

numerals for all preliminary pages, and Arabic numerals beginning with the first page of Chapter One. Whereas the title page is actually Roman numeral i, the first numeral to appear in the report is Roman numeral ii on the page following the title page.

All pages preliminary to the page beginning Chapter One are numbered by centering the Roman numeral usually four spaces above the bottom of the page.

• *SERIES ENTRIES AND LISTINGS*

Whenever it is necessary to list a series of statements, conclusions or implications, two forms are commonly employed. In quoted materials the forms below are acceptable. The first form may be used effectively with short entries as in the following example:

In considering the factors which make for ESL teaching success, the following qualities should receive attention: (1) personal characteristics which are likely to influence relations with other students, (2) the high school and university scholastic record of the individual student, and (3) the extent of participation in extra-curricular activities in high school and university.

The second form is easier to use with longer entries which may often be complete sentences as in the following example:

Some high schools have found it necessary to establish policies relative to out-of-school employment of staff members. A summarized list of the restrictions imposed follows:

1. No employment can be countenanced which interferes with school responsibilities.
2. The consent of the board of education and the superintendent of schools must be obtained.
3. The staff member must not be engaged in a competitive business.

In unquoted materials either form may be employed except that double spacing is used throughout.

• *THE USE OF NUMBERS IN CONTEXT*

When numbers are employed in such a manner that they carry a statistical connotation they always appear as Arabic numerals. Fractions or decimal values are also written as numerals. In ordinary context, both cardinal and ordinal numbers below 10 are written out in words, whereas number 10 and above appear as numerals. Commas are used to point off numbers over 1,000. Exceptions to this rule occur when referring to dates, street addresses, or serial numbers.

The use of "per cent" and "percentage" in connection with numbers also causes some difficulty. "Per cent" should be employed only when it follows a numeral, "percentage" has a more general meaning and may be employed when referring to a portion of a group or a part of a whole. Thus, the correct usage would be, "A substantial percentage of children from low socio-economic homes fails to complete high school," and "The principal noted that 40 per cent of the student body was absent on Monday."

Numbers which begin a sentence are invariably spelled out. A rounded number is customarily spelled out when used in such expressions as "The enrollment over the last decade has averaged around a hundred." In the use of large numbers a special form is sometimes employed in which both numerals and words appear to express a quantitative fact. Thus, it is proper to write "For the year 1985, P.J. High School spent 3 million dollars on developing new language programmes and facilities for its students."

• *MARGINS AND SPACING*

The content of the research report is typed double-spaced throughout. Margins on all pages should usually be one and one-half inches on the left side and not less than one inch at the right and at the top and bottom. The beginning of each paragraph is usually indented eight spaces. A new paragraph is not started at the bottom of a page unless at least two lines can be included.

• QUOTATIONS

Scholarly reports are characterized by a judicious use of quotations which are employed to meet a variety of situations. They may be used as supporting evidence for a point made in the context or as an illustration of a divergent point of view held by presumably equally competent individuals. Sometimes a complex concept is so lucidly treated that it seems desirable to quote directly. In thesis and report writing it is also desirable to consider the use of quotes whenever a position is assumed on which the likelihood of any disagreement is apparent. In any case the quotation should serve a distinct purpose or need.

It is not wise to let a reader have the impression that a series of quotations has been collected, and the writer merely planned a narrative in such a way that all of the quotes were included. This is always to be avoided. Quotes should have no bearing on the organization of the research report; rather, the student should plan his organization and select his quotations within this framework. The background of the study and notes from reading will aid the selection process materially. When using a paraphrase rather than a direct quotation, the student should be constantly alert to points requiring documentation. Appropriate acknowledgement should also be made.

The ethics of scholarship require that quotations represent fairly the intent of the author. They are to be verbatim and include errors of spelling, grammar or of fact if these are present. An exception to this statement is that double quotes in a short quotation in the original are reduced to single quote marks in order to avoid confusion. There is also one occasion in which a capitalized word in a quoted selection is not capitalized when written into the report. This occurs when a quotation is employed as a continuation of a sentence. An example might be as follows: He believed with Emerson that "consistency is the mark of little men."

Secondary citations should be avoided. In the rare cases when their use is necessary, appropriate acknowledgement of the fact should be made.

