

# Cambridge Academic English

An integrated skills course for EAP

**Student's Book**

**Advanced**

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# Introduction

## Who is the course for?

*Cambridge Academic English* is for anyone who needs English for their academic studies.

It is an integrated skills course, which means that at each of the levels you will develop your abilities in reading, writing, listening and speaking in an academic context. In your class there will probably be students studying or hoping to go on to study many different subjects. With this in mind, *Cambridge Academic English* includes topics and texts that will be of interest to students from all disciplines (subject areas), and teaches language and skills that will be of use to students working in all subjects. However, some parts of the course also help you to develop abilities relevant to your particular area of study.

This book, *Student's Book: Advanced*, is aimed at students who may already have begun their academic studies. It will also be of interest to non-native English-speaking academics who need to present and publish in English. If you are familiar with the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) proficiency levels, *Student's Book: Advanced* is likely to be most useful to Proficient Users at level C1 and above. *Student's Book: Intermediate* is aimed at students who need to improve their English significantly in order to guarantee success in higher education and are Independent Users at level B1 and above. *Student's Book: Upper Intermediate* is aimed at students who will soon be starting undergraduate or postgraduate studies and are Independent Users at level B2 and above.


## How is the book organised?

The introductory unit, *Academic orientation*, introduces you to some of the skills you will need to develop to be successful in higher education: being an independent learner, and adopting good study strategies. Many students using *Student's Book: Advanced* will go on to do their own research, and the unit also introduces you to research proposals and research projects.

The Student's Book is organised into integrated skills and lecture skills units:


### • Integrated skills units 1–10 (with separate Audio CD)

Ten units are organised around a broad topic of interest and help you develop your skills in reading, speaking, listening to and writing academic English. Each of these units ends with a *Grammar and vocabulary* section where you will learn about language of particular importance in academic communication. The cross references in the margins point to the further information and practice exercises which can be found in the *Grammar and vocabulary* section of that unit.

 The separate Class Audio CD includes all the recordings needed for the listening and speaking sections. It gives focused listening practice, and will also help you develop strategies for participating in tutorials and group work.

### • Seminar skills units A–B and Lecture skills units C–E (with separate DVD)

After every two integrated skills units there is either a *Seminar skills* unit or a *Lecture skills* unit to help you develop skills in taking part in seminars and listening to lectures. For this course, seminars and a variety of lectures were recorded at the University of Cambridge, and a separate DVD accompanies the Student's Book containing clips of these seminars and lectures, and of students talking about their experience of studying in English at university.

 Extracts have been used in the seminar and lecture skills units to help you understand, for example, how lecturers use language, visual information, gesture and pronunciation to present content and show how they are organising the lecture.

## What kind of language does the course teach?

*Cambridge Academic English* uses authentic academic texts. The texts you will read are taken from the kinds of textbooks and journal articles that your subject tutors might recommend you to read.

You may find these challenging at first but you will learn strategies in the course to help you to cope with them. We believe that working with authentic texts in EAP is the best way of preparing to read them during your academic course of study.

The lectures you will watch are delivered by experienced lecturers and researchers. In many colleges and universities around the world you will be taught in English by some tutors who are native English speakers and others who are non-native English speakers. To help you prepare for this, both native and non-native English-speaking lecturers have been included in this course.

The vocabulary focused on in the course has been selected for being of particular importance in academic writing, reading, lectures and seminars. In choosing what to teach we have made use of the Academic Word List compiled by Averil Coxhead (see [www.victoria.ac.nz/lals/resources/academicwordlist/](http://www.victoria.ac.nz/lals/resources/academicwordlist/) for more information). This list includes many of the words that you are likely to encounter in your academic studies.

### What are the additional features?

Each unit contains the following additional features:



The *Study tip* boxes offer practical advice on how you can improve the way you study.



The *Focus on your subject* boxes encourage you to think about how what you have learnt applies to your own subject area.



*Corpus research* boxes present useful findings from the CAEC.

- The *Word list* at the back of the Student's Book covers key academic words essential for development of academic vocabulary.
- For each level of the course, a full-length version of one of the lectures from the DVD is available online. This gives you the opportunity to practise, in an extended context, the listening and note-taking skills that you develop in the Lecture and seminar skills units. The video and accompanying worksheets are available for students at [www.cambridge.org/elt/academicenglish](http://www.cambridge.org/elt/academicenglish).

To make sure that the language we teach in the course is up-to-date and relevant, we have made extensive use of the Cambridge Academic English Corpus in preparing the material.



### What is the Cambridge Academic English Corpus (CAEC)?

The CAEC is a 400-million-word resource comprising two parts. One is a collection of written academic language taken from textbooks and journals written in both British and American English. The second is a collection of spoken language from academic lectures and seminars. In both parts of the corpus a wide variety of academic subject areas is covered. In addition to the CAEC, we have looked at language from a 1.7-million-word corpus of scripts written by students taking the IELTS test.

Conducting our research using these corpora has allowed us to learn more about academic language in use, and also about the common errors made by students when using academic English. Using this information, we can be sure that the material in this course is built on sound evidence of how English is used in a wide variety of academic contexts. We use the CAEC to provide authentic examples in the activities of how language is used, and to give you useful facts about how often and in what contexts certain words and phrases are used in academic writing.

We hope you enjoy using *Cambridge Academic English* and that it helps you achieve success in your academic studies.

**Martin Hewings and Craig Thaine**

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# 1 Advertising and critical thinking

## Reading

- Reading critically
- Preparing to read
- Note-taking
- Vocabulary in context: compound nouns
- Inferring relationships between sentences
- Nominalisation
- Reading in detail

## Listening and speaking

- Pros and cons of group work
- Getting an opportunity to speak in a group discussion

## Writing

- Writing a summary
- In-text referencing conventions

## Reading

### 1 Reading critically

A critical reader questions the information and points of view presented by the writer in a text. An uncritical reader simply accepts what is said in a text as correct.

#### 1.1 Answer these questions and then discuss your ideas in pairs.

- 1 Why it is important to be able to read critically in your academic studies?
- 2 In your previous academic studies, were you expected to read critically?

