teaching/academic ~ – профессорско-преподавательский состав

~ meeting – заседание кафедры

~ room – преподавательская

lecturer – преподаватель

university teacher/~ – преподаватель университета

senior ~ – старший преподаватель

principal ~ or reader – доцент

junior or assistant ~ – ассистент

tutor – куратор

in-service training of teachers – повышение квалификации преподавателей

The term “further education” is associated in many countries abroad with after-school education that is with college and university education. People who undertake “further education” beyond the age of 18 pay fees for their tuition as well as their living costs. In our country “further education” is associated with postgraduate studies, the level which assumes to a larger extent a lot of research work, acquiring knowledge of new methodologies and new trends. Thus in Section I we’ll start discussing the university education in our country and abroad and in Section II proceed to academic degrees and postgraduate studies.

Belarus: Education in the 21st Century

Many countries consider education a major vehicle of social advancement. Training of highly qualified specialists, capable of solving the most complex problems of modern society is the main priority of higher education. The efforts of our scientists have always been focused on the fundamental problems of humanities, natural and social sciences. Knowledge, science and culture open the prospects into the future for every person.

At the end of the century the system of higher and further education in Belarus underwent a process of great reforms. They were initiated to provide closer links between education and technological needs of industry. New goals were set to link higher education more directly to the economy, improve the quality of scientific research, provide educational and research institutions with more modern technology and new laboratory facilities. The major significance of the reforms was to move toward the democratization of university administration and the “humanitarization” of the educational process in terms of students’ individual aptitudes and needs.

A distinguishing feature of our universities is that they are becoming internationally oriented. We have joined the European Cultural Convention which enables us to participate in all projects concerning higher and further education, academic mobility and recognition of qualification. The universities also expand their cooperation with such authoritative international organizations as UNESCO and the Council of Europe.

The need to make education more democratic and universal arises from the fact that our country is integrating with the European community. In this respect educators have to think of how our universities should educate their students about the rest of the world. The world in which most adult Belarusians grew to maturity no longer exists. The cold war is over. Issues such as environment, ex-

changes rate, and economic competition, public health, national security, poverty, population control, and human rights affect every country domestically as well as internationally. Under these circumstances attending to domestic needs requires understanding of national, cultural, and socio-economic boundaries.

The characteristic feature and the main trend in modern higher and further education is not only to check students' knowledge but develop their abilities and creative thinking. Today's scientific and technological progress demands of the university graduates to be prepared to deepen their knowledge individually and adapt themselves quickly to the changes in the branches or science or industry they have chosen as their speciality or research. In addition to offering programs based on traditional academic disciplines, higher education must develop problem-focused programs of study that are more practical than theoretical and are oriented around problems of the real world.

Much has already been done and is being done to transform the national system of education. A wide range of non-state schools, colleges and institutes have been introduced. There have been certain curriculum changes starting from 1992. Some higher educational establishments began changing tuition in the above-mentioned direction.

Of course, university education in Belarus still faces a great variety of problems, connected with implementation of new disciplines, retraining of the faculty, reorienting university policies and programs towards new goals. But if we want to prosper in the new environment of the 21st century, our universities must truly orient themselves around new goals. None of these goals will be achieved quickly and easily but the benefits of putting them in place will far exceed the efforts required.

1. What is the role of education in modern society? Has it changed a lot with a course of time?
2. At the turn of the century higher and further education underwent great reforms. What are these reforms aimed at?
3. What are the distinguishing features and the main trends in higher and further education?
4. What does the need to make universities more democratic and internationally oriented arise from?
5. Why is it necessary to develop creative thinking? What are the ways of achieving this goal?
6. What difficulties do we face on the way of reforming the system of education?
7. Do you agree that reforming the system of education we shouldn't forget our national interests and values in education? We must preserve all the achievements of the previous school not to destroy the whole system.

Scan the text and find some additional information about the Belarusian State University using some other resources.

Belarusian State University

The Belarusian State University is a center of education, culture and science, the major higher educational establishment in Belarus. It is quite young but at the same time it is the oldest University in our republic. It was founded in 1921 and had only two faculties at that time. The first President of the BSU was Professor V. I. Picheta.

The republic's first University rapidly grew and developed and in the pre-war period a number of independent higher schools for medicine, pedagogy, and national economy emerged on its basis.

During the Great Patriotic War the University was razed to the ground by the nazi invaders. In the post-war years it was quickly restored and in a short period of time turned into one of the largest institutions of higher education in Belarus.

Nowadays, there are 16 faculties, 5 Research Institutes, 24 scientific centers at the University. About 20,000 students study Mathematics, Applied Mathematics, Chemistry, Geography, Biology, Philology, Journalism, History, Economics, Law, International Relations, etc. The academic staff includes 2,333 professors and teachers. Among them there are 214 Doctors of Sciences and 970 Associate Professors who work at the university's 176 Departments.

The University trains specialists in 57 specialities. It has full-time and distant learning forms of education. The University is committed to offering a high quality learning experience, which enables students to develop intellectually and individually. Professors and students are engaged in both fundamental and applied research; the latter is carried out in co-operation with industry and business. The University laboratories are equipped with up-to-date devices.

The Fundamental Library of the University is one of the biggest libraries in Belarus. At present it possesses over 2 million volumes in Belarusian, Russian and other languages. It has 15 departments and 12 reading halls, a computer catalogue and central archives.

Every year hundreds of young specialists start working in different branches of national economy, science, education, mass media, prosecutor's offices and courts.

In 1967 the Belarusian State University was awarded the Order of the Red Banner of Labour for its contribution to the development of science and academic training.

The Belarusian State University ranks high among European Universities. It is a member of a number of the International Universities Associations. The University participates in a number of international projects like TEMPUS, INTAS, COPERNICUS, etc. It hosts international conferences, seminars and exhibitions.

As you know the first universities were founded in the Byzantium in the 5th century (in Constantinopolis and Athens) and in Western Europe in the 12th and 13th centuries. Since then there appeared a number of university types all over the world.

Further on you will find some information about the University system in the English-speaking countries, Great Britain and the USA. It is intended to increase your general knowledge of the problem discussed. Read the text and define the basic features of each university type.

Modern University System in Great Britain

There are 90 universities in Great Britain today, compared with 47 in 1990, and only 17 in 1945. They fall into five broad categories: the medieval English universities, the medieval Scottish ones, the nineteenth century “redbrick” ones, the previous polytechnics, and finally the twentieth-century “plate-glass” universities. They are all private institutions, receiving direct grants from central government

There are not very important legal distinctions between the various types of universities in the country. But it is possible to discern a few broad categories.

Oxbridge

This name denotes the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, both founded in the medieval period. They are federations of semi-independent colleges, each college having its own staff, known as “Fellows”. Most colleges have their own dining hall, library and chapel and contain enough accommodation for at least half of their students. The fellows teach the college students, either one-to-one or in very small groups (known as “tutorials” in Oxford and “supervisions” in Cambridge). Oxbridge has the lowest student/staff ratio in Britain. Lectures and laboratory work are organized at university level. As well as the college libraries, there are the two university libraries, both of which are legally entitled to a free copy of every book published in Britain. Before 1970 all Oxbridge colleges were single-sex (mostly for men). Now, the majority admit both sexes.

The students of these universities make up one of the most elite elites in the world. Many great men such as Bacon, Milton, Cromwell, Newton, Byron, Darwin, Rutherford and many other scientists and writers were educated there as well as members of the Royal family. Nowadays their pre-eminence is diminishing, but not extinct.

These two ancient universities have, through the centuries, had a major role in English politics— Oxford more than Cambridge. Of the nine prime ministers since 1955 Mrs Thatcher was the seventh to have been to Oxford University. In 1988 her cabinet of twenty-one included seven who had been to Oxford, seven to Cambridge; two had been to old Scottish universities, one to London, none to any other university in England. The top civil servants have a similar background. This preponderance of Oxford and Cambridge graduates among the political elite (and among MPs in general) has declined, but it is still significant.

The Old Scottish University

Scotland is proud of its four ancient universities: Glasgow, Edinburgh, Aberdeen and St Andrews, all founded in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. The last of these resembles Oxbridge in many ways, while the other three are more like civic universities (see below) where most of the students live at home or find their own rooms in town. At all of them the pattern of study is closer to the continual tradition than to the English one – there is less specialization than at Oxbridge. Created with strong links with the ancient universities of continental Europe they followed their longer and broader course of studies. Even today Scottish universities provide four-year undergraduate courses, compared with usual three-year courses in England and Wales.

The Early Nineteenth-Century English Universities

Durham University was founded in 1832. Its collegiate living arrangements are similar to Oxbridge, but academic matters are organized at university level. The University of London started in 1836 with just two colleges. Many more have joined since, scattered widely around the city, so that each college (most are non-residential) is almost a separate university. The central organization is responsible for little more than exams and the awarding of degrees.

The Older Civic ('Redbrick') Universities

During the nineteenth century various institutes of higher education, usually with a technical bias, sprang up in the new industrial towns and cities such as Birmingham, Manchester and Leeds. Their buildings were of local material, often brick, in contrast to the stone of older universities (hence the name 'red-

brick'). They catered only for local people. At first, they prepared students for London University degrees, but later they were given the right to award their own degrees, and so became universities themselves. In the mid twentieth century they started to accept students from all over the country.

The Campus Universities

These are purpose-built institutions located in the countryside but close to towns. Examples are East Anglia, Lancaster, Sussex and Warwick. They have accommodation for most of their students on site and from their beginning, mostly in the early 1960s, attracted students from all over the country. (Many were known as centres of students protest in the late 1960 and early 1970s.) They tend to emphasise relatively 'new' academic disciplines such as social sciences and to make greater use than other universities of teaching in small groups, often known as 'seminars'.

The Newer Civic Universities

These were originally technical colleges set up by local authorities in the first sixty years of this century. Their upgrading to university status took place in two waves. The first wave occurred in the mid 1960s, when ten of them (e.g. Aston in Birmingham, Salford near Manchester and Strachclyde in Glasgow) were promoted in this way. Then, in the early 1970s, another thirty became 'polytechnics', which meant that as well as continuing with their formers courses, they were allowed to teach degree courses (the degrees being awarded by a national body). In the early 1990s most of these (and also some other colleges) became universities. Their most notable feature is flexibility with regard to studying arrangements, including 'sandwich' courses (i.e. studies interrupted by periods of time outside education). They are now all financed by central government.

The Open University

This is one development in education in which Britain can claim to have led the world. It was started in 1969. It allows people who do not have the opportunity to be ordinary 'students' to study for a degree. Its courses are taught through television, radio and specially written course-books. Its students work with tutors, to whom they send their written work and with whom they then discuss it, either at meetings or through correspondence. In the summer, they have to attend short residential courses of about a week.

In the text below an international student shares his experience of studying in Britain. He finds the students' life at the University quite relaxing and enjoyable but the requirements seem to be rather demanding. What's your idea of studying at the university abroad?

Studying at the University

Students from other countries that I met at university often took a long time to get used to the system. The university terms lasted only six months' and you were free to do what you liked in the vacations. Attendance of lectures was optional, and the only compulsory assignment was to write an essay once a week and present it to your tutor. The idea was that you were not supposed to be there to obtain an academic qualification, but to extend your knowledge of the subject in your own way. It was all there in the libraries and laboratories and lecture halls if you looked for it. A poor American student who had attended all the tutor's lectures once reproduced them almost word for word in his essay, and the tutor said: "I know what **I** think. What do **you** think? The life of an undergraduate was relaxing and enjoyable, but you had to work things out for yourself."

Note: In British universities, there is normally only one Professor for a given subject; other university teachers are called lecturers. They are also tutors when they give individual students classes in small numbers.

1. Is this system similar to that of your country? If not what is the difference?
2. Why do you think people go to university? Do you think they go for the right reasons?
3. What did an American tutor expect his students to do? What similarities and differences have you noticed compared with our system of education?

Maria Brown tells us about her educational background. Complete each sentence with one of the words or phrases from the box below. Then speak on your own educational background. You may use Maria's as a model.

apply	graduated	grant	higher degree
honours degree	job	option	PhD
place	primary school	scholarship	secondary school
stay on	study	subject	thesis

1. I started at ... in London when I was 5.
2. At the age of 11, I went on to ..., also in London.
3. At 17, I ... to university.
4. I got a ... at Manchester to ... Engineering.
5. In fact I was awarded a
6. But at the end of the first year I changed to another ...
7. I ... from University in 2003.
8. I have a first class ... in Economics.
9. I decided to ... at university.
10. So I did a ... in business administration at the University of California.
11. During the course, I did an ... on small business development.
12. I found the topic so interesting that I applied for a ... to do a doctorate on the same subject.
13. Once I had got the money, I had to write a 50,000 word ...
14. So now I have a BA, an MBA and a ...
15. All I need now is a ...

English speaking countries, especially Great Britain and America, have much in common in their systems of education. But still there is a great difference due to their different cultural and historic backgrounds. Spot these differences after reading the text “Higher education in the USA”. How do you account for the diversity of the American system of education?

Higher Education in the USA

For a very long time America has led the world in higher education, quantitatively at least. In 1825 England still had only two universities, Oxford and Cambridge. The United States already had over fifty colleges for a smaller population. By now, in addition to hundreds of junior colleges (with two-year courses), teachers' colleges and special schools, there are over 2,000 universities, colleges or other institutions with four year courses leading to bachelors' degrees, though only some of these postgraduates work as well, for masters' degrees and doctorates.

Out of more than three million students who graduate from high school each year, about one million go on for “higher education”. Nearly half of all people aged nineteen are in full-time education, but only half of these successfully complete full four year courses for bachelors' degrees. Some attend junior colleges with two-year courses (from which they may transfer); most start full four-year degree courses. Most students receive federal loans to cover part

of their studies; much smaller numbers receive federal grants, or scholarships or bursaries from other sources. Virtually all pay part of their costs themselves, from family contributions or from part-time work or both.

Most college students are in “public” institutions, a minority in “private” ones. Every state has its own full university system, and in a big state there are many separate state campuses, general and special, at different levels. In terms of research output and of Nobel prizes won by academic staff, the most prestigious is the University of California at Berkeley (across the bay from San Francisco). It, and the University’s campus at Los Angeles, are two major institutions in the California state system, but there are many dozens of other campuses in that system.

Some of the best-known private universities are the oldest ones in the North East, known informally as the Ivy League. These include Harvard, Yale and Princeton. The research carried on at Harvard and at its newer neighbor in Cambridge, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, has contributed to the prosperity of the Boston area, though other private and public universities nearby also have some share in this development.

In general the system of higher education in the United States is complex. It comprises four categories of institutions: (1) the university which may contain (a) several colleges for undergraduate students seeking a bachelor’s (four-year) degree and (b) one or more graduate schools for those continuing in specialized studies beyond the bachelor’s degree to obtain a master’s or doctoral degree; (2) the four-year undergraduate institution – the colleges – most of which are non part of a university; (3) the technical training institution, at which high school graduates may take courses ranging from six month to four years in duration and learn a wide variety of technical skills, from hair styling through business accounting to computer programming; (4) and the two-year, or community college, from which students may enter many professions or may transfer to four-year colleges or universities.

Any of these institutions, in any category, might be either public or private, depending on the source of its funding.

The sheer diversity of American higher education, so baffling to foreigners, baffles many Americans as well. There were, according to the latest official count, 3,075 accredited colleges and universities in the United States. Many of them have their own separate lobbies in Washington: the community colleges, the land-grant schools and other state universities, the former teacher’s colleges and regional state universities, the predominantly black schools, the private colleges. Not to mention women’s schools and Catholic schools affiliated with dozens of other religious denominations...

Harvard University is the pride of the USA. Like Oxford and Cambridge it is known all over the world. Are there any similarities in the academic courses these universities offer?

Harvard University

Harvard University, which celebrated its 350th anniversary in 1986, is the oldest institution of higher learning in the United States. Founded 16 years after the arrival of the Pilgrims at Plymouth, the University has grown from nine students with a single master to an enrollment of 18,000 degree candidates. Additional 13,000 students are enrolled in one or more courses in the Harvard Extension School. Over 14,000 people work at Harvard, including more than 2,000 faculties. There are also 7,000 faculty appointments in affiliated teaching hospitals.

Seven presidents of the United States - John Adams, John Quincy Adams, Theodore and Franklin Delano Roosevelt, Rutherford B. Hayes, John Fitzgerald Kennedy and George W. Bush - were graduates of Harvard. Its faculty have produced nearly 40 Nobel laureates.

During its early years, the College offered a classic academic course based on the English university model but consistent with the prevailing Puritan philosophy of the first colonists.

SECTION II

ACADEMIC DEGREES AND POSTGRADUATE STUDIES

FOCUS VOCABULARY

science – наука

natural ~ (or the natural sciences) – естественные науки

the exact ~es – точные науки

the mathematical ~ (or the mathematical sciences) – математические науки

social ~ (or the social sciences) – общественные науки

~ and technology – наука и техника

scientific – научный

~ method/approach/principle – научный метод/подход/принцип

~ work/research – научная работа/исследование

scientist – ученый (естественные науки)

scholar – ученый (гуманитарные науки)

learned – научный

~ society – научное общество

~ work/ article/language – научный труд/журнал/статья

~ paper – научный доклад

~ journal – научный журнал

arts – гуманитарные науки (humanities)

faculty of ~ – факультет гуманитарных наук

liberal ~ – гуманитарные науки (язык, философия, история и т.д.)

Candidate/Doctor of Philology – кандидат/доктор филологических наук

~ of psychology – кандидат/доктор психологических наук

~ of education – кандидат/доктор педагогических наук

~ of economics – кандидат/доктор экономических наук

~ of laws – кандидат/доктор юридических наук

research – исследование, научно-исследовательская работа

to do/carry out /conduct ~ (on/in/into) – проводить исследования (по)

to be engaged (in) ~ – проводить исследования

~ degree – ученая степень

~ institute – научно-исследовательский институт

~ center – исследовательский центр

~ student – аспирант (postgraduate student)

~ subject / topic – тема исследования

~ worker/researcher – научный работник
degree – степень (ученая)
to award/confer a ~ – присвоить степень
to get/take/receive a ~ – получить степень
to hold/have a ~ – иметь степень
first ~ – диплом бакалавра наук
Bachelor's ~ – степень бакалавра
higher ~ – ученая степень
Master's ~ – степень магистра
Doctorate ~ (PhD) – степень кандидата наук
~ of Candidate of sciences (Candidate's degree) – степень кандидата наук
~ of Doctor (Doctor of sciences) – степень доктора наук
dissertation/ thesis – научная работа, диссертация
to defend one's ~ – защитить диссертацию
to submit a ~ for hearing at the session of the Academic Council – представить диссертацию для обсуждения на заседании Ученого совета.
field of study – область исследований

Modern academic education in our country comprises four stages: Bachelor's degree, Specialist's degree, Master's degree, Postgraduate degree. Academic degrees abroad differ in many ways which is the point of our further discussion.

Academic Degrees Abroad

A degree is an academic qualification awarded on completion of a higher education course (a first degree, usually known as Bachelor's degree) or a piece of research (a higher/further degree, doctorate and so on). There exists considerable diversity of degrees in various countries. But in spite of the lack of equivalence of degrees some similarities can be found among certain groups of countries, particularly those of the British Commonwealth, continental Europe, America and the Far East.

One can distinguish the principal types of academic degrees – bachelor, master, and doctor which represent different levels of academic achievements. The naming of degrees eventually became linked with the subject studied, arts is used for the humanities, science – for natural and exact sciences.

The Bachelor's Degree is the oldest and best known academic degree. Some varieties of bachelor's, or baccalaureate, degrees are Bachelor of Arts (BA) degree and Bachelor of Science (BSc). Abbreviations vary between institutions. Other baccalaureate degrees offered by most universities are Bachelor of Education, Bachelor of Music, Bachelor of Business Administration,

Bachelor of Divinity, Bachelor of Home Economics.

The Bachelor's degree can be attained by students who pass their university examinations, or in some cases other examinations of equivalent level. This normally involves at least three years of full-time study after passing the advanced level certificate of education at the age of about eighteen, so most people who become BA, BSc, etc. do so at the age of at least twenty-one. First degrees in medicine require six years of study, some others four.

It is now quite usual for students in subject such as engineering to spend periods during their degree courses away from their academic studies, in industrial location so that they may get practical experience. A student of a foreign language normally spends a year in a country where that language is spoken. Bachelors' degrees are usually awarded on the basis of answers to several three-hour examinations together with practical work or long essays or dissertations written in conjunction with class work. Degrees are classified. About a tenth (or less) of candidates win first-class, honours degrees, three quarters - second-class, and the rest - third class, or pass without fail. A person studying for a degree at a British university is called an *undergraduate*.

About 33 per cent of students continue to study for *degrees of Master* (of Arts, Science, Education, Business Administration, Music, Fine Arts, Philosophy, etc.). About 45 varieties of Master of Arts and 40 varieties of Master of Science degrees are reported. The degree of Master in general requires one or two further years of study, with examination papers and substantial dissertation. Bachelors' and Masters' degree can be conferred "with honours" in various classes and divisions, or "with distinction". This is indicated by the abbreviation "(Hons)" and is often a prerequisite for progression to a higher level of study.

A minority (about 15 per cent) goes on further, preparing theses which must make original contributions to knowledge, for the most advanced degree of **Doctor of Philosophy (Phd) or Doctor of Science (DSc)**. Abbreviations for degrees can place the level either before or after the faculty or discipline depending on the institution. For example, DSc and ScD both stand for the doctorate of science.

Doctor's degrees in many foreign countries are of two distinct types: **professional or practitioner's degrees, and research degrees.**

The former represent advanced training for the practice of various professions, chiefly in medicine and law. The principal ones are Doctor of Sc. Medicine, Doctor of Dental Science of Dental Surgery, Doctor of Veterinary Medicine, Doctor of Pharmacy, and Doctor of Jurisprudence. These degrees carry on implication of advanced research.

Quite different in character are the research doctorates which represent prolonged periods of advanced study, usually at least three years beyond the bac-

calaureate, accompanied by a dissertation designed to be a substantial contribution to the advancement of knowledge. The most important of these is the Doctor of Philosophy, which represents advanced research in any major field of knowledge.

Second in importance and much more recent as a research degree is the Doctor of Sc. Education (Ed.D.) It was first awarded by Harvard in 1920, but was preceded by the equivalent Doctor of Pedagogy first conferred by New York University in 1891. The only other earned doctorates of the research type currently conferred by 10 or more institutions are the Doctor of the Science of Law and the Doctor of Business Administration.

Since there is no full equivalence in foreign and native academic degrees system, draw an approximate parallels and compare them.

It may be of some interest for you to acquaint yourself with the curriculum and post-graduate training programs in other countries. Read the text carefully and find some differences and similarities in the postgraduate course in the United Kingdom and that of our country.

Postgraduate Training Programs

All further education which comes after baccalaureate can be regarded as postgraduate education. It presupposes carrying a lot of research work, acquiring knowledge of new methodologies and new trends. It may lead to either a Master's degree (a three-year program of study) or PhD (usually a two-year course of study).

Postgraduate programmes are either research degrees or taught courses. Taught courses last one or more years and are either designed so that you deepen your knowledge gained from your first degree or for you to convert you expertise to another field of study. Examples of these include changing to law to become a solicitor and training to become a teacher.

Degrees by instruction are very similar to undergraduate courses in that most of the time is devoted to attending lectures. This may take up the first eight or nine months of the course and is followed by written examinations. A period of research lasting from two or three months usually follows and the results of it are presented in the form of a thesis. Finally, an oral examination is held, lasting perhaps an hour or two, to test the knowledge accumulated throughout the year. Most programmes, which involve classes and seminars lead up to a dissertation.