• IDENTIFYING QUOTES

The treatment of short and long quotes differs. Direct quotations under four lines in length are run into the context of the report and are identified by quotation marks. Longer quotations are single-spaced and indented. The paragraph is usually indented eight spaces and the body of the paragraph is usually indented four spaces. No quotation marks are employed with long quotations. In long quotes, double-spacing is used between paragraphs.

• PUNCTUATION WITHIN QUOTES

Commas and periods are enclosed within quotation marks whereas colons and semicolons are not. In the case of question marks and exclamation marks the decision is based on whether they are a part of the quoted material. In the first instance, the punctuation is included inside the quotation marks; in the second it is not.

• OMISSIONS IN QUOTATIONS

The omissions (ellipses) of words in quoted material are indicated by double-spaced periods. When an omission is made following a completed sentence in the quote, four periods are used. The first period follows the last word of the sentence and is merely the period which would appear normally. The three double-spaced periods follow to indicate ellipsis. Ellipses may be made at the beginning, within, or at the end of a quotation. In the case of an omission of a paragraph or more, a row of double-spaced periods indicates the fact. When such an omission occurs, the line of periods is double-spaced because a new paragraph would have been double-spaced had it been included. To make this point clear, it should be understood that a double space occurs above and below the line of periods as well as between the periods themselves.

• EDITORIAL INSERTS

For purposes of clarification it is sometimes necessary for the writer to put explanatory material into the body of a quote or footnote or bibliographical entry. Such interpolations are invariably

enclosed in brackets, []. If the typewriter is not provided with these symbols they should be inserted with black ink.

Insertions are sometimes made to correct errors in the quote or to indicate that the material is as written. A correction may be made or an appropriate explanatory remark included. It is also correct to use [sic] which means that the preceding word or expression exactly reproduces the original. In all instances, however, brackets are employed to designate the interpolated material.

ENSURING THE FINISHED REPORT TAKES A SCHOLARLY FORM

Many research students at colleges and universities find that they have difficulty in achieving a sufficiently formal or scholarly style in their research reports. An aim in scholarly writing is to adopt a tone or attitude towards the reader which embodies courtesy, restraint, honesty, and objectivity.

Courtesy - A research student writing a formal paper assumes that his readers are fellow researchers and scholars. He therefore pays them the courtesy of avoiding:

- (a) all spelling errors in his report,
- (b) abbreviations such as: &, bc, c/o, b/f and "ditto" marks,
- (c) colloquial or slang expressions,
- (d) untidy cancellations and corrections,
- (e) grammatical errors (especially disagreement of subject and verb, incomplete sentences, changes of tense), and
- (f) errors or inadequacies in the formal layout of the research report.

Proof-reading before and after the final research report is as essential as the actual writing of any piece of work, however insignificant, to which a person put his name. Proof-reading may be a hardship to the research writer but it is the only way to ensure that he is paying the reader the courtesy of error-free work.

Restraint - A research student best displays restraint by

exercising self-discipline over egotism in the style he adopts. Hence, he normally chooses to write in the third person. He avoids sweeping statements or exaggerated claims for his own arguments. He does not "pad" his report by borrowing the ideas of other writers without acknowledging the sources.

Honesty - Intellectual honesty is an essential quality of scholarly writing. Offences generally result in some kind of automatic failure. The weaving together of unacknowledged extracts from other reference materials into a submission without indicating precisely which expressions are genuinely those of the research student and which are derived more or less directly from those of other writers, is the most common form of academic dishonesty. Generally, reference materials are consulted in order to familiarize the research student with the area of investigation on which his research project is based. He must then make his own interpretations of the research question, construct his own arguments, and translate these into his own prose. Other common forms of academic dishonesty may entail "padding" of reference lists, failure to list all reference sources, quoting the original authors "out of context", or quoting inaccurately.

In report writing, the research student has to bear in mind that intellectual honesty is indicative of his regards for his fellow researchers and scholars. Intellectual honesty should be maintained at all time.

Objectivity - A research student endeavours to dissociate himself from all those circumstances he describes or comments upon in his report or thesis. He has to put aside all personal feelings that might obscure his logical assessment of a research situation and adopts an analytical and disinterested stance which facilitates objectivity in his conclusions. In a formal research report, the student is not required to "convert" the reader but to illuminate a subject, to draw conclusions, and to present them to his readers for judgement. Objectivity in reporting is an essential element for the research student.

