

新编研究生 英语综合教程

Advanced English for Graduate Students: General Skills & Academic Literacy

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新编研究生英语综合教程

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前言

《新编研究生英语综合教程》(以下简称《教程》)课题在广泛调研的基础上,充分考虑到目前社会对于各专业研究生英语能力的需要和研究生对于英语课程的实际需求,编写了本套教程,旨在通过英语教学实践,进一步提高研究生的基本语言技能和思辨能力,拓展研究生的学术视野,提高其人文素养和学术研究能力。本教程已被列入吉林大学优秀研究生教材出版资助计划。

《教程》秉承外语教学要与外语生活相融合的理念,在材料的选取上做到题材和体裁多样化,为学生提供丰富多彩的英语学习内容和实践体验。课文素材由编者从英语期刊和英语原版书籍中精心筛选而来,原汁原味,八个单元涵盖了管理、经济、文化、语言、文学、教育、学术研究和医学伦理等方面。经典文章与富有时代气息的时文相结合,突显通识教育和批判性思维的特点,以满足研究生多样化、个性化的学习需求。

《教程》遵循分类指导和因材施教的原则,既注重基本语言技能的培养,同时根据研究生专业学习和研究的需要,对内容难易程度和体裁特点进行了区分。每个单元包括两篇选文,A篇为基础英语(General English),B篇为学术英语(EAP,English for Academic Purpose),两篇选文主题一致。由于学生自身英语水平和实际需求存在差异,在必修课阶段可以进行分级授课。A篇面向基本语言技能尚待提高的学生,课文语言生动、内容可读性强,旨在帮助学生夯实语言基础。B篇面向已有较好英语语言基础、希望开始学术研究的学生,旨在为学生提供阅读和学习写作学术英语文章的机会,熟悉学术英语的特点。这种以学术内容为主体的学习,贴近研究生的实际学习和科研工作,有助于培养他们的思辨能力和学术素养,为他们以后在工作中使用英语打下基础。

在练习设计上,《教程》以主观性的开放问题为主,强调以教师为主导、学生为主体的教学活动,发挥学生的主观能动性,突出参与、合作的学习方式,实现从应试教育向素质教育的转变,以达到培养研究生的英语语言实际运用能力和创新思维能力的目标要求。本部分还包含中国文化内容的汉译英练习:在英语教学中引入中国文化的内容,培养和提高学生用英语描述和推介中国文化的能力,既是跨文化交流的需要,也是全球化背景下文化互补与融合的时代需求,又弥补了英语学习中中国文化元素的缺失。写作部分包括基本写作技能和学术英语写作知识两方面内容,学生可以循序渐进地提高英语写作水平,培养

学术写作能力。

强调以学习者为主体、英语语言基础能力的提高和学术能力的培养并重,是研究生英语课程改革过程中的一个尝试。希望本教程能够帮助学习者提高语言能力和文化素质,提升跨文化交际能力和学术素养,为他们衔接世界、走向国际做好准备。

《教程》由吉林大学研究生英语教研室编写,编者均为在英语教学及教材编写方面有多年丰富经验的教师。潘海英、马毅负责全书统筹,并同陈秀娟、孙学棋和刘晓波共同负责审核各个单元的选材和编写,具体分工为:第一单元申云化;第二单元孙学棋、刘晓波;第三单元杜桂敏;第四单元王金霞;第五单元梁晓君;第六单元崔婷婷;第七单元王晓平;第八单元吕娜,写作部分由陈秀娟负责。另外解修振、潘君默老师编写了备用章节。本书经在我校任教的外籍教师 Kristalyn Omland、Matt Dean、John Cowley、Craig Judge 审稿,教科研办的王婉红女士为本书的编写做了大量辅助工作,在此一并致谢。

