



زانكۆی سهلاحه دین - ههولیر  
Salahaddin University-Erbil

به رێوه به رایه تی په ره پیدانی پروگرامه کان  
Directorate of Curricula Development

## Theoretical Materials for teachers of Academic Debate and Critical Thinking course

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**First: Introduction to Thinking skills and Communication:** using video clips is one of the best ways to teach critical thinking and academic debate.

### (1) How should we think and debate?<sup>1</sup>

- Thinking process differs from person to another according to intellectual activities.
- Thinking is a human ability that can be developed through training.

### (2) Approaches to learning and teaching:

Two types of learning in daily life are:

1. Teacher-centred Instruction: this is a one-way learning process, from the teacher to the student
2. Student-centred Instruction: this is a two-way learning process, from the teacher to the student and vice versa.

### (3) Thinking Skills:

1. Lower-order Thinking Skills:
  - Remembering

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<sup>1</sup> Lectures prepared by Hardawan Mahmoud Kakashekh, a lecturer of *Academic Debate & Critical Thinking*

- Understanding
  - Applying
2. Higher-order Thinking Skills:
- Analysing
  - Evaluating
  - Creating
  - Critical Thinking

#### **(4) Critical Thinking:**

It is the ability to understand, evaluate and reach a conclusion about issues in accordance with certain criteria by means of observing, raising questions, comparing, checking arguments and logical reasoning.

The purpose behind critical thinking is reflecting on an opinion in order to analyse it and providing evidence and argumentation subjectively, then reaching a decision resorting to certain criteria.

There will an exchange of opinions about an issue, a news article, or a story.

To accustom students to critical thinking, the best way is to differentiate *fact* from *opinion* as well as *relevant information* from *irrelevant information*.

#### **(5) Fact and Opinion:**

**Fact:** fact refers to something which can be proven. It expresses a truth that is reached by consensus which can be found out through observation possessing undisputable of details.

For example: *9 is a bigger numeral than 8, or words can be nouns or verbs.*

**Opinion:** it is the expression of a person's viewpoints or it is expression of one's understanding, ideology or feelings. An opinion can be agreed or disagreed to.

For example: *Accountancy is a better and more suitable area than media or Audit is an easier subject than Principles of Finance.*

#### **Exercises:**

The following are a number of exercises which help students differentiate between fact and opinion:

- Journalism is the only way for success in life.
- The earth goes round the sun.
- Industry sector is more significant than agriculture.
- There are more job opportunities for Accountancy Department graduates than Administration Department graduates.
- In accountancy, using a computer is more accurate than a manual use.

- Islam is the only true religion.
- In philosophy of ethics “Deontology” is more suitable than “Pragmatics”.

### **(6) Debating and Argumentation:**

Debate: is a formal discussion about a certain topic reaching a common ground between two opposing sides.

Argumentation: it is the process of reasoning the evidence in order to support your opinion. It is summarising your conclusions in order to convince the opposing side.

### **Components of Argumentation:**

Students should learn that argumentation consists of the following three components:

1. Statement of possible truth:  
Students should be trained to start with conclusion they have reached. For example:  
*Smoking cigarettes is less harmful than smoking hookah.*
2. Supporting your statements:  
It is important that students should be trained so that when they demonstrate their views, they can support their statements with scientific evidence (referring to researches, surveys or collected data) rather than opinion. For example:  
*According to World Health Organisation, smoking a hookah equals 100 cigarettes.*
3. Explain why the audience should care about the statement:  
Through demonstrating the importance of your viewpoint, you tell the audience why they should care about your topic.

### **(7) Steps of Critical Thinking**

In order to train the students on critical thinking skill, they should be introduced to the following steps:

1. Collecting data relevant to your topic.
2. Demonstrating differing viewpoints.
3. Discussing and checking the viewpoints to make sure they are valid.
4. Separating effective and weak aspects of the viewpoints.
5. Evaluating the viewpoints subjectively.
6. Presenting arguments on the validity of the viewpoints.

### **(8) Characteristics of Critical Thinking:**

A person possessing critical thinking ability has a number of characteristics:

- A person with this ability does not offer opinion on every topic; they do not talk about an issue about which they do not have sufficient information.

- They know when they need more information about a specific topic.
- They know conclusions can be correct or erroneous.
- They know that people have different understanding of a certain issue.
- They raise questions and investigate when issues are vague.
- They can tell the difference between emotional and logical thinking.
- They resort to reliable sources and refer to them.
- They care about every aspect of the topic equally.
- They do not deviate from the main idea of the topic.
- When there is a necessary argument they will have a response.

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<sup>1</sup> Lectures prepared by Hardawan Mahmoud Kakashekh, a lecturer of *Academic Debate & Critical Thinking*

## **PRINCIPLES OF COMMUNICATION**

**(<http://faculty.mu.edu.sa/public/uploads/1331203444.686Principles%20of%20communication.pdf> )**

Communication is a two-way process of giving and receiving information through any number of channels. Whether one is speaking informally to a colleague, addressing a conference or meeting, writing a newsletter article or formal report, the following basic principles apply:

- Know your audience.
- Know your purpose.
- Know your topic.
- Anticipate objections.
- Present a rounded picture.
- Achieve credibility with your audience.
- Follow through on what you say.
- Communicate a little at a time.
- Present information in several ways.
- Develop a practical, useful way to get feedback.
- Use multiple communication techniques.

Communication is complex. When listening to or reading someone else's message, we often filter what's being said through a screen of our own opinions. One of the major barriers to communication is our own ideas and opinions.

**People remember:**

- 10% of what they read
- 20% of what they hear
- 30% of what they see
- 40% of what they hear and see

## Principles of Effective Persuasion

Whether making a formal presentation at a meeting or writing a report or fact sheet, the following principles hold.

- Do not oversell or overstate your case. Make effective use of understatement.
- Outline the topic you are trying to cover into two parts. The first part should give broad background information, while the second part provides a detailed summary.
- Persuasion depends on clarity and simplicity. Avoid the use of jargon and buzz words.
- Be prepared to back up claims or facts immediately.
- Incorporate major anticipated objections into your program or presentation.
- Address all relevant aspects of a topic, especially those that may affect the functioning of an organization.
- Use graphics and audio-visuals appropriately.
- Consider ways to get meaningful input from people. Find out what they think about the innovation or change.

## Feedback (Listening)

Getting and giving feedback is one of the most crucial parts of good communication. Like any other activity, there are specific skills that can enhance feedback. Listening is a key part of getting feedback:

**Listen to the Complete Message.** Be patient. This is especially important when listening to a topic that provokes strong opinions or radically different points-of-view. In these situations, it's important not to prejudge the incoming message. Learn not to get too excited about a communication until you are certain of the message.

**Work at Listening Skills.** Listening is hard work. Good listeners demonstrate interest and alertness. They indicate through their eye contact, posture and facial expression that the occasion and the speaker's efforts are a matter of concern to them. Most good listeners provide speakers with clear and unambiguous feedback.

**Judge the Content, Not the Form of the Message.** Such things as the speaker's mode of dress, quality of voice, delivery mannerisms and physical characteristics are often used as

excuses for not listening. Direct your attention to the message--what is being said--and away from the distracting elements.

**Weigh Emotionally Charged Language.** Emotionally charged language often stands in the way of effective listening. Filter out "red flag" words (like "liberal" and "conservative," for instance) and the emotions they call up. Specific suggestions for dealing with emotionally charged words include

- Take time to identify those words that affect you emotionally.
- Attempt to analyze why the words affect you the way they do.
- Work at trying to reduce the impact of these words on you.

**Eliminate Distractions.** Physical distractions and complications seriously impair listening. These distractions may take many forms: loud noises, stuffy rooms, overcrowded conditions, uncomfortable temperature, bad lighting, etc. Good listeners speak up if the room is too warm, too noisy, or too dark. There are also internal distractions: worries about deadlines or problems of any type may make listening difficult. If you're distracted, make an effort to clear your head. If you can't manage it, arrange to communicate at some other time.

**Think Efficiently and Critically.** On the average, we speak at a rate of 100 to 200 words per minute. However, we think at a much faster rate, anywhere from 400 to 600 words per minute. What do we do with this excess thinking time while listening to someone speak? One technique is to apply this spare time to analyzing what is being said. They critically review the material by asking the following kinds of questions:

- What is being said to support the speaker's point of view? (Evidence)
- What assumptions are being made by the speaker and the listener? (Assumptions)
- How does this information affect me? (Effect)
- Can this material be organized more efficiently? (Structure)
- Are there examples that would better illustrate what is being said? (Example)
- What are the main points of the message? (Summary)

## **Sending Messages**

Messages should be clear and accurate, and sent in a way that encourages retention, not rejection.

- **Use Verbal Feedback** Even If Nonverbal Is Positive And Frequent. Everyone needs reassurance that they are reading nonverbal communication correctly, whether a smile means "You're doing great," "You're doing better than most beginners," or "You'll catch on eventually."