Chapter Eight

COMMON ERRORS MADE BY RESEARCH STUDENTS

Every research student must learn to assemble, interpret, and correlate materials from a variety of sources. He must learn to build on the work of previous investigators. He must present his findings in such a way that they will be accepted as the result of detailed and comprehensive exploration, conducted by a competent and responsible researcher.

As the research student investigates and gets deeper into his subject, he is likely to look at things differently, and this may well lead to adjustments in his research topic, in his chosen pattern of organization, or in his research statement. He should not regard such changes in course as setbacks. They are, rather, signs that he is doing some good thinking and is getting nearer to his goal. There are, however, certain pitfalls that a research student should be aware of. The following are some of the more common errors made by the research student.

FORMULATING A RESEARCH STUDY

1. Accepts uncritically the first research idea that the research student thinks of or is suggested to him.
2. Selects a research topic that is either too broad or too narrow to investigate meaningfully.
3. Prepares fuzzy or untestable hypotheses.
4. Fails to state research question(s) clearly.
5. Fails to consider appropriate methods or analysis procedures in developing the research plan.

REVIEWING LITERATURE

1. Does a too hurried literature review causing the research student to overlook important relevant previous studies.

2. Relies too heavily upon secondary sources (critiques, analytic texts)
3. Concentrates too much on findings, overlooking data and methods of investigation.
4. Fails to define topic clearly or to examine the limits of literature review.
5. Does not synthesize information read but plagiarizes others' reports.

COLLECTING DATA

1. Fails to explain purposes of measures adopted or to be utilized.
2. Fails to evaluate measures thoroughly before selecting those to be used.
3. Selects measures of such low reliability that true differences are hidden by the errors in the measures.
4. Selects measures that the research student is not qualified to administer or to score.
5. Does not record data properly or systematically.

USING RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

1. Fails to check the reliability of the selected instrument of measurement in the situation in which the research study is to be carried out.
2. Uses personality inventories and other self-reporting devices in situations in which the respondents might fake their responses in order to create a desired impression.
3. Assumes that standard tests measure what they claim to measure without making a thorough evaluation of validity of the available data.
4. Attempts to utilize measures that the research student is not sufficiently trained to administer, analyse, or interpret.
5. Does not carry out a pre-trial of the instrument of measurement.

USING STATISTICAL TOOLS

1. Selects a statistical tool that is not appropriate or correct for the proposed analysis of the research undertaking.
2. Collects research data first, and then tries to find a statistical technique that can be used in data analysis.
3. Uses only one statistical procedure when several can be applied to the collected data.
4. Uses statistical tools in situations in which the data grossly fail to meet the assumptions upon which the tools are based.
5. Overstates the importance of small differences which may be statistically insignificant.

DESIGNING THE RESEARCH

1. Fails to define the research population or research sampling.
2. Uses a sample too small to permit analysis of the performance of interesting sub-groups.
3. Attempts a study that would require several years or a long time to complete satisfactorily.
4. Fails to plan the elicitation of data in sufficient detail to avoid excessive treatment errors.
5. Collects data before adequately pre-testing measures and procedures.

PREPARING QUESTIONNAIRES

1. Uses a questionnaire when other research techniques can do a better job.
2. Fails to pre-test questionnaire to ensure that respondents will not have difficulty answering the questions.
3. Includes irrelevant questions which do not elicit the required information from the respondents.
4. Uses unclear or ambiguous wording in asking questions to elicit for information.

5. Fails to check if the questions posed are bias towards certain respondents.

PROCESSING DATA

1. Fails to set up a systematic routine for scoring and recording data.
2. Does not record details and variations in scoring procedures.
3. Does not check scoring for errors.
4. Does not display data effectively or in a comprehensive manner.
5. Fails to check a sample of non-responding subjects for possible bias.

DESIGNING EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH

1. Permits differences to occur between the treatment of the experimental and control groups which lead to biased findings.
2. Uses too few cases or subjects which lead to large sampling errors and insignificant results.
3. Matches the subjects in control group designs on variables that do not correlate sufficiently with the dependent variable.
4. Uses unequal sampling in control group and experimental group.
5. Fails to maintain control over all factors which may affect the outcome of the experiment.

STUDYING RELATIONSHIPS

1. Assumes that the results of causal-comparative or correlational research to be proof of a cause-and-effect relationship.
2. Uses sample in research that differs on so many variables that comparisons can yield no interpretable results.

3. Tries to build a correlational study around conveniently available data instead of collecting the data needed to do a worthwhile research.
4. Uses simple techniques in studies where partial correlation or multiple correlation is needed.
5. Fails to develop satisfactory criterion-measures to use in studies of complex skills or behavior patterns.