《新编研究生英语综合教程》课题组 2014年6月

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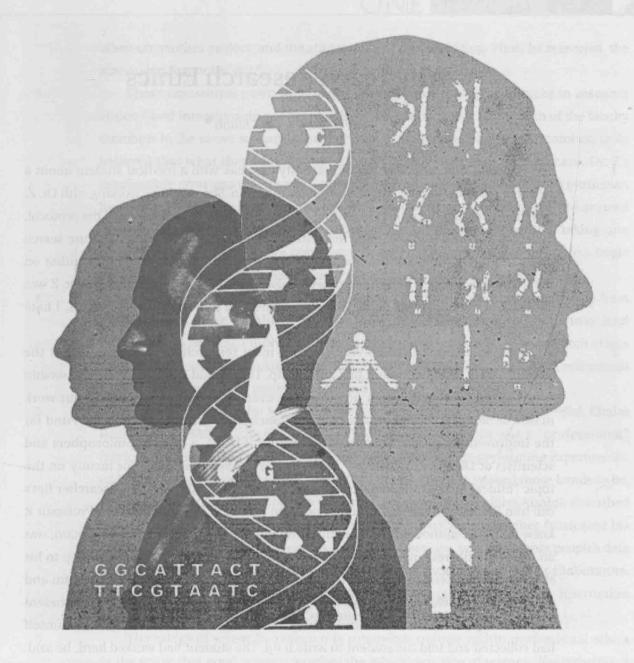
ONE

Research and Methodology

Overview

In addition to a body of knowledge that Lincludes formulas and facts, science is the practice by which we pursue answers to the questions that can be approached scientifically. This practice is referred to collectively as scientific research, and while the techniques that scientists use to conduct research may differ between disciplines, like biology, chemistry, geology, physics, or any other scientific field, the underlying principles and objectives are similar. Now we are at a time in which the need to build trust between science and society is becoming ever more important. It is vital that the conduct of science itself is based on the highest ethical considerations and that misconduct within science itself can be identified and dealt with in an open and transparent manner.

ext A, Why Teach Research Ethics, examines L the role and importance of ethical education on the part of students and faculty. Beginning with two stories about unconscious misconduct, Judy E. Stern and Deni Elliott bring up the urgent need to teach ethics in order to ensure a good practice of science. Such necessity arises from the inadequacy of traditional individual mentoring in helping learn conventionts of science. One aspect of research ethics concerns researchers' professional spirit in the pursuit of ultimate truth, that is to say, good science must be conducted through rigorous, systematic and replicable procedure. In Text B, The Nature of Inquiry, the authors will elaborate on how scientific research distinguishes itself from common-sense knowing, how researchers approach reality differently, and what philosophical assumptions underpin each approach.



TEXT



Pre-reading Questions

- 1 Do you think ethics are the same as morals? Why do you think that?
- 2 Has your supervisor introduced you to the research ethics in your field? If yes, how did he or she do so?
- **3** What do you think is an effective way of preventing unethical behaviors in scientific study?
- What is your personal stance on academic dishonesty like faking data, stealing ideas, or plagiarism?
- In your mind, what are the criteria for good scientific practice?





Why Teach Research Ethics

Judy E. Stern & Deni Elliott

Recently, one of us had the opportunity to speak with a medical student about a research rotation that the student was planning to do. She would be working with Dr. Z, who had given her the project of writing a paper for which he had designed the protocol, collected the data, and compiled the results. The student was to do a literature search and write the first draft of the manuscript. For this she would become first author on the final publication. When concerns were raised about the proposed project, Dr. Z was shocked. "I thought I was doing her a favor," he said innocently, "and besides, I hate writing!"

2

Dr. Z is perhaps a bit naive. Certainly, most researchers would know that the student's work would not merit first authorship. They would know that "gift" authorship is not an acceptable research practice. However, an earlier experience in our work makes us wonder. Several years ago, in conjunction with the grant from the Fund for the Improvement of Post Secondary Education (FIPSE), a team of philosophers and scientists at Dartmouth College aran a University Seminar series for faculty on the topic "Ethical Issues in Scientific Research." At one seminar, a senior researcher (let's call him Professor R) argued a similar position to that of Dr. Z. In this case Professor R knew that "gift" authorship, authorship without a significant research contribution, was an unacceptable research practice. However, he had a reason to give authorship to his student. The student had worked for several years on a project suggested by him and the project had yielded no publishable data. Believing that he had a duty to the student to ensure a publication, Professor R had given the student some data that he himself had collected and told the student to write it up. The student had worked hard, he said,

¹ Judy E. Stern is a professor from Giesel School of Medicine at Dartmouth College. Her professional interests include outcomes of assisted reproductive technology, ethical issues in assisted reproduction, ethical issues in scientific research and reproductive immunology. Deni. Elliott is an ethicist and ethics scholar, and has been active in practical ethics since the 1980s.