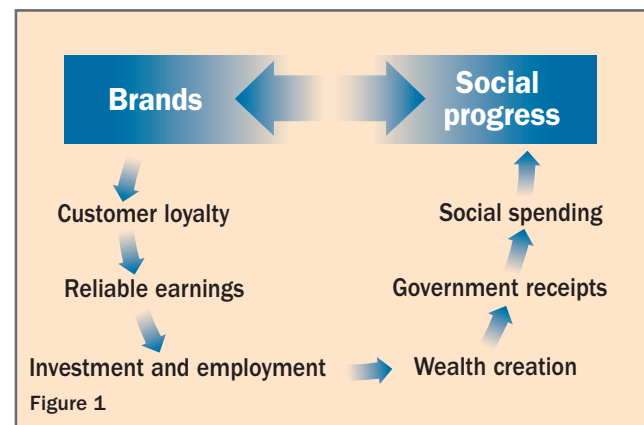
#### 1.2 a You are going to read critically two extracts on the topic of the consumer society. Before you read, discuss what 'consumer society' means to you.

b Read Extract A and then discuss questions 1–6 below.

Extract A

### The social value of brands

The rise of the consumer society is frequently blamed for many ills but rarely praised for its principal social contribution: generating the wealth that pays for and sustains social progress. Long-term improvements in health, education, living standards and opportunities depend on wealth creation. Strong economic growth goes hand-in-hand with strong, recognisable brands: no brand, no way to create mass customer loyalty; no consumer loyalty, no guarantee of reliable earnings; no reliable earnings, less investment and employment; less investment and employment, less wealth created; less wealth created, lower government receipts to spend on social goods (see Figure 4.1). This is the most basic, and arguably the most valuable, social contribution that brands make.



Gibbons, G. (2009). The social value of brands. In R. Clifton, et al. (Eds.) *Brands and branding* (2nd edn.). London: Profile Books.

- 1 Does the title of the publication tell you anything about the writer's position?
- 2 What general position does the writer take in the extract?
- 3 What claims are made that lead the writer to this position?
- 4 Does the writer provide any supporting evidence for claims?
- 5 What alternative positions are there and does the writer acknowledge these?
- 6 Are you persuaded that the writer's position is correct?



- c Go through questions 1–6 from page 14 again to read Extract B critically.

Extract B

### Consumer culture

We cannot ignore the disadvantages of a consumer society. The freedom of the individual consumer has limited the freedom of the community. The society that has fed, clothed, and housed people has also damaged the environment and created more trash than any other society in history. Perhaps the most worrying aspect of a consumer society is that our options for addressing its problems seem to be narrowing. Most people, for example, are deeply concerned about the ecological damage caused by consumption, but the response to it has been channelled into individual consumer choices. People do not agonize over different government and community-based solutions; instead, they agonize over whether they should use paper or plastic bags at the grocery store. The truth is that neither choice makes much difference given the current institutional structures, but the consumer approach to solving problems cannot change institutional structures or even talk about communal solutions.

Goodman, D. J. (2004). *Consumer culture*. Santa Barbara, Ca.: ABC-CLIO.

- 1.3 Is it necessary to read all academic texts critically? What text types do you not need to read critically? Discuss your ideas with a partner.

## 2 Preparing to read

An abstract is a short summary of a journal article, thesis, etc. found at the beginning.

- 2.1 You are going to read an extract from a journal article. Before you do, read the first line of the abstract. What do you think were the aims of the research reported in the article?

Abstract

Many school districts are implementing media-literacy programs in high schools that teach about the advertising production process and introduce students to techniques for critically analyzing media messages.

## 3 Note-taking



**Study tip**

There are a number of common note types: tabular notes (notes organised in a table); diagrammatic notes (notes connected by lines – key words may be put in boxes); and linear notes (notes written as ordinary text – underlining, etc. may be used to show text organisation, key words, and so on). Choose the most useful type for each text you read.

- 3.1 Read the extract on page 16 and add to these notes.



→ is defined as

G&V 2, p24

→ In using

G&V 1, p24

→ affect vs effect

G&V 3, p25

## Does media literacy work?

### An empirical study of learning how to analyze advertisements.

In an increasing number of secondary classrooms, print and TV ads are used by teachers as texts to be formally analyzed and studied. Educational practices like this are commonly identified as *media literacy*, which is defined as an expanded conceptualization of literacy that includes print, audio, visual, and electronic messages from contemporary culture (Kress, 2002). In using advertising texts in the classroom, teachers emphasize the skills of analyzing and evaluating ads to identify the message purpose, target audience, point of view and persuasive techniques used. Often, there is a focus on the social, political, economic, and historical contexts in which media messages reflect and shape culture (Buckingham, 2003).

Occasionally, as part of media literacy education, students also learn about the pre-production, production, and post-production processes involved in the creation of advertising messages (Young, 1990; Singer, Zuckerman & Singer, 1980). While it may be common for students enrolled in media production or marketing electives to learn about advertising production processes, it is far less common for students to gain this information in the context of their high-school English coursework. Potter (1998) points out the importance of knowledge structures in building critical analysis skills when it comes to analyzing advertising, but empirical research has not yet examined the impact of increased knowledge of advertising production processes, as it may affect critical thinking skills in responding to advertising messages.

However, there is only limited evidence that shows that learning about advertising and discussions about advertising in school can reduce children's vulnerability to advertising appeals and increase their ability to produce counter-arguments in response to advertising. For example, Christenson (1982) developed a three-minute video about advertising and showed it to children ages six to 12, finding that children who viewed the video were more aware of commercials and expressed less trust in commercials in general. Roberts, Christenson, Gibson, Mooser and Goldberg (1980) evaluated short films that were made to show children how television ads use various techniques to persuade. They found that heavy-viewing children who were initially most susceptible to commercials were most influenced by the films.

