KUNTHAVAI NAACCHIYAAR GOVERNMENT ARTS COLLEGE FORWOMEN(AUTONOMOUS)
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DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY (MA.ENGLISH)
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UNIT III – RHETORIC

The Rhetoric of Research is the art of speaking or writing effectively. It refers generally to how language is employed, but is has come to mean the insincere or even manipultive use of words. Technically, it includes the arts of persuasion and decoration or elaboration in literature (Frye, 1957).

Narration: The purpose of narrative writing is to tell stories. This is a form we are familiar with, as any time we tell a story about an event or incident in our day, we are engaging in a form of narration. In terms of writing, narration is the act of describing a sequence of events. Sometimes this is the primary mode of an essay—writing a narrative essay about a particular event or experience, and sometimes this is a component used within an essay, much like other evidence is offered, to support a thesis. This chapter will discuss the basic components of narration, which can be applied either as a stand-alone essay or as a component within an essay.

Ultimately, narrative writing tries to relay a series of events in an emotionally engaging way. You want your audience to be moved by your story, which could mean through laughter, sympathy, fear, anger, and so on. The more clearly you tell your story, the more emotionally engaged your audience is likely to be.

The following are the other basic components of a narrative:

* **Plot**. The events as they unfold in sequence.

* **Characters**. The people who inhabit the story and move it forward. Typically, each narrative has there are minor characters and main characters. The minor characters generally play supporting roles to the main character, or the protagonist.

* **Conflict**. The primary problem or obstacle that unfolds in the plot, which the protagonist must solve or overcome by the end of the narrative. The way in which the protagonist resolves the conflict of the plot results in the theme of the narrative.

* **Theme**. The ultimate message the narrative is trying to express; it can be either explicit or implicit.

* **Chronological order**. The order in which events unfold from first to last, is the most common organizational structure for narratives. Stories typically have a beginning, a middle, and an end. Certain transitional words and phrases aid in keeping the reader oriented in the sequencing of a story.

Description: It is the tool writers use to make things come alive for their readers, to make sure that their audience is fully immersed in the words on the page. Every time you tell a story to someone, or tell someone about something, you use description even if you don't know it. Description can be as basic as, "I have a blue car" or "That is such a cute baby" or as detailed as "*The flowers soak up the golden sun's rays and begin to show their vibrant colors."* Descriptive words are used to provide more information and

provide added insight. In fact, description is the one tool that most allows writers (and speakers) to show instead of just tell, which enables us to exemplify our points to our readers.

There are two basic types of description, **objective** and **subjective**. Objective description is demonstrated in the first two examples above; it gives a factual account of the subject. Subjective description offers a more personal view of the details by choosing specific words and phrases such as *vibrant* to describe colors in the above example. Vibrant doesn't just offer detail about the colors, it also offers an opinion or a value judgment within the description. Most descriptions offer a mix of the two to convey the details while also offering the audience an idea of the emotional context of the subject being described.

Cause and effect: It is often considered human nature to ask, "why?" and "how?" We want to know how our child got sick so we can better prevent it from happening in the future, or why our colleague received a pay raise because we want one as well. We want to know how much money we will save over the long term if we buy a hybrid car. These examples identify only a few of the relationships we think about in our lives, but each shows the importance of understanding cause and effect.

A cause is something that produces an event or condition; an effect is what results from an event or condition. The purpose of this is to determine how various phenomena relate in terms of origins and results. Sometimes the connection between cause and effect is clear, but often determining the exact relationship between the two is very difficult. For example, the following effects of a cold may be easily identifiable: a sore throat, a runny nose, and a cough. But, determining the cause of the sickness can be far more difficult. A number of causes are possible, and to complicate matters, these possible causes could have combined to cause the sickness. That is, more than one cause may be responsible for any given effect. Therefore, cause-and-effect discussions are often complicated and frequently lead to debates and arguments.

The cause-and-effect essay opens with a general introduction to the topic, which then leads to a thesis that states the main cause, main effect, or various causes and effects of a condition or event.

The cause-and-effect essay can be organized in one of the following two primary ways:

1. Start with the cause and then write about the effects.
2. Start with the effect and then write about the causes.

For example, if your essay were on childhood obesity, you could start by talking about the effect of childhood obesity and then discuss the cause or you could start the same essay by writing about the cause of childhood obesity and then move to the effect.