Dartmouth College, commonly referred to as Dartmouth, is a private Ivy League research university located in Hanover, New Hampshire. Incorporated as the "Trustees of Dartmouth College," it is one of the nine Colonial Colleges founded before the American Revolution. With an undergraduate enrollment of 4,194 and a total student enrollment of 6,144, Dartmouth is the smallest university in the Ivy League.

albeit on another project, and the student would do the writing. Thus, he reasoned, the authorship was not a "gift."

These two stories point up a major reason for encouraging courses in research ethics: Good intentions do not necessarily result in ethical decisions. Both of the faculty members in the above scenarios "meant well." In both cases, the faculty members truly believed that what they were doing was morally acceptable. In the first case, Dr. Z's indefensible error was that he was unaware of the conventions of the field. In particular, he seemed blissfully oblivious to the meaning of first authorship. In the second case, Professor R was doing what he thought best for the student without taking into consideration that morality is a public system and that his actions with regard to a single student have public consequences for the practice of science as a profession.

Well-meaning scientists, such as those just mentioned, can, with the best of intentions, make unethical decisions. In some cases, such decisions may lead individuals to become embroiled in cases of misconduct. A course in research ethics can help such scientists to appreciate that it is their responsibility to know professional conventions as well as to understand the public nature of morality.

There are scientists for whom a course in research ethics will be less useful. Efraim Racker, in a 1989 article, described a student in his lab who was a "professional" fabricator of data. This student composed lab books without performing experiments, added radioactive material to gels to produce bands where he wished those bands to be, and lied to his colleagues about his actions. Another researcher, Elias Alsabti, described by D. J. Miller, was a meticulous plagiarizer. This physician-researcher fabricated his curriculum vitae [®], copied a colleague's grant for his own use, published other people's data under his own name, and co-authored his pilfered data with fictitious collaborators. Individuals such as these are unlikely to learn research ethics through instruction because they are not interested in becoming ethical practitioners.

The ethics of scientific research is somewhat unique within professional ethics in the sense that good science requires the ethical practice of science. Nevertheless, a course in research ethics cannot and should not have as its central focus the question, "Why should I be moral?" This question, while important, is not specific to the field of

Ourriculum vitae (CV) is an equivalent of resumé, which provides an overview of a person's experience and other qualifications. In some countries, a CV is typically the first item that a potential employer encounters regarding the job seeker and is typically used to screen applicants, often followed by an interview.





scientific research. A course in research ethics, as envisioned by the Dartmouth team, must be a course that teaches the tools for making ethical decisions relative to matters of research. It will be designed for those scientists who are already committed to being ethical researchers. Such a course should provide students the answers to the question, "How can I make moral decisions?"

Although it is the fabricators and the plagiarizers whom we most often think of when we think of research misconduct, these are not the only people accused of misconduct. They are also not the only people who are guilty of misconduct. Many other scientists have had lives and careers affected by misconduct cases.

It is undoubtedly unfair to generalize from a few cases of misconduct to an entire profession. Nevertheless, reported cases of misconduct are not uncommon, and this could reflect a failure to train students to the highest ethical standards. The 1993 Office of Research Integrity (ORI) publication reported the 1991–1992 caseload to include 29 institutional inquiries, 21 institutional investigations, and ORI inquiries or investigations. The 1995 ORI publication reported the 1994 caseload as 13 institutional inquiries, 17 institutional investigations, and 8 ORI inquiries or investigations. Of actions closed in these years (55 in 1991-1992; 44 in 1994), some involved fabrication, some falsification, some plagiarism, and others some combination of fabrication, falsification, plagiarism, and "other misconduct." Slightly fewer than half of the investigated cases closed as of these reports were found to involve misconduct and resulted in sanction against the accused party. The academic rank of the accused ranged from technician to full professor. Cases were reported from a number of institutions, and the accused parties were funded by a variety of funding sources.

9 Cases of misconduct are not simple matters to evaluate. One source of concern is confusion within the field of science about just what constitutes a punishable infringement of ethical standards. In the fields of engineering, law, and medicine, clear written guidelines exist for defining ethical conduct. Although some particularly difficult cases may test the limits of these guidelines, most do not. In scientific research, a written code of conduct is not available. The federal government and individual institutions have been struggling to clarify the standards under which misconduct can be adjudicated. The central definitions that delineate misconduct in science include

⁴ Office of Research Integrity (ORI) is one of the bodies concerned with research integrity in the United States. The Office of Research Integrity oversees and directs the Public Health Service (PHS) research integrity activities on behalf of the Secretary of Health and Human Services with the exception of the regulatory research integrity activities of the Food and Drug Administration.