REFERENCES

- Allen, George R. 1973. The graduate students' guide to theses and dissertations: a practical manual for writing and research. San Francisco, California, U.S.A.: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- American Psychological Association. 1994. Publication manual of the American Psychological Association. Washington, D.C., U.S.A.: American Psychological Association.
- Babbie, Earl. 1988. The practice of social research. Belmont, California, U.S.A.: Wadsworth Publishing Company.
- Bailey, Kenneth D. 1978. Methods of social research. New York, U.S.A.: Academic Press.
- Behling, John H. 1984. Guidelines for preparing the research proposal. Lanham, Maryland, U.S.A.: University Press of America.
- Blalock, Ann Bonar and Hubert M. Blalock, Jr. 1982. Introduction to social research. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, U.S.A.: Prentice-Hall.
- Campbell, Donald and Julian Stanley. 1963. Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research. Chicago, U.S.A.: Rand McNally.
- Campbell, William G. and Stephen V. Ballou. 1992. Form and style in thesis writing. Boston, U.S.A.: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Castetter, William B. and Richard S. Heisler. 1985. Developing and defending a dissertation proposal. Philadelphia, U.S.A.: Center for Field Studies, Graduate School of Education, University of Pennsylvania.
- Chanan, G. and S. Delamont. (Editors) 1975. Frontiers of classroom research. Edinburgh, United Kingdom: National Foundation for Educational Research.
- Eggleston, J. Galton and M. Jones. 1975. A conceptual map for interactional studies. In Chanan, G. and S. Delamont (Eds.) Frontiers of classroom research. Edinburgh, United Kingdom: National Foundation for Educational Research.
- Ernst, Mary O'Malley. 1991. A guide through the dissertation process. New York, U.S.A.: E. Mellen Press.

- Hillway, T. 1989. Handbook of educational research. Boston, U.S.A.: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Holsti, Ole. 1969. Content analysis for the social sciences and humanities. Reading, Massachusetts, U.S.A.: Addison-Wesley.
- Horowitz, Lois. 1986. A writer's guide to research. Cincinnati, Ohio, U.S.A.: Writers' Digest Books.
- Hubbuck, Susan M. 1989. Writing research papers across the curriculum. Chicago, U.S.A.: Holt Rinehart and Winston Inc.
- Isaac, Stephen and William B. Michael. 1981. Handbook in research and evaluation. San Diego, California, U.S.A.: Edits Publishers.
- Kish, Leslie. 1965. Survey sampling. New York, U.S.A.: John Wiley.
- Leedy, P.D. 1974. Practical research planning and design. New York, U.S.A.: MacMillan Publishing Company.
- Long, Thomas J., John J. Convey and Adele R. Chwalek. 1985. Completing dissertation in the behavioral sciences and education. San Francisco, California, U.S.A.: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Modern Language Association. 1992. MLA style sheet. New York, U.S.A.: Modern Language Association.
- Madsen, David. 1983. Successful dissertation and theses. San Francisco, California, U.S.A.: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Markman, Roberta H., Peter T. Markman and Marie L. Waddell. 1989. 10 steps in writing the research paper. New York, U.S.A.: Barron's Educational Services.
- Martin, Roy. 1980. Writing and defending a thesis or dissertation in psychology and education. Springfield, Illinois, U.S.A.: Charles C. Thomas Publisher.
- Mauch, James E. and Jack W. Birch. 1989. Guide to the successful thesis and dissertation: conception to publication - a handbook for students and faculty. New York, U.S.A.: M. Dekker.
- Ott, Lyman. 1977. An introduction to statistical methods and data analysis. North Scituate, Massachusetts, U.S.A.: Duxbury Press.
- Ott, Lyman, William Mendenhall and Richard F. Lawson. 1992. Statistics: a tool for the social sciences. North Scituate, Massachusetts, U.S.A.: Duxbury Press.