Regardless of which structure you choose, be sure to explain each element of the essay fully and completely. Explaining complex relationships requires the full use of evidence, such as scientific studies, expert testimony, statistics, and anecdotes.

Because cause-and-effect essays determine how phenomena are linked, they make frequent use of certain words and phrases that denote such linkage.
The conclusion should wrap up the discussion and reinforce the thesis, leaving the reader with a clear understanding of the relationship that was analyzed.

A cause and effect paper answers the question, "How did this happen?" Effective cause and effect analyses can be written on personal topics, perhaps by asking yourself why you happened to do

something. Although many undergraduate cause and effect papers may examine larger topics and subjects, be cautious about addressing causes and effects that are global and historical; rather, work toward a logical and coherent analysis of a more manageable subject. To discover all of the causes and all of the effects forma large topic might require much more time than a single semester and much more room than five or six paragraphs.

Conventions: Although your writing might stem from a hunch about what caused something to happen, definitely avoid presenting your analysis as a hunch. Your readers will probably look for certain problems of logic in your writing. These problems are called logical fallacies, and most academic readers are well aware of them, and might primarily be looking for them.

Your readers will also wonder about whether you have explained your causes sufficiently and whether you included all of the important causes. Remember that some causes are things out in the future, promises that someone will do something for now. For example, the primary cause for robbing a bank, said famed bank robber Willie Sutton, was because that was where the money was. Make sure that you present a lucid and cogent pattern of evidence to support your causal chain. For the benefit of your readers, make sure that you provide a clear thesis in the introduction and make certain that your paper works to support the thesis.

Strategies: Your first thought should be whether your ideas about cause and effect are compatible with your assignment. Have you selected a manageable subject? Be wary of complex problems because it is often very difficult to find their causes. Many things happen for more than one reason. However, when you have selected your subject, thin first about the chronology: what happened before the effect that might have caused it? If you can think of more than one cause, then write them down and assign them values: which one was more of a cause than the other? Noted philosopher Kenneth Burke provides us with a system of five questions that help us determine the causality of events and things. You might begin the process of finding causes by posing certain questions:

What kind of thing am I trying to explain here?
What type of person would do such a thing? Would a rational or an irrational person do it?
Where and when did this thing take place, and did the location and time have anything to do with the thing happening?
Was anything needed in order to accomplish the thing?
What would be someone's motivations to do this thing?

Use these heuristics in order to help you find causes as you initially consider your subject. Finally, if you can find an answer to each of the five questions, then you probably will be able to find a logical explanation that helps you to avoid logical fallacies.

Comparison and contrast : Comparison in writing discusses elements that are similar, while contrast in writing discusses elements that are different. A compare-and-contrast essay, then, analyzes two subjects by comparing them, contrasting them, or both.

The key to a good compare-and-contrast essay is to choose two or more subjects that connect in a meaningful way. The purpose of conducting the comparison or contrast is not to state the obvious but rather to illuminate subtle differences or unexpected similarities. For example, if you wanted to focus on contrasting two subjects you would not pick apples and oranges; rather, you might choose to compare and contrast two types of oranges or two types of apples to highlight subtle differences. For example, Red Delicious apples are sweet, while Granny Smiths are tart and acidic. Drawing distinctions between elements in a similar category will increase the audience's understanding of that category, which is the purpose of the compare-and-contrast essay.

Classification : It is to break down broad subjects into smaller, more manageable, more specific parts. We classify things in our daily lives all the time, often without even thinking about it. Cell phones, for

example, have now become part of a broad category. They can be classified as feature phones, media phones, and smartphones.

Smaller categories, and the way in which these categories are created, help us make sense of the world. Keep both of these elements in mind when writing a classification essay.
The classification essay opens with an introductory paragraph that introduces the broader topic. The thesis should then explain how that topic is divided into subgroups and why.