- **Focus Feedback on Behaviour Rather Than On Personality.** It's better to comment on specific behaviour than to characterize a pattern of behaviour. For example, instead of calling a colleague inefficient, specify your complaint: "You don't return phone calls; this causes problems both in and outside your office."
- **Focus Feedback on Description Rather Than Judgment.** Description tells what happened. Judgment evaluates what happened. For example, in evaluating a report don't say, "This is a lousy report!!" Instead, try: "The report doesn't focus on the information that I think needs emphasis," or "This report seems to have a lot of grammatical and spelling mistakes."
- **Make Feedback Specific Rather Than General.** If feedback is specific, the receiver knows what activity to continue or change. When feedback is general, the receiver doesn't know what to do differently. For example, in an office situation, instead of saying "These folders are not arranged correctly," it's better feedback to say, "These should be arranged chronologically instead of alphabetically."
- **In Giving Feedback, Consider the Needs and Abilities of the Receiver.** Give the amount of information the receiver can use and focus feedback on activities the receiver has control over. It's fruitless to criticize the level of activity, if the decision to grant the necessary monies for materials, personnel or technology is made at a different level.
- **Check to See if the Receiver Heard What You Meant to Say.** If the information is important enough to send, make sure the person understands it. One way of doing this is to say, "I'm wondering if I said that clearly enough. What did you understand me to say?" or "This is what I hear you saying. Is that right?"
- **Personal contact requires scheduling, time and interpersonal skills.**
- **Contact requires good verbal skills and an awareness of voice tones as nonverbal communication.**
- **Letter requires writing skills.**
- **Informal e-mail, needs to be short and to the point, but not get lost in clutter. It may require frequent follow-up.**
- **News release requires writing skills and cooperation of the media and time.**

## ORAL COMMUNICATION

### Speaking to Communicate

Spoken communication occurs in many different settings during the course of successful innovation and change. These may be divided into three main types:

- The formal and informal networks in which peers exchange information, such as professional associations, work units, work teams, etc.
- The activities of change agents, opinion leaders, etc.
- The contacts established at team meetings, conferences, training courses, etc.

Whether to use oral communication is a decision we all make frequently in the course of a workday. The change agent must be able to identify those situations in which oral communication is the most appropriate one to use. Don Kirkpatrick suggests the following guidelines for making such decisions.

### **Use Oral Communication When:**

- The receiver is not particularly interested in receiving the message. Oral communication provides more opportunity for getting and keeping interest and attention.
- It is important to get feedback. It's easier to get feedback by observing facial expressions (and other nonverbal behaviour) and asking questions.
- Emotions are high. Oral communication provides more opportunity for both the sender and the receiver to let off steam, cool down, and create a suitable climate for understanding.
- The receiver is too busy or preoccupied to read. Oral communication provides more opportunity to get attention.
- The sender wants to persuade or convince. Oral communication provides more flexibility, opportunity for emphasis, chance to listen, and opportunity to remove resistance and change attitudes.
- When discussion is needed. A complicated subject frequently requires discussion to be sure of understanding.
- When criticism of the receiver is involved. Oral communication provides more opportunity to accomplish this without arousing resentment. Also, oral communication is less threatening because it isn't formalized in writing.
- When the receiver prefers one-to-one contact.

### **Presentation Styles**

There are different styles of making a presentation and different people will use the approach that suits them.

Good Old Boy: This is usually an experienced person who is the peer of most of the audience. Generally, there is a lot of good information but it may be poorly organized or poorly delivered.



**The Entertainer:** This person relies on jokes and stories to get their point across. Good visual aids could be an important feature of the presentation. Sometimes there is too much emphasis on satisfying the audience that little information is actually transferred.

**The Academic:** This person tends to be very precise and deliberate in presenting information. There is considerable content and it usually is well organized. Unfortunately, it can also be boring and irrelevant and not relate well to the audience.

**The Reader:** This person decides to read his material word for word. The material is often not especially prepared for an oral presentation and can be overly technical, boring and hard to understand. All topics are covered and what is said is precise and accurate.

**The Snail:** This person is nervous about the presentation and goes into a shell. Like a snail, this person also moves slowly and the presentation seems to last forever. What is best? You have to have a style you are comfortable with. Ideally, you have the rapport of the good old boy, the organization and content of the academic, the ability to get and maintain interest of the entertainer, and the precision of the reader. If you do this you will avoid the slow pace of the snail and effectively present information to your listeners.

**The Gadgeteer:** This person uses every gimmick and technique in his or her presentation and visual aids. It can be overdone with the message getting lost among the bells and whistles.

## **Components of an Effective Oral Report**

**Introduction** Capture the attention of the group right from the start.

- Give the necessary explanation of the background from which the problem derived.
- Clearly state and explain the problem.
- Clearly state your objectives.
- Indicate the method(s) used to solve the problem.
- Suggest the order in which you will provide information.

## **Organization**

- Provide sufficient introductory information.
- Use transitions from one main part to the next and between points of the speech.
- Use summary statements and restatements.
- Make the main ideas of the report clearly distinguishable from one another.

## **Content**

- Have adequate supporting data to substantiate what you say.
- Avoid using extraneous material.

- Present supporting data clearly--in terms of the ideas or concepts you are trying to communicate.
- Were the methods of the investigation clearly presented?
- Visual Aid Supports
- Use clear drawings, charts, diagrams or other aids to make explanations vivid and understandable.
- Make visual aids fit naturally into the presentation.
- Be completely familiar with each visual used.
- Don't clutter your report with too many visual aids.

## **Conclusion**

Conclude your report with finality in terms of one or more of the following:

- the conclusions reached
- the problem solved
- the results obtained
- the value of such findings to the county
- recommendations offered

## **Question Period**

- Give evidence of intelligent listening in interpreting the questions.
- Organize answers in terms of a summary statement, explanation, and supporting example.
- Show flexibility in adapting or improvising visual aids in answering questions.

## **Delivery**

- Be natural, "communicative" in your delivery.
- Use frequent eye contact to maintain rapport with the audience.
- Vary your delivery with appropriate movements and gestures.
- Speak distinctly.
- Display confidence and authority.
- Express enthusiasm for your ideas.

## **VISUAL COMMUNICATION**

There's an old saying that "a picture is worth a thousand words." Life would indeed be difficult without paintings, photographs, diagrams, charts, drawings, and graphic symbols. These are some of the reasons why **SHOWING** is such an important form of communication.

- Most people understand things better when they have seen how they work.
- Involved, complex ideas can be presented clearly and quickly using visual aids.

- People retain information longer when it is presented to them visually.
- Visuals can be used to communicate to a wide range of people with differing backgrounds.
- Visuals are useful when trying to condense information into a short time period.

Visual aids--used imaginatively and appropriately--will help your audience remember more. Consider the following:

- People think in terms of images, not words, so visuals help them retain and recall technical information.
- Visuals attract and hold the attention of observers.
- Visuals simplify technical information.
- Visuals may be useful in presenting technical information to a nontechnical audience.

## **WRITTEN COMMUNICATION**

Written materials often bear the greatest burden for the communication of new ideas and procedures. Effective writing is the product of long hours of preparation, revision and organization. One book that follows its own rules is Strunk and White's *Elements of Style*, a short book which argues persuasively for clarity, accuracy, and brevity in the use of English.

Clear, vigorous writing is a product of clear, vigorous thinking. Clarity is born of discipline and imagination. Kirkpatrick gives the following guidelines for using written communication:

### **Use Written Communication When:**

- The sender wants a record for future references.
- The receiver will be referring to it later.
- The message is complex and requires study by the receiver.
- The message includes a step by step procedure.
- Oral communication is not possible because people are not in the same place at the same time.
- There are many receivers. Caution: the receivers must be interested in the subject and will put forth the time and effort to read and understand.
- It is cheaper. Caution: the same as above.
- A copy of the message should go to another person.
- The receiver prefers written.

### **Advantages of Written Materials**

- Highly technical topics can be presented using words and diagrams.

- Written material provides a permanent record that can be referred to from time to time or passed on to others.
- Written material can be duplicated in large quantities or distributed on the Internet relatively inexpensively.
- It is fairly easy to distribute written material to many people, but this practice is getting increasingly expensive and its effectiveness questionable.
- Written material is preferred when it is desirable to get the same information to a group of people.
- Written records and reports are sometimes useful in legal matters.
- Written material may be useful for documenting the success or progress of some project or activity.

## Second: Report Writing Skills

1. Academic report writing skills (using sources and their citation)
2. Learning to paraphrase and summarise, avoiding plagiarism.
3. Taking notes
4. Time management
5. Structure of the report

### Report structure:

- ✓ Title and author
- ✓ Introduction
- ✓ Purpose of the report
- ✓ Data collecting tools
- ✓ Body of report detailed discussion
- ✓ Conclusion or summary
- ✓ References

### Report writing

([https://www.holmesglen.edu.au/data/assets/pdf\\_file/0019/110449/WRITING\\_ReportWritingStructureOverview.pdf](https://www.holmesglen.edu.au/data/assets/pdf_file/0019/110449/WRITING_ReportWritingStructureOverview.pdf) )

### Selecting a Topic

The ability to develop a good research topic is an important skill. An instructor may assign you a specific topic, but most often instructors require you to select your own topic of interest. When deciding on a topic, there are a few things that you will need to do:

- Brainstorm for ideas
- choose a topic that will enable you to read and understand the literature
- ensure that the topic is manageable and that material is available
- make a list of key words
- be flexible
- define your topic as a focused research question
- research and read more about your topic

- formulate a thesis statement

Be aware that selecting a good topic may not be easy. It must be narrow and focused enough to be interesting, yet broad enough to find adequate information. Before selecting your topic, make sure you know what your final project should look like. Each class or instructor will likely require a different format or style of research project.

### **Read General Background Information**

- Read a general encyclopaedia article on the top two or three topics you are considering. Reading a broad summary enables you to get an overview of the topic and see how your idea relates to broader, narrower, and related issues. It also provides a great source for finding words commonly used to describe the topic. These keywords may be very useful to your later research. If you can't find an article on your topic, try using broader terms and ask for help from a librarian.