UNIT

fabrication, falsification, and plagiarism. However, these are confused by other less clear categories of misconduct, which include "other questionable behavior" or "other misconduct," Within this confusion of definitions it is not always obvious to students or faculty where and toward whom their obligations lie.

Complicating the confusion generated by the way in which we define research misconduct is the teaching process by which students routinely learn about the ethical obligations of their profession. Traditionally a scientist trains with a single mentor. From this mentoring relationship the graduate student is expected to learn about scientific method, the body of knowledge that constitutes the specific field of science she is studying, and the "institution" of science. What is learned about the institution of science includes knowledge of the mechanics of obtaining funding, information on the writing of grants and papers, and an understanding of the roles and responsibilities for maintaining and sharing research data. As part of her instruction in all of these areas, it is assumed that she will also learn the ethics of scientific research.

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In the case of the story of Dr. Z above, it is clear that Dr. Z's relationship with his mentor did not result in his having learned a basic convention of the field. So, it is not surprising that Dr. Z was prepared to pass his unrecognized confusion to a student who was working with him. Mentoring relationships within science education do not necessarily result in adequate familiarity with the ethics of research.

Judith Swazey of the Acadia Institute has studied this issue and presents some very distressing data on the efficacy of mentoring relationships in graduate education. Although 89% of 2,000 graduate student respondents from 98 departments of major research institutions said that they related to a single faculty member who was particularly supportive of their work, less than 45% of students felt that this faculty member gave them "a lot" of help toward teaching them the details of good research practice, and 15 to 20% of the students felt that the help they got in this area was "none." Fewer than 45% of students believed that they got "a lot" of helpful criticism on a regular basis. In the majority of cases, students felt that their faculty support person did not provide the type of mentoring relationship that one would hope for in the ethics training of a research scientist.

⁶ Judith P. Swazey is president of The Acadia Institute. She received a bachelor's degree from Wellesley College and a Ph.D. in the history of science from Harvard University.



When Swazey asked students to compare the role that a department should take in preparing students to recognize and deal with ethical issues in their field to the role actually taken by the department, her results were equally disturbing. Eighty-two percent of students felt the department should take an "active" or "very active" role in this process, while only 22% felt that an active or very active role was actually taken.

The perceptions of faculty were not much different from those of the students. Ninety-nine percent of 2,000 faculty members surveyed felt that "academics should exercise collective responsibility for the professional conduct of their graduate students;" only 27% of these faculty felt that they followed through with this responsibility.

15 These data provide evidence to indicate that individual mentoring is a less than adequate teaching method for ethics. If the majority of students do not receive mentoring that leaves them with a clear understanding of their responsibilities as scientists, then cases of unintentional misconduct and questionable practice are inevitable.

The role and importance of ethics education have begun to be recognized by the NIH. Guidelines for NIH research training grants now require a minimal number of hours of ethics education. Ethics need not be taught within a single graduate course, but it is beginning to be recognized that education in the basic conventions of the field and in the basic approaches to ethical decision making can no longer be left to one-onone mentoring alone. As the ever-dwindling availability of research funds fuels the fire of competition, there will be increased pressure on scientists to bend or break rules. Research laboratories, particularly large groups where some students rarely see their faculty advisers, cannot be assumed to teach research ethics, or even to train students in all research conventions.

Whether scientific ethics is approached through a single course or a series of courses or seminars throughout the graduate curriculum, it has become obvious that long bills absorbed exposure to ethics in a number of contexts. Research ethics can and must be taught in a formalized manner. It is our belief that courses in research ethics that incorporate a solid philosophical framework have the greatest potential for long-term usefulness to students

(1902 words)

CULTURAL BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Research ethics involves the application of fundamental ethical principles to a variety of topics on scientific research. These topics include the design and implementation of research involving human experimentation, animal experimentation, various aspects of academic scandal, including scientific misconduct (such as fraud, fabrication of data and plagiarism), whistleblowing, regulation of research, etc. Research ethics is most developed as a concept in medical research. The key agreement here is the 1974 Declaration of Helsinki. The Nuremberg Code is a former agreement, but with many still important notes. Research in social sciences presents a different set of issues than those in medical research.