Deductive reasoning

Deductive reasoning is a basic form of valid reasoning. Deductive reasoning, or deduction, starts out with a general statement, or hypothesis, and examines the possibilities to reach a specific, logical conclusion, according to California State University. The scientific method uses deduction to test hypotheses and theories. "In deductive inference, we hold a theory and based on it we make a prediction of its consequences. That is, we predict what the observations should be if the theory were correct. We go from the general — the theory — to the specific — the observations," said Dr. Sylvia Wassertheil-Smoller, a researcher and professor emerita at Albert Einstein College of Medicine.
Deductive reasoning usually follows steps. First, there is a premise, then a second premise, and finally an inference. A common form of deductive reasoning is the syllogism, in which two statements — a major premise and a minor premise — reach a logical conclusion. For example, the premise "Every A is B" could be followed by another premise, "This C is A." Those statements would lead to the conclusion "This C is B." Syllogisms are considered a good way to test deductive reasoning to make sure the argument is valid.

According to California State University, deductive inference conclusions are certain provided the premises are true. It's possible to come to a logical conclusion even if the generalization is not true. If the generalization is wrong, the conclusion may be logical, but it may also be untrue.

Inductive reasoning

Inductive reasoning is the opposite of deductive reasoning. Inductive reasoning makes broad generalizations from specific observations. Basically, there is data, then conclusions are drawn from the data. This is called inductive logic.
"In inductive inference, we go from the specific to the general. We make many observations, discern a pattern, make a generalization, and infer an explanation or a theory.

Even if all of the premises are true in a statement, inductive reasoning allows for the conclusion to be false. Here's an example: "Harold is a grandfather. Harold is bald. Therefore, all grandfathers are bald." The conclusion does not follow logically from the statements.

Inductive reasoning has its place in the scientific method. Scientists use it to form hypotheses and theories. Deductive reasoning allows them to apply the theories to specific situations.

Logical Fallacies

- **Begging the Question (Supporting the Claim with a Restatement of the Claim)** Abortion is murder. Since most legal definitions of murder include reference to a human being, pro-lifers slip their premise in the conclusion that way.

- **Complex Question (Asking a Question that Cannot be Answered Harmlessly)** When did you stop beating your wife?
- **False Dilemma (Either/Or)** When Truman dropped the bombs on Japan, he had convinced himself he was down to two choices: nuclear strikes or a ground invasion costing the lives of thousands on both sides. Some historians are questioning whether he may have had other options.
- **Equivocation (Using Different Definitions of the Same Word)** Cultural literacy proponents have been known to say things like, "People can't flourish without being culturally literate." But 'flourish' is never defined, and it is often used many ways: financial success, moral probity, family happiness, etc.
- **Confusing Correlation with Causation (Post Hoc, Ergo Propter Hoc--After it, therefore because of it)** Correlation is when two things happen together; causation is when one actually causes the other. A couple obvious examples of the fallacy: "Cramming for a test really helps. Last week I crammed for a psych test and got an A on it." "I am allergic to the sound of a lawn mower because every time I mow the lawn, I start to sneeze."
- **Slippery Slope** A lot of First Amendment arguments fit here: "If he's forced to cut his hair, next thing you know all the kids will be wearing uniforms and saying 'Heil Principal.'"
- **Hasty Generalization**
- **1. Mistaking the part for the whole** We should get rid of the NEA because they have sponsored a few questionable events lately.
- **2. Suppressed evidence** The NEA director not mentioning the few questionable events when he asks for more money.
- **Faulty Analogy** This comes from psychologist Carl Rogers: "During the war when a test-tube solution was found to the problem of synthetic rubber, millions of dollars and an army of talent was turned loose on the problem of using that finding…But in the social science realm, if a way is found of facilitating communication and mutual understanding in small groups, there is no guarantee that the finding will be utilized."
- **Non Sequitur** I can't get a C on this paper because I got A's in high school.

Short list of Logical Fallacies

1. **Generalization** – *A conclusion or judgement made from insufficient evidence.* When one piece of evidence or information is used to make a broad conclusion or statement.
2. **Cherry picking** – *Picking and choosing only some of the available evidence in order to present only points most favorable to your point of view.* If someone knowingly chooses certain (favorable) pieces of information and conveniently ignores less favorable information, then the argument is not supported by all of the available research.
3. **Straw Man –** *An oversimplification of an opposing perspective so that it becomes easy to attac*k. This is unfair and illogical because when one oversimplifies or inaccurately represents an argument and refutes that oversimplified version, one is not actually addressing the argument.
4. **Red Herring –** *Changing topics to avoid the point being discussed.* This is an argument tactic in which one attempts to change the conversation, often by bringing up information that is not relevant to the claim or point being debated, in order to try to control the conversation. This can be a way to avoid having to address or answer the question at hand, and it harms the quality of an argument.
5. **Ad Hominem** – *It is a personal attack rather than a way of engaging with someone's ideas.* For example: "You are an idiot! That's why you're wrong!" This type of logical fallacy occurs when an arguer attacks or insults *the person* making opposing arguments instead of attacking the ideas, the logic, or the evidence

within the opposing argument itself. It is a personal attack rather than a way of engaging with someone's ideas.