- Phillips, G.R.E. and L.J. Hunt. 1979. Writing essays and dissertation. Perth, Australia: Landfall Press.
- Rossi, Peter H. and Howard E. Freeman. 1982. Evaluation: a systematic approach. Beverly Hills, California, U.S.A.: Sage Publication.
- Shaffir, William, Robert Stebbins and Allan Turowetz. 1980. Field work experience: qualitative approaches to social research. New York, U.S.A.: St. Martin's Press.
- Smith, Robert V. 1980. Development and management of research groups: a guide for university researchers. Austin, Texas, U.S.A.: University of Texas Press.
- Sternberg, David. 1981. How to complete and survive a doctoral dissertation. New York, U.S.A.: St. Martin's Press.
- Sugden, Virginia M. 1973. The graduate thesis: the complete guide to planning and preparation. New York, U.S.A.: Pitman Publishing Company.
- Turabian, Kate. 1987. A manual for writers of term papers, theses and dissertations. Chicago, U.S.A.: University of Chicago Press.
- University of Chicago. 1992. A manual of style. Chicago, U.S.A.: University of Chicago.
- Yates, Brian T. 1982. Doing the dissertation: the nuts and bolts of psychological research. Springfield, Illinois, U.S.A.: Charles C. Thomas Publisher.

Appendix A

PROPOSED THESIS OUTLINE

**An Analysis of the Lexical Texture of Malaysian
High School Students' Written Work**

**by
LIM HO PENG**

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

- 1.1: Statement of the problem
- 1.2: Purpose of the study
- 1.3: Limitations of the study

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

- 2.1: Studies on lexical content
- 2.2: Studies on error analysis
- 2.3: Studies on ESL writing

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

- 3.1: Elicitation of data
- 3.2: Lexical words
- 3.3: Lexical density
- 3.4: Lexical variation
- 3.5: Error counts
- 3.6: Essay evaluators

CHAPTER 4: ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

- 4.1: Lexical density
- 4.2: Lexical density excluding errors
- 4.3: Lexical density including errors
- 4.4: Lexical variation
- 4.5: Agreement with holistic evaluation
- 4.6: Lengths of essays
- 4.7: Error analysis

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

- 5.1: Summary of findings
- 5.2: Recommendations for further studies

A GLOSSARY OF RESEARCH TERMS

The following are research terms which are frequently used in research writing. Like any other specialized field of studies, research writing has its own jargon. The list is not exhaustive as there may be other terms used by people in discussing research.

abridgment - a condensation of author's original work

abstract - a summary of the important points in an original work or a text

acknowledgement - a recognition made of indebtedness to another

annotated bibliography - a bibliography that contains comments about each reference source, explaining what the author does, what his purpose is, or what the author's findings are

authority - a person whose work and opinions are generally accepted as final and reliable

bibliography - a listing of books, articles, and other published materials about a single idea or subject

card catalog - a card file which lists alphabetically all books and other published materials in a library

category - a specifically defined division or class

citation - a quoting of an authoritative source for substantiation

classification - an arrangement that is done according to class or category

compile (compilation, compiler) - to combine related reference materials; the result is a compilation while the person who does the combining is a compiler

correlate - to bring into causal or complementary relation

credibility - a worthiness of belief

cross-reference - a word or a symbol that refers a reader to other places or sources where information about a subject or idea may be located. (Cross-references are usually used in card catalogs, indices and bibliographies)

data - all information, usually numerical information, that can be organized for analysis or used as the basis for a decision

data processing - the preparation of numerical information for processing by a computer or the processing of raw data by a computer

dedication - a note or expression prefixed to a piece of work dedicating it to someone in token of affection or esteem

dissertation - a formal exposition on some serious or scholarly subject. (In academic circles, the word is usually reserved for a report written by a candidate for a doctorate; the word *thesis* indicates the report written by a candidate for a master's degree)

document - to acknowledge indebtedness of an idea or fact

dogma - a principle or a group of principles

eclectic - choosing and accepting freely from various sources

elicit - to draw out, to bring out, to draw forth

ellipsis - an omission within quoted material indicated by three periods with a space before, after, and between periods (...). (The ellipsis marks may indicate the omission of a single word or of whole sentences, but one must never omit words which would change the essential, intended meaning of the quoted material. Use a fourth period *only* before a new sentence which begins after an ellipsis within the quoted passage.)