While older children and teens may have more knowledge about advertising, they also may not necessarily employ critical thinking skills in response to advertising, or have more skepticism about advertising in general. Boush, Friestad and Rose (1994) measured middle school students' knowledge of advertiser tactics and effects and their skepticism of advertising. Tactics included the use of celebrities, music, humor, cartoons, product comparisons, product demonstrations, and depictions of target audience. They found increased knowledge about advertiser tactics over a nine-month period, but no increase in advertising skepticism. They note:

Improving students' understanding of the way advertising works may have more potential for creating discerning consumers than has changing students' general attitudes. Exhortations to 'not believe everything you see on TV' are, therefore, less likely to produce changes in the processing of advertising claims than is a more careful analysis of advertisements that lays bare the persuasive device. (p. 172)

In evaluating the literature on advertising and children, Young (1990) criticizes the validity of research that has used superficial measures of children's skepticism, including responses to attitude statements using Likert-type scales. Even young children are aware of the social desirability of attitudes opposing advertising, he claims. Instead, Young argues that knowledge about the tactics used by advertisers to persuade, and skills like being able to understand the purpose and function of a media message, are key components needed to acquire critical thinking skills about advertising.

Hobbs, R. (2004). Does media literacy work? An empirical study of learning how to analyze advertisements. *Advertising and Society Review*, 5.

**3.2 Work in pairs and evaluate each other's notes. Check that the notes:**

- include all the main points;
- make a distinction between main and secondary points;
- show connections between information.

**3.3 Based on what is said in the extract, what further research do you think is needed on the question 'Does media literacy work?'.****4 Vocabulary in context: compound nouns****Study tip**

*Compound nouns (e.g. target audience) express information in a concise way and are very common in academic writing. One way to try to understand them is to 'unpack' the compound noun using a longer explanation.*



Target audience ...  
this probably means the audience (the readers, listeners, or viewers) that a particular medium, for example, TV or radio, wants or tries to get.

► Producing compound nouns

Unit 6 G&V 2, p92

**4.1 Work in pairs. Look up any words you don't know in these compound nouns from the text in****3.1. Explain in detail what each compound means.**

- 1 advertising texts (line 4)
- 2 media literacy education (line 9)
- 3 media production (line 12)
- 4 high-school English coursework (line 13)
- 5 critical analysis skills (line 14)
- 6 advertising production processes (line 16)
- 7 advertising messages (line 17)
- 8 product demonstrations (line 31)

**5 Inferring relationships between sentences**

*Sometimes, writers signal the relationship between sentences using a sentence connector (a word or phrase that links two sentences). At other times, the reader has to infer the relationship between a sentence and what has come before.*

**5.1 Find the sentences in the text in 3.1 which include these extracts. What sentence connectors do the sentences begin with? What meanings do they have?**

- 1 ... Christenson (1982) developed a three-minute video ... (line 21)
- 2 ... Young argues that knowledge about ... (line 42)

**5.2 Find the sentences which begin with these extracts. Explain the relationship between the sentences and what comes before. For example, does 1 contradict, exemplify or add to what came before it?**

- 1 Boush, Friestad and Rose (1994) measured ... (line 29)
- 2 Tactics included the use of ... (line 30)

## 6 Nominalisation

*In academic writing, we often prefer to use a noun rather than a related verb or adjective form. In this process of nominalisation, we talk about things or concepts (with nouns) rather than actions, events and characteristics (with verbs and adjectives).*

### 6.1 a Complete the sentences with a noun phrase related to the words in brackets. Use nouns from the same family as the underlined words.

- 1 ... students also learn about the processes involved in the creation of advertising messages (how advertising messages are created) (line 9)
- 2 Potter (1998) points out \_\_\_\_\_ in building critical analysis skills. (how important knowledge structures are) (line 14)
- 3 Boush, Friestad and Rose (1994) measured \_\_\_\_\_ and effects, and \_\_\_\_\_. (what middle-school students know about advertiser tactics; how skeptical they were of advertising) (line 29)
- 4 Improving \_\_\_\_\_ may have more potential for creating discerning consumers. (what students understand about the way advertising works) (line 34)

**b** Check your answers in the text in 3.1.

**c** Can you suggest reasons why nominalisation is common in academic writing?

## 7 Reading in detail

### 7.1 a Reword this sentence, replacing the three phrases in **bold** with one word. You may need to make changes to word order. Check your answer in the text in 3.1.

Occasionally, [...] students also learn about the processes **before production, during production and after production** involved in the creation of advertising messages ... (line 9)

**b** Why is 'Singer' repeated in this reference?

... Singer, Zuckerman & Singer, 1980 ... (line 11)

**c** What type of course is 'elective'?

... students enrolled in media production or marketing **electives**... (line 11)


**d** When we refer back to ideas in a previous part of the text, do we prefer to use *this* or *that* in academic writing? For example, would we use *this information* or *that information*? (Check your answer in line 13.)

**e** What do you notice about word order in the phrase in **bold** below?

Improving students' understanding of the way advertising works may have more potential for creating discerning consumers **than has changing students' general attitudes** ... (line 34)

**f** Why do you think inverted commas are used in this extract?

Exhortations to 'not believe everything you see on TV'... (line 35)

 Research shows that in the written academic corpus, the most frequent adverbs that come before less/more common are *much* and *far*. What other adverbs often combine with less/more common?

1 much    2 far    3 sig\_\_\_\_\_ly    4 sl\_\_\_\_\_ly    5 con\_\_\_\_\_ly    6 som\_\_\_\_\_at  
7 ra\_\_\_\_\_er    8 subs\_\_\_\_\_ly

Divide the adverbs you have written into two groups, one meaning 'a lot' (less/more common) and the other meaning 'a little' (less/more common).

## Listening and speaking

### 8 Pros and cons of group work

Group work takes place in an increasing number of academic courses. It is important to develop skills and to acquire useful language that will help you participate successfully in this kind of learning.

#### 8.1 In 9.1, you are going to listen to extracts from a discussion by a group of marketing students on brand preferences. Before you listen, read these ideas about group work and discuss which you agree with more.

##### Text 1

Students learn best when they are actively involved in the process. Researchers report that, regardless of the subject matter, students working in small groups tend to learn more of what is taught and retain it longer than when the same content is presented in other instructional formats. Students who work in collaborative groups also appear more satisfied with their classes.