The academic research enterprise is built on a foundation of trust. Researchers trust that the results reported by others are sound. Society trusts that the results of research reflect an honest attempt by scientists and other researchers to describe the world accurately and without bias. But this trust will endure only if the scientific community devotes itself to exemplifying and transmitting the values associated with ethical research conduct.

There are many ethical issues to be taken into serious consideration for research. Sociologists need to be aware of having the responsibility to secure the actual permission and interests of all those involved in the study. They should not misuse any of the information discovered, and there should be a certain moral responsibility maintained towards the participants. There is a duty to protect the rights of people in the study as well as their privacy and sensitivity. The confidentiality of those involved in the observation must be carried out, keeping their anonymity and privacy secure. As pointed out in the BSA for Sociology, all of these ethics must be honored unless there are other overriding reasons not to do so — for example, any illegal or terrorist activity.







EXERCISES

I. Comprehension

1. Answer the following questions, using your own words as much as possible.

- 1) What is the reason for Professor R to argue that the "gift" authorship is actually not a "gift?"
- 2) In the authors' opinion, did Professor Z and Professor R conform to the morality system? Why or why not?
- 3) What role can a course in research ethics play in helping scientists?
- 4) What is the author's purpose to cite the examples from Efraim Racker and D. J. Miller's descriptions?
- 5) Who are target participants of the course in research ethics designed by a Dartmouth team?
 - 6) What do the statistics published by the Office of Research Integrity (ORI) in 1993 indicate?
- 7) Are students and faculty clear about what they ought to do in compliance with ethical standards? Why or why not?
- 8) What is the author's attitude towards traditional individual mentoring in dealing with academic misconduct?
- 9) What is suggested by the authors for dealing with the current ethical dilemma that a majority of students and faculty are facing now?
- 10) What lessons can you synthesize out of this passage as a university student and a potential researcher as well?

2. Paraphrase the following sentences.

- 1) In this case Professor R knew that "gift" authorship, authorship without a significant research contribution, was an unacceptable research practice.
- 2) Professor R was doing what he thought best for the student without taking into consideration that morality is a public system and that his actions with regard to a single student have public consequences for the practice of science as a profession.
 - A course in research ethics can help such scientists to appreciate that it is their responsibility to know professional conventions as well as to understand the public nature of morality.
 - 4) The ethics of scientific research is somewhat unique within professional ethics in the sense that good science requires the ethical practice of science.



- 5) Slightly fewer than half of the investigated cases closed as of these reports were found to involve misconduct and resulted in sanction against the accused party.
 - 6) One source of concern is confusion within the field of science about just what constitutes a punishable infringement of ethical standards.
 - 7) Complicating the confusion generated by the way in which we define research misconduct is the teaching process by which students routinely learn about the ethical obligations of their profession.
 - 8) Mentoring relationships within science education do not necessarily result in adequate familiarity with the ethics of research.
- 9) In the majority of cases, students felt that their faculty support person did not provide the type of mentoring relationship that one would hope for in the ethics training of a research scientist.
- 10) Whether scientific ethics is approached through a single course or a series of courses or seminars throughout the graduate curriculum, it has become obvious that students need exposure to ethics in a number of contexts.

II. Word Study

Choose an appropriate word from the list below for each blank. Make changes where necessary.

	protocol albeit plagiarism embroil meticulous		
	incorporate sanction infringement adjudicate efficacy		
1)	You are minutely analytical and can fulfill any task that requires attention to detail.		
2)	As part of the Kyoto, many developed countries have agreed to legally		
	binding reductions in their emissions of greenhouse gases in two commitment periods.		
3)	Charles' letter was indeed published, in a somewhat abbreviated form.		
4)	We will just throw them into the air and no one will ask again until people are		
	in litigation.		
5)	The American Association of University Professors defines as "taking over		
	the ideas, methods, or written words of another, without acknowledgment and with the		
	intention that they be taken as the work of the deceiver."		
6)	Blood tests may be needed periodically to monitor the treatment and its		
7)	A case tribunal which on any matter must decide whether or not any person		

has failed to comply with the code of conduct of the relevant authority concerned.