Research course is quite a different type of study from a taught course. First of all it lasts longer, for about three years providing Master's or doctorate qualifications. They allow you to conduct investigations into your own topic of choice and are of use in jobs where there are high levels of research and development.

The most well-known research qualification is the Doctor of Philosophy (PhD, a three-year study programme). There is a shorter version called a Master of Philosophy (MPh) which takes the minimum amount of time of two years. Both of these qualifications require the students to carry out a piece of innovative research in a particular area of study. Also possible is the research based on Master of Science (MSc.) and Master of Arts (MA) degrees. A recent development is the Master of Research (MRes), which provides a blend of research and taught courses in research methods and may be taken as a precursor to a PhD.

It is a common practice for students to be registered initially for the MPhil and to be considered for transfer to the PhD after the first year of study, subject to satisfactory progress and to a review of the proposed research. All research degree programmes involve an element of research training designed to ensure that students are equipped with the necessary skills and methodological knowledge to undertake original research in their chosen field of study. The training programme includes the development of generic skills relevant to the degree programme and a future career. Although the training element is not a formal part of the assessment for the degree, it constitutes an important basis for research and may take up a significant part of the first year.

The start of a research degree involves a very extensive survey of all previous works undertaken in that area. At the same time, if a student is planning to carry out any practical experimentations, the necessary equipment must be obtained.

This preliminary part of the study can take up to six months, but it is important to note that the process of keeping up to date with other work going on in the subject must continue throughout the entire period of the research.

The next stage of a research course usually involves collecting information in some way. This might be through experimentation, in the case of arts, social sciences or humanities degree. The important thing is that something new must be found.

This second part of the procedure takes about two years in the case of a PhD. The research is written up in the form of a thesis during the final six months of the three-year period. Typically, this will contain an introduction, methodology, results and discussion. As in the case with taught degrees, the research must then be examined orally. Occasionally, if the examiners are not completely happy with the work they may ask the candidate to rewrite parts of the thesis. Hopefully, a good supervisor will make sure this does not happen!

What qualities does research demand from postgraduate students, those young people who make up their minds to devote themselves to scientific research? Some of these qualities are mentioned in the text below. Think of the other ones, for example, you may enjoy solving problems, you may have creative abilities or things like that. Are you patient enough, industrious and hard-working for this kind of activity?

Different types of study require similar qualities from the people who undertake them. Both demand an inquisitive mind that will maintain the motivation to learn and discover new information.

They also both demand a high level of intellectual ability in order to cope with the pressures of understanding the possible complex arguments, facts or theories. Both require a high degree of organizational ability and time management, as so many different things need to be attended to.

*Why undertake postgraduate study?
There are various reasons for choosing postgraduate study but some reasons are more positive than others. Look through the texts below and get ready to discuss different motivating reasons to do a higher degree.*

Tom Brown:

I Really Enjoy My Subject

This is a highly motivating reason to do a higher degree. It's worth considering the long-term implications of your choice. Does your choice of course fit in with your long-term career plans? That does not mean that you should only consider postgraduate programmes related to your area of work interest. All further study programmes will enable you to develop skills that you could market to an employer.

Emily Wright:

I Need It to Pursue My Chosen Career

This is an obvious positive reason for undertaking further study. Some career areas do require a professional qualification, for example law, teaching, social work, librarianship or clinical psychology. For other employment areas a postgraduate qualification, although not essential, will provide a distinct advantage to applicants, particularly when competition for places is fierce. In any case it will make you stand out from the crowd and get you a better job. Research the area of work that interests you to identify whether a postgraduate course would be necessary or advantageous to you.

Martin Scott:

I Don't Know What to Do – This Will Give Me More Time to Decide

Past experience suggests undertaking a further year or more of study is unlikely to lead to careers inspiration! If you choose a course for this reason, it is important to use the duration of the course to decide what options are open to you, what skills you have to offer, what you want out of a job or may be jobs, what jobs would suit you in general.

Apart from the above reasons you may have some others worth mentioning. Put them down in the order of preference in writing.

There can be less optimistic opinions about taking postgraduate or doctorate courses. Some people consider post-graduate study and doctorate a mere waste of time and effort. Express your opinion on the problem. If you disagree with something, debate and give your arguments.

Pamela Bain

The idea of original research can conjure up thoughts of constant intellectual excitement and cries of 'eureka!' The reality may be rather different. Studying for a research degree is very different to studying for an undergraduate degree. Consider carefully whether or not you would enjoy the basic research techniques you are going to use. Can you imagine counting black dots down a microscope for weeks on end? OK spending a year, or two, building equipment before generating a single result? Will you be happy working alone in a library for days on end? The breakthrough, when it happens, can be euphoric, but when results refuse to come it can be deeply disappointing.

Tom Sight

Doctorates don't count for much outside academia – and in fact they may count against you. If you can't find a directly relevant area for subsequent professional work, then many employers are likely to look at you, a 25-30 year old person with three-six years of post-graduate work as being a strange and slightly worrying employment prospect – they're going to be too smart for their own good. Another thing you won't be told is how many people don't complete their doctorates. I've heard various figures mentioned, but I believe that around 50% of people who start doctorates don't get a PhD out of it. An enormous proportion of people simply never finish the things because it's not quite what they were expecting when they started.

Research the area of work you wish to enter to identify how potential employers would view applicants with postgraduate qualifications. What new experience and knowledge would you gain from the post-graduate course of study?

What is your motivation for taking a post-graduate course? Is it only because of helps for future career making? Sum up all pros and cons and make a presentation in class. The text below provides you with extensive information to think about and to help you find the right answer.

Career Prospects for Post-Graduates

Just getting a university degree isn't enough nowadays. Employers are increasingly looking for graduates who can hit the ground running. Post-graduate courses are monitored to match the needs of employers and make you "work ready". Each degree has been developed in response to current market demands for specific skills. Employers look for graduates who can demonstrate both breadth and depth of subject knowledge. Combining subjects in a degree programme is a popular way of tailoring a course to reflect your career aspirations. Work experience plays a key role in making yourself employable. Some of the benefits are: the chance to put theory into practice; development of key skills; greater understanding of career choices; valuable career contacts for the future. Business is increasingly dependent on international trade, and employment opportunities demand well developed language skills. The course of foreign language will provide a broad range of language training opportunities for all students whatever course they are taking. To find the right career for you, you need to think about the occupations and jobs available – the skills, qualifications, experience and aptitudes you need and whether they are right for you. A postgraduate qualification from the BSU will be one that is recognized globally and will provide an excellent route to better career prospects. Major companies say they would rather employ students from the BSU. The University's graduates benefit from our tradition of strong ties with business and industry.

We can say that our courses were more vocational, with students developing better jurisprudence, teamwork and communication skills.

The BSU's high quality facilities and teaching and its interdisciplinary approach to research will enable you to make the most of research and learning opportunities available whilst studying for your scientific degree. It provides exceptional opportunities for research with commercial applications, drawing upon decades of working relationships with business and industry. All stu-

dents here receive “appropriate and relevant preparation, training and support for their development, helping them both to complete a high-quality doctoral thesis and to develop a range of knowledge, understanding and skills necessary for their future employment”.

There are undoubtedly scenarios in which a generic or interdisciplinary approach would yield interesting results: for example, one could imagine how networking, team working, and some communication skills could be enhanced through contact with others outside one’s subject area. Such elements of training must, however, be carefully handled, because the current crop of PhD students are surely busier than their predecessors, and are being required to professionalize earlier. Not only are they working to finish their dissertations within the three-year period of their awards; but also often teaching, attending conferences, making research trips, attending meetings, and engaging in other activities entirely appropriate to their stage of career.

It is clear that development of communication skills and participation in a research seminar are linked to an important professional activity: going to a conference and speaking about one’s work. Students are explicitly prepared for this experience in a special session on ‘conference culture’, in which they are given pointers about how to propose and present a paper, and are taught the conventions of an oral text. They are encouraged to use the conference as a way of raising their individual profiles, and as a springboard for future publications. The delicate issue of networking is also addressed. The session is also an appropriate opportunity to plant in their minds the idea of running a conference themselves, thus further enhancing their organizational skills. Conference activity forms an important part of the career of any academic; for postgraduates it is an important way of participating in academic debate, and ‘showcasing’ their own work.

By the end of the second year of the program it can be seen together: the postgraduates are taught to make practical progress in the number of key areas of academic endeavor, with a view to having a significant body of experience by the time they complete their degrees. Introducing this information in the second year also helps to focus students’ minds on the key question of whether or not these postgraduates pursue academic careers, they will almost certainly be required to undergo an interview in order to obtain gainful employment.

It is therefore crucial to present them with opportunities to hone their skills in this area. By this stage of the programme they will have had experience of delivering their material in a public forum, and will have made an attempt to develop their presentation skills; they should also have had other opportunities to defend their ideas, making a substantial, original contribution to knowledge in a specific area.

SECTION III

ATTENDING A CONFERENCE

FOCUS VOCABULARY

conference – конференция

to hold a ~ – проводить конференцию

to organize ~ – организовать конференцию

to host ~ – быть принимающей стороной (устроителем) конференции

to sponsor ~ – спонсировать конференцию

annual ~ – ежегодная конференция

regular ~ – очередная конференция

forthcoming ~ – предстоящая конференция

to take part (participate) in ~ – принимать участие в конференции

participant – участник

to run under auspices – проходить под эгидой (при содействии)

organizing committee – организационный комитет

to set up an ~ – учредить организационный комитет

preliminary announcement – информационное письмо

paper(s) – научная работа(ы), доклад(ы)

contributed ~ – доклады по инициативе участников

invited ~ – доклады по приглашению

poster ~ – стендовые доклады

review ~ – обзорные доклады

abstract (s) of the ~ – тезисы доклада

~style guidelines – требования к оформлению тезисов

agenda – повестка дня

tentative / provisional ~ – предварительная повестка дня

on the ~ – на повестке дня

~ items – пункты повестки

letter/notification of acceptance or rejection – уведомление о принятии (доклада) или отказа

registration – регистрация участников конференции

~ fee – взнос участника

location and hours of – время и место регистрации

conference proceedings – сборник трудов конференции

opening/welcoming address – вступительное слово
working language – рабочий язык
speaker – докладчик
to deliver/present a report – выступить с докладом
simultaneous translation – синхронный перевод
to take the floor – выступить, взять слово
plenary session – пленарное заседание
workshops – секционные заседания/мастерская/семинар
discussion – обсуждение
 panel ~s – обсуждение докладов специалистами
 round-table ~ – обсуждение за «круглым столом»
 issue/problem under ~ – обсуждаемая проблема
to exchange opinions (on) – обменяться мнениями
to talk shop – говорить на профессиональные темы
reasoning – ход мыслей суждения
social program(me) – культурная программа
to arrange a visit – организовать визит
to fix the date – установить дату
to close a conference – закрыть работу конференции
final sitting/session – заключительное заседание
closing speech – заключительное слово

As you know, before a conference the so-called “Preliminary Announcement” is sent to all the establishments concerned. Here is one of them.

The International Management and Technology Conference will be held at the Doubletree at the entrance to University Studios, Orlando, Florida, USA, on December 8 – 10, 2004.

This conference will focus on all the major areas of business, management and technology. Submitted papers will be peer-reviewed and carefully evaluated based on originality, technical soundness, significance and clarity of thought. Papers should not exceed 10 pages in length (letter size, 11 point type). A style guide can be found [here](#).

Paper submission:

E-mail your abstract or paper to us at editors@triof.org. Please remove the names of all authors and institutions from the paper but include them separately in the same e-mail. Papers should be submitted in RTF, Microsoft Word or Word Perfect Format. We will e-mail you with a notification of acceptance or rejection within three weeks. If your manuscript is accepted, you will receive a letter of acceptance, registration form, and paper style guidelines by regular mail. If you wish to attend without submitting a paper only a registration form will be needed or you may register **online** [here](#).

Authors will have approximately 20 minutes to present their papers. Registration at the conference will entitle the participant to admission to all presentations and workshops, and

to receive a copy of the conference program and CD proceedings. **The conference fee is per person and must be received by October 30, 2004 to assure conference participation.** If your conference fee will be late please contact us in advance so we can make suitable arrangements. **To register online click [here](#).**

All selected papers will be published in the conference proceedings and best papers presented will be eligible for inclusion in either the *Management & Business Review* or the *Journal of the Internet and Information Technology*.

Please direct all correspondence to the attention of:

The editors

IMT Conference

PO Box 973073

Miami, FL 33197

Tel (305)971-2312

Fax (305)971-8517

E-mail: editors@triof.org

Dr. Chris Rose. – Conference Chair

In case of permanent contacts between scientists they exchange business correspondence and can send letters of invitation to each other.

September 20, 2005

On behalf of our Organizing Committee I have the pleasure of inviting you to attend and possibly present your paper at the International Conference on Sustainable Development which is to be held in London on November 12-15, 2005. We are sure that your participation will contribute much to the success of the Conference.

If you intend to submit a paper (an abstract of not more than 200 words), we should like to have it not later than November 4. Enclosed you will find requirements to abstracts. We will have published Conference proceedings volume by the end of this year. No conference fee is required for invited speakers. The cost of food and accommodation will also be borne by the host University. But much to our regret the Conference budget does not permit us to cover your travel expenses.

We are looking forward to your participation in the conference and would like to have a definite answer by the above-mentioned deadline. You will find Registration Form enclosed with the letter. Should the proposed dates be inconvenient for you inform us of possible changes.

Yours faithfully,
Prof. William Adams

Try to translate the letter sent out by the BSU Research Department to all the establishments concerned announcing the forthcoming conference:

БЕЛОРУССКИЙ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ

Информационное письмо
о проведении
Республиканской научно-методической конференции

**«ИНФОРМАЦИОННО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКОЕ ОБЕСПЕЧЕНИЕ КОНТРОЛИРУЕМОЙ САМОСТОЯТЕЛЬНОЙ РАБОТЫ
СТУДЕНТОВ УНИВЕРСИТЕТА»**

Оргкомитет приглашает Вас принять участие в работе Республиканской научно-методической конференции, которая состоится **20-21 октября 2005 г.** на базе Белорусского государственного университета.

ОРГАНИЗАЦИОННЫЙ КОМИТЕТ КОНФЕРЕНЦИИ

Председатель: Иванов В. В., первый проректор БГУ.

Заместители председателя: Петров С. В., проректор БГУ, декан факультета прикладной математики.

Координатор: Сергеев П. И., начальник отдела социально-педагогического проектирования БГУ.

Ответственный секретарь: Орлов Д. А., методист высшей категории БГУ.

ПРОБЛЕМНО-ТЕМАТИЧЕСКОЕ ПОЛЕ КОНФЕРЕНЦИИ

- Информационные технологии в контроле и оценке результатов обучения студентов.
- Место и роль информационных технологий в обеспечении контролируемой и/или управляемой самостоятельной работы студентов (КСРС и УСРС) университета.
- КСР в учебном процессе университет: место, функция, виды.
- Развивающий и обучающе-тренинговый потенциал выполнения студентом самостоятельной учебной деятельности.

ТРЕБОВАНИЯ К ОФОРМЛЕНИЮ МАТЕРИАЛОВ

По результатам конференции будет издан сборник материалов.

Подаваемые материалы должны отвечать следующим требованиям:

1. Объем материала – 3 стр.
2. Шрифт – Times New Roman; размер – 12.
3. Интервал – одинарный.
4. Поля – по 2 см. с каждой стороны.

Материалы для публикации вместе с заявкой на участие в конференции предоставляются в электронном и обязательно в печатном виде до 26 сентября 2005 года.

Оргкомитет конференции оставляет за собой право отклонять материалы, не соответствующие целям и задачам конференции.

Все расходы на участие в конференции несут командирующие организации.
Прием заявок и материалов (в печатном и электронном виде) осуществляется:
по почте на адрес: ЦПРО БГУ, пр. Ф. Скорины, 4, 22050, г. Минск; и на E-mail:
edc@bsu.by с пометкой «Конф Информатизация КСРС».

По всем вопросам, связанным с участием в конференции, ее программой и т.д. можно обращаться к координатору конференции Сергею Петру Ивановичу (к. 726).

Телефон для контактов: 209 59 65.

Заявка на участие
в Республиканской научно-методической конференции
«Информационно-методическое обеспечение контролируемой самостоятельной
работы студентов университета»

1. Информация об участнике.
Фамилия, имя, отчество
Вуз
Факультет
Кафедра
Должность, ученое звание, ученая степень
Телефон (с кодом)
Персональный адрес электронной почты (E-mail)
Почтовый адрес для контактов (с индексом):
2. Форма участия. Отметьте, пожалуйста, форму Вашего участия в конференции.
Выступление с докладом;
Проведение педагогической мастерской с презентацией и обсуждением опыта работы по теме конференции;
Презентация образовательного электронного пособия; учебника.
Презентация учебно-методического пособия по теме конференции.
3. Тема доклада, название педагогической мастерской, презентации.
4. Забронировать ли Вам место в гостинице. Да Нет

Заявку и материалы для публикации в электронном и печатном виде необходимо отправить до 26 сентября 2005 г. по адресу:

Центр проблем развития образования БГУ, пр. Ф. Скорины, 4, 220050, г. Минск

и по E-mail: edc@bsu.by

Справки по тел.: +017 209 59 65.

Being a conference attendee you are sure to fill in a registration form like that:

Conference Registration Form
(Please complete and e-mail or print & mail with check)

First Name:	Last name:	
Institution:		
Email:		
Address:		
City:	State:	Zip code:
Country:	Tel.:	Fax:

Preferred day and time for presentation: (Please circle):		
Wed. Dec 8.	am pm	Thur. Dec. 9. am pm Fri. Dec 10 am pm

Now think of the English version of a possible conference questionnaire; some points have been done for you.

имя/фамилия – ...
дата рождения – ...
гражданство – ...
образование – ...
место работы – ...
занимаемая должность – position held
ученое звание – title

АНКЕТА УЧАСТНИКА

международной конференции студентов и аспирантов
**«АКТУАЛЬНЫЕ ПРОБЛЕМЫ ПРАВОВЕДЕНИЯ:
ИСТОРИЯ И СОВРЕМЕННОСТЬ»**,
посвященной 80-летию юридического факультета БГУ
(18–19 октября 2005 г., г. Минск)

1. Фамилия:
2. Имя:
3. Отчество:
4. Название тезисов:
5. В работе какой секции желаете принять участие:
6. Наименование вуза:

7. Факультет (с указанием почтового адреса, телефона и факса):
8. Сведения об участнике: Студент _____ курса Магистрант _____ года обучения Аспирант _____ года обучения
9. Домашний адрес (почтовый адрес, телефон, факс, e-mail):
10. Информация о научном руководителе:
11. Необходимость бронирования студенческого общежития (да/нет):
12. Сроки проживания:

One of the participants recorded the conference work. Here is a script of the opening address of the conference Chairman.

Ladies and Gentlemen,

I've been privileged to declare the conference open. On behalf of the Organizing Committee and in my own name I welcome the guests and the participants of the conference. I believe at this assembly you will be provided with an ample opportunity to exchange opinions and discuss scientific and organizational issues of mutual interest.

My pleasant duty as a Chairman is to introduce to you our honorable guest Professor Flowers from Kingston University, England.

Now let me remind you of the conference agenda and explain briefly the work to be done. I ask those taking the floor to keep to the point, to avoid digression. The working language of the Conference is English, simultaneous translation into Russian has been arranged for users of the Russian language.

I wish you every success.

While taking part in the discussion the participants are supposed to make use of the following colloquial phrases:

I should (would) like to ask you...

I should (would) like to ask you a question...; I am going to ask you a question...

I have a question...

I have a question and a comment (a remark) to make.
I should (would) like to know...
I should (would) point out (emphasize) that ...
I think (suppose, presume) that ...
I believe that...
I must say that...
I have (every good) reason to believe that...
Do you consider that...
What is your opinion on..?
In my opinion...; as to me...; as for me...; to my mind...
What in your opinion is the reason for..?
I hold (am of) the same opinion.
I could comment on the question.
Would you tell us how...
That's right; exactly; quite so; quite right; quite true
If I understand you correctly...
If I am not mistaken...
Do I understand you correctly that..?
Do you agree to that?
I (quite, fully, entirely) agree with you; I think so, too.
I don't think so; I don't agree; I disagree.
I can't (very well) agree with you.
I can't but agree with you.
Do you agree to that ..?
I'm afraid, you are wrong there.
I doubt that...
It's unlikely that...
I'm (particularly) interested in this problem.
I wonder why...
The speakers are invited (welcome) to be brief (I invite the speakers to be brief).
Will you allow me to take the floor, please.
Could you clarify your point of view?
as a matter of fact
taking into consideration...

Below you will find the text contributed by one of the former postgraduates who wanted to share his experience in attending a conference:

You know, any scientific conference is an important event in the researcher's life, especially in post-graduate student's activity. It provides an opportunity for exchanging opinions with more experienced colleagues and gives impetus to valuable discussions.

I've taken part in several conferences, both as an organizer and as a participant. But now I'd like to dwell upon my first experience in attending an international conference of young researchers held under the auspices of the BSU. The initiative to convene the conference belonged to the University Academic Council. Thus, an organizing committee was formed which sent the so-called "Preliminary Announcement" to all the establishments concerned with the view of supplying potential participants with general information about the conference. From the announcement I learnt such important things as the main programme of the conference, orders of plenary sessions, rules for scientific contributions, requirements to submitted abstracts, information about registration fees, hotel reservations, etc. It was very important for me as a post-graduate student that the abstract would be published in Conference Proceedings.

I immediately filled in the preliminary application form and mailed it without delay. After that I was to submit a short abstract of my paper (one printed page) before the deadline.

Finally, my abstract was accepted and I started preparing my report.

I will never forget the first conference day. The conference started at 9 a. m. with the registration of attendees. Before the plenary session I had some time to get acquainted with other participants, to look through the latest information, to buy some booklets about the conference work. I was particularly interested in the workshop on criminalistics, since it is my specific field. There were more than twenty scientific contributions to our workshop, all of them being on topical problems of criminalistics and applied sciences. According to the workshop schedule I was the last to speak. All the reports were followed by discussions, mine wasn't an exception. I was asked several questions and did my best to answer all of them. I spoke without even looking into my notes and tried to make my reasoning very clear.

I also attended a poster session and found it of particular interest because I managed to study numerous texts of the papers supplied with diagrams, drawings, schemes and photographs.

The final session with review papers was truly rewarding for it summarized all that had been going on not only at the conference but also in the field of law for the past twelve months.

In conclusion, I'd like to say that I liked a specific atmosphere of the conference characteristic of any scientific meeting: groups of delegates discussing

something, the sight of prominent scholars surrounded by their followers, talks, smiles, greetings, exchange of opinions.

Check the knowledge of the topical vocabulary identifying English equivalents for the following Russian ones:

получить приглашение
участвовать в конференции
поделиться опытом
под эгидой
быть организатором конференции
заинтересованные учреждения
информационное письмо
пленарное заседание
секционная работа
рабочий язык конференции
организационный взнос
тезисы доклада
сделать сообщение
обсуждение за «круглым столом»
стендовые доклады
культурная программа
подводить итоги работы конференции
заключительная речь

Translate the sentences from Russian into English and try to use them while speaking about your personal experience in attending a conference.