Gross Davis, B. (1993). *Tools for teaching*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

##### Text 2

Some students feel that class time is best spent hearing from the instructor (who's the authority) rather than working with students who, they believe, know as little as themselves. Others may feel that they have succeeded thus far on individual effort, and don't want to be encumbered by other students with different histories of success or different working methods. And some students are simply shy and unaccustomed to sharing their work with their peers.

Stanford University Newsletter on Teaching (1999). Cooperative learning: students working in small groups. *Speaking of Teaching*, 10, 2.

#### 8.2 In pairs, discuss these questions.

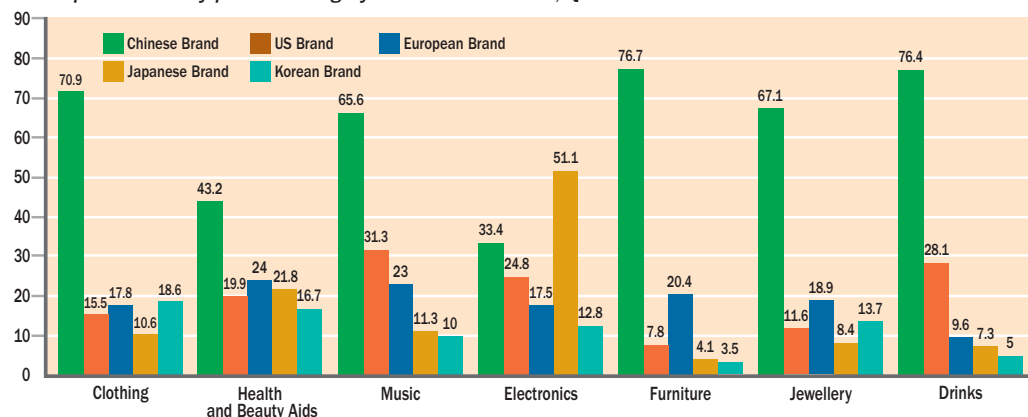
- 1 What experience of group work have you had in your academic studies so far?
- 2 Based on this experience, what other advantages and disadvantages of group work can you think of?

### 9 Getting an opportunity to speak in a group discussion


Because it can be difficult to make a contribution to group work at the right time, it is useful to learn phrases that help you to take a turn in the discussion.

#### 9.1 Listen to an extract from a group discussion, in which Ken talks about the chart below. Why did he choose it? What limitation does he mention?

Brand preferences by product category and nation in China, Q4 2009



Schultz, D.E & Block, M.P (2010) *Relevant Pieces to the Chinese Media Puzzle*. ESOMAR.

9.2 a  1.2 Now listen to six extracts from the group's discussion of the chart and complete the gaps.

- 1 Can I just come in here? Yeah, I think it's interesting ...
- 2 Can I just \_\_\_\_\_ said about clothing?
- 3 Can I just \_\_\_\_\_ a while ago?
- 4 Can I \_\_\_\_\_ ?
- 5 Can I just \_\_\_\_\_ said earlier?
- 6 Can I just \_\_\_\_\_ ?

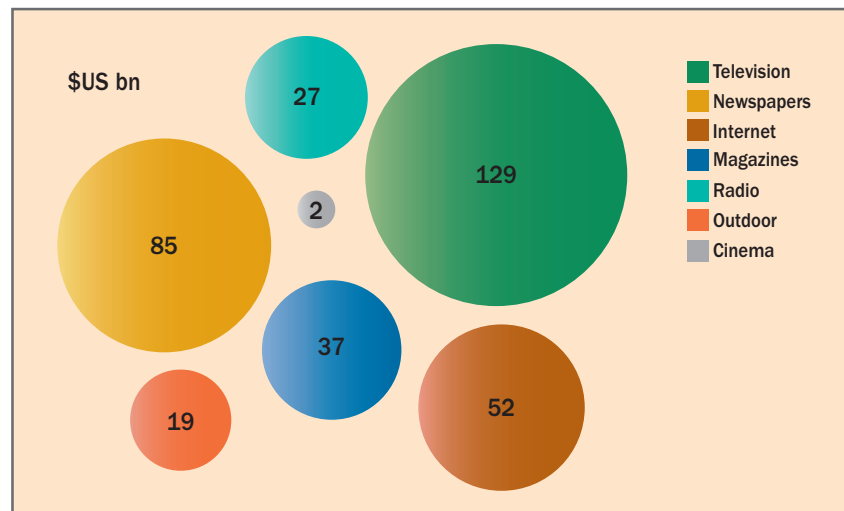
b Which phrases in 9.2a introduce a point relevant now (N) in the discussion? Which make a point relevant to something said before (B)?

9.3 a Work alone. Look at the chart on page 19 in more detail and make a note of other interesting findings and possible explanations.

b Work in small groups and discuss your ideas. Try to use phrases in 9.2a to get an opportunity to speak.

9.4 Work in new groups. Repeat the steps in 9.3 using the chart below.

Global ad spend by medium, 2009



Adstats: Global advertising spend

## Writing

### 10 Writing a summary

*Being able to produce summaries of what you have read is an important skill used in writing many kinds of academic text, including essays, research proposals and research reports.*

10.1 After a seminar, you have been given an essay with the title 'Discuss the influence of advertising on consumer behaviour'. You decide to include a short section on the ethics of advertising. Follow the steps below.

- 1 Read the text on page 21 for general meaning. (In this text, look first at the headings. How do they relate to each other? What main points are made under each one?)
- 2 Read the text again in more detail. Guess or look up any important-seeming words which you don't understand.
- 3 Underline the main points and other important information in each section/paragraph which are relevant to your essay.
- 4 Write notes on these main points.