Browse the Encyclopaedia Americana for information on your topic ideas. Notice that both online encyclopaedias provide links to magazine articles and Web sites. These are listed in the left or the right margins.

- Use periodical indexes to scan current magazine, journal or newspaper articles on your topic. Ask a librarian if they can help you to browse articles on your topics of interest.
- Use Web search engines. Google and Bing are currently considered to be two of the best search engines to find web sites on the topic.

### **Focus on Your Topic**

Keep it manageable

A topic will be very difficult to research if it is too broad or narrow. One way to narrow a broad topic such as "the environment" is to limit your topic. Some common ways to limit a topic are:

- by geographical area

Example: What environmental issues are most important in the Southwestern United States

- by culture

Example: How does the environment fit into the Navajo world view?

by time frame:

Example: What are the most prominent environmental issues of the last 10 years?

by discipline

Example: How does environmental awareness effect business practices today?

by population group

Example: What are the effects of air pollution on senior citizens?

Remember that a topic may be too difficult to research if it is too:

locally confined - Topics this specific may only be covered in these (local) newspapers, if at all.

Example: What sources of pollution affect the Genesee County water supply?

recent - If a topic is quite recent, books or journal articles may not be available, but newspaper or magazine articles may. Also, Web sites related to the topic may or may not be available.

broadly interdisciplinary - You could be overwhelmed with superficial information.

Example: How can the environment contribute to the culture, politics and society of the Western states?

popular - You will only find very popular articles about some topics such as sports figures and high-profile celebrities and musicians.

If you have any difficulties or questions with focusing your topic, discuss the topic with your instructor, or with a librarian

### **Make a List of Useful Keywords**

Keep track of the words that are used to describe your topic.

Look for words that best describe your topic

- Look for them in when reading encyclopedia articles and background and general information
- Find broader and narrower terms, synonyms, key concepts for key words to widen your search capabilities
- Make note of these words and use them later when searching databases and catalogs

### **Be Flexible**

It is common to modify your topic during the research process. You can never be sure of what you may find. You may find too much and need to narrow your focus, or too little and need to broaden your focus. This is a normal part of the research process. When researching, you may not wish to change your topic, but you may decide that some other aspect of the topic is more interesting or manageable.

Keep in mind the assigned length of the research paper, project, bibliography or other research assignment. Be aware of the depth of coverage needed and the due date. These important factors may help you decide how much and when you will modify your topic. Your instructor will probably provide specific requirements, if not the table below may provide a rough guide:

Assigned Length of Research Paper or Project	Suggested guidelines for approximate number and types of sources needed
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1-2 page paper    2-3 magazine articles or Web sites

3-5 page paper    4-8 items, including book, articles (scholarly and/or popular) and Web sites

Annotated Bibliography 6-15 items including books, scholarly articles, Web sites and other items

10-15 page research paper    12-20 items, including books, scholarly articles, web sites and other items

### **Define Your Topic as a Focused Research Question**

You will often begin with a word, develop a more focused interest in an aspect of something relating to that word, then begin to have questions about the topic.

For example:



Ideas = Frank Lloyd Wright or modern architecture

Research Question = How has Frank Lloyd Wright influenced modern architecture?

Focused Research Question = What design principles used by Frank Lloyd Wright are common in contemporary homes?

### **Research and Read More about Your Topic**

Use the key words you have gathered to research in the catalog, article databases, and Internet search engines. Find more information to help you answer your research question.

You will need to do some research and reading before you select your final topic. Can you find enough information to answer your research question? Remember, selecting a topic is an important and complex part of the research process.

### **Formulate a Thesis Statement**

Write your topic as a thesis statement. This may be the answer to your research question and/or a way to clearly state the purpose of your research. Your thesis statement will usually be one or two sentences that states precisely what is to be answered, proven, or what you will inform your audience about your topic.

The development of a thesis assumes there is sufficient evidence to support the thesis statement.

For example, a thesis statement could be: Frank Lloyd Wright's design principles, including his use of ornamental detail and his sense of space and texture opened a new era of American architecture. His work has influenced contemporary residential design.

The title of your paper may not be exactly the same as your research question or your thesis statement, but the title should clearly convey the focus, purpose and meaning of your research.

### **Structure of Report**

The main features of a report are described below to provide a general guide. These should be used in conjunction with the instructions or guidelines provided by your department.

## **Title Page**

This should briefly but explicitly describe the purpose of the report (if this is not obvious from the title of the work). Other details you may include could be your name, the date and for whom the report is written.

Geology of the country around Beacon Hill, Leicestershire

Angus Taylor

2November 2004

(Example of a title page)

## **Terms of Reference**

Under this heading you could include a brief explanation of who will read the report (audience) why it was written (purpose) and how it was written (methods). It may be in the form of a subtitle or a single paragraph.

A report submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for Course GL456, Department of Geology, University of Leicester.

(Example of terms of referenc)

## **Summary (Abstract)**

The summary should briefly describe the content of the report. It should cover the aims of the report, what was found and what, if any, action is called for. Aim for about 1/2 a page in length and avoid detail or discussion; just outline the main points. Remember that the summary is the first thing that is read. It should provide the reader with a clear, helpful overview of the content of the report.

Give (Example of a summary (abstract))

Contents (Table of Contents)

The contents page should list the different chapters and/or headings together with the page numbers. Your contents page should be presented in such a way that the reader can quickly scan the list of headings and locate a particular part of the report. You may want to number chapter headings and subheadings in addition to providing page references. Whatever numbering system you use, be sure that it is clear and consistent throughout.

## **Introduction**

The introduction sets the scene for the main body of the report. The aims and objectives of the report should be explained in detail. Any problems or limitations in the scope of the report should be identified, and a description of research methods, the parameters of the research and any necessary background history should be included.

In some reports, particularly in science subjects, separate headings for Methods and Results are used prior to the main body (Discussion) of the report as described below.

## **Methods**

Information under this heading may include: a list of equipment used; explanations of procedures followed; relevant information on materials used, including sources of materials and details of any necessary preparation; reference to any problems encountered and subsequent changes in procedure.

## **Results**

This section should include a summary of the results of the investigation or experiment together with any necessary diagrams, graphs or tables of gathered data that support your results. Present your results in a logical order without comment. Discussion of your results should take place in the main body (Discussion) of the report.

## **Discussion**

The main body of the report is where you discuss your material. The facts and evidence you have gathered should be analysed and discussed with specific reference to the problem or issue. If your discussion section is lengthy you might divide it into section headings. Your points should be grouped and arranged in an order that is logical and easy to follow. Use headings and subheadings to create a clear structure for your material. Use bullet points to present a series of points in an easy-to-follow list. As with the whole report, all sources used should be acknowledged and correctly referenced. For further guidance check your departmental handbook and the Student Learning Centre guide: Referencing and Bibliographies.

## **Conclusion**

In the conclusion you should show the overall significance of what has been covered. You may want to remind the reader of the most important points that have been made in the report or highlight what you consider to be the most central issues or findings. However, no new material should be introduced in the conclusion.

## Appendices

Under this heading you should include all the supporting information you have used that is not published. This might include tables, graphs, questionnaires, surveys or transcripts. Refer to the appendices in the body of your report.

In order to assess the popularity of this change, a questionnaire (Appendix 2) was distributed to 60 employees. The results (Appendix 3) suggest the change is well received by the majority of employees.

Give an Example of use of appendices

### Bibliography

Your bibliography should list, in alphabetical order by author, all published sources referred to in your report. There are different styles of using references and bibliographies. Refer to the study guide Referencing and Bibliographies and check your departmental handbook for guidelines. Texts which you consulted but did not refer to directly could be grouped under a separate heading such as 'Background Reading' and listed in alphabetical order using the same format as in your bibliography.

### 1- Referencing & Citation - The Harvard System

To know more about Harvard system of documentation, please see these links and read the details carefully.

[https://education.exeter.ac.uk/dll/studyskills/harvard\\_referencing.htm](https://education.exeter.ac.uk/dll/studyskills/harvard_referencing.htm)

The University of Western Australia (2015) Harvard Citation Style, [Online], Available: <http://www.cqu.edu.au/edserv/undegrad/clc/content/resources.htm> [24 Sep 2015]

Site This for Me (Online Citation Generator): <https://www.citethisforme.com/harvard>

### 2- Avoid Plagiarism- Quotations, Paraphrasing and summarizing

**Plagiarism(<https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/owlprint/563/> )**

Plagiarism is presenting the words or ideas of someone else as your own without giving credit to the original author.

## How to avoid Plagiarism?

- Learn good note-taking techniques
- Paraphrase appropriately
- Summarize correctly and efficiently
- Use direct quotations appropriately
- Use 'common knowledge'
- Organize your sources
- Reference your sources correctly

## What are the differences among Paraphrasing, Summarizing and Quoting?

These three ways of incorporating other writers' work into your own writing differ according to the closeness of your writing to the source writing.

**Quotations** must be identical to the original, using a narrow segment of the source. They must match the source document word for word and must be attributed to the original author.

**Paraphrasing** involves putting a passage from source material into your own words. A paraphrase must also be attributed to the original source. Paraphrased material is usually shorter than the original passage, taking a somewhat broader segment of the source and condensing it slightly.

**Summarizing** involves putting the main idea(s) into your own words, including only the main point(s). Once again, it is necessary to attribute summarized ideas to the original source. Summaries are significantly shorter than the original and take a broad overview of the source material.