1. Международная научно-практическая конференция по правовому обеспечению создания свободных экономических зон пройдет в Белорусском государственном экономическом университете в мае 2006 г.
2. Принимающей стороной конференции выступит БГЭУ.
3. Организационный комитет уже разослал информационное письмо всем заинтересованным учреждениям.
4. Информационное письмо содержит сведения о примерной программе конференции, дате и месте проведения, требованиях, предъявляемых к оформлению тезисов, условиях оплаты расходов на проезд и проживание.

5. Как правило, принимающая сторона предоставляет участникам конференции жилье по минимально возможной цене, но не покрывает расходы на проезд.
6. По окончании работы конференции печатаются тезисы докладов.
7. На пленарное заседание выносятся наиболее значимые доклады приглашенных участников, присланные сообщения заслушиваются на секциях. За докладами следуют прения, вопросы.
8. Докладчику необходимо придерживаться регламента, поскольку на доклад предоставляется не более десяти минут.
9. Сегодня большой популярностью пользуются так называемые стендовые доклады.
10. Любая конференция предоставляет возможность обмениваться мнениями по актуальным научным проблемам, доложить о полученных результатах.
11. Молодому ученому очень полезно участвовать в обсуждениях научных проблем за «круглым столом», высказывать свою точку зрения, поддерживать либо выступать в роли оппонента выступающего.
12. Участникам конференции предлагается разнообразная культурная программа: организуются встречи, экскурсии, посещения достопримечательностей города.
13. По окончании работы конференции проходит заключительное заседание, где с заключительной речью выступает председательствующий, и подводятся итоги работы.

Speak on the latest conference you've attended according to the given plan:

- preliminary announcement;
- the conference status;
- who hosted the conference;
- who sponsored the conference;
- when was the conference held;
- number of participants;
- registration fee;
- accommodation provided;
- problem field of the conference;
- conference agenda;
- ways of presenting one's ...;
- plenary session; workshops;
- conference proceedings.

Exchange opinions with your fellow-students on the following issues:

- role of the conferences in young researchers' lives;
- function of an organizing committee;
- requirements to submitted abstracts and papers;
- your personal experience in attending conferences;
- your first report delivered at a conference.

SECTION IV

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION AND RESEARCH VISITS

As international contacts become an integral part of modern life there are growing possibilities to take part in various exchange programmes, pay research visits. Every researcher is interested in the achievements of his colleagues abroad. A study visit provides an excellent opportunity to get acquainted with foreign experience in one's special field. International scientific cooperation is the key trend in the development of modern world science.

From the present section you will learn about requirements to a research visitor, documents to be submitted, anticipated visit outcomes, follow-up activities.

FOCUS VOCABULARY

- study/research visit** – научная стажировка
research project – научно-исследовательский проект
to do research on the exchange program(me) – стажироваться по программе обмена
application – заявка на участие
applicant – претендент
deadline/closing date – конечный срок (подачи документов)
a three-months visit – трехмесячная стажировка
to fund the program(me) – финансировать программу
to bear/cover expenses – оплачивать расходы
to provide accommodation – предоставлять жилье
to stay at a hotel/hall of residence – останавливаться в отеле (гостинице)
staff – сотрудники
 experienced ~ – опытные сотрудники
 to be introduced to the ~ – быть представленным коллективу
to be shown round – показать (провести по)
to arrange a visit – организовать посещение
identical approach – идентичный подход
collaboration – совместная работа

to be (of) mutual interest – представлять взаимный интерес
related fields – сходная проблематика
to be given a free hand (in the research) – предоставить полную свободу действий
to maintain permanent contacts – поддерживать постоянный контакт
to conduct joint experiments – проводить совместные эксперименты
to have a very busy time – быть очень занятым
to be absorbed in work – быть поглощенным работой
to get the material ready for publication – подготовить материалы к опубликованию
to work against time – работать не покладая рук
farewell party – прощальная вечеринка
to speak in flattering terms – лестно отозваться
to express deep gratitude (to) – выразить глубокую признательность
report on a research visit – отчет о стажировке
resume – резюме; *амер.* краткая автобиография поступающего на работу
curriculum vitae (C.V.) – краткая автобиография

One can find advertisements about Exchange Programmes, Research Visits in the Internet, in newspapers; relevant information can also be provided by Research Departments of the establishments concerned. Study some of such ads and comment on them.

1. Edinburgh BITs May 2005: HPC research opportunities

EC-funded research visit opportunities in computational science

Call for applications: next closing date 31st May 2005

HPC-Europa, a consortium of 11 leading European centres, is calling for applications from researchers working in Europe to visit one of more than 200 research institutes associated with the Transnational Access programme. Visitors will use HPC-Europa's High Performance Computing (HPC) facilities to advance their research, while collaborating with scientific researchers from an appropriate local research institute.

The programme is fully funded by the EC's Structuring the European Research Area programme, and offers:

- access to some of the most powerful HPC facilities in Europe;
- HPC consultancy from experienced staff;
- opportunities to collaborate with scientists working in related fields at a local research institute;
- travel costs, subsistence expenses and accommodation.

The selection panel approves applications on the basis of scientific merit. For this reason, applicants are encouraged, where possible, to identify a suitable researcher with whom to collaborate before applying, as this often increases the chances of the application being approved.

HPC-Europa is funded until the end of 2007. Selection meetings are held four times per year, and applications must be received by 31st May 2005 for the selection meeting in June. Successful applicants will visit for between three and 13 weeks, starting during the period from July to December 2005.

Further information and the online application form are available at <http://www.hpc-europa.org>

2. President Fund Grants

Short Research Visits

- Larger awards of up to £2,000 are available for making short research visits of up to two months duration. The host institution may be overseas, or in the applicant's country of residence.
- All applicants must be paid up members of the SGM of at least 3 calendar months standing before the date of their application for a grant.
- All applicants must be resident and registered for a PhD, or in a first postdoctoral position, in a country in the European Union,
- All applicants who are funded by a research council or other funding body that regularly supports conference attendance or activities connected with the applicant's work must submit evidence that they have applied for sponsorship from that body. Salaried applicants must submit evidence of their annual income (net, after tax).
- Only one application for a research visit grant may be made awarded from the President's Fund during the term of a postgraduate studentship or first postdoctoral position.
- Retrospective applications will not be considered.
- Applicants must submit evidence of acceptance by the host institution e.g. a copy of the letter of invitation from a senior member of the staff, with their completed application form.
- Applications for research visit grants will be considered twice yearly by an award panel. Closing dates for applications: **14 October 2005**.
- **Two** copies of the completed application form and all supplementary documentation must be submitted for consideration.

The BSU maintains close contacts with a wide range of universities abroad. German, Austrian, Polish, British, American universities encourage our students and post-graduates to participate in scientific exchanging programmes.

Once you have made up your mind to participate in a programme you should contact the office in charge of the documentation for further information and fill in the Application form like that.

UMEA UNIVERSITY SWEDEN International Summer University 2005 Applicationform - Fill in with blockletters		Please include a Photo of yourself	
* compulsory information			
Name*	Family name*	Date of birth* year*	month* Day*
Nationality*	e-mail*		
Current address (where we will send your letter of acceptance) Street* number*			
City*	Postcode*	Country*	
Please send the letter of acceptance to my work/university* [] Send the letter of acceptance by e-mail* [] Send it to my current address above* []			
Occupation*	If student, discipline*:		
Adress to my university/work*	University*		
Street*, number*	Department*		
City*	Postcode	Work e-mail*:	
I apply for the course*:			
If student, subjects and levels 2004/05*			
If student, number of years of studies in relevant disciplines*:		Total number of years of univ. studies*	
If accepted I will be applying for my Visa at the consulate/embassy of: (Swedish, Finnish, city)			
I hearby certify that all the information given above is correct. I have read, understood and accepted the general requirements			
_____ Signature		_____ date	

The application has been approved by /Dean or Rector)

Signature

Name

Official stamp of the University

Following supplementary documents should be included with the application:

- a short essay on the problem under research or resume;
- a certificate issued by the department of English, certifying that you have a good working knowledge of English;
- a Curriculum Vitae (C.V.)

An essay attached to the Application Form should describe who you are, why you are applying for this or that program, what your educational background is, what the anticipated results of the visit are, what your future plans are. Try to develop an essay of your own.

Now study Sample Resume and prepare your own one by analogy.

RESUME

SHAWN ROBERTS

42 Litton Avenue

Chicago, Illinois 60602

Telephone: (312)280-98-98

E-mail: srobrts@usanet.com

EDUCATION:

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS at URBANA/CHAMPAIGN

Master of Science in Policy Economics, May 1994.

GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY – Washington, DC

Bachelor of Arts in Political Science, May 1989

Graduated with honors.

Semester study abroad in Spain at the University of Madrid.

EXPERIENCE:

- July 1994 - Present** **EUROPEAN-AMERICAN COMMERCE ASSOCIATION**
 – Chicago, IL
 Economic Affairs Specialist
- Develop marketing and feasibility studies on European Union imports to U.S. markets.
 - Analyze economic trends among member states of European Union, and atmosphere for investment by American firms.
 - Supervise staff of five.
- July 1990 – August 1993** **EUROPEAN TRADE REVIEW** – Washington, DC
 Trade Analyst
- Wrote regular series on current issues affecting US-European Community (E. C.) trade.
 - Attended relevant congressional hearings and summarized proceedings for regular column on U.S.-E.C. trade regulation.
 - Conducted research and wrote occasional reports on E.C. member states' progress towards economic and monetary union.
- May 1989 – July 1990** **GEORGETOWN UNIVERSITY** – Washington, DC
 Department of Political Science, Research Assistant
- Researched political and economic implications of European Union.
 - Gathered data for research project on political instability and economic restricting in Latin America during the 1980s.
- HONORS:**
- University of Illinois Alumni Association Fellowship
 - Rotary International Scholarship
 - Phi Beta Kappa Honorary Society
- SKILLS:**
- Experienced with the following computer applications: MS Word, WordPerfect, Excel; PowerPoint, FoxPro, Netscape. Driving License.
- LANGUAGES:**
- Fluent in Spanish and English; Proficient in French; Elementary knowledge of German.
- INTERESTS:**
- Travel, Reading. Jazz, Tennis.
- PERSONAL:**
- Member, American Economics Association.
 - Volunteer, Habitat for Humanity.

A curriculum vitae (C.V.) is one's personal and working history. There are various layouts for a C.V. and this is just one example. Study it and then write your own C.V.

CURRICULUM VITAE (C.V.)

Curriculum vitae	
Date of Birth:	25 February 19
Name:	Carol Brice
Present address:	25, Westbound Road, Borehamwood, Herts, WD6 1DX
Telephone number:	081 953 9914 Single
Marital status:	married
Education and qualifications:	
1995-1997	Mayfield School, Henley Road, Borehamwood, Herts, WD6 1DX GCE in English Language; French; History; Geography; and Art.
2000-2002	Hilltop Further Education College, Kenwood Road, London NW7 3TM Diploma in Business Studies.
Work experience:	
Oct '02-Dec '03	Johnson Bros. Pic, 51-55 Baker Street, London W1A 1AA Type of Company: Retail Chain Stores Post: Junior Secretary Responsibilities: Secretarial work including typing; shorthand; correspondence; copying reports and minutes from shorthand notes; tabulating data; answering customers' calls; mail distribution; and general office duties.
Jan '05-present	National Auto Importers Ltd., Auto House, Sidmouth Street, London WC1H4GJ Type of Company: Car importers Post: Secretary to Assistant Director Responsibilities: Dealing with all correspondence; taking minutes at meetings and writing up Assistant Director's reports; receiving customers and suppliers; dealing with home and overseas enquiries; making decisions on behalf of A.D. in his absence; and representing the company at various business functions.
Other information:	While working I have attended various evening courses for Italian and French, and have also been on a special Information Technology course at The City College. My interests include tennis, badminton, swimming, and reading.
References:	Mr B. Norman, Assistant Director, National Auto Importers Ltd., Auto House, Sidmouth Street, London WC1H 4GJ. Mrs T.R. Bradley, Senior Lecturer; Business Studies Dept, Hilltop Further Education College, Kenwood Road, London NW7 3TM.
Current salary:	<u>£14.000 per annum</u>

If an applicant meets the requirements of the host university the selection panel will send you an official invitation.

KINGSTON
UNIVERSITY

British Embassy, Minsk
Consular Department

28th December 2004

Dear Sirs,

**Invitation to Kingston University in Relation to Participation in
Know-how Fund REAP Project Ref. BEL/395/41/0001**

As UK Coordinator of the above UK Know-how Fund Regional Academic Partnership project, I invite:

Olga Petrova,
Faculty of Law,
Belarus State University

to visit Kingston University within the period 21st February - 7th March 2005, and request the issue of a visa to cover that period. I confirm that all of Mrs Petrova travel expenses and the cost of one week of accommodation and subsistence will be met entirely from Know-how Fund REAP project funds.

I also request that the visa be issued free of charge.

In the event of any enquiries about this invitation please do not hesitate to contact me directly by FAX at Kingston University, or via the International Office oa BSU.

Thank you for your assistance with this matter,

Yours faithfully,

Dr Alan G. Flowers
UK Coordinator
REAP BEL/395/41/0001

Every applicant is expected to draft a tentative programme of the visit, may be like that:

Programme of Study Visit to Kingston University

1. Intended Visit Outputs

- 1.1. Increased awareness by academic teaching staff of BSU of the business education methodologies, and syllabus content, of business courses at Kingston University, with a focus on business courses for scientists.

- 1.2. New developments in business education teaching methodologies at BSU which will enhance graduate-skills appropriate for SME development in Belarus.
- 1.3. Increased availability teaching materials to students at BSU on modules related to Business law.

2. *Visit Objectives*

- 1.1. Observation of teaching methods in business education classes at KU, including the transferable skills considered important for UK students.
- 1.2. Identification of business education teaching materials, and development of a plan for further learning material purchases according to the REAP budget.
- 1.3. Discussions, with Kingston Staff, on current syllabus content in business education.
- 1.4. Develop programme for future Business Education Seminars.
- 1.5. Creation of personal action plans relation to input to business education at BSU. This to include a schedule of dates on which verifiable factors of progress will be provided to BSU International Office, for incorporation in REAP progress reports.

Study visits can be individual and those arranged as a partnership scheme.

Both partners must be fully involved in preparing the application form and send the completed application to the appropriate programme regional manager.

Pre-Project Application Form

<i>A proposed partnership between-</i>	
"EE/CA Institution.....	
.....	
Faculty/Dept.....	
Town.....	
Country:.....	
EE/CA Co-ordinator.....	(M/F).....
Contact Details.....	
Tel.....	Fax.....
E-mail.....	

and

UK institution.....

Faculty/Dept.....

UK Co-ordinator.....(M/F).....

Contact Details.....

Tel.....Fax.

E-mail.....

2.

Proposed Project Title:

.....

.....

Proposed start and finish date of activity...

Note: EE/CA – East European / Central Asian

If you intend to participate in a partnership scheme the pre-project or inception phase of the partnership is designed to enable the partners from various institutions to prepare a full partnership proposal that describes in detail what the partnership will achieve (the outputs) and the activities (the inputs) that will produce this. It is obligatory under partnership schemes for the partners to meet during the reception phase to draft and agree formally the full proposal. Partners who submit successful proposals on completion of the inception phase will receive funding to progress to the full partnership phase.

Description of the project

1. Describe in detail the area of need and therefore focus of the project.
2. Why does the need exist? Tell us about the local and national context of your project and what has to be done to bring about change.
3. How have you established the validity of this need, what evidence has been gathered to corroborate this?
4. Describe the purpose of the project, outlining the transformation that the project is designed to bring about within its target group.
5. Please elaborate your initial thoughts on how you will ensure that the materials/courses produced by the partnership will be adopted and disseminated.

Activity Plan

1. Outline the activities you wish to undertake with your partner institution during this pre-project phase. For each activity list who will do what, giving names and designations of those who will be responsible.
2. Elaborate (separately) on the sorts of areas you might go on to develop in a full partnership, for example the development of new course materials, development of teaching staff, seminars or workshops for the teaching staff of your institution, purchase of teaching materials for adaptation to your institution, etc.

As you have learned from the above, study visits can be arranged as individual and partnership scheme and there can be collaborative research as well. What are the core principles for the collaborative Research model?

The Collaborative Research Model is a flexible method for engaging student learning teams in research.

Strategies for Development and Implementation

How you'll set your project up depends on the particular factors of your course such as:

- course content;
- duration of the course;
- number of students;
- course learning outcomes;
- other crucial assignments and activities and their time allotted;
- developmental level and perceived prior experience of students.

A successful adaptation of the Collaborative Research Model for your course will depend on your careful planning to predict how those variables will interact with model features. Which features will work for your course? Which will need to be modified? For instance, you'll need to make decisions about:

- how to establish the problem for exploration (whether to use a single, common problem or an umbrella topic with related problems);
- how learning teams will be established and maintained;
- what deliverables best support your students' success—oral, written, or a combination of both;
- which features of Blackboard will be most useful in supporting the project;

- what kind of assessment process you will use and how you will prepare your students for it.

Further follows information supplied by a former post-graduate student who shares his experience in doing research at one of the British universities.

I did my research on the REAP scientific exchange programme. I arrived in Britain for a 3-month visit which took place in February. It was my first experience in the country. I couldn't help thinking of what my stay in Britain would be like and whether my knowledge of English would be sufficient.

At Gatwick airport I was met by Prof. Flowers, the programme's coordinator from Kingston University.

From Gatwick airport the car brought us to the very center of London where we had a very pleasant walk, then we drove to the hotel where I was to stay.

The next morning Mr. Flowers arranged for me a visit to the University. He introduced me to the staff of the Law School. I was shown round, visited the local library.

Mr. Flowers himself is an excellent man, a capable and competent researcher. We spent a lot of time discussing different problems of mutual interest.

Law School was not very large, but resourceful. I found our research topics almost identical, but we used different approaches. It was as if we were doing the same by different means. Though I was practically given a free hand in the research, I tried to maintain permanent contacts with the Law School staff.

I must say I had very busy time there. I was totally absorbed in my work. Time and efforts were necessary for writing, reports and articles getting the material ready for publication.

During the final weeks of my stay in England I worked against time trying to solve the remaining problems.

On the last day of my stay there my British colleagues gave a little farewell party for me. My supervisor made a speech. He spoke in a very flattering terms about our collaboration.

I was glad to hear about the prospects of a series of exchange visits between our two Universities.

At the end I expressed my deep gratitude to all the people who had worked with me for their valuable advice and assistance.

Notes:

REAP – Regional Academic Partnership Programme;

to have (to give) a free hand – иметь (предоставить) полную свободу действий;

to speak in flattering terms – лестно отзываться о ком-либо;

to work against time – стараться завершить работу к определенному сроку.

Check your knowledge of the useful vocabulary on the topic in question.

научная стажировка

программа обмена

достаточные знания

останавливаться в отеле

организовать посещение

представить коллегам

компетентный исследователь

работать в сотрудничестве (с)

проблемы, представляющие взаимный интерес

проводить совместные исследования

применить иной подход

предоставить полную свободу действий

быть поглощенным работой

тщательно анализировать

готовить материал к изданию

просматривать периодические издания

работать не покладая рук

прощальная вечеринка

лестно отозваться

выразить благодарность

Any research visit is finalized with a report on the visit's outcomes. Here is one of them taken from the Internet. You will see that Victor is not a native speaker of English and his language skills are not perfect. Try to notice mistakes in his report. Rewrite the sentences so as to avoid his mistakes. Write down words and expressions which can be used while writing analogous reports.

Report on the Research Visit of Victor Mitrana

In the SZTAKI, Centre of Excellence in Information Technology, Computer Science and Control, HUN-TING project, as a visiting professor.

The visit took place in the period September 1 - October 31, 2002. The visit was in pursuit of my research into automata systems. During this period,

the following activities have been accomplished: as a direct continuation of my previous cooperation with researchers from SZTAKI (I visited several times SZTAKI since 1996 and have several papers in collaboration with researchers from the Research Group on Modelling Multi-Agent Systems), this visit was mainly intended for working on developments in automata systems and networks of language processors, distributed and bio-inspired models of language.

Together with the Erzsebet Csuhaj-Varju and Gyorgy Vaszil from the aforementioned research group, we have already introduced and investigated systems of pushdown automata working in parallel and communicating by means of their pushdown memories. One goal of this stay was to define and study a system of pushdown automata whose working mode is very close to that of CD grammar systems.

Another related problem is to extend systems of automata to systems of transducers which are widely used in computational linguistics.

A joint research paper with Erzsebet Csuhaj-Varju and Gyorgy Vaszil about distributed pushdown automata systems has been written. This paper accomplished one item from the previously accepted workplan. The paper is in the submission stage. The results obtained in this direction suggest a further work in the aim of a better characterization of these systems.

Another joint research paper with Erzsebet Csuhaj-Varju has been started. An abstract of this work has been accepted for presentation in CLIN'02 (Computational Linguistics in the Netherlands 2002). The paper is in progress.

I also delivered a lecture with the title "Networks of Evolutionary Processors" in which I presented very recent results about the generative capacity and computational power of these devices.

Again, it seems that further joint works will emerge in the near future since we identified some new and interesting research directions in this area which suggest some hints for concrete technological implementation.

It is worth mentioning that I had the opportunity to discuss with other researchers who visited SZTAKI during my stay and I has already started some joint work with some of them.

In conclusion, I appreciate that my research stay was scientifically successful and socially pleasant for both parts.

November 1,2002

Prof. Dr. Victor Mitrana

Further you will find reports on research visits supplied by individual researchers in Russian. Study them and translate into English.

Отчет
о научной стажировке Саенко О.В.,
стипендиата программы TEMP115/TAC15
в Бизнес школу университета г. Лютон, Великобритания

Визит в Бизнес школу университета г. Лютон проходил в рамках проекта TEMP115/TAC13 «Академическая мобильность № 10723-99 с 23 сентября 2002 г. по 22 марта 2002 г. Работа проходила в соответствии с программой визита.

- 1) В целях совершенствования английского языка с 1 октября по 15 декабря 2001 г. посещала занятия со студентами-вечерниками (4 часа в неделю).
 - 2) Посещала лекции по маркетингу, менеджменту в соответствии с расписанием занятий студентов (не менее 4-6 часов в неделю).
 - 3) Занималась в библиотеке университета (не менее 15 часов в неделю):
 - изучила литературу по научной тематике;
 - составила библиографический список работ из каталога библиотеки.
 - 4) Работала в компьютерном зале университета, изучала Интернет-ресурсы по проблемам логистики.
 - 5) Подготовлены к опубликованию на русском и английском языках 2 статьи и 2 научных доклада на конференцию.
 - 6) Подготовлены и обрабатываются материалы для написания научной монографии по проблемам управления материальными запасами.
 - 7) В октябре 2001 г. вместе с коллегами - представителями российских вузов изучала организацию учебного процесса в университете (2 недели).
- На мой взгляд, эффективность научной стажировки повысилась бы при следующих условиях:
- закреплении научного консультанта университета за стажером;
 - выделении рабочего места стажеру.

25.03.2002г.

О.В. Саенко

Отчет
о научной стажировке в университете де Мино Рубановой В.В.

1. Коротко об Университете

- Обучается более 16 тыс. студентов по разным специальностям.
- Дислоцируется в трех регионах.

- Имеет богатую библиотеку с фондами научной. Методической, периодической, и электронной литературы на разных языках мира.
- В каждом институте университета имеется компьютерный класс со свободным выходом в Интернет.