## Ethics and advertising

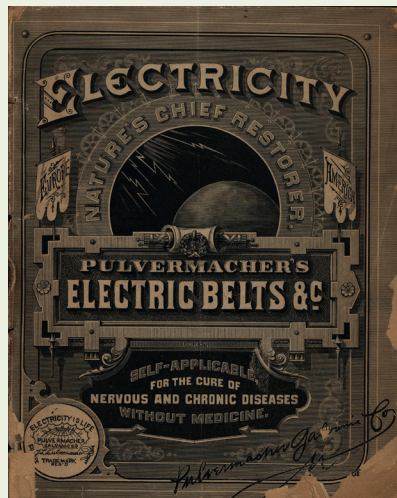
### Ethics and culture

The world of advertising has its own set of stories about the good and the bad, truth and dishonesty. This unit focuses on truth and deception in advertising and on the ethical dilemmas of those who produce advertising. These stories show that in advertising, just as in the world at large, there are not only clear instances of good and bad behaviors but also a vast grey area that lies between these extremes – an area where ethical decisions must be made on a daily basis.

some clear cases of good (ethical) ads vs bad (unethical) ads but many ads in the grey area between

### False advertising

In ancient Rome, the Latin expression *caveat emptor*, “let the buyer beware,” warned buyers of unscrupulous sellers. It remains a good dictum today, but it is much less likely that a seller would be telling outright lies about a product than sometimes occurred in the past. As recently as the early 1900s, advertising was still largely unregulated (by either government or advertising standards) and sellers were pretty much free to make whatever claims they could get away with. Patent medicines were among the worst offenders. The claims in such ads were not only often outrageous but frequently completely false. For example, the claims of the electric belt ad shown below have no basis in fact. Rather, they represent the boastful proclamations of the seller.



**Fig 13.8** This ad claims that electricity cures nervous and chronic diseases. (c. 1890)

Today, such patently false claims are highly unlikely in national advertising. Not only are there both governmental and industry-based standards that regulate what can be said in ads, but the force of negative publicity that would surround an outright lie, if discovered, would have severe or fatal repercussions for the company making the claims.

in the past, sellers could lie about products vs today much less likely ← (i) govt & industries regulate ads, (ii) negative publicity for companies that lie

### Deceptive advertising

Claiming that a product can do something that it cannot is a clear-cut case of deception. Saying that a package is one and one-half times bigger than another (if it is!) is a clear-cut case of telling the truth. But in the real world of advertising, the issues are seldom so clearly demarcated. Is it deceptive, for example, to say that Big Macs and Whoppers taste great without also saying that too many of them can make you fat, raise your cholesterol, or increase your sodium intake above healthy levels?

The public want and expects advertising to be truthful, but exactly what does this mean in practice? Does it mean saying that a new car can get you from New York to California in style is insufficient? For the ad to be truthful, does it also need to say that driving cars adds to environmental pollution and that you might get hurt or killed in an accident along the way? Does “honest” advertising require that some products (like prescription drugs, for example) need to make fuller disclosures about possible side-effects than do ads for hamburgers and cars?

### Disguised advertising

Ads that purport to be something else – a letter that looks like it is from the government, an ad in a newspaper or magazine that masquerades as news, or nowadays a blog or website that is packed with ads – are familiar techniques in contemporary marketing and advertising. Consumers know they should be skeptical of suspicious looking letters and unusually printed “stories” set in a typeface similar to articles.

The internet and trade journals are full of advice to companies who want to break through contemporary advertising clutter. The advice is simple: do it *online*. It does not take long to find a blog on a subject that interests you, but it does take a while to figure out just what is an ad and what is not. Product mentions (like product placement in the movies) are rampant. This new area of advertising is so slick and often so subtle that the ads move in unannounced. Are these online devices merely good business strategy in the digital age, or do they deceive consumers by their lack of disclosure that they are actually commercial announcements and publicity?

O’Barr, W. M. (2007). Ethics and advertising. *Advertising and Society Review* 8, 3.

- 10.2** Use your notes to write a summary of the main points in 150–200 words. Use your own words as far as possible. Include additional information (such as examples) only when necessary, to make what you are saying clearer.

*As O'Barr (2010) has pointed out, it can be difficult to draw a distinction between what is ethical and what is unethical in advertising. In the past, he suggests, ...*

- 10.3 a** You are going to compare summaries with their original paragraphs to identify strategies for changing language. Match phrases 1–4 in the texts to summarising strategies a–d.

- a reword a phrase
- b change clause to adverb
- c use a synonym
- d change the form of a verb (here, a consequence of changing the verb from cause to result in)

Another criticism is that advertising 1 causes people 2 to buy products or services 3 that they do not need. The defenders acknowledge that the whole reason to advertise the product or service is to persuade consumers to purchase the right products. 4 Another common criticism of advertising is that it perpetuates stereotyping, the process of categorizing individuals by predicting their behaviour based on their membership in a particular class or group. The problem, critics say, is that advertisements often portray entire groups of people in stereotypical ways, for example, showing only women as homemakers and elderly people as senile. These advertising stereotypes can reinforce negative or undesirable views of these groups, and this can contribute to discrimination against them.

*A number of criticisms of advertising have been made (Lee and Johnson, 2005). For example, some have argued that advertising 'results in people <sup>2</sup>buying products or services <sup>3</sup>unnecessarily. <sup>4</sup>Advertising is also often criticised for presenting groups of people in stereotypical ways (for example, elderly people as confused or forgetful), and this can encourage negative perceptions of the group.*

Lee, M. & Johnson, C. (2005). *Principles of advertising: a global perspective* (2nd edn). Binghamton, NY: The Haworth Press.

- b** Find other examples of strategies a–d and other strategies in this example. Then compare ideas with a partner.

Should products that can have harmful effects, like tobacco and alcohol, be advertised at all? Many advertising agencies respond in the affirmative. They back up their decision by saying that it is not an agency's responsibility to decide which products should be advertised and which should not. Rather, their reasoning goes: if it's legal to sell it, it's okay to advertise it. By contrast, there are other agencies and a handful of famous advertising men and women who refuse tobacco or alcohol accounts on ethical grounds. They do not want to be associated with the social ills of products that appear to be as harmful as these.

*Advertisers are divided on whether they should advertise harmful products such as tobacco and alcohol (O'Barr, 2007). Some refuse to, because they do not want an association with the problems that such products can cause. Others are willing to advertise them, arguing that they should not be responsible for prohibiting the advertising of legal products.*

O'Barr, W. M. (2007). Ethics and advertising. *Advertising and Society Review* 8, 3.