## Why use quotations, paraphrases, and summaries?

- Provide support for claims or add credibility to your writing
- Refer to work that leads up to the work you are now doing
- Give examples of several points of view on a subject
- Call attention to a position that you wish to agree or disagree with
- Highlight a particularly striking phrase, sentence, or passage by quoting the original
- Distance yourself from the original by quoting it in order to cue readers that the words are not your own
- Expand the breadth or depth of your writing

## Quotations

Quotations are a big part of writing. People use quotations when something is well-said. A quotation from someone famous or smart can help make your own point sound better. When you use a quotation, always remember to put it in "quotation marks" and give proper credit.

Also, don't change any of the words: a quotation should be exactly what the person said or wrote.

### **How do you quote from a source?**

- Quotation marks always come in pairs. Do not open a quotation and fail to close it at the end of the quoted material.
- Capitalize the first letter of a direct quote when the quoted material is a complete sentence.  
Mr. Johnson, who was working in his field that morning, said, "The alien spaceship appeared right before my own two eyes."
- Do not use a capital letter when the quoted material is a fragment or only a piece of the original material's complete sentence.  
Although Mr. Johnson has seen odd happenings on the farm, he stated that the spaceship "certainly takes the cake" when it comes to unexplainable activity.
- If a direct quotation is interrupted mid-sentence, do not capitalize the second part of the quotation.  
"I didn't see an actual alien being," Mr. Johnson said, "but I sure wish I had."
- In all the examples above, note how the period or comma punctuation always comes before the final quotation mark.
- Quotations are most effective if you use them sparingly and keep them relatively short. Too many quotations in a research paper will get you accused of not producing original thought or material (they may also bore a reader who wants to know primarily what YOU have to say on the subject).

### **Paraphrasing**

Paraphrasing is using your own words to express someone else's ideas whilst still preserving the main ideas of the original source. Even when you paraphrase you must still give credit to the original author. One way to avoid plagiarizing is to paraphrase an entire paragraph, rather than attempting sentence by sentence.

We have all watched television shows or heard news stories we wanted to tell others about. We may have told our friends, our family, or our coworkers about what happened, how it happened, and why it happened. We recounted the storyline, the main characters, the events, and important points using our own words. This is paraphrasing - using your own words to express someone else's message or ideas. In a paraphrase, the ideas and meaning of the original source must be maintained; the main ideas need to come through, but the wording has to be your own.

## How do you paraphrase a source?

- Read the original two or three times or until you are sure you understand it.
- Put the original aside and try to write the main ideas in your own words. Say what the source says, but no more, and try to reproduce the source's order of ideas and emphasis.
- Look closely at unfamiliar words, observing carefully the exact sense in which the writer uses the words.
- Check your paraphrase, as often as needed, against the original for accurate tone and meaning, changing any words or phrases that match the original too closely. If the wording of the paraphrase is too close to the wording of the original, then it is plagiarism.
- Include a citation for the source of the information (including the page numbers) so that you can cite the source accurately. Even when you paraphrase, you must still give credit to the original author.

## Examples

Paraphrasing can be done with individual sentences or entire paragraphs. Here are some examples.

### Original sentence:

Her life spanned years of incredible change for women.

### Paraphrased sentence:

Mary lived through an era of liberating reform for women.

### Original sentence:

Giraffes like Acacia leaves and hay, and they can consume 75 pounds of food a day.

### Paraphrased sentence:

A giraffe can eat up to 75 pounds of Acacia leaves and hay every day.

## Summarizing

Summarizing is using your own words to shorten a piece of text so that it includes only the essential information. Summaries have far fewer words than the original, but they still provide a clear indication of the main points made by the author.

## How do you summarize a source?

- Read the source until you have a full understanding of the writer's message
- Put the source aside and writing the message in your own words, being careful to:
  - ❖ Preserve the meaning of the original
  - ❖ Avoid using words and phrases that are similar to the original



## Some examples to compare

### The original passage:

Students frequently overuse direct quotation in taking notes, and as a result they overuse quotations in the final [research] paper. Probably only about 10% of your final manuscript should appear as directly quoted matter. Therefore, you should strive to limit the amount of exact transcribing of source materials while taking notes. Lester, James D. *Writing Research Papers*. 2nd ed. (1976): 46-47.

### A legitimate paraphrase:

In research papers students often quote excessively, failing to keep quoted material down to a desirable level. Since the problem usually originates during note taking, it is essential to minimize the material recorded verbatim (Lester 46-47).

### An acceptable summary:

Students should take just a few notes in direct quotation from sources to help minimize the amount of quoted material in a research paper (Lester 46-47).

### A plagiarized version:

Students often use too many direct quotations when they take notes, resulting in too many of them in the final research paper. In fact, probably only about 10% of the final copy should consist of directly quoted material. So it is important to limit the amount of source material copied while taking notes.

## When should you paraphrase and when should you summarize?

Use direct quotations when the author you are quoting has coined a term unique to her or his research and relevant within your own paper.

### Paraphrase when:

- You want to use another writer's words without plagiarizing
- You want to use another writer's words without the use of quotes
- The ideas of the other writer are more important than his/her style
- You think that the words of the other writer are too difficult for your readers

### Summarize when:

- You want to identify only the main ideas of the writer
- You want to give an overview of the topic (from several sources)
- You want to simplify a complex argument
- You want to condense the matter to suit your requirement

Whether paraphrasing or summarizing, it is very important to always cite the original work in order to give credit to the source.

### 3- Note Taking:

The information on **note taking** is cited from lectures of Hawraz Sami Khalid, a lecturer of academic debate in the College of Education based on the links below:

SLD, (2015) 'Note-making; a fundamental academic activity' [Online] Available at:

<http://www2.le.ac.uk/offices/ld/resources/study/notes>

SLCUO, (2008) 'Note taking & Note making' [Online] Available at: <http://slc.otago.ac.nz/find-online-resources/#study>

DS, (n.d.) 'Note taking and Note making; A Guide for Students' [Online] Available at:

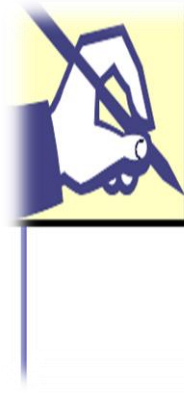
[https://www.southampton.ac.uk/assets/imported/transforms/content-block/UsefulDownloads\\_Download/21870759DB904943811008DAD6C91051/Notetaking%20and%20note%20making%202014%20%20.pdf](https://www.southampton.ac.uk/assets/imported/transforms/content-block/UsefulDownloads_Download/21870759DB904943811008DAD6C91051/Notetaking%20and%20note%20making%202014%20%20.pdf)

Eapfoundation.com, (2013) 'Using symbols & abbreviations'[Online] Available at:

<http://www.eapfoundation.com/listening/notetaking/symbols/>

**Note-taking** is the practice of recording information captured from another source.

It allows students to gather information from lectures, books, or any other situation that they will later have to memorize or use in order to successfully complete their academic program.



Note taking is an important part of academic life.

Why??

The average writing speed of a student is around 0.3 to 0.4 words/ second, whereas a lecturer speaks at a rate of around 2 to 3 words/second.

## Note Taking Benefits

- Stay awake;
- Concentrate & clarify learning material;
- Provides accurate record of information;
- Restructure & remember important information;
- Have material to discuss with other students;
- Prepare for reports, exams, quizzes, and other tests
- keep your brain active through multi-tasking (listening, watching, writing, paraphrasing)
- **To be successful at note taking, you need to**
  1. Improve your listening skills.
  2. Develop your note taking skills.
  3. Be able to use your notes to study



In 1970, Howe concluded that students were seven times more likely to recall information one week after it was presented if the information had been recorded in their notes.

**Note taking ≠ Dictation**

**Note taking is writing complete ideas;**

However,

**Dictation is writing complete sentences.**

**Now let's change sentences to ideas:**

**Dictation:**

Analytical chemistry meets 2 days a week,  
from 10:00 am to 10:50.

**Notes:****Analy. Chem.**

- 2 d/wk 10 – 10:50 am

**Dictation:**

The average writing speed of a student is around  
0.3 to 0.4 words/ second, whereas a lecturer  
speaks at a rate of around 2 to 3 words/second.

**Notes:****Word Speed/Second**

Teacher Speaks  
2-3 w/s

Student Writing  
0.3-0.4 w/s

**There are various methods that can be used for note taking and note making:**

- 1) Cornell Method
- 2) Split-Page Method
- 3) Discussion Columns Method
- 4) T-Method

**You MUST use**

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Complete ideas</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Headings</li> <li>▪ Abbreviations &amp; symbols</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Key words</li> <li>▪ Space</li> </ul>
--	---	--

**“Cornell” Method Steps**

### 1<sup>st</sup> Step

Format paper, write date & subject

**(Before lecture)**

Subject: ----	Date: -----

### 2<sup>nd</sup> Step

Record lecture & take notes here

**(During lecture)**

Subject: ----	Date: -----
Notes: -----	
1) -----	
2) -----	
3) -----	

### 3<sup>rd</sup> Step

Write in key points & create questions?

**(After lecture)**

Subject: ----	Date: -----
Notes: -----	
1) -----	
2) -----	
3) -----	
Summarize notes in a few paragraphs here	

In a report on their study which allowed students to review their notes immediately before a test, **Carter and Van Matre (1975)** argued that the benefit of note-taking appeared to be derived from the review rather than from the act of note-taking itself.