2. Методика преподавания

- Поступают студенты после единого общегосударственного экзамена и на основе собеседования по профилирующим дисциплинам.
- Имеется государственный образовательный стандарт, с указанием дисциплин, обязательных для изучения.
- Студентам предлагаются дисциплины на выбор.
- По каждой дисциплине выдается комплект раздаточного материала.
- По многим дисциплинам разработан комплект итоговых тестов, которые являются основанием для успешной сдачи экзамена в целом по учебному курсу.
- Имеются разнообразные технические средства обучения.
- Для пересдачи студентам выделяется весь сентябрь (некоторые учатся 10 и более лет).
- Как таковой отсутствует институт отчисления студентов из Университета.

1. Научная работа

- 1.1. Собран материал для диссертационного исследования.
- 1.2. Подготовлена к печати монография "Место анализа прибыли в финансовом анализе" – объемом 8 п.л.
- 1.3. Участие в 2 научных конференциях.
- 1.4. Опубликованы 3 научные статьи:

2. Методическая работа

- 2.1. Подготовлено к печати учебное пособие «Экономический анализ: методика, хозяйственные ситуации, задания, тесты» – объемом 7 п.л.
- 2.2. Составлены 2 рабочие программы.
- 2.3. Ознакомилась с системой подготовки специалистов в Португалии в университет де Мино.
- 2.4. Посетила занятия преподавателей.

Валентина В. Рубанова

SECTION V

RESEARCH SUPERVISION

FOCUS VOCABULARY

supervision – руководство

research ~ – научное руководство

dual ~ – двойное руководство

supervisor – руководитель

research ~/adviser – научный руководитель

appropriate ~ – соответствующий руководитель

production of a thesis – написание диссертации

experienced (in) – имеющий опыт (в)

work closely – работать в тесном сотрудничестве

guide – направлять

offer advice and guidance – дать совет и направление

formulate one's research proposal – формулировать направление исследования

to define a programme of research/study – определить программу (область) исследования

research interests – научно-исследовательские интересы

throughout the period of study – во время всей учебы

to complete one's research – завершить исследование

responsibility – ответственность

retain the prime ~ – нести основную ответственность

to share ~ – разделить ответственность

completion of one's studies – завершение исследования

expert in the chosen area of research – специалист в избранной области исследования

to design work on the thesis – спланировать работу по диссертации

general research life – научно-исследовательская деятельность вообще

to be involved in research seminars, colloquia – принимать участие в научно-исследовательских семинарах, коллоквиумах

to gain success – добиться успеха

academic staff – преподавательский состав

expertise – специальные знания

to present one's thesis for examination – представить диссертацию на обсуждение

to be acquainted with – знать, быть знакомым с

procedures and regulations – процедура и правила (защиты диссертации)

a stimulating research environment – благоприятные условия для исследования

to provide training in research – обеспечить обучение в области научных исследований

to monitor progress – следить за прогрессом

to provide feedback – обеспечить обратную связь

to remain aware of the student's situation and needs – быть в курсе проблем аспиранта

approach – подход

innovative ~ – новаторский подход

holistic ~ – целостный подход

Any research conducted by a postgraduate student is supervised by a competent researcher with an advanced academic degree.

Dean of Guildford University speaks about supervision at his University. Compare it with what you have at BSU.

When you are offered a place on any of our research degrees, you carefully match you with an appropriate supervisor who will be experienced in the field of your research interests. Your supervisor(s) will help you in formulating your research proposal and give you assistance towards successful and timely completion of your studies. Many Schools will offer dual supervision or a supervisory panel. In addition, students working in most of the Schools in the Sciences and Life Sciences will be part of a research group. We believe that this provides the opportunity for you to gain access to wider expertise and support.

Your Supervisor is usually the most important academic person-resource in your postgraduate program. He is appointed from the School's academic staff. He is also your first point of contact for a range of questions, including professional development and administrative procedures.

The main activity is, of course, independent study and the production of a thesis based on it. As a research student, you will work closely with a supervisor who will guide and advise you throughout your period of study. The supervisor will also guide you in writing your thesis, but you retain the prime responsibility for your own work. Our University has approved policies on supervisory practice which set out how the responsibilities are shared between student and supervisor. In addition to your own independent study, you will take part in the general research life of your department, and may be involved in research seminars,

colloquia and other activities with your colleagues and with academic staff. At the end of your period of study, you will present your thesis for examination and be given an oral examination on it.

We regard the support of the supervisor as crucial in assisting you to complete your programme of study successfully and within the permitted length of time. However, it is also important to remember that, whatever the discipline, a research degree is an opportunity to carry out an independent and original piece of work. Supervisors can offer advice and guidance, but they will not tell you exactly what to read or how to design and carry out work on your thesis.

Your supervisor should be acquainted with procedures and regulations of writing and defending your thesis. It is expected that supervisor and student meet at regular intervals so that the supervisor may advise and inform the development of the research project. He establishes a stimulating research environment, gives advice on the choice of project and planning, ensures that appropriate facilities are available, provides training in research, consults the postgraduate, continuously monitors progress and provides structured feedback. Usually a supervisor remains aware of the student's situation and needs.

Below you will find different opinions of postgraduate students on supervision. Is research supervisor a boss, or a colleague, or a friend? What is your idea of an ideal supervisor? What do you prefer: to have a supervisor who is the name in his field, has plenty of ideas, which he is eager to share with you, or a supervisor who knows not much about your subject, but let you make the research independently?

A. I found that my supervisor's advice on reading particularly related to geographical theory and methodologies was extremely good. While researching he gave me plenty of encouragement which really boosted my confidence. Once I started to write I found that he read what I gave him fairly promptly and his comments were very pertinent, enabling me to work through my ideas more logically. He has always made time in a busy schedule to discuss any problems. More than this, he went out of his way to be helpful when I was unwell. I have greatly appreciated the time and effort he has put into helping me and also for his encouragement and support throughout the four years I have been in the School. Although I could have felt somewhat isolated because my topic has few connections with other postgraduate research being undertaken, this has been minimised by the good working relationship which has been established with my supervisor.

(final year PhD student)

B. My experience has been that this School is a good place to do research on economic geography, because of the high level of staff expertise and their reputation and influence, which extend far beyond the U.K. Both of my supervisors have been helpful, available to answer questions, and interested in my work. I have found a joint supervision arrangement to be especially beneficial to my work, given its holistic and innovative approach, and in my opinion the School's openness to joint supervision is a real strength.

(PhD third year student)

Discuss with your groupmates the issue of a good supervisor. You may use the expressions below.

Appropriate supervisor, experienced in the field of your research interests, to guide and advise you throughout your period of study, the responsibilities are shared between student and supervisor, crucial support of the supervisor, to design and carry out work on your thesis, procedures and regulations of writing and defending your thesis, to establishes a stimulating research environment, to provide training in research, to continuously monitor progress, to provide structured feedback, to remain aware of the student's situation and needs, to give plenty of encouragement, to boost one's confidence, pertinent comments, to appreciate the time and effort, encouragement and support, high level of staff expertise, reputation and influence, to be especially beneficial, holistic and innovative approach.

Write an essay on:

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

Usually your supervisor is a famous scholar and an expert in some field, he may have discovered an interesting phenomena or law. Try to find out about his scientific interests, his dissertation, and research. This will help you establish better working environment. You may use biographies of Nobel Prize winner Joseph E. Stiglitz, Professor Eglit, and Kermit L. Hall, the President of the University of Albany as models for describing expertise, re-search and academic career of your supervisor.

Profile: Joseph E. Stiglitz

Joseph E. Stiglitz was born in Gary, Indiana in 1943. A graduate of Amherst College, he **received his PHD from MIT** in 1967, became a full professor at

Yale in 1970, and in 1979 was awarded the John Bates Clark Award, given biennially by the American Economic Association to the economist under 40 who has **made the most significant contribution** to the field. He has taught at Princeton, Stanford, MIT and was the Drummond Professor and a fellow of All Souls College, Oxford. He is now University Professor at Columbia University in New York. In 2001, he was **awarded the Nobel Prize in economics**.

He was a member of the Council of Economic Advisers from 1993-95, during the Clinton administration, and served as CEA chairman from 1995-97. He then became Chief Economist and Senior Vice-President of the World Bank from 1997-2000.

Stiglitz helped **create a new branch of economics**, "The Economics of Information," **exploring** the consequences of information asymmetries and **pioneering** such **pivotal concepts** as adverse selection and moral hazard, which have now become **standard tools** not only of theorists, but of policy analysts. He has made major contributions to macroeconomics and monetary theory, to trade theory and public and corporate finance, to the theories of industrial organization and rural organization, and to the theories of welfare economics and of income and wealth distribution. In the 1980s, he helped **revive interest** in the economics of R&D.

His work has helped **explain the circumstances** in which markets do not work well, and how selective government intervention can improve their performance.

Recognized around the world as a **leading economic educator**, he has written textbooks that have been translated into more than a dozen languages. He **founded** one of the leading economics journals, *The Journal of Economic Perspectives*. He has recently **come out with a new book**, *The Roaring Nineties* (W.W. Norton). His book *Globalization and Its Discontents* (W.W. Norton June 2001) has been translated into 28 languages and is an international bestseller.

Profile: Howard C. Eglit, Professor of Law

Professor Eglit's **scholarly interests** are in the areas of law and aging. He **works in the fields of** employment discrimination, constitutional law, and remedies. He has **authored and co-authored** numerous journal articles and several books, including a three-volume treatise **entitled** *Age Discrimination* (Florida University Press 2004).

Professor Eglit **holds a bachelor's degree from the University** of Michigan and a law degree from the University of Chicago. Prior to **joining the Chicago-Kent faculty**, Professor Eglit **served in several capacities, including** counsel to the United States House of Representatives Judiciary Committee and legal director of the Illinois Division of the American Civil Liberties Union.

He **teaches undergraduate and graduate courses in** Constitutional law to students from foreign legal backgrounds. Professor Eglit was a **visiting professor** at the University of Chicago Law School in 2003 and at the Free University of Amsterdam in 1998. He has **received fellowships** from the Olin Foundation (for work on treaties and constitutional law) and the Rockefeller Foundation (for a book on the effects of globalization on American constitutional law).

Professor Eglit has **served on numerous boards**, including the Illinois chapter, National Academy of Elder Law Attorneys, and the Illinois Division, American Civil Liberties Union. He also served as vice-president of Terra Nova Films and **chaired the Highland Park Historic Preservation Commission**. He is a **member of the advisory committee** for the Buehler Center on Aging, McGaw Medical Center, Northwestern University. He served as general Counsel of the U.S. Senate Judiciary Committee, where he **advised on** constitutional issues and judicial nominations.

Translate the abstract about a research supervisor summarizing your topical vocabulary.

Научный руководитель. Кто он?

Для того, чтобы не растеряться в огромном количестве информации, у каждого аспиранта есть научный руководитель – опытный педагог и ученый, который может помочь определиться с темой, выбрать методики исследования, дать советы по организации эксперимента, а возможно, порекомендовать некоторую необходимую литературу. Однако научный руководитель лишь направляет аспиранта, помогает ему сориентироваться, но не делает работу за него.

Итак, **научный руководитель** – это тот, кто должен осуществлять руководство научной деятельностью аспиранта, с высоты своего опыта помогать ему двигаться к намеченной цели. Обычно, им становится доктор наук (причем тех же наук, ученую степень на соискание которых собирается получить аспирант). Но в исключительных случаях (которых немало), им может быть и кандидат наук.

Научных руководителя может быть и два, особенно если диссертация защищается по двум специальностям, как сейчас модно. Помимо научного руководителя, у аспиранта может быть и научный консультант.

Научные руководители утверждаются Ученым Советом ВУЗа в самом начале обучения в аспирантуре вместе с темой диссертации.

Существуют два типа научных руководителей.

Первый тип наиболее удобен для аспиранта – такой научный руководитель во всем помогает своему подопечному: проверяет данные его эксперимента, помогает их интерпретировать, находит для него возможности публиковаться, правит статьи, советует, как сформулировать цель, задачи, гипотезу исследования и т.д. Аспиранту, имеющему такого научного руководителя, живется легче, но при этом от него требуется и меньше творчества. В результате такой аспирант может так и не приобрести навыков самостоятельных занятий научной работой.

Второй тип научных руководителей можно назвать ленивыми - они не удосуживаются даже почитать материалы диссертации, отделяются от своего ученика общими советами. Аспирантам с таким научным руководителем очень трудно, особенно на начальном этапе обучения, но в дальнейшем, если такому аспиранту все же удастся написать и защитить диссертацию, он будет являть собой тип сформированного научного работника.

Лучше, конечно, если Ваш научный руководитель представляет собой нечто среднее между двумя крайними типами, описанными выше.

Учеными не рождаются. Ими становятся. Путем постижения знаний и навыков, накопленным человечеством на протяжении веков и тысячелетий.

Успех работы в науке зависит от массы факторов. От базовой подготовки коллектива, в котором предстоит работать юношам и девушкам, от темы научного исследования и многого другого. В значительной степени успех определяется и тем, кто руководит первыми шагами молодого ученого – академик или простой кандидат наук, проректор института или старший научный сотрудник. Успех также зависит от индивидуальных, гендерных и других характеристик научных руководителей.

Ответы участников Международной научной конференции молодых ученых «Молодежь в науке – 2005» на вопрос «Если бы у вас был выбор научного руководителя, кого бы вы предпочли: мужчину или женщину?» показали, следующее. Для более половины респондентов – 53% это «безразлично», главное – заинтересованность в результатах исследования!

В ходе опроса участникам форума предлагалось указать, на какие цели они ориентируются в своей научной деятельности. Поступили следующие ответы: заработная плата, продвижение собственных исследовательских тем, генерирование новых идей, ответственное выполнение служебных обязанностей.

Социологическое исследование было подготовлено и проведено учеными института социологии НАН Беларуси при активной поддержке совета молодых ученых НАН Беларуси 14 – 17 ноября 2005 года.

SECTION VI

REPORTS AND PRESENTATIONS

Scientific report writing requires the use of certain techniques and conventions that are detailed, strict and not always easy to master. The main purpose of a scientific report is to communicate. A typical structure and style have evolved to convey essential information and ideas as concisely and effectively as possible. The main aim of the report is to state your opinion on the issue or to provide *precise* information about a practical investigation.

Audience. Assume that your intended reader has a background similar to yours before you started the project. That is, a general understanding of the topic but no specific knowledge of the details. The reader should be able to reproduce whatever you did by following your report.

Clarity of Writing. Good scientific reports share many of the qualities found in other kinds of writing. To write is to think, so a paper that lays out ideas in a logical order will facilitate the same kind of thinking. Make each sentence follow from the previous one, building an argument piece by piece. Group related sentences into paragraphs, and group paragraphs into sections. Create a flow from beginning to end.

Style. It is customary for reports to be written in the third person or the 'scientific passive', for example, instead of writing 'I saw', one writes 'it was observed'; rather than, 'I think that ...' one writes 'it could be stated that ...' and so on. Avoid jargon, slang, or colloquial terms. Define acronyms and any abbreviations not used as standard measurement units. Most of the report describes what you did, and thus it should be in the past tense (e.g., "values were averaged"), but use present or future tense as appropriate (e.g., "x is bigger than y" or "that effect will happen"). Employ the active rather than passive voice to avoid boring writing and contorted phrases (e.g., "the software calculated average values" is better than "average values were calculated by the software").

Typical Sections. There are four major sections to a scientific report, sometimes known as IMRAD – Introduction, Methods, Results, And Discussion. Respectively, these sections structure your report to say "here's the problem, here's how I studied it, here's what I found, and here's what it means." There are additional minor sections that precede or follow the major sections including the title, abstract, acknowledgements, references, and appendices. All sections are important, but at different stages to different readers. When flipping through a journal, a reader might read the title first, and if interested further then the abstract, then conclusions, and then if he or she is truly fascinated

perhaps the entire paper. You have to convince the reader that what you have done is interesting and important by communicating appeal and content in all sections.

Title of the report. Convey the essential point of the paper. Be precise, concise, and use key words. Avoid padding with phrases like "A study of ..." or headlines like "Global warming will fry Earth!" It is usual to write the title as one phrase or sentence. A good title is brief and informative. Titles should not exceed 10 or 12 words, and they should reveal the content of the study. Many titles take one of these two forms: a simple nominal sentence (*Asymmetric Information, Stock Returns and Monetary Policy*) or beginning with *The effect of* (for example, *The Effects of Financial Restrictions and Technological Diversity on Innovation*). Sometimes it is impossible to make word-by-word translation from Russian into English, for example, *Об оценке работы фирмы* should be translated as *Assessing the Firm Performance* or *К проблеме хеджевых фондов* is translated as *Hedge Funds*. Sometimes the title contains two parts, the first one is the topic, while the second is its specific details (*International Financial Contagion: Evidence from the Argentine Crisis of 2001-2002*). If the report is of a very problematic issue its title may be in the form of a question (*Was There a Credit Crunch in Turkey?*)

Introduction. This section should contain a brief history of the research problem with appropriate references to the relevant literature and the purpose of the study. Introduce the problem, moving from the broader issues to your specific problem, finishing the section with the precise aims of the paper (key questions). Craft this section carefully, setting up your argument in logical order. Refer to relevant ideas/theories and related research by other authors. Answer the question "what is the problem and why is it important?" The introduction should also explain whether the study is an extension of a previous one, or whether a completely new hypothesis is to be tested. The final section of the introduction generally includes a list of all the hypotheses being tested in the study. The results of the current study are not to be referred to in the introduction.

You may use the following expressions:

<i>This paper</i>	<i>aims at</i>	<i>Настоящий доклад имеет своей целью...</i>
	<i>deals with</i>	<i>В настоящем докладе рассматриваются...</i>
	<i>considers</i>	<i>В настоящем докладе делается описание...</i>
	<i>describes</i>	<i>В настоящем докладе исследуется ...</i>
	<i>examines</i>	<i>В настоящем докладе представлен...</i>
	<i>presents</i>	<i>В настоящем докладе сообщается о ...</i>
	<i>reports on</i>	

Examples of an Introduction

A. There has been a European Union foreign policy, confirmed in constitutional form in the Union Treaty, since 1993. The first decade, most commentators agree, has proved to be difficult: ‘painful and problematic’ according to one. As the twenty-first century progresses, replete with an array of new challenges, the need for a reassessment, and perhaps reinvigoration of Union ‘foreign and security policy’ is widely argued. The purpose of this article is to provide both a retrospective, of the evolution of the Union’s foreign policy so far, and a prospective, of the challenges which it presently faces.

B. This paper examines companies incorporated under the Companies Act 1985. Its purpose is to consider the suitability of such companies for not-for-profit-organisations (‘NFPOs’).

Methods. Explain how you studied the problem, which should follow logically from the aims. Depending on the kind of data, this section may contain subsections on experimental details, materials used, data collection/sources, analytical or statistical techniques employed, study area, etc. Provide enough detail for the reader to reproduce what you did.

Include flowcharts, maps or tables if they aid clarity or brevity. Answer the question "what steps did I follow?" but do not include results yet. Here you may use such expressions as:

<i>A method of ... is proposed</i>	Предлагается метод...
<i>Data on... are discussed</i>	Обсуждаются данные по ...
<i>Present data encompass a period of ...</i>	Настоящие данные охватывают период в
<i>The design of the experiments was to reveal...</i>	Эксперименты были направлены на выявление ...
<i>The effect of... on... is discussed</i>	Обсуждается влияние ... на ...
<i>The methods used for ... are discussed</i>	Описываются методы, используемые для ...

Results. Explain your actual findings, using subheadings to divide the section into logical parts, with the text addressing the study aims. Tables are an easy and neat way of summarizing the results. An alternative or additional way of presenting data is in the form of line graphs, bar-charts, pie-charts, etc. Graphs, charts and illustrations are referred to as 'figures' (for example, Fig. 1) in the text of the report. All figures should be numbered in order of appearance in the text. For each table or graph, describe and interpret what you see (you do the thinking -- do not leave this to the reader).

Expressions to describe results obtained may be:

The most important results are as follows	Самые важные результаты имеют следующий вид...
The results indicate the dominant role of...	Результаты указывают на доминирующую роль...

The results of ... are discussed	Обсуждаются результаты ...
The results of observations are supported by...	Результаты наблюдений дополняются

Discussion. This is the most difficult section of a report to write and requires considerable thought and care. Essentially it is a consideration of the results obtained in the study, guided by any statistical tests used, indicating whether the hypotheses tested are considered true or are to be rejected.

This is best thought of in three steps: the main results must be very briefly summarized; the procedure must be critically assessed and weaknesses noted; and a final evaluation of the results made in terms of the design, leading to a final judgment concerning the hypotheses being tested. The discussion can only refer to results, which are presented in the results section. Any detailed results which *only* appear in the appendixes cannot be discussed.

Evaluation of the results should include reference to other research with indications as to whether or not the current findings are in agreement with other findings (that is, reference is made to the introduction). The main conclusions reached should be summarized at the end of the discussion. Suggestions for follow-up research can also be given.

Discuss the importance of what you found, in light of the overall study aims. Stand back from the details and synthesize what has (and has not) been learned about the problem, and what it all means. Say what you actually found, not what you hoped to find. Begin with specific comments and expand to more general issues. Recommend any improvements for further study. Answer the question "what is the significance of the research?"

Important Note: this section is often combined with either the Results section or the Conclusions section. Decide whether understanding and clarity are improved if you include some discussion as you cover the results, or if discussion material is better as part of the broader summing up.

Conclusions. Restate the study aims or key questions and summarize your findings using clear, concise statements. Keep this section brief and to the point.

Acknowledgments. This is an *optional* section. Thank people who directly contributed to the paper, by providing data, assisting with some part of the analysis, proofreading, typing, etc. It is not a dedication; so don't thank Mom and Dad for bringing you into the world, or your roommate for making your coffee.

References. Within the text, cite references by author and year unless instructed otherwise, for example "Comrie (1999) stated that ..." or "several studies have found that x is greater than y (Comrie 1999; Smith 1999)." For two authors, list both names, and for three or more use the abbreviation "et al." (note the period) following the first name, for example "Comrie and Smith (1999)" or "Comrie et al. (1999)." Attribute every idea that is not your own to avoid plagiarism.

Making Oral Presentations

The material of your presentation should be concise, to the point and tell an interesting story. In addition to the obvious things like content and visual aids, the following are just as important as the audience will be subconsciously taking them in:

Your voice - how you say it is as important as *what* you say.

Body language – a subject in its own right and something about which much has been written and said. In essence, your body movements express what your attitudes and thoughts *really* are.

Appearance – first impressions influence the audience's attitudes to you. Dress appropriately for the occasion.

As with most personal skills *oral communication cannot be taught*. Instructors can only point the way. So as always, *practice is essential*, both to improve your skills generally and also to make the best of each individual presentation you make

Preparation. Prepare the structure of the talk carefully and logically, just as you would for a written report. What are:

- the objectives of the talk?
- the main points you want to make?

Make a list of these two things as your starting point.

Write out the presentation in rough, just like a first draft of a written report. Review the draft. You will find things that are irrelevant or superfluous – delete them. Check if the story is consistent and flows smoothly. If there are things you cannot easily express, possibly because of doubt about your understanding, it is better to leave them unsaid.

Never read from a script. It is also unwise to have the talk written out in detail as a prompt sheet - the chances are you will not locate the thing you want to say amongst all the other text. You should know most of what you want to say – if you don't then you should not be giving the talk! So prepare **cue cards** which have key words and phrases (and possibly sketches) on them. Postcards are ideal for this. **Don't forget to number the cards** in case you drop them.

Remember to mark on your cards the visual aids that go with them so that the right OHP or slide is shown at the right time

Rehearse your presentation - to yourself at first and then in front of some colleagues. The initial rehearsal should consider how the words and the sequence of visual aids go together. How will you make effective use of your visual aids?