**10.4** Look again at the summary you wrote in 10.2. Can you improve it by using strategies from 10.3? **Focus on your subject**

Take a paragraph or two from an academic text in your subject (e.g. a textbook or journal article) that you are currently reading. Write a short summary, following strategies from 10.3.

**11** In-text referencing conventions

*In your academic writing, it is very important that you acknowledge the source of the words and ideas where these are neither your own nor common knowledge. You will learn about conventions for in-text referencing in this unit.*

**11.1** Look at this extract from a student's essay on the impact of advertising on child behaviour. Are in-text references 1–10 correct (✓) or incorrect (✗)? Where they are incorrect, correct them or explain what is wrong.

1 ✗ *date needed, e.g. (Lee, 2010)*

It is now well established that food promotion influences children's food preferences and their purchasing behaviour **1** (Lee). For example, a study of primary school children by **2** Teresa Cairns (2006) found that exposure to advertising influenced which food they said they liked. A more recent study showed that labelling on a vending machine had an effect on what was bought by secondary school children **3** Willis (2012). A number of studies have also shown that food advertising can influence what children eat **4** (e.g. Barry, 2011, May 2010, White, 2010). One, for example, showed that advertising influenced a primary class's choice of daily snack at playtime **5** (May, P, 2010). However, it is more difficult to establish whether a link exists between food promotion and obesity **6** (Levin, Advertising in focus, 2008), although some studies have attempted this by using the amount of television viewing as a measure of exposure to television advertising **7** (e.g. Marks, 2006, in Allen, 2008). They may have established a link between television viewing and diet, obesity and cholesterol levels, but as **8** Alvin 2010 has pointed out, it is impossible to say whether this effect is caused by the advertising itself or other factors. One study tried to resolve this problem by taking a detailed diary of children's viewing habits **9** (Collins, 2011), showing that the more food adverts they saw, the more snacks and calories they consumed. In summary, while the literature does suggest that food promotion influences children's diet in a number of ways, 'incontrovertible proof of a link simply isn't attainable' **10** (Petersen, 2012, page 13).

 **Focus on your subject**

It is important that you become familiar with the in-text referencing conventions used in your subject. If you are not given information about these on your course, follow the conventions used in a leading journal in your subject.

► In-text references

Appendix 1, p000

# Grammar and vocabulary

## Grammar and vocabulary

- *-ing* clauses with prepositions and conjunctions
- Prepositions after passive verbs
- Problem words: *affect* vs *effect*

### 1 *-ing* clauses with prepositions and conjunctions

In academic writing, we often begin a sentence with a preposition or conjunction (e.g. after, before, by, on, while) followed by an *-ing* clause, to give information about the purpose, cause, time, etc. of the event in the main clause that follows.

In using advertising texts in the classroom, teachers emphasize the skills of analyzing and evaluating ads.

(= 'the purpose of using advertising texts is to emphasize ...')

By not adopting a more liberal trade policy, the United States failed to set an example to others.

(= 'the result of not adopting a more liberal policy was that the United States failed ...'. Note that we put not before the *-ing* form.)

On coming to power, SWAPO announced an ambitious programme of educational expansion.

(= 'when they came to power, SWAPO announced ...')

#### 1.1 Match sentences 1–6 with a–f and then write a new sentence beginning with the word given.

- 1 A more efficient larger firm was created.
  - 2 I will review the literature.
  - 3 He became president.
  - 4 The two groups were compared.
  - 5 She doesn't deny that there is discrimination in the workplace.
  - 6 They start school in September.
- a Bright (2009) contends that it is not older workers who are a particular target.
  - b He made education the main priority of his government.
  - c The merger reduced costs.
  - d Children are immunised against tetanus and measles.
  - e I will outline the methods used in the research.
  - f Both quantitative and qualitative data were used.

- 1 c By creating a more efficient larger firm,  
the merger reduced costs
- 2 After \_\_\_\_\_
- 3 On \_\_\_\_\_
- 4 In \_\_\_\_\_
- 5 While \_\_\_\_\_
- 6 Before \_\_\_\_\_

The implied subject of the *-ing* clause should be the same as the subject in the main clause.

In using advertising texts in the classroom, ...

Teachers use advertising texts, so 'teachers' is the subject of the *-ing* clause.

... teachers emphasise the skills of analysing and evaluating ads.

'teachers' is the subject of the main clause.

#### 1.2 In pairs, decide whether these sentences are correct or incorrect and suggest improvements to the incorrect ones.

- 1 On starting school, the researchers examined children's achievement.
- 2 In conducting the research, I became aware of the limitations of the method.
- 3 After watching the video, students answered ten questions.
- 4 While recognising that the results may not be generalisable to all businesses, managers should have a working knowledge of accounting.

### 2 Prepositions after passive verbs

Many verbs commonly used with the passive voice are usually followed by a particular preposition.

Educational practices like this are commonly identified as media literacy, which is defined as an expanded conceptualisation of literacy ...

#### 2.1 What prepositions are most common after these passive verbs?

as at in into of on to with

- 1 be defined/known/regarded + as
- 2 be applied/attributed/related + \_\_\_\_\_
- 3 be associated/correlated + \_\_\_\_\_
- 4 be comprised/made up + \_\_\_\_\_
- 5 be included/involved + \_\_\_\_\_
- 6 be divided/translated + \_\_\_\_\_
- 7 be based/centred + \_\_\_\_\_
- 8 be aimed/estimated + \_\_\_\_\_

## 2.2 Complete these sentences with the correct preposition or verb form. (Try to do this without looking back at the list in 2.1.)

