

英语



学术论文阅读与写作

Reading and Writing Academically in English

何中清◆编著

英语学术论文阅读与写作

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前 言

学术英语（EAP）在大学英语课程设置有重要地位，越来越多的学者认为，未来大学英语改革的主要方向是学术英语。学术英语的教学目的是为大学生用英语从事自己的专业学习和学术活动提供语言和能力支撑。该门课程对学生在经济全球化和高等教育国际化背景下提高英语能力具有重要意义，不仅能够帮助学生用英语学习专业课程，而且能培养学生在某一学术领域内的学术交流能力。

《英语学术论文阅读与写作》在编写过程中突出了三个特点。第一，融合性。该教材突出英语学术论文阅读和写作融合训练的特色，与通用学术英语相关教材形成很好互补。该书服务于学生学术英语读写能力的提升，尤其是英语学术论文阅读和写作能力的提升。当前，市场上大多数学术英语教材以通用学术英语词汇和篇章知识为主，但是融合英语学术论文阅读和写作专项训练的教材并不多见，而学术论文的读写能力在所有学术英语听、说、读、写、译能力中是重中之重。第二，互动性。《英语学术论文阅读与写作》在编写中突出教材使用者与教师之间的互动，每个单元的开始都设立“目标”（Aims）和“小测”（Quiz）环节，用于检测学生对各单元知识要点的掌握程度，使学生在单元开始之前对相关知识和概念有初步了解，并根据自己的小测结果设立学习目标，从而进行更有效的学习。另外，在单元结束处设立“小结”（Remember）环节，用于帮助学生回顾单元要点，掌握核心内容。第三，任务性。与传统教材将所有练习放在单元后面的做法不同，《英语学术论文阅读与写作》突出任务型教学，各单元内容由很多“任务”（Task）串联而成。每一项重点内容后面都会出现一个对应的任务，使学生在完成任务过程中更快更好地掌握相关内容。

本教材的编写和出版得到了北京科技大学“十三五”规划教材项目的资助，特此致谢。同时，该教材也得到国家留学基金资助。在编写教材过程中，参考了一些国内外的相关教材和专著，所选取的论文语料来自近期发表的高水平英文国际期刊和学生论文，在此一并感谢。本书的编写如存在疏漏和不足之处，欢迎同行和广大读者批评指正。

何中清

2018年9月

CONTENTS

Chapter 1	Introduction of Academic Writing	1
Chapter 2	Reading Academic Articles	10
Chapter 3	Designing Titles and Research Questions	21
Chapter 4	Reviewing the Literature and Taking Notes	30
Chapter 5	Writing the Introduction	43
Chapter 6	Writing the Literature Review	55
Chapter 7	Stating Methodology and Conducting Analyses	65
Chapter 8	Writing the Results, Discussion and Conclusion	75
Chapter 9	Writing the Abstract	87
Chapter 10	Composing Appendix and Acknowledgements	99
Chapter 11	Documentation and Referencing	108
Chapter 12	Styles in Academic Writing	121
参考文献	135

Chapter 1

Introduction of Academic Writing

Aims

- Understand the general functions of the introduction part;
- Learn how to write the induction part;
- Understand the strategies involved in writing an effective introduction.



Quiz

Self-evaluation

For each statement below, circle the word which is true for you.

1. I understand what academic writing is.	agree disagree not sure
2. I understand the distinction between academic writing and non-academic writing.	agree disagree not sure
3. I know the academic meaning of instruction words in academic writing.	agree disagree not sure
4. I know the purpose of academic articles.	agree disagree not sure
5. I know the features of academic writing.	agree disagree not sure
6. I know how to write academically in English.	agree disagree not sure

What is academic writing?

Academic writing is a writing which is done by scholars or students for others to read. It can take many forms: journal articles, textbooks, dissertations, group project reports and so on. Academic writing has different features compared with non-academic writing. Typically, academic writing has an objective tone, clearly stating the significance of the topic, and is organized with adequate detail so that other scholars may try to replicate the results.

One of the most typical type of academic writing is academic articles. Academic articles are generally written to be published in different journals. They are meant to share the writer's particular findings with other scholars or students in their research field.