Making the presentation. Greet the audience (for example, 'Good morning, ladies and gentlemen'), and tell them who you are. Good presentations then follow this formula:

- tell the audience what you are going to tell them,
- then tell them,
- at the end tell them what you have told them.

Keep to the time allowed. If you can, keep it short. It's better to under-run than over-run. As a rule of thumb, allow 2 minutes for each *general* overhead transparency or Powerpoint slide you use, but longer for any that you want to use for developing specific points. 35mm slides are generally used more sparingly and stay on the screen longer. However, the audience will get bored with something on the screen for more than 5 minutes, especially if you are not actively talking about it. So switch the display off, or replace the slide with some form of 'wallpaper' such as a company logo.

Stick to the plan for the presentation, don't be tempted to digress - you will eat up time and could end up in a dead-end with no escape!

Unless explicitly told not to, leave time for discussion - 5 minutes is sufficient to allow clarification of points. The session chairman may extend this if the questioning becomes interesting.

At the end of your presentation ask if there are any questions - avoid being terse when you do this as the audience may find it intimidating (ie it may come across as *any questions? - if there are, it shows you were not paying attention*). If questions are slow in coming, you can start things off by asking a question of the audience - so have one prepared.

Delivery. Speak clearly. Don't shout or whisper - judge the acoustics of the room.

Don't rush, or talk deliberately slowly. Be natural - although not conversational.

Deliberately pause at key points - this has the effect of emphasising the importance of a particular point you are making.

Avoid jokes - always disastrous unless you are a natural expert

To make the presentation interesting, change your delivery, but not to obviously, e.g.:

- speed;
- pitch of voice.

Use your hands to emphasize points but don't indulge in too much hand waving. People can, over time, develop irritating habits. Ask colleagues occasionally what they think of your style.

Look at the audience as much as possible, but don't fix on an individual - it can be intimidating. Pitch your presentation towards the back of the audience, especially in larger rooms.

Don't face the display screen behind you and talk to it.

Avoid moving about too much. Pacing up and down can unnerve the audience, although some animation is desirable.

Keep an eye on the **audience's** body language. Know when to stop and also when to cut out a piece of the presentation.

Visual Aids. Visual aids significantly improve the interest of a presentation. However, they must be relevant to what you want to say. A careless design or use of a slide can simply get in the way of the presentation. What you use depends on the type of talk you are giving. Here are some possibilities:

- Overhead projection transparencies (OHPs);
- 35mm slides;
- Computer projection: PowerPoint, applications such as Excel, etc.;
- Video, and film;
- Real objects - either handled from the speaker's bench or passed around;
- Flip-chart or blackboard - possibly used as a 'scratch-pad' to expand on a point.

Keep it simple though - a complex set of hardware can result in confusion for speaker and audience. Slides and OHPs should contain the minimum information necessary. To do otherwise risks making the slide unreadable or will divert your audience's attention so that they spend time reading the slide rather than listening to you.

Study the texts given below, use additional information resources and deliver a report on your special field of knowledge. (If you specialize in other subjects see Supplement.)

The Nature of Law

The law affects us all from the moment we are born. We may not like it, but for better or for worse, we live in a society that is bound by rules.

Society, by one means or another, has developed a formal system of rules which are designed to be both observed and enforced. If an individual breaks a legal rule he or she will be penalised in some way. That is what the law is about: it consists of minimum standards of conduct which all members of society are expected to follow.

The concept of justice lies deep in the conscience of all civilized peoples. What that justice is, however, a reflection of the customs and laws of that civilization, and derives from the morality of the people as expounded by their law makers.

All civilized societies have had their codes of law, at least from the time of Hammurabi, the founder of the Babylonian Empire in the third millennium *BC*. Law is the latticework of civilization and throughout history a few outstanding law makers have shone forth like stars, to illumine the course of justice, some like Solomon as judges, others such as Justinian as great codifiers.

Yet the thought that there can be a theory of law, that is a set of systematically related true propositions about the nature of law, has been challenged, and from several directions. None of the challenges is entirely successful.

A theory of law in a narrow sense refers to **an explanation of the nature of law**. It is a sense central to philosophical reflection about the law throughout its history.

A theory of law is successful if it meets two criteria: First, it consists of propositions about the law which are *necessarily* true, and, second, they *explain* what the law is.

Naturally, the essential properties of the law are universal characteristics of law. They are to be found in law wherever and whenever it exists. Moreover, these properties are universal properties of the law not accidentally, and not because of any prevailing economic or social circumstances, but because there is no law without them.

The most usual meaning of the phrase 'the law' is that of a legal rule. Legal rules influence many different aspects of life. Secondly, "the law" is the complete body of all those individual rules that bind society together. Thirdly, the phrase may also mean the process by which rules are made and applied. The development, the content and the application of those rules add up to a *legal system*, complete with judges, courts, solicitors, barristers, police and indeed politicians in their role as law-makers (legislators).

The understanding (not definition) of such concepts as responsibility, liberty, authority, scientific knowledge, justice, right/wrong, etc. is a necessary prerequisite for answering some crucial questions about the regulation of social conduct and the conflicts derived from it:

- What are the principles and standards we should agree upon so that social life can unfold harmoniously on both local and planetary levels?
- Why are these principles and standards valid?
- What does each individual owe to the other individuals with whom he shares the social praxis?
- What is it that I, as an individual who interacts socially, can believe, or say or do?

- Which social ills could law attempt to lessen?
- How could this be achieved?
- For which social ills is each individual responsible and to what degree?
- Why am I responsible for the social consequences of my conduct?

At the end of the twentieth century we are forced to recognize:

- That law is in itself a culturally specific discursive form.
- That there is no pre-existent uniformity of values that explains a culture; there *is* cultural heterogeneity and multiplicity. Consequently,
- The authority of law based on a metanorm hierarchically superior to and underlying positive law, or on a social purpose legitimated by one culture only, has become increasingly problematic.

English law divides principally into two categories - criminal or public and civil or private. Criminal law concerns matters deemed by society to be so serious that in the event of a person transgressing a legal rule it is society itself which must punish the wrong-doer.

Civil law is concerned with disputes between individuals or indeed groups of individuals such as public companies and corporations. Society will lay down the framework of legal rules within which such disputes must be settled. But society itself is not a party to any legal proceedings; it acts more as a referee. Indeed the object of civil law is to compensate the injured party, rather than to punish the 'wrong-doer'. One individual *sues* another.

All that appears to imply that in terms of society's morality and values civil matters are less serious or less weighty than criminal issues.

It is possible to speak in terms of three branches of the law, the third being constitutional and administrative law. This area of legal rules covers such matters as the powers of Parliament and the Government, the powers of the police and the administration of justice, personal freedoms including race relations and immigration, and the freedoms of expression and assembly. The greater part of such administrative law will fall under civil law in the broadest sense and the rest under criminal law. Other countries take a different approach, however.

Law, far from being a complete and static system, is a dynamic system continually being created and modified. This condition of dynamism is already a commonplace in legal theory.

The law does not stand still. The public's attitudes and habits do change, human nature being an odd mixture of both the rational and the irrational, of both conservatism and radicalism. The legal system - including judicial outlook - has to accommodate itself to such shifts in the climate of opinions. Nonetheless the law may move slowly: change, whether societal or legal, is not necessarily rapid.

Economics

The term *economics* was coined around 1870 and popularized by Alfred Marshall, as a substitute for the earlier term *political economy* which has been used through the 18th-19th centuries, with Adam Smith, David Ricardo and Karl Marx as its main thinkers and which today is frequently referred to as the "classical" economic theory. Economic thought may be roughly divided into three phases: Premodern (Greek, Roman, Arab), Early modern (mercantilist, physiocrats) and Modern (since Adam Smith in the late 18th century). Systematic economic theory has been developed mainly since the birth of the modern era.

Economics has been recognized as a special area of study for over a century. The term **Economics** derived from the Greek words οἶκος [okos], 'house', and νέμω [nemo], 'rules' hence it means *household management*. There is no unanimous consensus upon its definition. Various definitions describe different aspects of this social science. We may mention some of them. Economics is:

- the social science that studies the allocation of scarce resources to satisfy unlimited wants. This involves analyzing the production, distribution, trade and consumption of goods and services, and their management;
- the study of choice and decision-making in a world of limited resources;
- the science that deals with the production, distribution, and consumption of wealth, and with the various related problems of labor, finance, taxation, etc.
- research on such factors as interest rates, gross national product, inflation, unemployment, and inventories, as tools to predict the direction of the economy.

Economics is said to be *normative* when it recommends one choice over another, or when a subjective value judgment is made. Conversely, economics is said to be *positive* when it tries objectively to predict and explain consequences of choices, given a set of assumptions and/or a set of observations.

Economics is the study of how society chooses to allocate its scarce resources to the production of goods and services in order to satisfy unlimited wants. Society makes two kinds of choices: economy-wide, or macro, choices and individual, or micro, choices. The prefixes macro and micro come from the Greek words meaning "large" and "small," respectively. Reflecting the macro and micro perspectives, economics consists of two main branches: macroeconomics and microeconomics.

Economics, which focuses on measurable variables, is broadly divided into two main branches: **microeconomics**, and **macroeconomics**. *Microeconomics* (literally, *very small economics*) is the study of the economic behaviour of

individual consumers, firms, and industries and the distribution of production and income among them. It considers individuals both as suppliers of labour and capital and as the ultimate consumers of the final product. It analyzes firms both as suppliers of products and as consumers of labour and capital. It deals with individual agents, such as households and businesses,

Microeconomics seeks to analyze the market form or other types of mechanisms that establish relative prices amongst goods and services and/or allocates society's resources amongst their many alternative uses.

Macroeconomics considers the economy as a whole, in which case it considers aggregate supply and demand for money, capital and commodities. Aspects receiving particular attention in economics are resource allocation, production, distribution, trade, and competition. Economic logic is increasingly applied to any problem that involves choice under scarcity or determining economic value.

There appear to be three **methods** by which economic phenomena may be investigated. The first consists mainly in *deductive analysis*. Proceeding from a few simple premises based upon general observation a researcher makes broad generalizations. The second is the *historical method*, which seeks an understanding of existing institutions by tracing their evolutions from their origins in the past. The third is *statistical induction*, which endeavours, by the analysis of numerical data, to develop quantitative knowledge of economic phenomena. Anyway, it is now coming to be recognized that these methods are complementary rather than mutually exclusive.

A successful theory provides insights into the physical or social relationships it studies. Economic theories are developed to explain such important observable quantities as the production, prices and consumption of goods and services, the employment of workers, and levels of saving and investment.

Economic variables are quantities that can have more than one value. For example, the price of an item is an economic variable representing what we must give up in exchange for each unit of that item. Price is an economic variable because it can go up or down as changes occur in the economy. An economic theory of price seeks to determine the causes for changes in the price of an item.

An economic model is a simplified way of expressing how some sector of the economy functions. An economic model contains assumptions that establish relationships among economic variables. We use logic, graphs, or mathematics to determine the consequences of the assumptions. In this way we can use the model to make predictions about how a change in economic conditions results in changes in decisions affecting economic variables. Economists often use the term “model” as a synonym for theory.

Understanding History

The study of the past is called history. When we set out to study history, we are able to draw the people and events of ancient times closer to us. Studying the past allows us to “see” the faces of the famous and the nameless people who lived thousands of years before us. It helps us understand what their lives were like. We can see how our lives are similar to theirs and also how they are different. We can see how people of the distant past had to face some of the very same problems we face today. And we can appreciate connections that bind together people and all time periods and all areas of the world.

What can the past tell us about the problems of today? By studying the past, we can see how previous cultures dealt with similar problems. We can understand the effects of their actions, and we can make judgments about how our actions might affect the future.

In our multicultural world we must understand the history of other cultures in order to solve problems together. By studying the past we can see the roots of the present and we can better understand our world neighbours. Learning about the past gives us a framework for making decisions about the issues that we face today. It also helps us understand how our actions will affect the people of tomorrow.

History has been called a conversation between the present and the past. People of the past communicate with people of today through the writing, artifacts and structures they leave behind.

Every generation sees the world differently. And because each generation and each individual looks at things from a new point of view, history is always open to different interpretations.

History also has been compared to a jigsaw puzzle. Some pieces of the puzzle have been lost forever. Pieces once considered lost have now been found. The available pieces can be fitted together in many ways. Each generation of historians tries to put together the available pieces of the puzzle and to interpret the picture that emerges. In doing so we hope to understand not only what happened in the past, but how it happened and why it happened.

History – record of the events of human societies. The earliest surviving historical records are the inscriptions denoting the achievements of Egyptian and Babylonian Kings. As a literary form historical writing or historiography began with the Greek Herodotus in the 5th century BC, who was first to pass beyond the limits of a purely national outlook. A generation later, Thucydides brought to history a strong sense of the political and military ambitions of his native Athens. His close account of the Peloponnesian War was continued by Xenophon. Later Greek history and Roman history tended toward rhetoric.

Medieval history was dominated by a religious philosophy sustained by the

Christian church. English chroniclers of this period are Bede, William Malmesbury and Matthew Paris.

The Renaissance revived historical writing and the study of history both by restoring classical models and by creating the science of textual criticism.

A product of new secular spirit was Machiavelli's History of Florence 1520-23. This critical approach continued into the 17th century. The 18th century Enlightenment disposed of the attempt to explain history in theological terms and an interpretive masterpiece was produced by Edward Gibbon.

An attempt to formulate historical method and a philosophy of history, that of the Italian Giovanni Vico, remained almost unknown until the 19th century. Romanticism left its mark on 19th-century historical writing in the tendency to exalt the contribution of the individual "hero", and in the introduction of a more colourful and dramatic style and treatment, variously illustrated in the works of the French historian Jules Michelet (1798-1874) and the British writers Carlyle and Macaulay.

During the 20th century the study of history has been revolutionized, partly through the contributions of other disciplines, such as the sciences and anthropology. The deciphering of the Egyptian and Babylonian inscriptions was of great importance. Researchers and archaeologists have traced developments in prehistory and have revealed forgotten civilizations such as that of Crete. Anthropological studies of primitive Society and religion, which began with James Frazer's Golden Bough 1890, have attempted to analyse the bases of later forms of social organizations and belief. The changes brought about by the Industrial Revolution and the accompanying perception of economics as a science forced historians to turn their attention to economic questions.

Contemporary historians make a distinction between historical evidence or records, historical writing and historical method or approaches to the study of history. Contemporary historians make extensive use of statistics, population figures and primary records to justify historical arguments. Historians do not just collect facts, they examine the information they collect and then decide how to interpret it.

Summary Making

Summaries are often found in academic work. A summary is the shortest account *of* the main content and conclusions of the original text. In fact it is enumeration of the main thematic point of the original paper which is made up of the words and phrases borrowed from the text and your own wording of them into a very small number of sentences.

When writing a summary, you may adhere to the following plan:

- 1) the heading;

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

The manner of presenting the material is very concise and it tends to be critical. The summary writer appreciates the material from his point of view and uses as a rule a wide range of clichés, which can be divided into several groups:

- 1) those introducing the heading and the author:
 - The article (text) is head-lined ...*
 - The head-line of the article (I have read) is ...*
 - The article is entitled ...*
 - The author of the article (text) is ...*
 - The article is written by ...*
- 2) those introducing the leading theme of the original paper:
 - The text deals with ...*
 - The article is devoted to...*
 - The chapter is about..*
 - The article touches upon...*
- 3) those drawing the reader's attention to the major points of the contents:
 - The author emphasizes the idea of..*
 - The author points out that ...*
 - Attention is drawn to the fact...*
 - In the opinion of the author it is .*
- 4) those introducing secondary information:
 - Further the author reports*
 - The author states...*
 - The article goes on to say...*
 - According to the text ...*
- 5) those forming a conclusion to which the reader's attention is drawn:
 - The author comes to the conclusion that...*
 - The author concludes by saying ...*
 - The basic approach of the author is that, etc.*

| Now read the text “Science: The Endless Resource” and study its sample summary.

Science: The Endless Resource

Our future demands investment in our people, institutions and ideas. Science is an essential part of that investment, an endless and sustainable

resource with extraordinary dividends. The Government should accept new responsibilities for promoting the flow of new scientific knowledge and the development of scientific talent in the youth. These responsibilities are the proper concern of the Government, for they vitally affect health, jobs and national security

The bedrock wisdom of this statement has been demonstrated time and again in the intervening half century. The return from public investments in fundamental science has been enormous, both through the knowledge generated and through the education of an unmatched scientific and technical workforce. Discoveries in mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology and other fundamental sciences have seeded and have been driven by important advances in engineering, technology, and medicine.

The principal sponsors and beneficiaries of scientific enterprise are people. Their continued support, rooted in the recognition of science as the foundation of a modern knowledge-based technological society, is essential. This investment has yielded a scientific enterprise without peer, whether measured in term of discoveries, citations, awards and prizes, advanced education, or contributions to industrial and informational innovation. Scientific strength is a treasure which we must sustain and build on for the future.

To fulfill our responsibility to future generations by ensuring that our children can compete in the global economy, we must invest in the scientific enterprise at a rate commensurate with its growing importance to society. That means we must provide physical infrastructure that facilitates world class research, including access to cutting-edge scientific instrumentation and to world-class information and communication systems. We must provide the necessary educational opportunities for each of our citizens. Failure to exercise our responsibility will place our children's future at risk.

Science does indeed provide an endless frontier. Advancing that frontier and exploring the cosmos we live in helps to feed our sense of adventure and our passion for discovery. Science is also an endless resource: in advancing the frontier, our knowledge of the physical and living world constantly expands. The unfolding secrets of nature provide new knowledge to address crucial challenges, often in unpredictable ways. These include improving human health, creating breakthrough technologies that lead to new industries and high quality jobs, enhancing productivity with information technologies and improved understanding of human interactions, meeting our national security needs, protecting and restoring the global environment, and feeding and providing energy for a growing population.

The challenges of the twenty-first century will place a high premium on sustained excellence in scientific research and education. We approach the

future with a strong foundation, built by the wise and successful stewardship of this enterprise over many decades, and with an investment strategy that was framed as three interconnected strategic goals:

- Long term economic growth that creates jobs and protects the environment;
- A government that is more productive and more responsive to the needs of its citizens;
- World leadership in basic science, mathematics, and engineering.

Our policies in these areas should be working to prepare the future.

Our future demands investment in our people, institutions and ideas. Science is an essential part of that investment. The Government should accept new responsibilities for promoting the flow of new scientific knowledge. The bedrock wisdom of this statement has been demonstrated time and again in the intervening half century. The principal sponsors and beneficiaries of scientific enterprise are people. Scientific strength is a treasure which we must sustain and build on for the future. To fulfill our responsibility to future generations, we must invest in the scientific enterprise at a rate commensurate with its growing importance to society. Science does indeed provide an endless frontier. We approach the future with an investment strategy that was framed as interconnected strategic goals: long term economic growth; a more productive government and world leadership in basic science, mathematics, and engineering. The challenges of the twenty-first century will place a high premium on sustained excellence in scientific research and education. Our policies in these areas should be working to prepare the future.

Summary

The text under discussion is entitled *Science: The Endless Resource*. It deals with the role of science in modern life. First, it is stressed the Government should accept new responsibilities for promoting the flow of new scientific knowledge. Attention is drawn to the fact that fundamental science discoveries have seeded important advances in the society, scientific knowledge being an endless resource affecting health, jobs and national security. It is reported that unfolding secrets of nature provides new knowledge to address crucial challenges. The text goes on to say that we must provide physical infrastructure and educational opportunities that facilitate world class research. The author concludes that challenges of the twenty-first century will place a high premium on excellence in scientific research and education. To my mind, the main idea of the text is to show that science is the foundation of a modern knowledge-based technological society.

Try to produce the summary of the text “Science” making use of the instructions given above.

Science

Science [from Latin *scientia* from *scire* to know] is systemized knowledge derived through experimentation, observation, and study. In its widest sense it is formulated knowledge, a knowledge of structure, laws, and operations. The unity of human knowledge may be artificially divided into religion, philosophy, and science. Sometimes it is considered as a method of reaming about the world by applying the principles of the scientific method, which includes making empirical observations, proposing hypotheses to explain those observations, and testing those hypotheses in valid and reliable ways; also refers to the organized body of knowledge that results from scientific study.

Science and philosophy, as presently understood, have in common the quality of being speculative, as opposed to religion, which in the West is supposed to be founded merely on faith and moral sentiments. The present distinction between science and philosophy lies largely in their respective fields of speculation. What is known as modern science investigates the phenomena of physical nature and by inferential reasoning formulates general laws there from. Its method is called inductive and its data are so-called facts -- i.e., sensory observations; whereas deductive philosophy starts from axioms. Yet a scientist, in order to reason from his data at all, must necessarily use both induction and deduction.

Fundamental science is the part of science that describes the most basic objects, forces, relations between them and laws governing them, such that all other phenomena may be in principle derived from them, following the logic of scientific reductionism. Fundamental science includes biology, chemistry, earth science and geology, physics, resource sciences, space and astronomy, biotechnology, engineering, computer and information technology.

The humanities are a group of academic subjects united by a commitment to studying aspects of the human condition and a qualitative approach that generally prevents a single paradigm from coming to define any discipline. Art, Communications, Counseling, Education, English, Foreign Languages (Italian, Spanish, French, German, Russian, Japanese, Chinese, others), Literature, Philosophy, Religious Studies, Speech, Theatre. Subjects such as English, philosophy, language, and literature as distinguished from fundamental sciences.

Scientific theories simplify reality to allow us to understand basic forces and laws of the nature and society. We can observe actions and their consequences. Observation and description are not sufficient for understanding and ultimately predicting actions. Theory establishes relationships between cause

and effect. We use it to interpret actions and outcomes so we can explain the process by which the actions were undertaken and the outcomes achieved. The purpose of theory in all scientific analyses is to explain the causes of phenomena we observe. To conduct analyses we frequently need to engage in abstraction. This involves making assumptions about the environment that simplify the real world enough to allow us to isolate forces of cause and effect. Any theory is a simplification of actual relationships.

Now try to translate a summary of a scientific paper from Russian into English.

Данное издание является первой попыткой систематизации и обобщения всего опыта белорусской философской, религиозной и культурной мысли XX столетия. Его контекст и критерий отбора фактографического материала определила проблема Беларуси как эпицентра культурно-цивилизационного взаимодействия Востока и Запада.

В антологии представлены концепции, точки зрения и суждения видных белорусских мыслителей, православных и католических деятелей, писателей, ученых, публицистов и политиков, затрагивающие комплекс проблем и вопросов геокультурологического характера.

Особое внимание в публикации отведено проблеме определения культурно-цивилизационных основ белорусского этноса и народа, рассмотрению ключевых факторов формирования и этапов развития национального самосознания.

Книга знакомит с белорусским видением и глубиной понимания сущности, форм и последствий влияния и взаимодействия исторических, религиозных и культурных традиций Востока и Запада в белорусском прошлом и настоящем.

SECTION VII

RESEARCH PAPER

The final aim of post-graduates studies is submission of the dissertation for hearing at the session of the Academic Council. On the eve of the defense procedure abstract of the thesis is to be issued, it being a digest of the research made. In the abstract a researcher is to present certain scientific points since abstracts are designed in accordance with the established pattern. Thus, you should be able to state the purpose of your investigation, define its subject, object, describe the methods applied, to ground its topicality and novelty, underline the results obtained, state your personal findings, the practical value and possibilities for further research and application. In the present section we'll introduce to you the lexical means to help you speak on the topic of your research and supply you with the extractions from scientific papers on the issue in question.