6. **Ad Populum** – *A misused reference to popularly accepted values.* For instance: "This is about freedom and righteousness, and if you believe in those things, then you should believe my argument." This is an example of **misused ethos** – when the author is referencing the values that the audience cares about so that they think only about the values and not about the content of the argument (or, likely, the fact that there is little intellectual substance in what is being said).
7. **Either/or** – – *This is an argument that attempts to create a situation of absolutes with no options in between*. For example: "Either we intervene or we are basically no better than the Nazis." This thinking is fallacious because it assumes that there are only two options, with nothing in between.
8. **Slippery Slope –** *This is a fallacy that assumes that one thing is going to have a series of consequences or effects–often leading to a worst-case scenario.* For example: "If we let this happen, then that will happen and then the worst possible thing will happen." It is false reasoning because 1) it's impossible to predict the future, 2) it is illogical to suggest that one action will always necessarily lead to the worst possible outcome, and 3) it assumes a very specific chain of future events. This "if we let this happen there will be some horrible end" is **misuse of cause/effect reasoning**, often with some pathos (fear) sprinkled in.

When you are reading others' arguments, see if any of their reasoning is actually one of these fallacies of logic.

Audience : Although people often think of audience as composed of those who hear a speech (or see a movie, or listen to a song), in actuality, multiple audiences may exist, and not all of them may be present for the delivery of a speech. Audience can mean: any person who hears, reads or sees a symbolic action; the group targeted by a message, even if it is not present; or the group capable of acting in response to the message. Additionally, for any given symbolic action, multiple audiences may exist.

UNIT IV - Taking Notes & Documenting Sources

Note taking is an extremely important part of the research process as it can help you effectively use the material you find and make sure you credit the sources accurately. When you find good material to be used in your paper, make sure you take notes and document the sources. You should read the material critically, think how it is related to your argument, and decide how you are going to use it in your paper. Select the material that is relevant to your argument, briefly summarize it in your own words and make note of how you will use it.

Better notes will help you remember concepts, develop meaningful learning skills, and gain a better understanding of a topic. Effective notes will even lead to less stress when test time comes around! Learning how to take better study notes in class helps improve recall and understanding of what you are learning because it:
Ensures you are actively listening to what the teacher is saying
Requires you to think about what you are writing
Helps you make connections between topics
Serves as quality review material for after class
Using different note taking strategies is important, especially as you progress through high school and transition to college or university. There are several note taking techniques you can use to start taking better notes in class.
It's important to cite sources you used in your research for several reasons:

- To show your reader you've done proper research by listing sources you used to get your information
- To be a responsible scholar by giving credit to other researchers and acknowledging their ideas
- To avoid plagiarism by quoting words and ideas used by other authors
- To allow your reader to track down the sources you used by citing them accurately in your paper by way of footnotes, a bibliography or reference list

Citing a source means that you show, within the body of your text, that you took words, ideas, figures, images, etc. from another place. Citations are a short way to uniquely identify a published work (e.g. book, article, chapter, web site). They are found in bibliographies and reference lists and are also collected in article and book databases.

Citations consist of standard elements, and contain all the information necessary to identify and track down publications, including:

- author name(s)
- titles of books, articles, and journals
- date of publication
- page numbers
- volume and issue numbers (for articles)

Citations may look different, depending on what is being cited and which style was used to create them. Arts and humanities should follow the format given by Modern Language Association (MLA) style.

A researcher must cite: Facts, figures, ideas, or other information that is not common knowledge
Ideas, words, theories, or exact language that another person used in other publications
Publications that must be cited include: books, book chapters, articles, web pages, theses, etc.
Another person's exact words should be quoted and cited to show proper credit
When in doubt, be safe and cite your source!