- 1 The total cost of the project was estimated at nearly \$2 billion.
- 2 This chapter is \_\_\_\_\_ into three sections.
- 3 Japan's high saving rate has been attributed \_\_\_\_\_ several factors, including less access to consumer credit and cultural factors.
- 4 Health expenditure per capita is negatively correlated \_\_\_\_\_ health inequality.
- 5 Since the late 1940s, France has been widely \_\_\_\_\_ as the leader of European integration.
- 6 Policy debates in modern Britain are often \_\_\_\_\_ on the assumption that care for the elderly has been taken over by the state.
- 7 This protein is involved \_\_\_\_\_ the development of the growing brain.
- 8 The book is comprised \_\_\_\_\_ 12 chapters.
- 9 A straight line can be \_\_\_\_\_ as a curve of infinite or very large radius.
- 10 Only one of her novels has so far been \_\_\_\_\_ into English.

## 3 Problem words: *affect* vs *effect*

### 3.1 Complete rules 1–8 with examples a–h.

#### **affect**

- usually a verb (/ə'fekt/) meaning to influence someone or something, or to cause them to change. 1 f
- sometimes a noun (/æ'fekt/) meaning a feeling or emotion that influences what you do or think. 2 \_\_\_\_\_

#### **effect**

- usually a noun (/ɪ'fekt/) meaning the change or event that happens as a result of an influence. 3 \_\_\_\_\_
- sometimes a verb (/ɪ'fekt/) meaning to make something happen. 4 \_\_\_\_\_
- Note these phrases which are common in academic writing (look them up in your dictionary to check their meaning):  
*in effect* 5 \_\_\_\_\_  
*take effect* 6 \_\_\_\_\_  
*come/put into effect* 7 \_\_\_\_\_  
*to good effect* 8 \_\_\_\_\_

- a The Amsterdam Treaty **took effect** on May 1, 1999.
- b Weather patterns have a significant **effect** on people's beliefs about the evidence for global warming.
- c Smaller firms can also use marketing **to good effect** to gain more clients.

- d Indicators of negative **affect**, such as depression and hopelessness, typically increase dramatically throughout the teen years.
- e Improvements in relations between senior management and more junior staff is needed to **effect** change in teaching and learning.
- f ~~Increased knowledge of advertising production processes may **affect** critical thinking skills.~~
- g It is difficult to see how their recommendations could be **put into effect** in practice.
- h From 1996 until 2001, there was, **in effect**, a civil war in the country.

### 3.2 Rewrite the phrases in bold using *affect*, *effect* or a phrase from the box in 3.1.

- 1 The main **impact** of the new law was to increase insurance claims. effect
- 2 Privatisation of the telecommunications industry **was announced** in January 1982 and carried out two years later. \_\_\_\_\_
- 3 The number of components made of plastic was increased in order to **bring about** a saving in weight and cost. \_\_\_\_\_
- 4 The rise in student fees **begins** at the end of the year. \_\_\_\_\_
- 5 With three senior army officers in the cabinet, the government was **in practice** controlled by the military. \_\_\_\_\_
- 6 It was felt that distractions in the classroom might **have an adverse influence** on children's concentration, so interviews were conducted in an adjoining room. \_\_\_\_\_
- 7 Fathers who were more aggressive toward their partners displayed lower positive **feelings** toward their infants. \_\_\_\_\_
- 8 Illustrations are used **in a way that works well** in the book to explain processes which are often very complex. \_\_\_\_\_

👁 Research shows that in academic writing, the most common adverb before *affect* is significantly (e.g. Poverty significantly **affects** infant mortality). What are the next most common?

- 1 significantly
- 2 adv \_\_\_\_\_ ly
- 3 dir \_\_\_\_\_ ly
- 4 neg \_\_\_\_\_ ly
- 5 str \_\_\_\_\_ ly

# Lecture and seminar skills A

## Preparing for lectures

- Seminars and lectures
- Good business language

## Listening

- Practice in gist and detailed listening

## Seminar skills

- Understanding new terms
- Understanding the tutor's instructions
- Understanding tutor feedback

## Follow up

- Further listening

## Preparing for seminars

### 1 Seminars and lectures

As part of a course focusing on business communication, you will watch and listen to extracts from a seminar given by Clare Lynch.

#### 1.1 Work in pairs. Discuss what you think the differences are between seminars and lectures. Think about:

- size of the student group.
- interaction between the tutor and students.
- manner of the tutor.
- contributions from students.
- amount of explaining the tutor does, compared to the amount of questioning.
- opportunities for students to discuss ideas.



### 2 Good business language

#### 2.1 In the seminar, you will watch the tutor explain what makes good business writing. Predict which features she will identify as good business language.

- It tries to be impersonal and objective.
  - It tries to communicate directly with the reader.
- It uses more verbs.
  - It uses more nouns.
- It is generally more concrete and straightforward.
  - It can sometimes be abstract and complex.

#### 2.2 Which sentence uses more appropriate business language (e.g. for an advert)? Give reasons, using the features from 2.1.

- We have the expertise and ability to deliver IT solutions that allow for your personalisation.
- We are experts who can solve your IT problems.

## Listening

### 3 Practice in gist and detailed listening

#### 3.1 a A.1 Watch an extract from the seminar and answer the questions.

- Which features of business language from 2.1 does the tutor talk about?
  - What is the tutor's opinion of a lot of business writing?
- b Were any of your ideas about seminars from 1.1 mentioned?

### 3.2 A.2 Watch the first part of the extract again. Complete the notes.

- business language (b.l.) = body (e.g. flabby, skeletal, 1 \_\_\_\_\_)  
(e.g. we are of the opinion of = we 2 \_\_\_\_\_)
- abstraction in business language → people try to 3 \_\_\_\_\_ 4 \_\_\_\_\_  
abstract noun = thing you 5 \_\_\_\_\_ 6 \_\_\_\_\_  
(e.g. advice, 7 \_\_\_\_\_, 8 \_\_\_\_\_)
- business language attracts abstract nouns → easy to 9 \_\_\_\_\_, over-10 \_\_\_\_\_
- abstract nouns come from 11 \_\_\_\_\_ & 12 \_\_\_\_\_  
(e.g. available → availability; reduce → 13 \_\_\_\_\_)
- abstract noun = skeleton → give 14 \_\_\_\_\_, necessary  
BUT too many means writing ossified, i.e. 15 \_\_\_\_\_ & 16 \_\_\_\_\_
- verbs – language has 17 \_\_\_\_\_, is dynamic, 18 \_\_\_\_\_ writing forward



#### Study tip

Seminars often begin with an input stage like the one you have just seen. In contrast to a lecture, in a seminar, you can ask the tutor about a key point you have not understood after the input stage. Tutors will often invite questions of this nature. However, many seminars can have quite a relaxed, fluid atmosphere and students may feel free to ask questions at any time.