### Use symbols and abbreviations.

<u>Mr</u>	=	!		
<u>Mrs</u>	%			
w/	<		←	↓
pop	>		→	
&	#	≅	w/o	x

### Third: Time Management and Health and Safety

The information on **time management** is cited from lectures of Hawraz Sami Khalid, a lecturer of academic debate in the College of Education based on the links below:

-Anon (2013) Inspirational Video - "The Value of Time" [Online] Available at: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Ue8RSDMZVOQ>

-Angela Tank, Bridgette Lynch; and Brad Hokanson (2014) 'Time and project management series' [Online] Available at: <http://www.studygs.net/schedule/index.htm>

-RUP (2015) 'Time management skills', [Online] Available at: <http://www.roselandsd.org/RUP/3842-Time-Management-Skills.html>


#### 4-Time Management for Undergraduate Students



# Time Management




Prepared by: [Lec. Hawraz Sami](#)

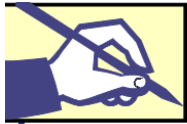


## Time Management

Time Management:  
Doing More with Less Effort

Maggie Boyle  
Skills Centre / Leeds University





## “ The Value of Time”

Imagine there is a bank that credits your account each morning with \$ 86,400.



It carries over no balance from day to day. Every evening deletes whatever part of the balance you failed to use during the day.



## “ The Value of Time”



To realize the value of one year, ask a student who has failed his final exam.



## “ The Value of Time”

To realize the value of one month,



ask the parent of a premature baby.



## “ The Value of Time”



To realize the value of one week, ask the editor of a weekly newspaper.



## “ The Value of Time”

To realize the value of one day,



ask a daily wage laborer who has a large family to feed



## “ The Value of Time”

To realize the value of one hour,



ask lovers who are waiting to meet.





## “The Value of Time”

To realize the value of one second,



ask a person who has survived an accident.



## “The Value of Time”

To realize the value of one minute,



ask a person who has missed the train, bus, or plane



## “The Value of Time”

To realize the value of one millisecond, **00:00:00**

ask the person who has won a silver medal at the Olympics.



## Successful Time Management

### Five Steps to Successful Time Management

- 1) Set specific academic and personal goals.
- 2) Create a term calendar, recording major events.
- 3) Create a weekly schedule of your classes, labs, meetings
- 4) Decide on specific times to work on each course.
- 5) Make a to-do list for each day the night before or during breakfast.





## Daily Schedule

### Developing a Schedule.

Determine how you spend a typical 24-hour day:

Enter the hours you spend on each activity.  
If the time entered is less than one hour, use "0.x"  
Watch as your time slips away. . .



- Classes
- Studying
- Sleeping
- Exercise/sports
- Work/internship
- Family commitments
- Personal care/grooming
- Meal preparation/eating/clean-up
- Transportation (school, work, etc.)
- Relaxing/TV/video games, etc. (alone)
- Socializing/entertainment (with friends)
- Other



## Time Management

### Daily Activities

1. Classes
2. Studying
3. Sleeping
4. Exercise/sports
5. Work/internship
6. Family commitments
7. Personal care/grooming
8. Meal preparation/eating/clean-up
9. Transportation (school, work, etc.)
10. Relaxing: TV/gaming, etc.
11. Relaxing: TV/gaming, etc.
12. Socializing & friends
13. Other



### (Weekly Planner)

Day	Sunday	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesda	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
7-8 AM							
8-9							
9-10							
10-11							
11-12							
12-1 PM							
1-2							
2-3							
3-4							
4-5							
5-6							
6-7							
7-8							
8-9							
9-10							
10-11							
11-12Am							

## Health and Safety

You can get benefit from the following link. It is a presentation of Health and Safety Department of Salahaddin University, or you can contact them for practical reasons.

[https://drive.google.com/open?id=0B001vh2ql\\_8QWTZoRXprcmVMLVk](https://drive.google.com/open?id=0B001vh2ql_8QWTZoRXprcmVMLVk)

## Fourth: Seminar/ Public Speaking:

For preparing seminar and public speaking make use of the following link:

<https://www.princeton.edu/~archss/webpdfs08/BaharMartonosi.pdf>

### How to give a good presentation?

Why bother giving a good talk?

- First impressions matter!
- There's no point doing good work if others don't know about it or can't understand what you did.
- Good practice for a teaching career! Good practice for any career!
- Helps you sort out what you've done, and understand it better yourself.

### Types of presentations:

- Quick 1-minute "what I do" talk
- 25 minute conference paper presentation
- Project presentation
- Thesis defense
- Job talk

### What they have in common:

- Never enough time to talk about everything
- All of them reflect on you & need practice/polish
- Focus on a clear goal and message.

## Top ten pointers for a good talk:

1. Be neat
2. Avoid trying to cram too much into one slide: Don't be a slave to your slides.
3. Be brief: use keywords rather than long sentences
4. Avoid covering up slides
5. Use a large font
6. Use color to emphasize
7. Use illustrations to get across key concepts. May include *limited* animation
8. Make eye contact
9. Be ready to skip slides if time is short
10. Practice!!

## A typical project talk outline:

- **Title/author/affiliation** (1 slide) (**Who am I?**)
- **Forecast** (1 slide) Give gist of problem attacked and insight found (**What's the problem?**)
- **Outline** (1 slide)
  - **Background Motivation and Problem Statement** (1-2 slides) (**Why is it important?**)
  - **Related Work** (0-1 slides) (**What have others done?**)
  - **Methods** (1-3 slides) explain your approach; illustrate algorithm (**What's my approach?**)
  - **Results** (2-6 slides) Present key results and key insights. This is main body of the talk, but don't try to show ALL results.
  - **Summary**(1 slide)
  - **Future Work** (0-1 slides)
  - **Backup Slides** (0-3 slides) Optionally have a few slides ready to answer expected questions.

## Other things to consider:

- Oral communication is different from written communication.
  - Keep it simple and focus on a few key points
  - Repeat key insights
- Be sensitive to your audience
  - The same talk may need to be adjusted for a different audience
- Make the audience want to learn more
- Handling Q&A is as important as the formal talk itself

## How to improve?

- Practice by yourself
- Practice in front of friends

- Practice in front of a webcam Watch footage later... alone... as painful as that may be!
- Take note of effective speakers and adopt their successful habits

Public speaking and body language videos available at:

- A- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5U-ecOk0gWA>
- B- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=f9xwP6V-0vQ&NR=1>
- C- [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KVfd6wz\\_IVA](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KVfd6wz_IVA)
- D- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=w82a1FT5o88>
- E- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=elho2S0Zahl>
- F- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Ks-Mh1QhMc>

### **Presentation skills**

A- Speaking with confidence

<http://www.publicspeakingproject.org/PDF%20Files/confidence%20web%201%20gs.pdf>

B- Quick and Fun – Like an action story

<https://sites.google.com/a/appstate.edu/publicspeaking/handouts>

C- Visual aids – types of visual aids:

Posters, audio & video, handouts

Design principles:

Slide layout, colors, fonts, text, images, graphs & charts.

<http://www.publicspeakingproject.org/PDF%20Files/visual%20aids%20web%201%20gs.pdf>

D- Structure, Practice, Body language

Some other sources on Academic Debate and related skills:

<http://debate.uvm.edu/critadv.html>

- Rules of Debate: Theory and Experiment. Eric S. Dickson\_ Catherine Hafery Dimitri Landaz September 22, 2008.

Thomas A. Hollihan and Kevin T. Baaske, The Products and Process of Human Decision Making, Theory and Practice in Academic Debate, A reference guide, David Snoball, et.al., 1994. Second Edition, ISBN: 1-57766-362-4, Waveland Press 2006 .

## **Negotiation & persuasion skills:**

- Persuasive speaking
- A- Explain what a persuasive speech is.
- B- Describe the functions of persuasive speeches.
- C- List the different types of persuasive speeches.
- D- Identify persuasive strategies that make a speech more effective.
- E- Apply the appropriate organizational pattern based on your persuasive goals.
- F- Distinguish between ethical and unethical forms of persuasion.
- G- Apply module concepts in final questions and activities

<http://www.publicspeakingproject.org/PDF%20Files/persuasion%20web%201%20gs.pdf>

- Supporting your ideas
- A- Combine multiple forms of evidence to support your ideas.
- B- Differentiate between the three types of testimony, and know when to use each one.
- C- Navigate the library holdings and distinguish between the types of information found in each section.
- D- Evaluate source credibility and appropriateness for your speech.
- E- Explain plagiarism and implement strategies to avoid it.
- F- Apply chapter concepts in review questions and activities.

<http://www.publicspeakingproject.org/PDF%20Files/supporting%20web1%20gs.pdf>

## **Five: Event and Academic Poster**

**(<https://www.stir.ac.uk/media/schools/is/documents/CreatingAcademicPostersUsingPowerPoint.pdf> )**

### **Poster Design**

A poster is any piece of printed paper designed to be attached to a wall or vertical surface. Typically posters include both textual and graphic elements, although a poster may be either wholly graphical or wholly text. Posters are designed to be both eye-catching and informative. Posters may be used for many purposes. They are a frequent tool of advertisers (particularly of events, musicians and films), propagandists, protestors and other groups trying to communicate a message. There are many types of posters however we only study Event and Academic Posters.

### **Pick a software program**

-PowerPoint

-Adobe Illustrator or InDesign

### **Event Poster (Flyer)**

Posters advertising events have become common. Any sort of public event, from a competition to a play, may be advertised with posters; a few types of events have become notable for their poster advertisements.

### **Typical requirements of an Event Poster are:**

- Logo (Organizer and/or Sponsors)
- Title
- Photo(s)
- Motto
- Venue, Date and Time

### **When design an Event Poster consider:**

- Paper size, A3 (29.7 X 42cm)
- Font type and size (experiment with typography)
- Effective use of colors (create energy, elicit a mood and attract the eye)
- Visual hierarchy
- Remove unnecessary elements (say more with less)
- Visual interest and attraction (use shapes, fonts, colors, etc.)
- Design composition (how graphics interact with words)
- The audience (design for your audience)

## **Academic Poster**

Posters are widely used in the academic community, and most conferences include poster presentations in their program. Research posters summarize information or research concisely and attractively to help publicize it and generate discussion.