Plagiarism occurs when you borrow another's words (or ideas) and do not acknowledge that you have done so. In this culture, we consider our words and ideas intellectual property; like a car or any other possession, we believe our words belong to us and cannot be used without our permission.

Plagiarism is a very serious offense. If it is found that you have plagiarized -- deliberately or inadvertently -- you may face serious consequences. In some instances, plagiarism has meant that students have had to leave the institutions where they were studying.

The best way to avoid plagiarism is to cite your sources - both within the body of your paper and in a bibliography of sources you used at the end of your paper.

Citation makes you a better researcher.
Some of the hallmarks of good research include attention to detail and the ability to discern patterns and make connections. Good citation practices can help with both. The proper attribution of sources entails many details, such as correct page numbers, the spelling of author names, and of course, the accuracy of facts that you are presenting in your own article or other work.
Becoming detail-oriented in one aspect automatically instills good habits across the board in your research. As for the ability to spot trends and patterns, preparing a good bibliography trains you for this task (which is crucial in scientific analysis) because of the vast amount of information it condenses into a short space.

Good citation practices make you a better writer.

All of us aspire towards that elegant paper in which the prose is as compelling as the content and good attribution habits build a strong foundation towards that goal. Citing specific sources for the various facts that we present removes the hallmarks of intellectual laziness, vague thinking, and sloppy writing as generalizations, clichés, and outright false claims, e.g., as when the phrases, "everyone knows" or "they say," are replaced with specific sources.

When you cite sources properly, you leave no question in your readers' minds regarding your point. Furthermore, by citing, you can easily use active language and avoid raising the dreaded red flag of passivity to journal editors and reviewers. Cite well, and you may forever expunge the phrase "It is said" from your academic paper.

A good citation shows off your literal knowledge.

A bibliography is simply the compilation of the various sources that you have read and cited in your own manuscript, dissertation, book, etc. Thus, an extensive citation is naturally a hallmark of a widely read and well-informed scholar or a researcher.

The last thing we need is a reviewer who says that we did not know our field because we forgot to cite a critical and well-known piece of literature.

Citation enables better verification of our work.

Any piece of academic writing gets vetted several times over before it finally makes it into print or onto a website. Whether one is a peer reviewer, editor, or editorial assistant whose job is simply to track down sources in the bibliography and make sure that the citations are accurate, life is simply easier when there is less busy work. So, our paper is much more likely to be passed through these multiple rounds of editing with minimal criticism and positive feedback if we have already taken the trouble to attribute our information correctly and cite all your sources.

For every source that you use in your project, you must include a full citation in a list of works cited. Here are instructions for compiling your works cited list and for structuring each citation. Click the tabs at the top to see examples of citations for different types of sources.

- The list of works cited should be located at the end of your paper.
- The list should begin on a new page with the title, Works Cited, centered at the top of the page.
- The works should be arranged in alphabetical order based on the first part of the citation (usually the author's last name).
- The list should be double-spaced.
- For citations longer than one line, the second and all subsequent lines should have a hanging indent of one inch from the margin.

What's the Difference between Bibliography vs. Works Cited?

we may have heard the two terms, "Bibliography" and "Works Cited" thrown around interchangeably. The truth is that they are two different words with two completely different meanings.

A bibliography is a list of sources that the writer *recommends* for further reading. A works cited list is a list of sources that were *included* in the author's writing. to gather some books and websites , we should create an MLA format bibliography by creating a list of full citations and label the page as "Bibliography."

We should create in-text citations and place them in the body of your work. Then, create a list of full citations and place them at the end of the project. Label the page as "Works Cited."

The good news is that references in MLA bibliography format and regular works cited references are structured the exact same way.

Format of a research paper:

The following formatting rules can be found in the MLA Style.

- Format your paper with 1 inch margins on all sides.
- Select an easily readable font (e.g. 12 point, Times New Roman)
- Double-space the entire paper. This should include text and the list of works cited.
- Indent the first line of each paragraph one inch from the margin.
- At the top left margin of the first page, type your name, your instructor's name, the course number, and the date.
- Type the title of your paper in the top, center of the first page following the standard rules for titles in MLA Style.
- Include your last name and page numbers, consecutively on all pages in the upper right-hand corner.
- Include a list of works cited beginning on a new page at the end of your paper.