### 3.3 A.2 In this extract, the tutor gives examples of abstract business writing. Watch again and find examples of:

- a a padding (or filler) verb.
- b eight suffixes that indicate abstract nouns.
- c abstract business expressions, as well as an improved version suggested by students.
- d a Latinate verb.
- e an Anglo-Saxon verb phrase.

## Seminar skills

### 4 Understanding new terms

#### 4.1 You watched the tutor provide the key input in the seminar. What do you think will happen next? Discuss these possibilities and give reasons.


Students will:

- a repeat the key information back to the tutor.
- b share examples that include abstract language.
- c rewrite some examples of business language that are too abstract.
- d write a company profile from notes provided by the tutor, trying to avoid abstract nouns.

#### 4.2 A.3 Watch the next extract and discuss the questions.

- a Were your predictions from 4.1 correct?
- b In this part of the seminar, the tutor introduces a new term. How does she explain its meaning?
  - She says the term in a variety of different example sentences.
  - She provides a definition, similar to one found in a dictionary.
  - She compares it to familiar words with a similar suffix.

## 5 Understanding the tutor's instructions

5.1  **A.3** The tutor sets up the task using a variety of instructions. Put phrases a–h in order and then watch and check your answers.

- a the next exercise \_\_\_\_\_
- b it's entitled 'curing nountitis' \_\_\_\_\_
- c that would be great \_\_\_\_\_
- d OK, do you want to \_\_\_\_\_
- e do you know what I mean by 'nountitis'? \_\_\_\_\_
- f take a look at \_\_\_\_\_
- g again, some real live examples of business language \_\_\_\_\_
- h so if you could cure these examples of 'nountitis' \_\_\_\_\_

5.2 a The tutor could have given her instructions as follows. Look at the examples in 5.1. What language does she use instead of the phrases in bold?

- a Could you please **do** the following exercise on 'nountitis'?
- b **Do you understand** 'nountitis'?
- c Could you **rewrite the examples**?

b Discuss whether the tutor's language is more or less direct than the examples in 5.2a.



### Study tip

In seminars, tutors are not always directive in the way they set up activities. This is often because a seminar is seen as a collaborative learning context in which a tutor facilitates rather than instructs. It also suggests that tutors expect their students to be more independent.

## 6 Understanding tutor feedback

In the next extract, the tutor gives feedback on the 'nountitis' task. Students have rewritten the following text using more straightforward language.


We have the willingness and capacity to close this transaction in the most rapid and effective manner and we are confident in our ability to deliver a solution that will be acceptable to all parties.

The tutor gets answers from three groups.

Group 1: two students wearing black pullovers

Group 2: two students wearing red pullovers

Group 3: three students, with the middle student wearing a grey sweatshirt

6.1 a  **A.4** Watch the extract without sound and focus on body language and facial expressions. With which groups does the tutor do the following?

- a She nods affirmatively, but steps back. She has a mostly neutral look, but seems to be questioning students. She turns to address the whole group to make a point.
- b She looks uncertain. She has a questioning look and nods in a negative way. She smiles awkwardly and raises an eyebrow.
- c She moves towards the group and maintains her position. She gestures with her arm towards the group. She nods in an affirmative way and gestures towards the group.

b Which group do you think:

- a has a problem with their answer?
- b has an answer which is quite good, but needs some changing?
- c has a good answer?

c Which adjective best describes her overall manner with each group?

- a cautious                      b encouraging                      c uncertain

d  **A.5** Watch the clip again, this time with sound. Were your ideas correct?

**6.2** Look at these examples of giving feedback. Choose the example that you think is more appropriate (a or b) and give reasons.

**1** indicating there is a problem

- a I'm not sure I entirely agree with your ideas.
- b Oh, so that was your answer? Maybe.

**2** showing that an answer is almost correct

- a It's not 100% correct.
- b I like what you say in the first part of your answer, but perhaps in the second part you could ...

**3** showing that an answer is correct

- a Yes.
- b I like that, yes, it works.

**6.3** a  **A.6** Listen and complete the phrases the tutor uses to give feedback to each group.

**Group 1**

I think you had \_\_\_\_\_ there. Yeah.


**Group 2**

I think you're trying \_\_\_\_\_ cancel something.

**Group 3**

Close, yeah, I mean \_\_\_\_\_ sure you got ...

**b** Which examples do you think are direct? Which are more indirect?

**6.4** a  **A.7** Watch the end of the extract, where the tutor gives her version of the text. She makes a comment which is not part of the definition. This is known as an aside. Which expression does she comment on?

- a close this transaction
- b deliver a solution

**b** How does she signal the aside? Choose the correct option.

- a Her intonation falls in the middle of her dictation and again for the aside.
- b Her intonation stops in the middle of a rise and she pauses. She pauses again at the end of the aside.

**6.5**  **A.7** Watch again and write down the tutor's version. She provides two different endings.

*We're willing ...*

ending 1: \_\_\_\_\_

ending 2: \_\_\_\_\_




**Study tip**

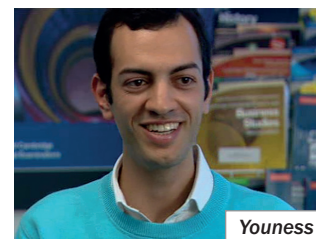
*In seminars, tutors often give indirect feedback on tasks that focus on the content of students' answers. This approach to feedback aims to be more interactive and exploratory in nature. It is more common than feedback that simply confirms or denies the accuracy of an answer.*

## Follow up

## 7 Further listening

**7.1**  **A.8** Listen to Youness talk about his experience of seminars.

- a What helped give him confidence?
- b How did he try to contribute to seminars?
- c Did tutors have high expectations of the students in the seminar group?



Youness