The poster is usually a mixture of a brief text mixed with tables, graphs, pictures, and other presentation formats. At a conference, the researcher stands by the poster display while other participants can come and view the presentation and interact with the author.

### **Advantages of the poster presentation**

#### Meeting organization

- Many more posters than oral presentations can be presented in the same amount of time, allowing more research to be shared at meetings.
- In some convention centers it is easier to arrange one large room for a poster session than several smaller rooms with audiovisual equipment.

#### Two-way dialogue

- Compared to the oral presentation, where attendees are limited to a short Q&A session after the talk, posters allow viewers to ask questions organically as they arise, with relaxed time restraints.
- Posters allow plenty of time for intensive discussion of the research, tailored to the interests of the audience.
- The two-way conversation associated with poster sessions affords opportunities for mutually beneficial conversation between presenter and audience.

#### Networking for young scientists

- Posters, which are generally presented to small groups at a time, can be a relatively low-pressure alternative to intimidating oral presentations.
- Poster sessions provide an environment for young scientists to speak one-on-one with professionals about their research.
- Poster sessions can be convenient places to exchange business cards and other contact information with potential advisors and employers.

#### Visual communication

- Some research lends itself to graphical communication, making the visual-based poster format highly advantageous.

#### Other advantages for the poster session audience

- Each audience member can control how much time they want to spend at the poster.
- Audience members can ask as many questions as they want.
- Figures are available to view for as long as the audience requires to absorb the information.

#### Other advantages for the presenter

- The people who stop to view posters are often genuinely interested in the research. The presenter need not worry that attendees are simply sitting through their presentation while they wait for the next talk to start.
- Posters can be hung at home institutions after the meeting to continue communicating research to students, colleagues, and visiting researchers.

#### **Typical requirements of an Academic Poster are:**

- Get the academic content right
- Cut the text down to 300-400 words
- Format the type
- Prepare your images
- Design the layout
- Choose a colour scheme
- Check it (very carefully)

#### **When design an Academic Poster consider:**

- Poster size, A1 (59.4 X 84.1cm)
- Font type and size (experiment with typography)
- Use colour to attract attention, organize, and emphasize (but don't overdo it)
- Keeps the sequence well-ordered and obvious (coherent flow of information)
- Use of bullets, numbering, and headlines make it easy to read
- Organize your poster in columns (easy to follow)
- Remove unnecessary images and texts (say more with less)
- Keep posters visual (images and graphics say much more than words)
- Design composition (how graphics interact with words)
- Keep balance and white spaces (keep the background simple)
- The audience (design for your audience)
- Prepare a 3-5 minute verbal explanation
- Prepare mini size poster handouts

#### **Structure of academic poster**

Like other types of academic writing, an academic poster should be well organized, with clear headings and subheadings. The structure you choose depends on the task you have been given. Here are two examples:



## 1. Reporting on research

If you are reporting on a piece of research, your structure will be similar to a research report:

- Title
- Introduction
- Methods
- Results
- Discussion
- Conclusion
- References

## 2. Reporting on a solution to a problem

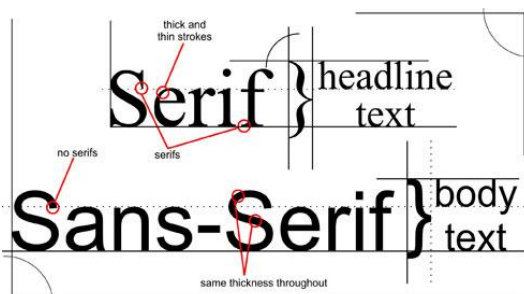
If you are illustrating how a particular problem was solved, or how a challenge was addressed, the structure might be:

- Title
- Background
- Definition of problem
- Possible solutions
- Rationale for choice of one solution
- Implementation
- Evaluation

**Remember:** The structure depends on your content, and what you need to communicate.

## **Poster fonts**

When it comes to fonts and font styles, the possible combinations are endless. The key is not to go overboard and be sure to follow some basic font guidelines. Generally, putting information in "bullet" form is better than using sentences.



- Use sans serif fonts: these fonts are more legible than serif fonts from a distance.
- Headings and other text having the same level of importance should be the same font size.
- Avoid excessive text. (Poster should have roughly 20% text, 40% figures, 40% space)

- Text and figures should be legible from around roughly 1.5m to 2m
- Leave breathing space around your text.
- Do not use a different font type to highlight important points - otherwise the fluency and flow of your sentence can appear disrupted.
- Do not use all UPPER CASE type in your posters. It can make the material difficult to read.
- Use the **bold face** or italics or combinations to emphasize words and phrases.
- Left-align text. Using fully justified text will create large gaps between some words and make it difficult to read.

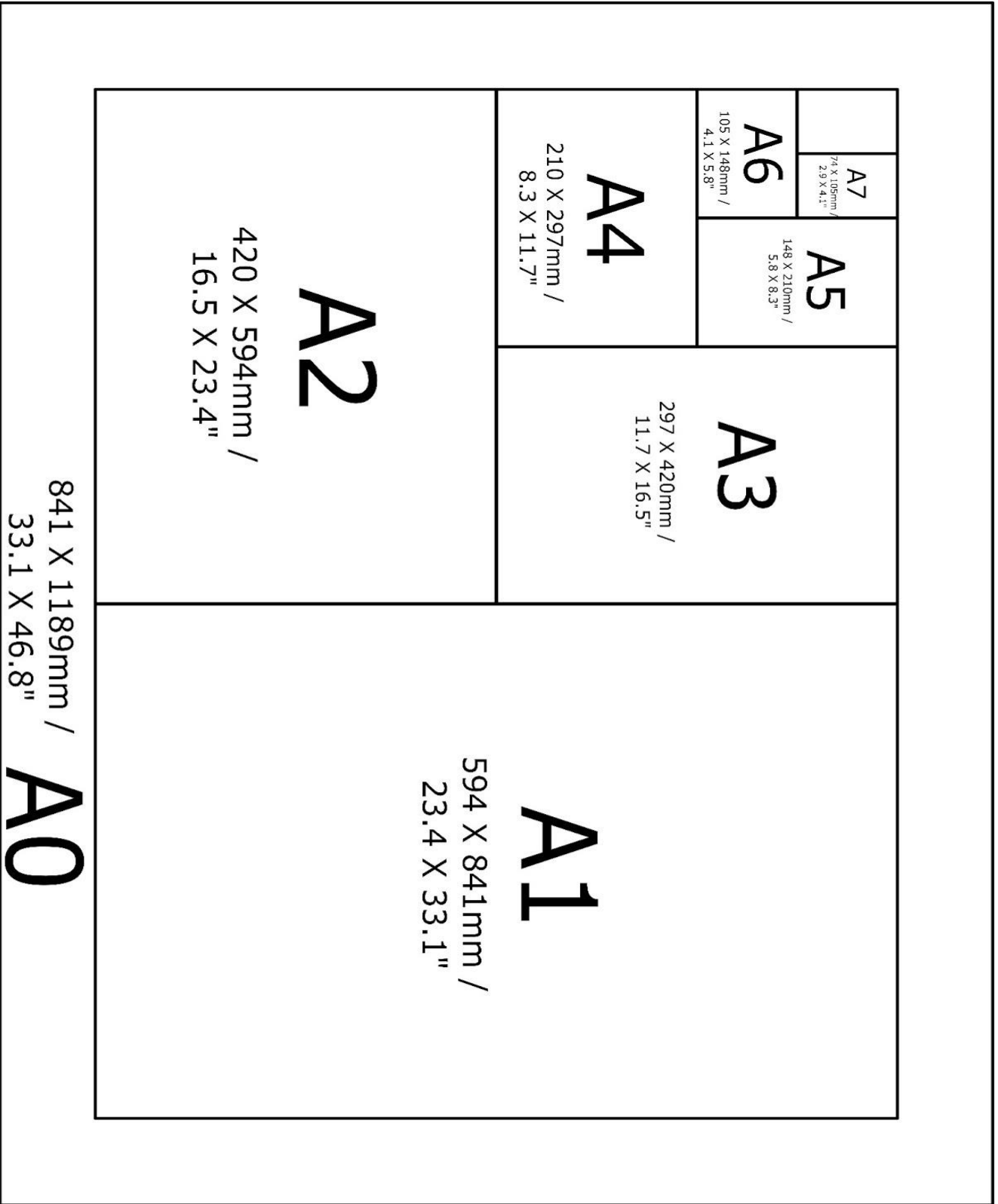
### **Posters font size**

In the competitions of Salahaddin University-Erbil, it is preferred to use poster size A1 (59.4 X 84.1cm).