1. Presenting the **topic** of your research.

n.:	study, investigation, research, paper
v.:	to deal with, to be devoted (to), to study, to investigate, to undertake, to examine
adj.:	detailed, thorough, extensive, comprehensive, preliminary, brief
adv.:	in detail, thoroughly, carefully, accurately

The paper deals with...

The study is devoted to...

The investigation studies...

The research of ... is dealt with in the paper.

An extensive study of the problem of... has been undertaken in the paper.

A comprehensive analysis of ... has been presented in the research.

The case of ... has been thoroughly studied in the research.

The investigation deals with...

... are dealt with in detail in the present research.

2. Defining the **purpose** of the research.

n.:	aim, purpose, task
v.:	to determine, to reveal, to establish, to describe, to provide, to present, to be designed (for) ..., to be intended..., to be aimed (at) ...

adj.:	main, chief, primary, principal
conj.:	in order, so that

The aim of the study is to determine the value ...

The research is aimed at revealing the ways of ...

The main purpose of the paper is to establish the regularities in ... / the difference in ...

The investigation is designed to simplify the procedure of ...

The chief task of the research is to reveal the causes of.../ the essence of ...

The research is intended for eliminating ambiguity ... / undesirable effect ...

The research is aimed at providing evidence for ... / new facts in support of ...

The aim of the investigation is to present systematic description of ...

3. Explaining the **topicality** and **novelty** of the research:

n.:	topicality, novelty, advantage, merit, comparison (of ... with), innovation
v.:	present, offer, combine, compose, resemble
adj.:	fundamental, chief, main, essential, obvious, certain, ordinary, standard, former, previous, expected, analogous (to), similar (to), identical (with)
adv.:	formerly, previously, usually, commonly (used)

We offer a fundamentally new approach...

The essential merit of our work is ...

The approach is not similar to that previously used ...

The novelty of the research can be seen ...

The research compares favorably with ...

Explanation is offered for ...

Since previous works suffered from considerable limitations ...

We tried to interpret the phenomenon of ...

We intended to overcome the difficulty of ...

Advantages and limitations of ... are discussed for the first time ...

In contrast to identical works in the field of ... our understanding provides ...

As opposed to commonly recognized classification ...

Unlike commonly recognized definition of ...

4. Describing **methods** applied.

n.:	method, technique, approach, procedure
v.:	apply, present, follow, employ, use, allow, permit
adj.:	general, main, additional, modern, appropriate, reliable, effective, improved, promising, adequate, up-to-date, conventional, unconventional

Modern methods of scientific analysis have been applied...

Unconventional approach to ... has been presented in the paper.

Appropriate technique has been used ...

Reliable methods of analyzing facts of ...
 The comparative method is useful in ...
 Methods of empirical and systematic analysis were used ...
 The approach is especially helpful when ...
 The approach is more flexible and permits ...
 The methods of synchronic and diachronic analysis used in the study allow/permit...
 The technique is best suited in evaluating ...
 Comparison is made of the method generally adopted with that used in the investigation.
 We have applied an alternative method which ...

5. Describing your **findings**.

n.:	theory, hypothesis, correlation, discrepancy, assumption, findings, data, evidence, viewpoint, model, function, basis, dependence, influence, effect, interrelations
v.:	assume, present, provide, report, check, produce, verify, extend (to), find, establish, generate, produce, reveal
adj.:	primary, simple, complicated, accurate, satisfactory, certain, preliminary, convincing, contradictory, ambiguous, similar, general, complete, full, variable
adv.:	especially, particularly, specially

It was found that ...
 The data obtained enables us to determine the nature of ...
 Our findings provide evidence for ...
 Our findings make possible the application of ...
 An analysis of ... indicated that ..., which made is possible ...
 The principal advantage of the approach based on ...
 Of special importance for ... is ...
 Of particular value for ... is ...
 The present observation supports the viewpoint ...
 Obviously, it's due to the fact that ...
 The influence of ... on ... has been revealed.
 Little dependence of ... on ... has been observed.
 This phenomenon is closely connected with ...
 The validity of the assumption was questioned ...
 The study has revealed a better understanding of ...
 based on ...
 These discrepancies are caused by ...
 The findings are in agreement with ...
 Certain correlation between ... and ... has been established.

From the analysis of the data it was determined that ...

6. Recommendations for further **application** and research.

n.:	application, use
v.:	apply, use, suit, fit, enable, employ, permit, allow, serve
adj.:	helpful, applicable, wide, promising, limited, possible

The findings may find practical application in ...

The present investigation enables as ...

This approach is applicable to ...

The method can be used in the studies on ...

The approach is best suited for the investigation of ...

The findings are especially helpful when ...

Another method of treating ... is recommended.

The approach will make it possible to ...

Our observations can be particularly efficient when investigating.../for the study of ...

We make a suggestion as to how ...

... can be used (can be of use) if we study ...

... can be helpful to determine ...

It is suggested that ... should be

7. Reporting on the **results** of your research, drawing **conclusions**.

n.:	result, conclusion, viewpoint, opinion, assumption, correctness, proof, evidence
v.:	obtain, present, provide, report, check, collect, summarize, sum up, find, extend (to), state, confirm
adj.:	final, certain, complicated, convincing, satisfactory

It has been shown that ...

It's concluded that ...

The results obtained show/confirm/indicate .../... made it possible to conclude/to draw a conclusion that ...

Thus, it may be stated that ...

Therefore we came to a conclusion that ...

The above said led us to a conclusion ...

As a consequence, a conclusion is made ...

Results from experiments prove ...

These factors are shown to be irrelevant to ...

... were described with particular emphasis on ...

New data on ... were obtained.

As a result of the investigation it was observed ...

As a result of the study some practical recommendations can be given.
The results indicate that additional work is needed to improve...
We reported our results at ...

In the extraction from scientific prose given below we hope not only lawyers but other categories of researchers will find useful expressions to speak about the aims of one's research. Find the essentials underlined for you.

The problem of crime is not new to our time, but its challenge has, in our age, progressed to increasingly disturbing proportions. For thousands of years a great many thinkers have tried to deal with this major social issue, but it is in our generation that crime has become everybody's concern. The ever-increasing rate and the expanded variety of lawbreaking have made virtually all of us potential victims. Thus, it is not really surprising that, in this flourishing era of criminal activity, a bewildering array of criminology textbooks have offered themselves to illuminate the crime problem. This volume proposes to belong to that category of books.

This text, however, ventures to deviate in intent and orientation from most of the standard works in the field. Criminology textbooks have traditionally been of ambitious length in an attempt to cover the fullest possible scope and, perhaps, to create the illusion of presenting all relevant knowledge. Oddly enough, they might include swiftly changing statistical information, short-lived research results, and ephemeral theoretical constructs.

This paper is not intended to provide a comprehensive treatment of all details and minutiae of the problem of crime. Instead, by drawing only essential outlines, it attempts to concentrate on a general and comprehensive understanding of the whole.

Complete the sentences supplying them with information on your own research activities.

The present paper deals with ...

The research is aimed at ...

An attempt has been made ...

We have applied the method of ...

The method has been applied together with ...

Some features of the phenomenon have been described with the help of ...

We wanted to have a full view of ...

It's argued that ...

The paper abounds in ...

On the basis of the comparison made ...

Interdependence between ... has been revealed.

Research into ... provides an answer to the question ...

The research provides the answers to a multitude of questions facing ... and gives us the tools which ...

The main provisions of the research have been reported at ...

Some disputable issues have been discussed in ...

The reliability of the results obtained can be verified ...

The results of the investigation have been reflected in the form of ...

Below find the speculations of a former post-graduate student on his future dissertation.

Since I'm just in my first year of a post-graduate course my idea of the dissertation to be submitted in three years is rather hypothetical. Theoretically, I realize it's to be composed of an introduction, two or three chapters, conclusion, bibliography, supplement, if necessary. Still, I can explain the basic points of my research right now.

To start with, the topic of the thesis sounds like that: "Application of Criminal Retrospection Method to Crime Investigation." Evidently, the topic of the crime investigation methods is not new in criminalistics. Our research is supposed to contribute to this branch of law since it deals with such a topical problem as developing more reliable methods of crime investigation. Thus, the notion of "retrospection" in criminalistics and the ways of its application to crime detection will be dealt with in the research. On the surface the issue seems to be not innovative at all, but it's not quite right. Ordinary understanding of the retrospection is enough to find "a lost pen" while we are targeting at the investigation of complicated crimes which needs profound theoretical study. Thus, our research is aimed at providing a practical worker with concrete up-to-date recommendations on retrospective analysis of crime detection.

The law is dynamic and ever-changing; as our society and community changes, the law must also change to fit the new needs and problems that arise. Our research is supposed to begin with a survey of the literature on the problem under discussion, analysis of the latest achievements in this field, scrutiny of investigation methods to provide a theoretical basis for the research. History and the present state of the retrospection method application will be given particular emphasis to, case studies will be presented, basic rules, principles and the place of retrospection in modern criminalistics are to be defined. Case

studies may become the subject of supplement attached to the main body of the research paper.

I realize the significance of the final part of any dissertation since it summarizes the results obtained, stresses the topicality of the research made, suggests the possibility for further research and practical application of theoretical assumptions.

I hope to solve all the tasks facing me as a researcher, and step by step proceed to the ultimate goal of any post-graduate – defence of the dissertation and the award of PhD degree.

Summarizing translation can be helpful for you while composing the topic “My work on the dissertation”

1. К концу срока обучения в аспирантуре аспирант должен представить текст диссертационного исследования для обсуждения на одном из заседаний кафедры.
2. После обсуждения на кафедре, внесения необходимых изменений и исправлений работа получает рекомендацию к защите.
3. Диссертация предоставляется для рассмотрения членами соответствующего Ученого Совета и заслушивается на одном из его заседаний.
4. На защите претендент кратко излагает основные положения диссертации, цели исследования, обосновывает его актуальность и новизну, полученные результаты и возможности практического применения.
5. Все выносимые на защиту положения должны быть отражены в автореферате диссертации, который в сжатой форме представляет проделанное диссертационное исследование и рассылается за месяц до защиты.
6. После доклада соискателя выступают официальные оппоненты с критическим анализом проделанной работы.
7. Если у присутствующих есть желание выступить, они вправе это сделать.
8. Соискатель обязан ответить на все поступившие в устной или письменной форме вопросы.
9. Ход заседания записывается, с тем чтобы позднее была возможность приобщить стенограмму заседания к документам по его защите.
10. Наконец, после соблюдения всей процедуры защиты, проходит тайное голосование членов Ученого совета относительно присуждения претенденту ученого звания кандидата наук.

Below there follows a summary of the research conducted in the field of linguistics which is to serve as a model for describing your research paper. Study it carefully and pick out useful cliches.

Summary

The current paper is devoted to a problem of colloquial or informal speech which has recently moved into the foreground of both theoretical interest of the world's linguists and scholars and practical attempts of language teachers and students. Its significance and practical value in the age of mass communications are axiomatic. Yet, paradoxically many aspects of contemporary informal English (Standard Educated Colloquial/Informal English, SECE in this case) including its status and role in the system of national language (British English), its specific properties as distinct from the so-called "standard English", according to G. Brown and other prominent colloquialists, "at an infant stage of research and investigation". Practically underinvestigated are also the basic types of SECE; major settings and motives determining the choice of SECE in a particular communicative situation.

Finally, it's worthy to note an absolutely rudimentary stage of research in Britain and in our country into the status of SECE in modern media, including the British "quality and "popular" press and BBC radio and television broadcasting. Moreover, some pioneer attempts in this direction are sometimes assessed with a considerable share of scepticism.

It would hardly be surprising then that these and other problems relevant to the essentials of contemporary colloquial English and its functioning and analyzed in the current paper may facilitate a serious approach to SECE as a sociolinguistic phenomenon worth of theoretical investigating and practical studying and the course itself be used by scholars and students of English as a kind of theoretic introduction into the topic.

Most research papers dealing with informal English published recently in Great Britain and elsewhere concentrate on specifics of SECE in a chosen field. And that is only too natural and rewarding considering an extremely complex nature of informal English and absolutely insufficient level of its investigation. Understandable as it may be at the present stage of accumulation of knowledge of colloquial speech, the level-oriented approach invariably adds to the mosaic picture of SECE, barring its understanding as a real self-contained sociolinguistic system as a whole. Guided by these considerations the author attempts to follow a systematic approach to the problem in question (undertaken in a number of fundamental works by E. Zemskaya, Y. Skrebnev, B. Gavranek, T. van Dijk, M. Stubbs and other Russian Western scholars) and

tries to present a comprehensive outline of SECE as an entity, relying on an interdisciplinary approach. It is for the reader to judge, however, to what extent such an approach is justifiable and beneficial.

One of the sociocultural consequences of contemporary scientific-technological revolution is that in many, if not most, «prestigious» communicative situations of today, a speaker may use SECE *alongside* MESE and the problem of the choice between the two cannot but stimulate a researcher to get to the bottom of it. On the basis of analysis of some modern relevant concepts the author dares to offer his understanding of the problem.

These considerations have basically predetermined the structure and make-up of the paper, offering the following parts: introductory part, three chapters, conclusions, bibliography, supplement.

The prevailing method of problem examination in the book is that of discourse analysis. The absolute majority of SECE illustrations are the chunks of real conversations (rather, their transcripts' presented in the manner adopted in the works of prominent colloquialists). Also included are the examples of talks recorded by the author during the latter's stay in Great Britain and other English-language countries.

The paper is tailored along the programmes of foreign language institutes and departments and may be used by students, postgraduates, teachers and scholars, by all those whose line of activity is linked to English.

The author is fully aware of the futility “to embrace unembraceable” as regards such a complex (and underinvestigated) phenomenon as contemporary colloquial or informal language, therefore the given paper on SECE may only serve as an attempt in the right direction, at best. The author would be very much indebted to any critical remark facilitating further studies of SECE.

Now speak on your research paper dwelling upon the following issues.

- composition of the dissertation;
- problems discussed in the introductory part;
- topicality and novelty of your research;
- methods of scientific analysis applied;
- your findings (anticipated results);
- assessment of the results obtained;
- practical application;
- possibility for further research;
- your reports, articles on the problem under research.

SUPPLEMENT

Geography

Geography is the study of the surface of the Earth. The word is derived from the Greek words *geo* (“the Earth”) and *graphein* (“to write”).

Geography is the exact and organized knowledge of the distribution of phenomena on the surface of the Earth. It deals with the form and motion of the planet so far as a knowledge of these is necessary for fixing positions on the surface, more fully with the forms of the lithosphere or stony crust of the Earth, the extent of the water envelope or hydrosphere, the movements of the water and of the all surrounding atmosphere, the distribution of plants and animals and very fully with that of the human race and all the interactions and relationships between these distributions.

The surface of the Earth is the interface of the atmosphere, lithosphere, and biosphere. It provides the habitat, or environment, in which humans are able to live. This habitable zone has a number of special characteristics. One of the most important is the complex interaction among many physical, biologic, and human elements of the Earth, such as land surface, climate, water, soil, vegetation, agriculture, and urbanization. Another characteristic is the high variability of the environment from place to place – hot tropics to cold polar regions, dry deserts to humid equatorial forests, vast level plains to rugged mountains and uninhabited ice caps to densely settled metropolitan areas. Yet another is the consistency with which significant patterns occur, which makes possible generalizations about distributions; obvious examples are measurements of temperature and rainfall which are the most important climatic elements affecting farming and many other human activities.

Geographic study is particularly concerned with location, with areal patterns with the interrelationships of phenomena (especially of the relationship between human society and the land, as in ecology), with regionalization, and with ties among areas. Typical areas of inquiry include where people live; in what sort of patterns they are distributed over the Earth’s surface; what factors of environment, resources, culture, and economic development account for this distribution; whether or not significant regions can be recognized by types of population, livelihood, and culture, and what types of movements and relations occur among places.

Geography is a synthetic science, largely dependent for its data on the results of specialized sciences such as astronomy, physics, geology, oceanography, meteorology, biology and antropology and always having respect to the

natural regions of the world. Viewed in this light geography is a unified and definite science of wide outlook and comprehensive grasp.

Geography is divided into systematic fields and regional specializations, which can be grouped under three main headings: physical geography, human geography and regional geography. There is a number of subdivisions, such as mathematical geography, which deals with the shape, size and movements of the earth; political geography, which studies the world's political divisions; economic geography deals with estimation of the environment and resources, distribution of economy and population; historical geography the nature of which has been interpreted in a wide variety of ways. Human geography, is sometimes regarded as synonymous with anthropogeography. Physical geography, which usually includes a study of climate, natural vegetation and oceanography, is sometimes assumed, to be synonymous with physiography.

The principal activities of the physical geographer include observing, measuring and describing the surface of the earth. The growing complexity of geographic inquiry has resulted in increased specialization within the field. The principal branches of physical geography are geomorphology, climatology, biogeography and soil geography. As human activity has become more able to affect the landscape and ecology of the world, two more branches have emerged: resource management and environmental studies.

Geographers use a variety of tools to carry out their work. The tools that most people identify with geography are those that are still most important to geographers today – globes and maps. Modern geographers, however, also use tools such as aerial photographs, satellite images, and computer programs to help them analyze the interactions between people and their environments. The best tool to use often depends on the geographic theme that is the focus of the research.

What Is Biology?

Biology is the branch of science dealing with the study of life. The word 'biology' formed by combining the Greek ($\beta\iota\omicron\varsigma$; (*bios*), meaning 'life', and $\lambda\omicron\gamma\omicron\varsigma$ (*logos*), meaning study of. It is concerned with the characteristics, classification, and behaviors of organisms, how species come into existence, and the interactions they have with each other and with the environment. Biology is such a broad field, covering the minute workings of chemical machines inside our cells, to broad scale concepts of ecosystems and global climate change. Biologists study intimate details of the human brain, the composition of our genes, and even the functioning of our reproductive system. Biologists recently all but completed the deciphering of the human genome, the sequence of deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) bases that may determine much of our innate

capabilities and predispositions to certain forms of behavior and illnesses.

Unlike physics, biology does not usually describe systems in terms of objects which obey immutable physical laws described by mathematics. Nevertheless, the biological sciences are characterized and unified by several major underlying principles and concepts: universality, evolution, diversity, continuity, genetics, homeostasis, and interactions.

The most salient example of biological universality is that all living things share a common carbon-based biochemistry and in particular pass on their characteristics via genetic material, which is based on nucleic acids such as DNA and which uses a common genetic code with only minor variations.

Another universal principle is that all organisms (that is, all forms of life on Earth except for viruses) are made of cells. Similarly, all organisms share common developmental processes.

The central organizing concept in biology is that all life has a common origin and has changed and developed through the process of evolution. Biologists organize and analyze evolutionary relationships through various methods, including phylogenetics, phenetics, and cladistics.

Despite its underlying unity, life exhibits an astonishingly wide diversity in morphology, behavior, and life histories. In order to grapple with this diversity, biologists attempt to classify all living things. Traditionally, living things have been divided into five kingdoms: Monera — Protista ~ Fungi ~ Plantae ~ Animalia. However, many scientists now consider this five-kingdom system to be outdated. Modern alternative classification systems generally begin with the three-domain system: Archaea (originally Archaeobacteria) -- Bacteria (originally Eubacteria) -- Eukaryota. Further, each kingdom is broken down continuously until each species is separately classified. The order is 1) Kingdom, 2) Phylum, 3) Class, 4) Order, 5) Family, 6) Genus, 7) Species.

Homeostasis is the ability of an open system to regulate its internal environment to maintain a stable condition by means of multiple dynamic equilibrium adjustments controlled by interrelated regulation mechanisms. All living organisms, whether unicellular or multicellular, exhibit homeostasis.

Every living thing interacts with other organisms and its environment. One reason that biological systems can be difficult to study is that so many different interactions with other organisms and the environment are possible, even on the smallest of scales. Matters become more complex when two or more different species interact in an ecosystem. Studies of this type are the province of ecology. Biology has become such a vast research enterprise that it is not generally regarded as a single discipline, but as a number of clustered sub-disciplines. The first group consists of those disciplines that study the basic structures of living systems: cells, genes etc.; the second group considers

the operation of these structures at the level of tissues, organs, and bodies; the third group considers organisms and their histories; the final constellation of disciplines focuses on their interactions. It is important to note, however, that these boundaries, groupings, and descriptions are a simplified characterization of biological research. In reality, the boundaries between disciplines are fluid, and most disciplines frequently borrow techniques from each other. For example, evolutionary biology leans heavily on techniques from molecular biology to determine DNA sequences, which assist in understanding the genetic variation of a population; and physiology borrows extensively from cell biology in describing the function of organ systems.

What Is Chemistry?

Chemistry is a science dealing with the composition of matter and the changes in composition that matter undergoes. Chemistry, along with the closely related science of physics, is a fundamental branch of knowledge. Chemistry is also closely related to biology, not only because living organisms are made of material substances but also because life itself is an essentially complicated system of interrelated chemical processes.

The scope of chemistry is extremely broad. It includes the whole universe and everything, animate and inanimate, in it. Chemistry is concerned not only with the composition of matter, but also with the energy and energy changes associated with matter. Through chemistry we seek to learn and to understand the general principles that govern the behaviour of all matter.

A chemist may interpret natural phenomena, devise experiments that will reveal the composition and structure of complex substances, study methods for improving natural processes, or, sometimes, synthesize substances unknown in nature. Ultimately, the efforts of successful chemists advance the frontiers of knowledge and at the same time contribute to the well-being of humanity. Chemistry can help us to understand nature, however, it is not necessary to be a professional chemist or scientist to enjoy natural phenomena. Nature and its beauty, its simplicity within complexity, are for all to appreciate.

The body of chemical knowledge is so vast that no one can hope to master it all, even in a lifetime of study. However, many of basic concepts can be learned in a relatively short period of time. These basic concepts have become part of the education required for many professionals including ag-

riculturists, biologists, dental hygienists, dentists, medical technologists, microbiologists, nurses, nutritionists, pharmacists, physicians, and veterinarians, to name just a few.

Mathematics

Mathematics is often defined as the study of topics such as quantity, structure, space, and change. Another view, held by many mathematicians, is that mathematics is the body of knowledge justified by deductive reasoning, starting from axioms and definitions.

Practical mathematics, in nearly every society, is used for such purposes as accounting, measuring land, and predicting astronomical events. Mathematical discovery or research often, involves discovering and cataloging patterns, without regard for application. Other fields of knowledge, such as the natural sciences, engineering, economics, or medicine, make use of many new mathematical discoveries.

Mathematics is a Greek word, and, by origin or etymologically, it means something that must be learnt or understood", perhaps "acquired knowledge" or "knowledge acquirable by learning" or "general knowledge". The word "mathematics" is a contraction of all these phrases. The celebrated Pythagorean school in ancient Greece had both regular and incidental members. The incidental members were called "auditors"; the regular members were named "mathematicians" as a general class and not because they specialized in mathematics; for them mathematics was a mental discipline of science learning. What is mathematics in the modern sense of the term, its implications and connotations? There is no neat, simple, general and unique answer to this question.

Mathematics as a science, viewed as a whole, is a collection of branches. The largest branch is that which builds on the ordinary whole numbers, fractions, and irrational numbers, or what, collectively, is called the real number system. Arithmetic, algebra, the study of functions, the calculus, differential equations, and various other subjects which follow the calculus in logical order are all developments of the real number system. This part of mathematics is termed the mathematics of number. A second branch is geometry consisting of several geometries. Mathematics contains many more divisions. Each branch has the same logical structure: it begins with certain concepts, such as the whole numbers or integers in the mathematics of number, and such as point, line and triangle in geometry.