Library VS Internet - nine good reasons to use the library : The Internet is not a substitute for the library, but a search tool to be used in addition to traditional sources in the library.

1. Everything Is Not On the Internet The Internet consists of a small percentage of what's published. Search engines such as Google, AltaVista, FireFox and Yahoo access are limited. ALA reports that only 8% of all journals and even fewer books are on the Internet. The most reliable scholarly information is available in books and journals. Preliminary steps to find the appropriate search terms should start with print indexes and subject headings volumes.

2. The Internet Is Not Organized

There is not a system that catalogs and organizes all resources on the Internet. A search on the Internet is similar to searching an unclassified catalog. When you use any of the search engines, you're searching only part of the Internet. Searches are not always relevant to your topic and can cause a lot of wasted time, frustration and confusion

3. The Internet Doesn't Have Quality Control

Quality control isn't easy to achieve on the Internet. Open Source information on the Internet is quite common and easy to get misinformed information. Anyone with access to the Internet can publish a Website.

4. Sources on the Internet are Harder to Identify

Information on the Internet is hard to tell who's telling you what and where is the location of the information. When you use information in your paper from the Internet, it's important to print it out and cite your sources. Information taken from the Web can change overnight. Information taken from the library or databases in the library gives the exact location. One must give full documentation when using information from a site. See the Academic Integrity Statement under Academic and Classroom Conduct for Tennessee State University's response to plagiarism and academic dishonesty.

To Cite the Internet:

- Author's name (if known)
- Full title of document in quotation marks
- Title of complete work if applicable (in italics)
- Date of publication of last revision (if available).
- Full URL address (http) enclosed within angle brackets
- Date of visit in parenthesis

5. Library Online Resources are Available 24/7

Online databases can be accessed 24 hours a day 7 days a week from the library's webpage. These databases are in the library's collection and can be accessed on campus and remotely with your University ID via the Internet. This is not to be confused with searching the Internet.

6. Tuition and Fees Pay for Library Use

Library resources are paid for with your tuition and fees, so take advantage of it. Libraries provide free access to scholarly books, journals, newspapers, encyclopedias, and other print reference sources. A lot of information on the Internet is FREE, except scholarly materials. A paid subscription is required to access.

7. Trained Professionals Available For Assistance

Knowledgeable and friendly librarians are available to assist with locating information in person, chat, e-mail or telephone. Request assistance at the beginning of your research and spare valuable time spent on the Internet.

8. E-books are Available

E-books are full-text and searchable. All E-book collections have records on the online catalog and can be accessed individually by title or in collections in collections like PsycBooks, Credo, Books 24x7, or EBSCO's E-Book Collection.

9. Does Library-less Universities Work

A virtual library can not replace the traditional library. To California libraries (Monterey and California Polytechnic University) attempted this method, only to find out first hand that it can't work. They found out that everything is not on the Internet.

Plagiarism : Plagiarism is the unacknowledged use of another person's words or ideas as if they are your own. This includes:

- taking someone else's paper and turning it in as your own
- copying sentences word-for-word from a source
- quoting someone's words without quotations
- paraphrasing someone's idea without giving credit

- using a substantial amount of information from someone else that makes up a majority of your paper even though you have given credit to the original source

Plagiarism is an academic offense and can have severe consequences. At Butte College, the consequences of plagiarism can range from failing a course to long-term suspension from the College.

While some students plagiarize for various reasons, many students commit plagiarism unintentionally. So it is important to be aware of different forms of plagiarism and make sure you use the information ethically and cite the sources correctly to avoid plagiarism.

UNIT V – PLANNING A THESIS AND VIVA-VOCE

Objectives and thesis outline:

The primary focus of research project is usually expressed in terms of aims and objectives. Many find it difficult to understand the difference between aims and objectives. However, in the academic context there is a clear distinction between these terms.

Aim is to hope to achieve.

Objective is the action that we take in order to achieve the aim.

Aims are statements of intent. They are usually written in broad terms. They set out what we hope to achieve at the end of the project.

Objectives, on the other hand, should be specific statements that define measurable outcomes, e.g. what steps will be taken to achieve the desired outcome.

When writing our objectives we should use strong positive statements.