- Main title (70-90)
- Subtitle headings (48-54)
- Authors and supervisors name (40-44)
- Department, College and University names (36-40)
- Text body (32-36)
- Captions (20-24)

### **A poster can be better than giving a talk and more efficient because:**

- you totally bomb at giving talks
- can be viewed while you nap
- can hang in the department for years
- can reach folks not in your field of research
- posters serve as an advertisement of your hard work



## **Six: Introduction to Academic Debate:**

AD is conducted under the direction of an educational institution to provide educational opportunities for students. Many schools and colleges conduct programs of academic debate. The issue here is not whether we will participate in debate—our participation is inevitable, because, sooner or later, most educated people will take part in some form of debate. The issue is whether our participation will be effective. Academic debate can teach us to become effective in the essential art. [Argumentation and DEBATE Critical Thinking for Reasoned Decision Making by Austin J. Freeley & David L. Steinberg]

A history of academic debate would fill many volumes, but a few salient facts should be mentioned here. The origins of debate are lost in the remote reaches of history, but we know that people were debating at least 4,000 years ago. For example, Egyptian princes debated agricultural policy at the pharaoh's court (2080 B.C.). Chinese scholars conducted important philosophical debates during the Chou Dynasty (1122–255 B.C.). Homer's epic poems the Iliad and the Odyssey (900 B.C.) contain speeches—which the Roman rhetorician Quintilian cited as examples of the arts of legal pleading and deliberation—that may be regarded as embryonic debates. Aristotle's Rhetoric (384–322 B.C.) laid the foundation of argumentation and debate and is influential even today. [Argumentation and DEBATE Critical Thinking for Reasoned Decision Making by Austin J. Freeley & David L. Steinberg]

### **Academic Debate Formats**

In general, there are many different formats of debate followed by different levels of educational settings all over the world. In this guide, three suitable debate formats are discussed. They are Lincoln-Douglas Debate, Policy Debate, and Karl Popper Debate. This is due to their indication by many authors in their works such as Snider and Schnurer, 2002; Rybold, 2006; and Freeley and Steinberg, 2009. Furthermore, Snider (2011) has provided a guide for both university and high school level competitions entitled "A Short Guide to Competitive Debate Formats". In his guide, the majority of the above mentioned formats are recurrent in the list of both university and high school levels.

#### **A. Lincoln-Douglas Debate Format**

In the Lincoln-Douglas Debate format, two individuals debate each other. One person is the affirmative and the other is the negative. This format may use the same topic throughout the entire year. It is suitable to debate both the policy and the value topics; therefore, it might be beneficial for colleges and high schools as well. The main difference between Lincoln-

Douglas and team debate is that there are fewer speeches and the debaters have no partner to depend on for help (Rybold, 2006, p. 45).

Lincoln-Douglas format uses a time format of eight-minute opening affirmative constructive speech, three minute cross-examination, twelve-minute negative constructive speech, three-minute cross-examination, six-minute affirmative rebuttal, six-minute negative rebuttal, four-minute closing affirmative rebuttal. Each debater is permitted six minutes preparation time per debate. The order of speeches and time limits of this format are illustrated in table 1. Although the same types of speech are not the same length for each debater, both debaters have equal time for speaking (Rybold, 2006, p. 46).

Table (1)  
Lincoln-Douglas Debate format

Speech order	Time limitations
First affirmative speech	8 minutes
Cross-examination	3 minutes
First negative speech	12 minutes
Cross-examination	3 minutes
Second affirmative speech	6 minutes
Second negative speech	6 minutes
Third affirmative speech	4 minutes

### **B. Policy Debate (Cross- Examination) Format**

According to Rybold (2006), policy Debate has got several other names such as Team Research Debate, Cross-Examination Debate Association (CEDA), National Debate Tournament (NDT), and Oregonian. For him, this format has existed in the US for over a century (p. 43).

During the constructive speeches, both the affirmative and the negative teams can present new arguments, but during rebuttals they cannot. Typically, policy debate format focuses on the same topic to be debated for the entire academic year and allows the debaters to read evidence verbatim during the debate to support their arguments. Because of the complexity of debates, each team is provided with a total of ten minutes preparation time throughout a debate to prepare for its speeches (Rybold, 2006, pp. 43-45).

In this format, two two-person teams are called for to debate. The teams are the affirmative and the negative. The format orders eight speeches: four constructive and four rebuttals. The constructive speeches must be given first and each should take no more than nine minutes. Each constructive speech will be followed by a three-minute cross-examination period. Then, the four rebuttal speeches will be presented, each in six minutes. Cross-examination period is not permitted between rebuttal speeches. For more illustration see table 2.

The speaking order and time limits are as follows:

1. The first affirmative speaker gives the first constructive speech in 9 minutes. He/she will be cross-examined in three minutes by the second speaker from the negative team.
2. The first negative speaker gives the second constructive speech in 9 minutes. The first affirmative speaker cross-examines him/her in 3 minutes.
3. The second affirmative speaker gives the third constructive speech in 9 minutes and he/she will be cross-examined by the first negative speaker in 3 minutes.
4. The second negative speaker gives the fourth and final constructive speech in 9 minutes, after which the second affirmative speaker cross-examines him/her in 3 minutes.
5. The first negative speaker gives the first rebuttal speech in six minutes.
6. The first affirmative speaker gives the second rebuttal speech in six minutes.
7. The second negative speaker gives the third rebuttal speech in six minutes.
8. The second affirmative speaker gives the fourth and final rebuttal speech in six minutes (*Snider & Schnurer, 2002, pp.66-67*).

Table (2)  
Policy Debate Format

<b>Speeches</b>	<b>Time limits</b>
First affirmative constructive	9 minutes
Cross-examination by second negative	3 minutes
First negative constructive	9 minutes
Cross-examination by first affirmative	3 minutes
Second affirmative constructive	9 minutes
Cross-examination by first negative	3 minutes
Second negative constructive	9 minutes
Cross-examination by second affirmative	3 minutes
First negative rebuttal	6 minutes
First affirmative rebuttal	6 minutes
Second negative rebuttal	6 minutes
Second affirmative rebuttal	6 minutes
Preparation time	10 minutes per team

*Freeley and Steinberg (2009, p. 333)*

### **C. Karl Popper Debate Format**

*Rybold (2006, p. 52)* reported that the Karl Popper debate format demands two teams: the affirmative and the negative. Each team consists of three debaters. The same topic might be debated for the entire academic year or a new topic can be assigned for each tournament. In this format, each debater is required to speak once in the debate. So, it makes the beginners find Karl Popper debate an easier way to start their debating career. The permitted time for preparation between speeches is a total of eight minutes. He outlined the speaking order and time limits in Karl Popper debate format as in table 3

Table (3)  
Karl Popper debate format

<b>Speeches</b>	<b>time limits</b>
Affirmative Constructive	6 minutes
First Negative Cross-Examination	3 minutes
Negative Constructive	6 minutes
First Affirmative Cross-Examination	3 minutes
First Affirmative Rebuttal	5 minutes
Second Negative Cross-Examination	3 minutes
First Negative Rebuttal	5 minutes
Second Affirmative Cross-Examination	3 minutes
Second Affirmative Rebuttal	5 minutes
Second Negative Rebuttal	5 minutes

Information on academic debate is cited from Othman Qader MA thesis, College of Basic Education, SU.

### **Topic Selection (Organizing and outlining)**

- A- Select a topic appropriate to the audience and occasion.
  - B- Formulate a specific purpose statement that identifies precisely what you will do in your speech.
  - C- Draft a thesis statement that clearly summarizes the argument you will make in your speech.
  - D- Identify and arrange the main points of your speech according to one of many organizational styles.
  - E- Connect the points of your speech to one another.
  - F- Create a preparation and speaking outline for your speech.
- Students select topics of interest on contemporary issues in Kurdistan and issues in their discipline.

<http://www.publicspeakingproject.org/PDF%20Files/Organizing%20Web%201%20gs.pdf>



## **Debate Skills:**

- A- Coordination skills
- B- Investigating and analyzing
- C- Critical thinking skills
- D- Open-mindedness
- E- Speaking skills
- F- Organization
- G- Listening skills
- H- Self-confidence
- I- Team work and cooperation

[http://www.powershow.com/view/11cc2e-NTImY/What\\_is\\_Academic\\_Debate\\_powerpoint\\_ppt\\_presentation](http://www.powershow.com/view/11cc2e-NTImY/What_is_Academic_Debate_powerpoint_ppt_presentation)

## **Seven: Group Work:**

**The following information about Group Work available at:**

[www.iupui.edu/~cyber231/.../MAKING%20GROUP%20PROJECTS%20WORK.ppt](http://www.iupui.edu/~cyber231/.../MAKING%20GROUP%20PROJECTS%20WORK.ppt)

## **Why group projects?**

- Students learn best when they are actively involved
- Students working in small groups learn more and retain it longer
- Students who work in collaborative groups are often more satisfied with their classes

## **Definition of Team Projects**

The focus of this talk is on facilitating team projects, where *team* = a formal learning group established to complete a specific task over several weeks, such as preparing a report or carrying out a research project. The completion of the group task is integral to the course objectives, and ideally involves solving problems and other learning outcomes.

## **Brainstorming Session**

Brainstorm with those at your table:

What are the common student concerns about group work?

What are the common faculty concerns about group work?

## **Incorporating Teams**

- Announce the team project on your syllabus so students are aware they will be expected to collaborate on a major assignment
- Plan ahead to decide
  - How you will organize students into teams.
  - How you the groups will operate.
  - How you evaluate the products of their work.

### **Design well-structured Assignments**

- Create team projects that require interdependence: each member is responsible to and dependent on the others
- Set up the work so that students must divide the labor fairly and equally
- Formulate meaningful assignments that require students to reach consensus
- Make sure team members know their responsibilities

### **Making Groups Work on a Commuter Campus**

- Devote a portion of class time to teamwork. Suggest to students that if they work together productively between classes and during class, they will not have to meet face-to-face outside of class.
- Make sure students have a plan for communicating between classes; Oncourse works great for this: Mail, Group Space, and Discussion Forum facilitate team projects.
- Ask each group to devise an action plan and a schedule.
- Require groups to send you progress reports at regular intervals
- Check in with teams in between progress reports
- Roam the room during in-class work sessions to troubleshoot problems and offer advice

### **Ensuring that Individual Students Meet Course Objectives**

- Require teams to divide up each task as equally as possible: avoid allowing one student to do one major task, another to do something else.
- Require students to submit their portion of each assignment along with the final team product. Each student must demonstrate they have developed the ability to meet the course goals.