The basic concepts of the main branches of mathematics are abstractions from experience, "implied by their obvious physical counterparts. But it is noteworthy, that many more concepts are introduced which are, in essence,

creations of the human mind with or without any help of experience. Irrational numbers, negative numbers and so forth are not wholly abstracted from the physical practice, for the man's mind must create the notion of entirely new types of numbers to which operations such as addition, multiplication, and the like can be applied.

Applied mathematics is a branch of mathematics that concerns itself with the application of mathematical knowledge to other domains. Such applications include numerical analysis, mathematical physics, mathematics of engineering, linear programming, optimisation and operations research, continuous modelling, mathematical biology and bioinformatics, information theory, game theory, probability and statistics, mathematical economics, financial mathematics, actuarial science, cryptography and hence combinatorics and even finite geometry to some extent, graph theory as applied to network analysis, and a great deal of what is called computer science.

Physics

What exactly is *physics*? What discoveries have physicists been able to make, and what new discoveries are physicists making today? Why bother discovering physics? What is the excitement of physics? What is the use of physics?

Four hundred years ago the term physicist would not have been understood. The study of science was then the study of natural philosophy - a single discipline concerned with the scientific investigation of all natural phenomena, and the subsequent formulation of 'laws of nature' capable of embracing these phenomena. But since those Renaissance days, the growth of scientific knowledge has been so great that natural philosophy has divided into numerous different disciplines - physics, chemistry, Earth sciences, zoology, botany, metallurgy, meteorology, oceanography ... and many others. Nevertheless, it is perhaps true to say that of all the natural sciences, physics remains closest to the original ideal of those early natural philosophers; it is that branch of science still most directly concerned with studying 'natural' events and with adducing the fundamental laws of nature.

To attempt to define physics in a couple of sentences, however, is all but impossible. The dictionary describes it as 'the study of matter, energy, and motion'. And certainly physics is, in large part, about understanding the material world, and the interaction of one part of it with another. Yet clearly, physics is also what physicists do, and as such it reflects all the kinds of abstract qualities that accompany any field of human endeavour. Physics is a curious mixture of creative effort and lucky discovery, of painstaking ex-

perimentation and mathematical deduction, of accumulated knowledge and unifying ideas, of philosophical implications and practical applications. Strangely enough, physics is also about faith and aesthetics. Many new insights in physics have been prompted by a firm belief (one based on nothing more than 'gut' feeling) that the 'true' explanation of some phenomenon cannot possibly be as complicated as it would at first sight appear. Most physicists would agree that one of the goals of physics is to attempt to 'explain the world' with the simplest possible array of ideas and equations. Many would go even further and argue that the mathematics we use in doing this should be not merely useful, but elegant also! And perhaps it is because physics displays all these many different facets that it is a fascinating, even if at times difficult, subject to study.

Besides economic applications, physics has had a general cultural impact on the development of modern thought, particularly cosmology.

Graduates from all courses are well-trained physicists qualified for entry into a wide range of careers, including academic physics, industry, the Scientific Civil Service, teaching and scientific computing. In addition, employers in nonscientific fields recognise the value of a training in physics; every year a substantial proportion of our graduates embark on careers in finance, management and commercial computing.

"Physics," it has been said, "is whatever physicists are doing."

What Is Philosophy?

The term philosophy comes from the ancient Greek word " $\Phi\iota\lambda\omicron\sigma\phi\omicron\upsilon\alpha$ " (*philo-sophia*), which means "love of wisdom". According to the Oxford English Dictionary, the original meaning of the word encompassed all knowledge. Over time, it gained the more specialized meaning of knowledge of the world, as contrasted with knowledge of the divine. Science was originally called "natural philosophy". The most modern meaning of the word is the study of things that are ultimate, and with the most general causes and principles.

Informally, a "philosophy" may refer to a general world view or to a specific ethic or belief.

There is some broad agreement that philosophy is characterized by a certain method, subject matter, and objectives.

Philosophy has a critical or skeptical nature. Philosophers try wherever possible to examine and criticize beliefs that are commonly taken for granted. Philosophy students are taught not to take anything on trust, "particularly if it

seems obvious and undeniable" (Hodges). Rather, they are encouraged to provide good reasons for any conclusions they come to.

The role of empirical experimentation in philosophy is questionable. Some philosophers believe that philosophy is not experimental. These philosophers may believe that philosophy does not employ the methods of empirical science, and its questions cannot be answered by observation or experiment, although observation and experiment may prompt those questions. However, this was not the attitude taken by ancient Hellenistic philosophers, who saw any intellectual investigation as philosophy. Quite the opposite: science in general used to be known as "natural philosophy".

Philosophy generally concerns itself with what are sometimes called 'the big questions'. For example: "What is the meaning of life? How did the world begin? Do I have a soul? Will my soul survive my death? What really exists? Could nothing have ever existed?"

Philosophers disagree on the goal of philosophical enquiry. Those attracted to the 'big questions' say the point of philosophy is to discover the absolutely fundamental reasons behind everything, or to unify and transcend the insights given by science and religion. Others say that, at most, the goal of philosophy is to make explicit, or to clarify, the nature and significance of ordinary and scientific beliefs. Indeed, the unifying goal behind philosophical inquiry may simply be the process of thinking through interesting questions.

Rather than merely using the concepts that are usually employed in everyday life in thinking about the world, philosophy also makes those concepts themselves the object of study. Philosophy, in this respect, may involve thinking about thinking.

There is no universal agreement about which subjects are the main branches of philosophy. The Aristotelian division was as follows:

1. First philosophy (metaphysics), of which the main area is ontology (the study of kinds of existence or being).
2. Cosmology. This includes the nature of material substance, of quality and quantity, of space, causation, and change.
3. Psychology. This is a much wider and more "philosophical" subject than the modern subject of the same name, encompassing the philosophy of perception, the theory of knowledge, and the nature of the soul (now similar to what is called "philosophy of mind").

Aristotle regarded ethics and politics not as parts of theoretical philosophy at all, but as practical disciplines. Logic he regarded as theoretical, but not as a science in its own right, since it is a necessary preliminary to all knowledge.

The modern classification, which originates with Christian Wolff, is into four main branches: logic, epistemology, ethics, and metaphysics. Aesthetics

is often considered as a fifth branch, though it is also sometimes included with ethics as "value theory" in modern philosophy departments.

- Logic: What is truth? How or why do we identify a statement as true or false? And, how do we reason?
- Epistemology: Is knowledge possible? How do we know what we know? How do we take what is "known" to extrapolate what is "unknown"?
- Ethics: Is there a difference between morally right and wrong actions (or values, or institutions)? If so, what is that difference? Which actions are right and which wrong? Are values absolute, or relative? In general or particular terms, how should I live? How is right and wrong defined? Is there an ultimate "ought"? Is there a normative value or objective that supersedes all others? Are values 'in' the world like tables and chairs and if not how should we understand their ontological status?
- Metaphysics: What is reality, and what exists? What is the nature of those things? Do some things exist independently of our perception? What is the nature of space and time? What is the nature of thought and thinking? What is it to be a person?
- Aesthetics: What is it to be beautiful? How do beautiful things differ from the everyday? What is Art? Does true beauty exist?

There are many overlapping issues between the categories.

However, these five broad categories are not the only areas of philosophical inquiry. Politics (seen by Aristotle as part of ethics), physics, geology, biology, meteorology, astronomy, etc., were all originally part of philosophy. The Greeks, through the influence of Socrates and his method, developed a tradition of analysis that divided a subject into its components in order better to understand it. Use of this method is what made those subjects philosophical; and since many subjects made use of that method, the scope of philosophical material was wide. In addition, a number of subfields of philosophy have enjoyed contemporary focus and research.

One way to distinguish the thinker who is pursuing philosophy from a person making an ordinary inquiry about the world is to ask the question, "does this person throughout his or her life consistently address concerns of logic, epistemology, ethics and aesthetics, and ontology and metaphysics, or does he or she advance his or her thoughts without regard for the systematic relationships between these areas of inquiry"? Someone who pursued only logic without thinking of ethics, or epistemology without thinking of aesthetics, could hardly be called a philosopher.

What Is Sociology?

The word ‘sociology’ comes from the Latin, *socius* (companion) and the Greek *ology* (study of). Sociology is the study of human behaviour in society. Sociologists are interested in the study of people and have learned a fundamental lesson: all human behaviour occurs in societal context. That context – the institutions and culture that surround us – shapes what people do and think. The discipline itself has an ambivalent genealogy and a controversial recent history as the newest of the social science. Historically, the word itself was first used by Auguste Comte. In the aftermath of industrial revolution and consequent political upheavals we can see the concern with society as such as a direct object of study. In Comte’s work sociology was to be the highest achievement of science, producing knowledge of the laws of the social world, equivalent to our knowledge of the laws of nature.

In its present form, sociology embraces a range of different views concerning both what a social science should comprise and what might be the proper subject-matter of sociology in particular. There are *three general conceptions* of the object of sociological interest. The first states that the proper object of sociology is *social structure*, in the sense of patterns of relationships which have an independent existence, over and above the individuals and the groups that occupy positions in these structures. There are two main versions of this approach: *Marxism*, which conceptualizes the structures of modes of production, and *Parsonian structural-functionalism* which identifies systems, sub-systems and role structures.

A second perspective deems the proper object of sociology to lie in something that we might call, with Durkheim, *collective representations*: meanings and ways of cognitively organizing the world which have a continued existence over and above the individuals who are socialized into them. Much modern *structuralist and post-modernist work* (in particular discourse-analysis) can be seen as a part of this tradition.

Finally, there are those for whom the proper object of sociological attention is *meaningful social action*, in the sense intended by *Max Weber*. The implicit or explicit assumption behind this approach is that there is no such thing as society: merely individuals and groups entering into social relationships with each other.

An education in sociology can help you think logically and analytically about society and its problems. *Key concepts* of sociological view are social structure, social institution, social change and social interaction. *Social structures* are organized patterns of social relationships and social institutions that together constitute society. Social structure is not “a thing” but refers to the fact that social forces, not always visible to the human eye, guide and shape human behaviour.

Social institutions are defined as established and organized systems of social behaviour with a particular and recognized purpose. The family, religion, marriage, government, and the economy are examples of major social institutions. Sociologists are also interested in *social change* – the alterations of society over time. Sociologists view society as both stable, but constantly changing. Sociologists see *social interaction* as behaviour between two or more people that is given meaning. Through social interaction people react and change, depending on the actions and reactions of others. Society results from social interaction; thus people are active agents in what society becomes.

Sociological research derives from the scientific method, meaning that it relies on empirical observation, and, sometimes, the testing of hypothesis. The *research process* involves several steps: *developing a research question, creating a research design, collecting data, analyzing the data, developing conclusions and reporting results*. Different designs are appropriate to different questions, but sociologists have to be concerned about the *validity, reliability and generalization* of their studies. There are several tools or techniques sociologists use to gather data. Among the most widely used are *survey research and interviews, participant observation, controlled experiment, content analysis, comparative and historical research*. Each has its own strengths and weaknesses. Surveys, for example, tend to be more generalizable than participant observation, but they are unable to capture the subtle nuances in social behaviour and its meaning that participant observation can.

Although no research in any field can always be value free, sociological research nonetheless strives for objectivity while recognizing that the values of the research may have some influence on the work. There are ethical considerations in doing sociological research, such as whether one should collect data without letting research subjects (people) know they are being observed.

Sociology is sometimes seen, at least by sociologists, as a queen of the social sciences, bringing together and extending the knowledge and insights of all the other adjacent disciplines. People often hold degrees in sociology and work with sociological skills. They can be employed as lecturers in colleges and universities, as researchers in research centers, in government positions, private organizations and public agencies. Sociologists have an important role in education, in community and public services, and in the development of public policy.

Psychology

The popular definition of psychology as 'the scientific study of behaviour and mental processes' conceals a multitude of theoretical approaches. In other words, psychology has many faces and is constantly changing and evolving.

This is reflected in one of its unique features as an academic discipline, namely that part of the specification content involves the attempt to define the discipline itself. While basic issues — such as 'What is the subject matter to be?' and 'How can/should it be conceptualised and investigated?' — have remained largely unchanged throughout psychology's history, the proposed solutions have not, and this is where the discipline's evolution has largely taken place.

There are different theoretical approaches to psychological problems such as behaviourist, psychodynamic, humanistic, cognitive, neurobiological (biogenic), social constructionist, feminist and evolutionary. What distinguishes different theoretical approaches is their views about the nature of human beings, and the appropriate methods for investigating them.

Other key differences concern definitions and explanations of 'normality' and 'abnormality', and the appropriate ways of treating psychological problems.

It could be argued that such a diversity of viewpoints is both inevitable (human beings are such complex creatures that no single approach could adequately capture the nature of their behaviour) and healthy (it prevents dogmatism, allows debate, and each approach can contribute something of value). Ironically, though, this same diversity has led some to claim that psychology cannot be considered to be a science. Different theoretical approaches can be seen as self-contained disciplines, as well as different facets of the same discipline.

The goals of psychology

A well-known psychologist Holt (1967) maintains that many psychologists subscribing to this misconception of natural science are too rigorous, objective and mechanistic (machine-like) in trying to emulate the nomothetic approach:

Most scientists, as contrasted with technologists, are themselves more motivated by the need to figure things out, to develop good theories and workable models that make nature intelligible, and less concerned with the ultimate payoff, the applied benefits of prediction and control that understanding makes possible.

It is because of, rather than despite, the 'intrinsically difficult and ambiguity-ridden' nature of psychology, that this view of natural science is so appealing, especially to behaviourists. Even if we accept Holt's argument regarding the importance of understanding in natural science, does it necessarily follow that prediction and control are appropriate aims for psychology (as they clearly are for physics and chemistry) along with explanation/understanding?

According to Allport (1960), 'Science aims to achieve powers of understanding, prediction and control above the level of unaided common sense'. Skinner (and other radical behaviourists) sees prediction and control as the

main aims of scientific psychology. This is consistent with scientism (see above) which, in turn, is a major feature of mainstream psychology. Although much research has moved beyond the confines of the laboratory experiment, method and measurement still have a privileged status (Smith et al. 1995).

Similarly, Van Langenhove (1995) believes that, despite vigorous attacks on scientism since the mid-1970s, psychology is still largely 'submerged' by the natural sciences model, with the experiment still predominant. According to Cattell (1981): The scientific study of personality seeks to understand personality as one would the mechanism of a watch, the chemistry of the life processes in a mammal or the spectrum of a remote star. That is to say, it aims at objective insights; at the capacity to predict and control what will happen next; and at the establishment of scientific laws of a perfectly general nature.

Kline (1988) objects to Cattell's analogy for two main reasons. First, while there is no disagreement about what a watch is or isn't, this cannot be said of personality, which is a hypothetical construct, that is, an abstract term that has no independent existence beyond the mind which constructed it. Second, it is reductionist; while it is perfectly possible to study human physiology in an objective, scientific (nomothetic) way, this is not the same as studying personality or psychology. There is more to, say, our perceptual experience of the colour red than the neural, biochemical or electrical changes which accompany it: you haven't explained the former by explaining the latter.

Journalism Is Information

What is journalism? Journalism is information. It is communication. It is the events of the day distilled into a few words, sounds or pictures, processed by the mechanics of communication to satisfy the human curiosity of the world that is always eager to know what's new.

Journalism is basically news. The word derives from "journal"; its best contents are "*du jour*", of the day itself. But journalism may also be entertainment and reassurance, to satisfy the human frailty of a world that is always eager to be comforted with the knowledge that out there are millions of human beings just like us.

Journalism is the television picture beamed by satellite direct from the Vietnam war, showing men dying in agony. It is the television picture of a man stepping on to the surface of the moon, seen in millions of homes as it happens.

Journalism can communicate with as few people as a classroom newsheet or a parish magazine, or as with many people as there are in the world.

The cave man drawing a buffalo on the wall of his home did so to give other hunters the news that buffaloes were nearby. The town crier reciting the news in the market place provided a convenient way in which a number of

people could simultaneously learn facts affecting all their lives.

Today the news media are swamped by the very availability of news. There is simply more of it than ever before - unimaginably more, available to many more people. This is a transformation that has been achieved in a little over 100 years.

When admiral Lord Nelson died aboard the *Victory* after the Battle of Trafalgar in 1805, it took two weeks for the news to reach the Admiralty in London (a young lieutenant of the Royal Navy brought the dispatches personally, sailing in the sloop *Pickle* to Plymouth and then riding to London). It was some hours before important people in London heard the news, some days before it reached the other cities of Britain. There must have been outlying villages that the news took even longer to reach.

When President John Kennedy was assassinated in Dallas, Texas, in November 1963, the news of his death was known around the whole world in a matter of seconds. The political leaders of Russia and China, the financial manipulators in Geneva, the obscure tribesmen of Borneo all heard the news simultaneously.

This profound change in the pattern of human communication has taken place in hardly more than one man's lifetime.

Even forty years ago, most people in the developed world obtained their news from the newspapers. The newspapers had changed little from the days of *Caxton*. The process of printing had hardly changed at all, and the only modernization had been in machinery to produce and distribute a greater number of copies of each issue. Then radio arrived.

At first newspapers regarded it as a passing technical fad. One director of the Press Association returned from America in 1923 and said that "broadcasting is on the wane... People are getting so tired of it that it reminds one of the almost forgotten skating-rink craze". He was, of course, profoundly wrong. In America, the effects of radio were more rapid in appearing, due to the springing up of hundreds of small town radio stations. In Britain, radio was put under the control of a non-profit-making body financed by government-collected licence fees and charged with the duty of providing a nationwide broadcasting service.

The war reports of the *BBC* radio from 1939 to 1945 should have warned newspapers that radio could rival them in the presentation of news. But it was not until television was introduced in Britain in 1956 (with the commercially backed Independent Television Authority rivaling the *BBC*'s television service) that the television set entered 80 per cent of British homes and the way in which most people learnt their news changed radically.

Journalism is about people. It is produced for people. So how has the ordinary man's receptivity to journalism changed in twenty years?

Fifty years ago, a family might listen to a news bulletin on the living-room

radio over breakfast. Father would read his morning paper over breakfast or on the bus or train going to work. After work, he would buy an evening paper and read it on the way home, handing it over to his wife who would read it when she had washed up after the evening meal. Then they might listen to the BBC nine o'clock radio news.

What happens now? The bedside transistor radio switches itself on with the alarm. Mother has her radio on in the kitchen as she cooks breakfast. The kids have their radios switched to Radio One with its mixture of pop music and news flashes. Father glances at the morning paper over breakfast, then gets into the car and turns on "Today" as he drives to work. Mother carries the radio around the house as she dusts and makes the beds to the voice of Jimmy Young. Father buys an evening paper as he leaves work, glances at the headlines, then turns on the six o'clock radio news as he drives home. After eating, they turn on the telly and sit down to an evening's viewing. Mother may read the evening paper if there is a sports programme on TV which she finds boring. They watch the BBC's television nine o'clock or *ITN's* "News at Ten".

It is an immense change. These are the people for whom journalists are working. They have to take account of these social changes, which have occurred in most countries of the world.

The newspaperman has to be aware of the changes in the lives of his readers. It is not enough for him to print the "hard news" of the evening before (most national newspapers start printing their major editions around 10 pm, with further editions for the city in which they are produced coming up until 4 am), since his readers who look at the paper over breakfast will have heard most of that and seen many of the public figures and significant events on television the night before. Or they will hear on the early morning radio news items which have become news three hours later than the latest possible edition of the morning paper.

The press has been slow to catch on to this change and to revise its methods of operation so that the newspaper still has a function. That it has a function, there can be no doubt: for the television or radio news bulletin is tightly encapsulated, containing only a few of the main facts in a highly abbreviated form.

Newspapers are archives, objects of record. They can be referred to, checked back on, in a way that the television or radio news cannot. They can describe events at greater length, add more relevant detail, give authoritative comment from people in a position to detect trends and the likely lines in which a news story will develop.

But the old concept of a newspaper "scoop" is virtually dead-killed by radio and television.

Communication

Disciplinary Roots of Communication Research

The importance of communication in human affairs was recognized at the dawn of scholarly inquiry, when Plato, Aristotle, and Isocrates undertook major treatises on its role in politics, the courts, and epistemology. Its importance is no less evident today in the renewed attention to communication processes recently undertaken by many social sciences, as they attempt to understand the impact of communication technologies on their own practices, as well as the effects on other individuals, their relationships, institutions, and society.

Communication today is a broad discipline, including scholars from academic departments of Communication, Speech Communication, and Mass Communication, as well as groups in Information Systems, Library Science, Management, and Family Studies. Communication research employs a wide range of methodologies, including all types of quantitative and qualitative social scientific research methods, mathematical modeling, simulation, and rhetorical and discourse analysis. The field has also developed methods uniquely suited to its subject matter, such as content analysis, semantic network analysis, nonverbal communication analyses, and phase mapping for the study of communication processes over time. Communication inquiries range from the development of general and abstract theories on how communication figures in social change, to middle-range research on topics such as the impact of the Internet on interpersonal relationships, to applied research on questions such as how communication promotes learning in both physical and “virtual” classrooms. Significant areas of communication research include:

- interpersonal communication
- nonverbal communication
- persuasion and social influence
- group communication
- organizational communication
- communication networks
- mediated communication
- communication technology and media studies
- health communication
- family communication
- instructional communication
- legal communication
- communication and public policy

The field of communication has important interdisciplinary connections as well. Communication scholars from discipline-based departments have con-

ducted major research projects with colleagues from the fields of psychology, sociology, information systems, journalism, medicine, political science, and linguistics. Some of these projects have brought multiple perspectives to bear on communication phenomena such as the impact of media on adolescent health. Communication scholars have contributed their unique view of social processes to phenomena centered in another field, for example, the analysis of the role of communication in urban decision-making. As the common currency of human life, communication is often an integrating factor in interdisciplinary inquiries.

What distinguishes communication research from other, similar approaches to social behavior? Often there is considerable overlap, and there is a healthy exchange between communication research scholarship and that of other disciplines. Yet, while communication outcomes are influenced by a host of psychological and sociological factors that set the stage for interaction (e.g., personality, goals, social skills, contextual and relational norms), the influences of these factors frequently pale in comparison to actual communication dynamics, once people commence interaction. For example, cognitive factors are likely to exert their strongest influence early in conversations and to diminish in importance as the interaction proceeds, as communicators adjust to ongoing conversational behavior. Thus, a focus on *messages* and *patterns of messages* is essential to understanding the consequences of human interaction and the relationship between what precedes and follows from it.

Unlike most other social sciences, the field of communication has industries closely associated with it. The media and telecommunications industries — two of the most important and fastest growing sectors of the economy in the late 20th and early 21st centuries — have radically reshaped traditional patterns of social interaction, work, politics, and economic activity. They have contributed greatly to the increased pace of change and to the globalization that promise to be dominant themes of the 21st century. The interactions between industry and communication researchers suggest significant research questions and provide grounding for many subjects of inquiry.

The discipline of communication — grounded in a rich and ever-expanding intellectual tradition, generating a wide range of disciplinary and interdisciplinary research, and engaged with major industries — is dedicated to addressing critical social needs and improving lives through basic and applied research.

Theories of Communication

A message may move from the sender through the media to the receiver without necessarily *conveying ideas* and getting them accepted. Yet ideas do get accepted, and there are several theories about how this is done.

The *two-step flow theory* assumes that there is a definite group of "opinion leaders" who get information from the media, analyze and interpret it, and then pass it along to the public. The theory fails due to the fact that no permanent group of people serves as opinion leaders on all subjects.