Academic writing vs. Non-academic writing

Task 1: Discussion in groups

What are the differences between academic writing and non-academic writing in terms of structure, content and language.

	Academic writing	Non-academic writing
Structure		
Content		
Language		

Academic writing differs from non-academic writing in many aspects. In terms of structure, academic writing is often characterized by long paragraphs in the main body. In academic writing, we can usually find a formal, structured introduction with a thesis statement. And in connection to this, academic writing has a clear conclusion. In contrast, non-academic writing is often featured by short paragraphs in the main body and a shorter contextualized introductory paragraph.

In the content, academic writing is characterized by full expansion of ideas and presentation of an argument with support from expert sources. That is why we can find referencing for all sources used in academic writing. On the one hand, academic writing can find combination of ideas taken from sources and authors may use direct quotation or indirect quotation. On the other hand, non-academic writing is full of sweeping statements with little support from expert sources, which often reduce it to personal stories. In non-academic writing, the author's personal opinion is often expressed directly with *I*, the first personal single pronoun. Furthermore, in non-academic writing we can find many instances of direct quotation.

In terms of language, academic writing is characteristic of low-frequency vocabulary, formal language and complex grammatical structures. Besides, academic writing also depends on passive voice and nominalization to make it more impersonal and academic. On the contrary, non-academic writing is typical of high-frequency vocabulary and informal and colorful language. We can also find many instances of contraction, informal verbs and phrases in non-academic writing.

Task 2:

Compare the following two texts and choose which is more academic.

Text 1:

① Throughout the world, cell phones have become omnipresent in classrooms, cafeterias and hallways, and research indicates that cell phones are used more frequently to send text messages than to make phone calls (Mindlin, 2008).

② Indeed, forty-three percent of teenage respondents in a 2010 report by the Nielsen Company claimed that they got a cellular phone primarily for text messaging (The Nielsen Company, 2010).

③ The same report found that American adolescents aged 13-17 send more text messages than any other age group, averaging 3339 a month.

④ However, this dramatic rise in popularity has led parents and teachers to question the effect of using this technology on adolescents' understanding of English grammar during a developmentally critical period of language-skills acquisition.

⑤ Similar to synchronous online communications such as instant messaging, the speed, ease, and brevity of text messaging have created a perfect platform for adapting the English language to suit attributes of the technology better.

⑥ This has led to an evolution in grammar, the basis of which we shall call "techspeak."

⑦ As Jones and Schieffelin (2009) explain this language differs from English in that it takes normal English words and modifies them (called "word adaptation"), using conventions of abbreviation, such as initialisms (lol for laughing out loud), omission of non-essential letters (wud for would), and the substitution of homophones (gr8 for great).

⑧ In addition, techspeak adapts standard conventions of structure by de-emphasizing proper punctuation and capitalization (what we call "structural adaptation"), all in the interest of speed.

⑨ Understandably, with this evolution of the English language there is much debate among leaders in education, teachers, and parents as to the effects of techspeak on students' grammar and writing skills.

⑩ Of particular concern, as mentioned above, is the effect on adolescents during their formative learning years in the classroom setting (Eger, 2007; Sidener, 2003).

⑪ Indeed, routine use of textual adaptations by current and future generations of

13-17 yearsold may serve to create the impression that this is normal and accepted use of the language and could rob this age group of a fundamental understanding of standard English grammar.

⑫ As Edmonds (2007) stresses “there is a need for teenagers to learn to exist in a world outside of their social networks, which requires them to use proper grammar and spelling when they speak and write”.

Text 2:

① Although the U. S. Department of Education reports that the Averaged Freshman Graduation Rate (AFGR) is 78 percent, the highest it's been in nearly 40 years, it should not obscure the fact that many students are graduating without learning how to spell even the simplest words.

② The consequence is starting to show up on resumés and job applications according to some recruiters.

③ Thanks to the “art” of texting and anonymous blogging, proper spelling and syntax are falling by the wayside.

④ Abbreviations that were usually reserved for personalized license plates like “C U L&R” (see you later), have become standards in text lingo.