Strong verbs - collect, construct, classify, develop, devise, measure, produce, revise, select, synthesise

Weak verbs - appreciate, consider, enquire, learn, know, understand, be aware of, appreciate, listen, perceive

Objectives should also be:

Specific – be precise about what you are going to do

Measureable –you will know when you have reached your goal

Achievable – Don't attempt too much – a less ambitious but completed objective is better than an over-ambitious one that you cannot possible achieve.

Realistic – do you have the necessary resources to achieve the objective – time, money, skills, etc.

Time constrained – determine when each stage needs to be completed. Is there time in your schedule to allow for unexpected delays.

The data from both sets will be synthesised to establish if correlation points exist between major geological events and planetary alignments.

Outline of sections/chapters

Here you give an outline of the structure of your dissertation. This is usually restricted to the main body as the overall structure is often prescribed.

The main discussion will require a more detailed breakdown than other sections. You should give suggested chapters headings and one or two paragraphs about the proposed content.

Example outline for the main body:

• Introduction
• Literature survey
• Methodology

• Results (if appropriate)
• Discussion

Front cover:

Requirements includes:

- ☐ name of the researcher
- ☐ faculty/course name
- ☐ The assignment/project title (if specified)
- ☐ proposed title
- ☐ supervisor's name
- ☐ Date of submission

Main text:

- ☐ title should be meaningful
- ☐ statement should clearly define the problem
- ☐ purpose in undertaking the study should be clearly given
- ☐ set out aim/s clearly
- ☐ objectives should be clear and measurable
- ☐ methodology should be sufficiently clear that someone else could replicate our study
- ☐ have the necessary resources to complete the study
- ☐ Are your sections/chapters sufficiently developed that your supervisor will be able to see where you are going with this?
- ☐ Are your references complete and in the required format?

Academic style:

- ☐ Is your title meaningful?
- ☐ Does your statement clearly define the problem?
- ☐ Have you checked the word count?
- ☐ Have you checked the layout? (Does your faculty have any specific requirements e.g. numbered sections/paragraphs?)

Table of Research Verbs to Use in Aims and Objectives:

Table showing common research verbs which should ideally be used at the start of a research aim or objective.

Understanding (Understanding and organising information)	**Applying** (Solving problems using information)	**Analysing** (reaching conclusion from evidence)	**Synthesising** (Breaking down into components)	**Evaluating** (Judging merit)
Review Identify Explore Discover Discuss Summarise Describe	Interpret Apply Demonstrate Establish Determine Estimate Calculate Relate	Analyse Compare Inspect Examine Verify Select Test Arrange	Propose Design Formulate Collect Construct Prepare Undertake Assemble	Appraise Evaluate Compare Assess Recommend Conclude Select

An abstract: An abstract is a one-paragraph summary of a research project. Abstracts precede papers in research journals and appear in programs of scholarly conferences. In journals, the abstract allows readers to quickly grasp the purpose and major ideas of a paper and lets other researchers know whether reading the entire paper will be worthwhile. In conferences, the abstract is the advertisement that the paper/presentation deserves the audience's attention**.**

In order to write one, you have to know what abstracts are exactly. Well, an abstract is defined as a concise summary of a larger project; it describes the content and scope of the project while identifying objective, methodology, findings, and conclusion.

The purpose of an abstract is to summarize the major aspects of a research essay or paper, but it is important to bear in mind they are descriptions of your project, not the topic in general.

Results: This section is self-explanatory; your goal is to list the outcomes or results of the research. If the research isn't complete yet, you can include preliminary results or theory about the potential outcome.

Conclusion :Just like in every other work, the conclusion is the sentence or two wherein you summarize everything you've written above. In the abstract, a writer concludes or summarizes the results. When writing the conclusion, think of the question "what do these results mean", and try to answer it in this section.

The abstract allows readers to make decisions about your project. Your sponsoring professor can use the abstract to decide if your research is proceeding smoothly. The conference organizer uses it to decide if your project fits the conference criteria. The conference audience (faculty, administrators, peers, and presenters' families) uses your abstract to decide whether or not to attend your presentation. Your abstract needs to take all these readers into consideration.