### **Assigning Grades**

Have students complete an interim team assessment and a final team assessment in which they rank their own contributions and each team member's contributions. Assign all team members the same grade on the project, but consider lowering the grade if team

assessments provide substantial evidence of non-compliance with team policies and procedures or failure to contribute the expected work.

### **Explain How Team Projects will be Evaluated**

- Explain the objectives of the project, paper, or lab, defining relevant concepts
- Explain grading criteria
- Discuss responsibilities of individual team members
- Overview grade penalties for “shirkers”

### **Team policies and procedures**

- How will the team manage conflict and disagreements? (Is conflict a bad thing?)
- How will members notify the team of an absence?
- Where and when will teams post drafts so others can access them?
- How will teams deal with tardiness?

### **Eight: Peer Review <http://www.rin.ac.uk/system/files/attachments/Peer-review-guide-screen.pdf> )**

#### **Using Peer Review to Help Students Improve Their Writing**

Instructors teaching a writing-intensive course, or any course that requires students to produce a substantial amount of writing, should consider creating opportunities for students to read and respond to one another’s writing. Such opportunities to engage in “peer review,” when well planned, can help students improve their reading and writing skills and learn how to collaborate effectively.

More specifically, participating in peer review can help students:

- Learn how to read carefully, with attention to the details of a piece of writing (whether their own or another writer’s);
- Learn how to strengthen their writing by taking into account the responses of actual and anticipated readers;
- Make the transition from writing primarily for themselves or for an instructor to writing for a broader audience—a key transition for students as they learn to write university-level papers and as they prepare for post-graduate work;
- Learn how to formulate and communicate constructive feedback on a peer’s work;
- Learn how to gather and respond to feedback on their own work.

A common misstep that many instructors make in approaching peer review is to assume that students already have the skills described above and that incorporating peer review simply

amounts to asking students to apply these skills to the tasks of reading and responding to one another's writing. Instead, instructors should approach peer review as an opportunity to teach these skills and for students to practice them.

(This handout presents a specific mode of approaching peer review. For tips on how to organize and run peer review in your course, see "Planning and Guiding In-Class Peer Review.")

## How Do Students Respond?

Many instructors who have incorporated peer review into their courses report less than satisfying results. In fact, it is quite common to find that, when asked to participate in peer review, students rush through the peer-review process and offer their peers only vaguely positive comments, such as "I liked your paper," or "Good job," or "Good paper, but a few parts need more work." Furthermore, many students seem to ignore peer-reviewers' comments on their writing.

There are several possible reasons behind such responses:

- 1. Many students feel uncomfortable with the task of having to pronounce a judgment on their peers' writing.** This discomfort may be the result of their maturity level, their desire not to hurt a peer's feelings (perhaps made more acute by the fact that they are anxious about having their peers read and judge their own writing), or simply their inexperience with providing constructive criticism on a peer's work. A vaguely positive response allows them to avoid a socially uncomfortable situation and to create an environment of mutual support (Nilson 2003).
- 2. If students are not given clear guidance from their instructors, they may not know how to comment on one another's writing in a specific and constructive way.** In addition, it should be noted that students may not understand how to comment on their peers' writing because over the years they have not received helpful feedback from instructors who have graded their papers. (For suggestions on how to write specific comments that can help students improve their writing, see the handout, "Commenting on Student Writing").
- 3. Some instructors ask their students to evaluate their peers' writing using the same criteria the instructor uses when grading papers (e.g., quality of thesis, adequacy of support, coherence, etc.).** Undergraduate students often have an inadequate understanding of these criteria, and as a result, they either ignore or inappropriately apply such criteria during peer-review sessions (Nilson 2003).

**4. Many students do not perceive feedback from peers as relevant to the process of writing a paper for a course.** Especially at the beginning of their undergraduate work, students are likely to assume that it is only the instructor's feedback that "counts."

**5. Even when they take seriously feedback provided by their peers, students often do not know how to incorporate that feedback when they revise their papers.**

The approach to peer review discussed in this handout has been developed to help instructors respond to the challenges described above. For more detailed suggestions based on this approach, see the handout, "Planning and Guiding In-Class Peer-Review."

## **Key Strategies**

**1. Identify and teach the skills required for peer review.** As you are planning your course, make a list of the skills that students should be learning and putting into practice when participating in peer review. These might include reading skills (discerning a writer's main point, locating key points of support or relevant data, etc.), writing skills (writing clear, specific comments and questions), and collaboration skills (phrasing critiques in a descriptive, constructive way). Articulating what you see as the core skills involved in peer review will help you develop a coherent plan for integrating peer review into your course and will make more clear the specific instructions your students will need as they learn how to review a peer's paper and how to use the comments they receive during peer review.

**2. Teach peer review as an essential part of the writing process.** Emphasize to students that peer review is not just a course requirement: it is an essential part of the writing process that all successful writers engage in at some point. Your students may not realize the extent to which scholars and other professionals practice peer review as an integral part of producing effective writing in their fields. Consider explaining why, as a scholar, you find peer review helpful—even when you do not agree with or appreciate every comment made by a peer-reviewer. For example, you might tell them about a specific instance when a reader's comments helped you to clarify and strengthen your writing.

Remind students that the process of producing academic and professional writing generally involves three steps: drafting, revising, and editing. Peer review is often most helpful to student writers when it is utilized between the drafting and revision stages, or after each student has produced a complete draft, but while there is still time to make substantial changes. A writer might learn from peer-reviewers, for example, that a paper's introduction is its strongest point, or that the paper's main point or thesis is not yet clear, or that there are "gaps" in the logic or the support that detract from the paper's effectiveness, or that a paper's conclusion presents an interesting idea that leaves the reader with unanswered questions. The purpose of peer review as a prelude to revision is to help the writer determine which parts of the paper are effective as is, and which are unclear, incomplete, or unconvincing.

**3. Describe peer review as an opportunity for students to learn how to write for an audience.** Undergraduate students often do not perceive how completing academic writing assignments will prepare them for work in the professional world. One way to help them make this connection is to point out a fact that many instructors take for granted but that undergraduates need to be reminded of: no matter what university students end up doing after graduation, the quality of their ideas and their work will be judged, in a large measure, by how well they can communicate in writing to diverse audiences. Participating in peer review can help them learn to shape their written language as a medium of communication with readers. For example, seeking out peer feedback can help one student construct a convincing argument by anticipating and answering counter-arguments that his readers might pose, while peer review can help another student determine how to explain the significance of her research to readers who are not experts in her field.

**4. Define the role of the peer-reviewer as that of a reader, not an evaluator.** Develop guidelines for peer-reviewers that ask them to complete specific tasks: examples include indicating the strongest part of a paper; identifying or rephrasing the thesis; listing the major points of support or evidence; and indicating sentences or paragraphs that seem out of order, incompletely explained, or otherwise in need of revision. Some of these tasks are descriptive and others are evaluative. However, those that are evaluative should put the emphasis on the reader's impressions and responses and should not require the peer-reviewer to pronounce a judgment on the paper as a whole (Nilson 2003). This approach should help you develop specific instructions to students that will clarify how they should respond to one another's writing and should also help you pare down your expectations of what students can realistically accomplish during in-class peer-review sessions. Defining the role of the peer-reviewer as a reader will also help you underscore the fact that it is up to the writer to decide whether and how to make changes to the paper through revision. In other words, the writer should think about all of the reviewers' comments, but may decide to ignore some of the comments and to make changes in response to others.

### **Increasing Students' Sense of Investment in Communicating and Collaborating Effectively**

Even though students as peer-reviewers should not be asked to use the same criteria the instructor uses when grading papers, by participating in peer review they should gain a better understanding of those criteria. After all, some of the most common criteria for determining the effectiveness of writing refer to the effects of a piece of writing on readers: for example, a sentence can be called "clear" when readers can discern its meaning; a description of research methods can be called "coherent" and "complete" when readers understand the process well enough to replicate it themselves; an argumentative essay can be called "convincing" when it conveys a position that readers find reasonable and compelling.

When students engage fully in the peer-review process, they should not only better comprehend the criteria used to determine whether a paper is well written. They should also start to see themselves as writers and readers who have a stake in learning to recognize and to produce effective writing—as academic peers who learn more when they learn to communicate more effectively with one another.

### **Sources and Recommended Reading**

Bean, John C. (2001). *Engaging Ideas: The Professor's Guide to Integrating Writing, Critical Thinking, and Active Learning in the Classroom*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Gottschalk, Katherine and Keith Hjortshoj (2004). "What Can You Do with Student Writing?" In *The Elements of Teaching Writing: A Resource for Instructors in All Disciplines*. Boston: Bedford/St. Martin's.

Millis, Barbara J. (2002). "Enhancing Learning-and More! Through Collaborative Learning. IDEA Paper 38. The IDEA Center. [http://www.theideacenter.org/sites/default/files/Idea\\_Paper\\_38.pdf](http://www.theideacenter.org/sites/default/files/Idea_Paper_38.pdf)

Nilson, Linda. (2003). "Improving Student Peer Feedback." *College Teaching*, 51 (1), p. 34-38.

**NOTE: Teachers are free to choose other sources, but the information should match with the items of the rubrics.**