The *multistep flow theory* holds that there are opinion leaders on many different subjects and that they have varying degrees of influence.

The *opinion group theory* is fairly well accepted. It recognizes opinion leaders but does not assume that they are the sole influence on the formation of public opinion. The basic *emphasis* is on the function of discussion in crystallizing opinion. People of similar interests discuss mutual problems and arrive at common conclusions. People try to conform to group opinion and to avoid disagreement with the majority. Anyone may belong to several groups — at work, at church, at leisure. Grouping may be by age, occupation, place of residence, and so on. Whenever there is a common interest, there is formal or informal grouping.

The *diffusion theory* was developed in the 1930s. It holds that there are five steps in the process of acquiring new ideas:

- *Awareness* — the person discovers the idea.
- *Interest* — the person tries to get more information.
- *Trial* — the person tries the idea on others.
- *Evaluation* — the person decides whether the idea is in his or her own self-interest.
- *Adoption* — the person incorporates the idea into his or her opinion.

In this model, the public relations writer is most influential at the awareness and interest stages of the process. People, for example, often become aware of a product, service, or idea through traditional *mass outlets* such as newspapers, magazines, radio, and television. Indeed, the primary purpose of advertising in the mass media is to create awareness, the first step in moving people toward the purchase of a product or support of an idea.

At the interest stage, more direct media — *pamphlets*, *brochures*, direct mail, videotape presentations, even conferences and symposiums — play an important role. Once *awareness* has been created, people turn to more detailed information in these direct media channels.

The *hierarchy-of-needs theory* has been applied in a number of disciplines, including communication. It is based on the work of Abraham H. Maslow, who listed basic human needs on a scale from basic survival to more complex ones:

- *Physiological needs*. These are the constituents of self-preservation. They include air, water, food, clothing, shelter, rest, and health — the minimum necessities of life.

- *Safety needs*. These comprise protection against danger, loss of life or property, restriction of activity, and loss of freedom.
- *Social needs*. These include acceptance by others, belonging to groups, and enjoying both friendship and love.
- *Ego needs*. These include self-esteem, self-confidence, accomplishment, status, recognition, appreciation, and the respect of others.
- *Self-fulfilment needs*. These represent the need to grow to one's full stature — simply as a human being or in terms of some special talent, gift, or interest.

Effective messages carry components of these needs from the standpoint of helping people achieve them in some way. In sum we're talking about the self-interest of the audience. Indeed, if you can keep in mind the self-interest of your target audiences when formulating messages, you will be an effective communicator.

Most public relations activity is aimed at lower-level needs because people are generally more concerned about their families, jobs, and homes than they are about more abstract goals. Economics may get most of the attention, but don't forget that there are many people who do have non-economic interests.

Applying Theory to Practice

Understanding the concepts of opinion formation, the process of information diffusion, and the psychological needs of audiences has a great deal of practical application for the public relations writer.

The diffusion model, for example points out that mass and direct media are most important in the beginning stages of the process. Although the writer's goal is ultimately to change attitudes and behavior, this is difficult to accomplish unless the audience (1) is highly interested in the message, (2) is predisposed to accept it, and (3) receives reinforcement of the message through their opinion leaders and *peer groups*.

Consequently, most writers are realistic enough to have the limited objectives of message exposure and accurate dissemination of the message, which coincide with the interest and awareness stages of the diffusion model.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS MOST FREQUENTLY USED IN SCIENTIFIC LITERATURE

A. – academician – академик
abbr. – abbreviation – сокращение
abr. – abridged – сокращение
A.C. – after Christ – нашей эры
A.D. – anno Domini (Lat.) – нашей эры
a.f. – as follows – как указано далее
afsd – aforesaid – вышеупомянутый
a.m. – above mentioned – вышеупомянутый
a.o. – and others – и другие
app – approximate – приблизительный
Appx – appendix – приложение
BA – Bachelor of Arts – бакалавр гуманитарных наук
B. A. – British Academy – Британская академия
BC – before Christ – до нашей эры
b/f – brought forward – вынесенный на рассмотрение
bk – back – обратно, назад
B.R. – book of reference – справочник
BS – Bachelor of Science – бакалавр естественных наук
c – centre or class – центр или класс, разряд
c – copy – копия, экземпляр
c. – cubic – кубический
c. – current – текущий
c. – cycle – цикл
c.c. – chapters – разделы, главы
ch. – chapter – глава
cit. – cited – цитированный
chron. – chronology – хронология
conf. – confer – сравни
d. – degree – 1. градус, 2. степень, ранг
diss. – dissertation – диссертация
DM – Doctor of Sc. Medicine – доктор медицины
Dr. – doctor – (ученая степень)
dup., dupl. – duplicate – дубликат, второй экземпляр
e. – error – ошибка
ed. – edition – издание
e.g. – exempli gratia (Lat.) – например
Enc. – Encyclopedia – энциклопедия

equiv. – equivalent – эквивалент
esp. – especially – особенно
et al. – et alii (Lat.) – и другие
etc. – et cetera (Lat.) – и так далее
ff – following – следующий
fict. – fiction – беллетристика
fig. – figure – 1) цифра; 2) схема, изображение
fn – foot-note – сноска
for. fr. – former – прежний
fur. – further – далее
geol. – geology – геология; geological – геологический
geom. – geometry – геометрия
h. – hour – час
hdbk – hand-book – руководство, справочник
hf – half – половина
hist. – history – история; historical – исторический
HM – Her (his) Majesty – ее(его) величество
Hon. – honorable – почтенный
hor. – horizon – горизонт, horizontal – горизонтальный
H.Q. – high quality – высшее качество
hum. – human – человеческий, гуманный; humanitarian – гуманитарий
i – inch – дюйм
i.e. – id est (Lat.) – то есть
i.f. – in full – полный, законченный, полностью
I.Q. – intelligence quotient – коэффициент умственного развития
ill. – illustration – рисунок, иллюстрация; illustrated – иллюстрированный
illeg. – illegal – незаконный
im – immediate – срочный, незамедлительный
in. – inch – дюйм
int – international – международный
intr – introduce – вводить; introduction – введение
inv – inverse – обратный, противоположный
i.o. – in order – в порядке
iss. – issued – выпущенный, изданный
jnt, jt – объединенный, совместный
L. c. – loco citato (Lat.) – в цитированном месте
lang. – language – язык
lect. – lecture – лекции; lecturer – лектор
leg. – legal – законный
li – list – список, перечень

Lib. – library – библиотека
lit. – literature – литература, literary – литературный
ll. – lines – строки
LLD – Doctor of Laws – доктор права
log. – logic – логика; logical – логический
Ltd. – limited – ограниченный
MA – Master of Arts – магистр гуманитарных наук
marg. – marginal – записанный на полях
max. – maximum – максимум; maximal – максимальный
mem., memo – memorandum – меморандум, памятная записка
meth. – method – метод; methodical – методический
misc. – miscellaneous – различный, смешанный
mk. – mark – знак, пометка; marked – имеющий пометку, обозначенный
MP – Member of Parliament – член парламента
MS – manuscript – рукопись
MSc – Master of Science – магистр естественных наук
mns. – manuscript – рукопись
mvt. – movement – движение
N., n. – name – имя, фамилия
N., n. – note – заметка, примечание
Nb., Nbr. – number – число, номер
N.B. – nota bene (Lat.) – запомнить хорошо
n.d. – no date – без даты
N.E. – new edition – новое издание
NEI – not elsewhere indicated – нигде не указано
n/m – not marked – нигде не указано
no. – number – число, номер
n.p. – no place of publication mentioned – место издания не указано
nt.wt. – net weight – чистый вес, нетто
o/a, o.a. – overall – всеобъемлющий
o.a.t. – one at a time – по одному
obj. – object – 1) объект, цель; 2) дополнение (прям.)
obs. – obsolete – устаревший
O.C. – official classification – официальная классификация
O.D., O/D – on demand – по запросу
of. – official – официальный
opp. – opposite – противоположный
ors – others – другие, прочие
p.a. – per annum (Lat) – в год
p.c. – per cent (Lat) – процент

P. G. – post-graduate – аспирант
Ph. D. – Doctor of Philosophy – доктор философии
pfd. – preferred – предпочтительный
pict. – pictorial – иллюстрированный
prec. – preceding – предшествующий
Pref. – preface – предисловие
pref. – preference – предпочтение; preferable – предпочтительный
P.S. – post scriptum (Lat.) – приписка
pub. – public – публичный; publication – издание, публикации; published – опубликованный
Q. – question – вопрос
R. – Royal – королевский (англ.)
R&D – research and development – научно-исследовательские и конструкторские работы
re. – reference (to) – ссылка (на)
Rect. – rector – ректор
ref. – reference – ссылка
res. – research – исследование, исследовательский
resp. – respective – соответствующий
rev. – reverse – обратный
rev. – revised – пересмотренный, исправленный
rm – room – комната, помещение
S/sec. – section – раздел, секция
Sig. – signature – подпись
Sc. – scale – масштаб
sq – square – квадрат, квадратный
Sr. – senior – старший
St. – saint – святой
sym. – symbol – обозначение, символ
syst. – system – система; systematic – систематический
t.o. – turn over – смотрите на обороте
tech. – technique – техника, technical – технический
term. – terminology – терминология, terminological – терминологический
a.s. – at supra (Lat.) – как сказано выше
u. – unit – единица, united – объединенный
u.m./umn – undermentioned – нижеследующий
unf. – unfinished – незаконченный
univ. – universal – универсальный
viz. – videlicet (Lat.) – а именно
vol. – volume – 1) объем, 2) том

v.v. – vice versa (Lat.) – наоборот
Wks. – works – труды, сочинения
Xmas – Christmas – рождество
Y. – year – год
YB – yearbook – ежегодник

КРАТКИЙ РУССКО-АНГЛИЙСКИЙ СЛОВАРЬ ОБЩЕНАУЧНОЙ ЛЕКСИКИ

А

абзац – paragraph
автор – the author
анализ, разбор, рассмотрение – treatment

Б

благодаря, из-за – due to, because of, as a result of
благодаря тому (что) – due to

В

важный – essential, important
вдумчивый, глубокий – profound, deep
весьма – rather, highly
(быть) взаимосвязанным – be interrelated
видоизмененный (модифицированный) – modified
вклад – contribution
включать (содержать) – include, contain
включать, содержать, состоять (из) – comprise
влияние – influence, influence of... on... effect of... on...
влиять – influence, affect, effect
под воздействием (влиянием) – under the influence (of)
внимательно – carefully
воздействие – action of ... on...
воздействовать – act on (upon), affect
воздействовать – affect
оказывать воздействие на – produce an effect on
возможный – possible
вследствие (в результате) – as a result of (the fact)
вызывать (быть причиной) – cause
выходить (из печати) – appear in print
вычислять, подсчитывать – calculate
выявлять (причину, суть) – account for
гипотеза – hypothesis
глава – chapter
глубина – depth
говорить (свидетельствовать) в пользу – favour
годный (подходящий) – applicable, suitable

Д

давать (представлять) – present, offer
давать (создавать, производить) – give, produce, provide, yield
давать возможность – enable, allow, permit
данные – findings (on), data, evidence
детально, подробно – in detail
действительный (результативный) – effective
действовать (на) – act on (upon)
делать заключение (вывод) относительно – make (draw, reach) a conclusion, come to a conclusion (that)
десятилетие – decade
диапазон (интервал) – range
в интервале – in (over) the range (of)
в пределах – within the range (of)
доказывать – prove
должный – due
должное внимание – due attention
дополнительный – additional
допускать, позволять (давать возможность) – make it possible
дорогой – expensive
достаточно близкий (хороший) – reasonably close (good), fairly close (good)
достижение – achievement
достоинство – merits

З

зависеть от – depend on (upon)
быть зависимым – be dependent on (upon)
не зависеть от – be independent on
зависимость... от... – dependence of... on (upon)...
в зависимости от – depending on
заключать (делать заключение) – infer (from)
заключать (приходить к заключению, выводу) – conclude
(в) заключение – in conclusion
заменять, замещать – replace
заметный – marked
заметный, замечательный (примечательный) – notable

И

избегать (исключать) – avoid
извещение (получать) – retrieve

издавать, публиковать – publish
издание – edition
изменение (в зависимости) – variation of ... with, change of...with
изменяется (в зависимости от.) – vary, change with
измерять – measure
изучать (анализировать) – analyze
изучать (проверять) – examine
изучать (рассматривать) – consider
изучение – study
иллюстрировать, показывать – illustrate
инструмент – tool
искать – search
исключать, устранять (ошибку) – eliminate (error)
исключительный – unique, peculiar
исключительный, уникальный – exclusive
использоваться (применяться) – be applicable
исправленное и дополненное (издание) – revised and completed
исследование – investigation
исходный момент – starting point
исходя из – on the basis of

К

касаться (затрагивать) – deal with
касаться (разбирать) – treat
компоненты – components
конструкция – design
контроль за – control over
под контролем – under control
концентрация – concentration
косвенный – indirect
краткий – brief, short
кроме (за исключением) – except (for) (of) with the exception

Л

ляпсус, описка – lapse

М

метод, методика – method, technique, approach
метод проб и ошибок – hit-and-miss method
многообещающий – promising, perspective

монография – monograph

Н

надежный – reliable

надлежащий – proper, appropriate

научная статья – paper

недостаток (недочет) – drawback, disadvantage

недостатки – shortcomings, disadvantages

недостаточный (плохой) – poor

неоценимый – invaluable

непростительный – unpardonable

несоответствующий, неточный, не отвечающий требованиям – inadequate

нестандартный – unconventional

неточный – crude

новый (новейший) – recent, latest

О

обзор, охват, понимание – grasp

обзор (анализ) – survey

облегчать – facilitate

обобщенный – generalized

обозрение – review

оборудование – equipment

оборудование (все, что облегчает работу) – facility

обрабатывать – treat

обсуждать – discuss

обуславливаться – be due to

обширный – extensive

общепринятый (метод) – (a method) generally (universally) used

общеупотребительный – universal

общий – general

в общем – in general

объем, охват – coverage

объяснять – explain

обычно – commonly, ordinarily

обычный (общепринятый) – usual, conventional

ограничение – limitation

ожидаемый – expected

ожидать (на основании что-либо) – expect (from)

ожидать (предполагать) – presume

окончательный – final
опечатка – misprint
описка – misspell
описывать – describe
описывать (в общих чертах) – outline
определенный – certain
определять – determine
опубликование, издание – publication
оригинальный, самостоятельный, новый – original
освещение вопросов – coverage
основа, обоснование – foundation
основой – fundamental
основой (главный) – main, chief, basic,
основывать (на) base – ground (on, upon)
особенность – peculiarity
особенно (предпочтительно) – especially, particularly, specially, specifically
особо (подчеркивается) – with special attention to..., with particular emphasis on...
особый – particular, special, specific
отличаться (от) – differ (from)
отличный (от) – different from
относить за счет – attribute to
относиться – be related to, be connected with
относиться (к) – refer (to)
отношение к/между – relationship to/between
отражать – reflect
отсутствие – absence
в отсутствие – in the absence (of)
оценивать, подсчитывать – estimate
очевидный – obvious, distinct
ошибка – mistake
научное заблуждение – error
ошибочный – erroneous

II

первостепенный – primary
переработка, изменение – revision
перспективный – perspective
погрешность (ошибка), заблуждение – error
поддерживать – support

подзаголовок – subheading, subtitle
подробно – thoroughly
подробный – detailed
подсчитывать, рассчитывать (с помощью вычислительной техники) –
compute
подтверждать – confirm, verify
подход, прием, процедура – approach, procedure, technique, method
подходящий (соответствующий) – appropriate
позволять – allow, permit
показывать – indicate, demonstrate, show, illustrate
показывать (обнаруживать, проявлять) – show, reveal, exhibit
полезный – useful (of use) helpful
полностью – fully
полный – full, complete, excellent
полный, исчерпывающий – comprehensive
получать – obtain
полученный (выведенный из) – inferred from
помимо, кроме – besides, in addition to
помнить – keep (bear) in mind
поправка (на...) – correction (for)
попытка – attempt
пытаться – make an attempt
посвящать – devote
потому что – resulting from (the fact that), because
походить (быть похожим) – resemble, be like (alike), be similar, be analogous (to), be identical (with)
похожий (одинаковый) – similar, analogous
правильный (хорошо обоснованный) – valid
предварительный – preliminary
предлагать – propose, suggest
вносить предложение – make a suggestion
предлагать исходя из (на основании) – suggest from
предположение – assumption
предпринимать – undertake
представлять (материал) – give, present
представлять (собой) – constitute
прежде – formerly, previously
прежний – former
преимущества – advantages
прибор – device

прибор (измерительный) – instrument
приводить (к) (давать в результате) – lead to, give rise to, arise
приводить к заключению (выводу) – lead to a conclusion, make it possible to conclude (that)
приветствовать – welcome
пригодный – adequate
применение – application
применять (использовать) – use, employ, apply (to), utilize, adopt, find use (application)
приписывать – ascribe to
присутствие – presence
присутствие – the presence (of)
причина – reason
основная причина – the main reason
проблема, вопрос – problem
проверять – check, test, verify
проектировать – design
производить (возбуждать) – produce, generate, induce, result in
производить (обеспечивать, создавать) – create, yield, generate
проистекать, происходить из – arise from, result from
проницательный, критический – intelligent
пропуск – omission, gap
простой – simple
противоположный (альтернативный) – alternative
противоречить – contradict
противоречивый – contradictory, ambiguous
прямой – direct, straightforward
раздел – section
разительный – great, striking
разнообразие, множество – a great variety
разнообразный – various
разносторонний, применимый (в разных случаях) – versatile
разный (разнообразный) – different, various
разочаровывающий, вызывающий разочарование – disappointing
разрабатывать – develop
разрешать – permit, allow
ранее – earlier, formerly, previously
располагать, классифицировать – arrange
распространять (на) – extend (to)
рассматривать – consider

рассматривать, обсуждать – discuss, explore, handle
рассматриваемый, рецензируемый – under review
расхождение – discrepancy, disagreement
расходиться (не соответствовать) – disagree with, be in disagreement
редкий (малое количество) – scarce
результат – result
в результате – as a result
рекомендовать – recommend
рецензируемая книга – the book under review
решать – solve, settle
рисунки, пояснения – illustrations
свидетельствовать – witness
свойство – property
связывать – relate to
(быть) связанным – be associated with
связь (между) – relation of...and..., relation between...and...
сейчас, теперь – at present
серьезный – serious, severe
сильно (во многом) – greatly, largely
скорость – speed
со скоростью – at the speed (of)
следовательно (таким образом) – thus, therefore, consequently
следовать (за), сопровождаться – follow, be followed
сложный – complicated
случайный – incidental
собирать – assemble, collect
совершенно (совсем) – radically, absolutely
современный – up-to-date, modern
совпадение (подгонка) – fit
годиться, подходить – be fit
согласие (соответствие) – match
содержание – content
содержать, включать – contain
сожалеть – regret
(к) сожалению – regretfully, unfortunately
создавать – create
соображение, выводы – considerations
сообщать – report
сооружение – construction
соответствие (согласие) – agreement, correlation

согласовываться, соответствовать – be in agreement (with)
соответствующий – appropriate, adequate, proper
сопоставлять (сравнивать) – compare...(with), ...make (give) a comparison with
сочетать – combine
список (литературы) – list of literature
справедливый (обоснованный), годный – valid
сравнение – comparison
ссылаться (на) – refer (to)
ссылки – references
статья – paper (научная), article
строгий (точный) – rigorous
строить – construct
суммировать – sum up
температура – temperature
при температуре – at the temperature (of)
теория – theory
технология – technology, technique
типичный – typical
быть типичным (для) – be typical of
толковать (интерпретировать) – interpret
том – volume
точный – exact, accurate, adequate
трудный – difficult
тщательно – accurately
тщательно разработанный – elaborate
тщательный – careful, thorough

У

убедительный – convincing
угол – angle
под углом – at the angle (of)
удобный – convenient
удовлетворительный – satisfactory
узкий (малый, ограниченный) – limited
уменьшать – reduce, minimize (an error)
упоминать – mention
упущение – omission
уровень – level
на высоком уровне – at the high level
усовершенствованный – improved

успех – success
успешный – successful
устанавливать – establish
установка – set up
устанавливать (связь) – establish (relation)
устаревший – outdated
учитывать – consider
учитывая (согласно) – according to

Ф

факт – fact
функция – function

Х

характеризоваться – be characterized (by)
характерная черта – characteristic feature
характерный – specific, characteristic

Ц

цель – aim, object, purpose, task (всегда с определенным артиклем)
ценный – valuable
иметь значение – be of (great) value

Ч

частота – frequency
при (на) частоте – at the frequency (of)
часть (раздел) – part
черта (признак) – feature
четкий – clear
чувствительный – sensitive

Ш

широкий – wide
в большом масштабе – at the scope of
экономичный – efficient
эксперимент – experiment
эффективный (действенный) – effective

TOP BUSINESS WEBSITES

BP

<http://www.bp.com/index.asp>

BP's site provides good examples of social and ethical audits (but it needs Adobe). Given the current issues over the "green" credentials of oil companies, here is a company that is stating its intentions for all to see. It also emphasises "green" marketing place.

Advertising Standards Associations

<http://www.asa.org.uk>

This site gives an interesting insight into social responsibilities and how pressure can be brought to bear on companies, both large and small. It is kept up to date and helps with the marketing, social and ethical responsibilities and the external influences sections of your specifications.

Dyson

<http://www.dyson.com>

Find out how research and development is used in a business – see particularly the pages on the vacuum cleaner and the washing machine. It provides useful information about the importance of research, and how products are developed from the findings of research.

Definitions

<http://www.projectalevel.co.uk/business/index.html>

If you are ever wanted a quick checkup on those 3 mark "Explain the term ..." questions, this is the site to contact. Its provides a wide range of basic definitions and descriptions aimed at students, but is probably more suitable for AS than A2.

Bized

<http://www.bized.ac.uk/virtual/economy>

Bized provides good case studies and follows through the effects of policy changes introduced by the government. You can be the chancellor and choose a government strategy, then you can be the owner/chief executive of a company and analyse and evaluate the impact of the government's policy on your business.

The Economist

<http://www.economist.com>

The Economist's site contains some good articles that will allow you to consider really up-to-date issues and test your application of theory. Although some articles have to be paid for, others are free to view.

Business Bureau

<http://www.businessbureau-uk.co.uk>

This is a website designed for small businesses and for those just starting up. It has good explanations of terms and is therefore helpful as a quick revision site. It also demonstrates that the stuff learnt in the classroom is actually used in the real world of business.

Accounting and Finance

<http://flexinvest.co.uk/index.htm>

If you need a quick revision aid or are just getting to grips with the accounting and finance section of your course, then this is the site for you. It provides a simple summary of ratios and financial documents, under the heading "Company Accounts Analysis".

The Times 100

<http://www.thetimes100.co.uk>

This site provide a range of case studies featuring many "household names". It is therefore a good source of examples for you to practise on. However, as not all the questions will be relevant, careful selection is needed to ensure that the case study fits the topic under investigation in class. Answers can also be sought independently using the websites of the particular companies featured in the case studies.

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GRADUATES**

**АНГЛИЙСКИЙ ЯЗЫК
ДЛЯ АСПИРАНТОВ**

Учебно-методическое пособие для аспирантов

А в т о р ы – с о с т а в и т е л и:

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на английском языке

Под общей редакцией доктора педагогических наук **Л.В. Хведчени**

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