Proof reading and editing: The table below lists the main differences between proofreading and editing:

	Proofreading	Editing
1.	Performed on the final draft of the document	Performed on the first draft of the document and continues till the draft is finalized
2.	Addresses surface-level issues	Addresses the core features of writing
3.	Universally accepted, consistent definition	Definition varies according to the scope of editing. **Editage**, for example, offers three different editing services.
4.	Eliminates misspellings, grammatical and punctuation errors, inconsistencies, formatting errors, etc.	Enhances the language by making changes for clarity, readability, and smooth narration.
5.	Does not include word count reduction	Includes word reduction, if required
6.	Makes already good writing error-free	Overall quality of writing is improved
7.	Does not require much collaboration with the author	Collaborative as it requires the editor to work with the author

8.	Shorter turnaround time	Slightly longer turnaround time (as the amount of work required is more)

Preparing to proofread

Before getting your hands dirty, it is important to do some groundwork. So let's go over what you should do before you get to proofreading your document.

Leave time to proofread: The first mistake that many students make is not leaving enough time to proofread their work. Many students tend to procrastinate until the night before the deadline and that leaves no time for editing. Make sure that you leave a good week, minimum, so you can proofread your dissertation properly without any need to rush.

Get prepared: Before you start proofreading, you also need to know what your weak spots are. For example, you may be bad at spelling, grammar, punctuation etc. You should also be aware which parts of the dissertation you wrote when you were tired or sleepy since that's when you're most likely to make mistakes.

Look for large issues: Go through your entire document and look for any large mistakes that you could have made – leaving a paragraph unfinished, missing a part entirely, etc. This could also mean that you need to delete any redundant or repetitive sentences, structure your information better or make formatting changes.

Tips and tricks to proofread

Once you're sure that the document you have in front of you is ready for proofreading, here are some tips on ensuring that you proofread it thoroughly.

Check your formatting

The formatting of your dissertation is just as important as the content itself. Check to make sure that you've broken up your paragraphs properly and you're using headings and sub-headings where needed. Furthermore, make sure you've checked your font, and that all your sources are correctly labelled.

Check for consistency

You'll want to make sure that your dissertation follows a similar style throughout, both in terms of language and tone of voice. You may have been writing your dissertation over the course of several months, in which case, there's bound to be some irregularities. Ensure the way you've used capital letters, sources, and hyphenation are the same throughout your entire dissertation.

Use Word functions

Microsoft Word is one of the most commonly used tools for creating any kind of document. Along with being great for composing your work, it can also be used for proofreading. Set the language to English US or English UK and use the spelling and grammar option to track down your mistakes. You can also use the search option to look for similar mistakes to the ones you have already noticed.

Use a print out to proofread

Another great way to proofread is to do it the old-fashioned way. Print your dissertation out and mark all of the mistakes that you can find in different colors according to the type of mistake. It's much easier to notice your mistakes on paper than on the screen and therefore your proofreading process will be much easier and more interesting with all the colors that you can add.

Check for plagiarism

Though this is not a part of proofreading, checking for plagiarism is an extra step you can take to ensure that you have not unintentionally plagiarized someone's published work. Plagiarism is considered an unethical practice and you may be penalized if caught. Use an online plagiarism checker to scan your work to ensure that it doesn't match up with any published piece. Try to aim for under 5%.

Preparing a project portfolio:

In composition studies, **writing portfolio** is a collection of student **writing** (in print or electronic form) that's intended to demonstrate the writer's development over the course of one or more academic terms.

Viva voce is a Latin phrase literally **meaning** "with living voice" but most often translated as "by word of mouth." It may refer to: Word of mouth. A voice vote in a deliberative assembly. An oral exam, especially in a thesis defence in academia.

Basics to get prepared for Viva Voce Examination

Getting ready for viva exam isn't something need to panic about.

It's normal to be anxious, but you can prepare yourself for the big day in four easy steps:

Get to Re-Know our Thesis

Practice our Exam Responses

Think About our Examiners

Use the Available Supports

Taking a structured approach to your exam preparations and making sure to follow each of these steps will help give you the confidence you need to effectively defend your thesis.

And finally...

A further and final step in preparations may well be the most difficult - think positively!

Positive thinking will help to feel in control of the situation which will increase confidence.

anticipating a potentially interesting discussion

ready to engage in debate

confident in your preparation

eager to get on with it

relieved at being there at last

excited at the challenge ahead

And, perhaps most importantly, a researcher should try to look forward to completing research degree!