elucidate - to explain, make clear, with reference to a difficulty or a problem

encyclopaedia (encyclopedia) - a book or a set of books giving information about every branch of knowledge, or on one subject, with entries in alphabetical order

etymology - the scientific study of language and its history and derivation

evaluation - an examination or assessment to ascertain the value or worth of something

exposition - an explanation of a theory, or an interpretation of a theory

- extrapolate** - to estimate on the basis of certain known variables
- feedback** - any information about the result of a process
- footnote** - a documentary note placed at the bottom of the page on which the note number appears
- foreword** - the introductory remarks from an author at the beginning of a book (A foreword normally sets forth an explanation by the author of his intended purpose and reason for writing as well as any information or background knowledge that might be needed by the reader.)
- format** - the shape, size, print, paper, and binding of a book
- generalisation** - a general principle, statement, or idea
- glossary** - a collection of glosses, such as a vocabulary of specialized terms with accompanying definitions
- heuristic** - proceeding by trial and error (One might speak of "a heuristic approach to teaching ESL")
- hypothesis** - an assumption used as a basis for an argument or reasoning
- index** - something that serves as a guide or an indicator or a pointer to facilitate reference
- infer** - to reach a conclusion or opinion from facts or reasoning
- interpolate** - to insert an idea or a material or any information where it should logically go in the organization of the writing (To interpolate generally means to make additions to a piece of writing which may sometimes be misleading.)
- interpretation** - an explanation or an act or process of clarifying the meaning of
- interview** - a face-to-face meeting arranged for the formal discussion of some matter
- introduction** - a section that generally follows the table of contents and introduces the work that follows
- jargon** - a mode of speech or specialized or technical language familiar only to a group or profession
- journal** - a periodical presenting information in a particular area

judgment - a capacity to make reasonable decisions, especially in regard to practical matters (This can be an assertion of something believed: idea, thought, opinion.)

limitation - in methodology, limitation is concerned with restriction, a state of being limited

manifold - of many kinds; varied; multiple

methodology - a system of principles, practices, and procedures applied to any specific branch of knowledge (An alternative term to methodology is method, which is often less technical and less specific.)

norm - the standard pattern, as representative of a group, when judging other examples

online computer catalog - the computer system used to duplicate or replace the card catalog

outline - a general description or schematic summary or a preliminary plan

pagination - the system for numbering pages of a manuscript or book

paraphrase - to put an item or an idea in another way without substantially changing the meaning; give an alternative version; transcribe a passage into another form of words or expressions, generally in simpler and clearer language

parentheses - the punctuation marks () used to enclose your own explanatory material or words interpolated into a sentence or phrase of your own

parenthetical reference - a documentary note placed within parenthesis immediately after the material being documented to indicate the source of that material

performance objectives - Formally stated, performance objectives include the purpose of an assignment, a description of desired behaviour, the conditions under which this behaviour is to occur, and the criteria used to evaluate the behaviour

phasing - organising language material so that it is presented in controlled, manageable units

plagiarism - the process of taking and using someone else's words

and ideas as if they were your own; a thievery of style, ideas or phrasing. (Plagiarism ranges from the theft of a single word to the deliberate copying - without quotation marks - of a whole passage.)

preface - the explanatory remarks from an author which comes before (some put it after) the table of contents or outline

primary source - the literature, the work, journal, letters, manuscript or essays as originally written. (A primary source in connection with one subject might be a secondary source in connection with another subject)

prose - the ordinary non-metrical form of written or spoken language; language not in verse form

purposive - goal-directed; well motivated

raw score - This is obtained simply by counting the number of right answers. (A raw score as such has a very limited meaning; without other information one cannot tell whether a raw score of say, 40 out of 100 possible points represents superior, average, or poor performance.)

redundancy - the use of more utterances than necessary

reference or reference book - any source that is being read for information (The number and quality of your references will, in large measure, determine the quality of your finished paper.)

register - a variation in language due to circumstances, that is, age, sex, or topic

rephrase - to phrase an expression again, in a different way; to say or write again, using different words or structures

rough draft - the first and any subsequent writing before the paper is put in its final form. (A rough draft is subject to drastic and sometimes numerous revisions.)

scan - to read rapidly or to make a cursory reading of the material in order to evaluate it and decide how to read it

secondary source - a criticism or an evaluation of an original piece of writing. (A secondary source is usually a work written about an original source.)

synopsis - a summary or an outline

taxonomy - the principles of classification

thesis - the simple statement of opinion which the entire work is designed to support

treatise - a book that deals systematically with one subject, especially the discussion of facts, for example "A treatise on applied phonetics."

understatement - an idea expressed in unduly restrained terms; an expression representing something as being less than it really is

valid - sound or well-grounded; capable of being justified

variable - something that is subject to change; a symbol which may have infinite number of values

verify - to prove to be true; to confirm the truth of