⑤ Improper word construction like “where you at” has found its way into the mainstream, and too many children are not being corrected when they repeat what they hear, likely because their parents and a new breed of teachers don't know any better either.

⑥ There is a debate as to whether traditional grammar is even necessary anymore.

⑦ Since the new generation grew up texting and on Facebook, some say content matters over structure—that is, what is being said trumps how it is being said.

⑧ Content does matter, but a well-intended thought not properly written will most certainly turn readers off.

⑨ Some may argue that even at its best, professionals and expert grammarians alike tend to disagree on proper grammar usage (e. g. beginning a sentence with the conjunction “And” is widely found in newspapers), holding that it comes down to a matter of style.

⑩ Every writer has his or her own style or voice, but a writer who wants to be taken seriously, and be read on a wide scale owes it to him/herself to use universally recognized standards.

⑪ Texting is alright in its place, but can you imagine receiving a company manager's e-mail response that reads “F U on this”? I was shocked when I got it until I

realized it meant “Follow up on this.”

Features of academic writing

Academic writing is generally characteristic of eight features: complexity, formality, precision, objectivity, explicitness, accuracy, hedging, and responsibility.

Complexity

Academic written writing is relatively more complex than non-academic spoken writing. Academic written writing has longer words; it is lexically denser and it has a more varied vocabulary. It uses more noun-based phrases than verb-based phrases. Texts of academic writing are longer and the language has more grammatical complexity, including more subordinate clauses and more passives. Let’s look at Table 1-1 for more examples:

Table 1-1 Examples of academic and non-academic writing

Non-academic language	Academic language
Whenever I’d visited there before, I’d ended up feeling that it would be futile if I tried to do anything more.	Every previous visit had left me with a sense of the futility of further action on my part.
The cities in Switzerland had once been peaceful, but they changed when people became violent.	Violence changed the face of once peaceful Swiss cities.
Because the technology has improved, it’s less risky than it used to be when you install them at the same time, and it doesn’t cost so much either.	Improvements in technology have reduced the risks and high costs associated with simultaneous installation.

Task 3:

Read the following instances of non-academic language and write the corresponding sentences of academic language.

1. Because the jobs are even more complex, programs to train people will take longer.
2. I handed my essay in late because my kids got sick.

Formality

In academic writing, authors are supposed to avoid:

- colloquial words and expressions: *stuff*, *a lot of*, *thing*, *sort of* ;

- abbreviated forms: *can't*, *doesn't*, *won't*;
- Two-word verbs: *put off*, *bring up*;
- Asking questions.

Task 4:

Rewrite the following sentences, replacing the informal expressions with more formal equivalents.

1. With women especially, there is a lot of social pressure to conform to a certain physical shape.
2. Significantly, even at this late date, Lautrec was considered a bit conservative by his peers.
3. It focused on a subject that a lot of bourgeois and upper-class exhibition-going public was regarded as anti-social and anti-establishment.

Precision

In academic writing we need to be precise when we use information, dates or figures. Do not use “a lot of people”, when you can say “50 million people”. For example:

The volatile oily liquid beta-chloro-beta-ethyl sulphide was first synthesized in 1854, and in 1887 it was reported to produce blisters if it touched the skin. It was called mustard gas and was used at Ypres in 1917, when it caused many thousands of casualties.

Objectivity

The emphasis should be on the information that you want to give and the arguments you want to make, rather than yourself. Nobody really wants to know what you “think” or “believe”. They want to know what you have studied and learned and how this has led you to your various conclusions.

In general, avoid words like *I*, *me*, *myself*, and avoid *you* to refer to the reader or people in general.

Task 5:

Study the following instances of non-academic writing and then write the corresponding sentences of academic writing.

1. In my opinion, this is a very interesting study.
2. You can easily forget how different life was 50 years ago.

Explicitness

Academic writing is explicit in two ways. Firstly, it is explicit in its signposting of the organization of the ideas in the text. As a writer of academic English, it is your responsibility to make it clear to your readers how various parts of the text are related. These connections can be made explicit by the use of different signaling words, such as *however*, *because*, *similarly*, *in addition*, *for example*, etc.

Secondly, it is explicit in its acknowledgment of the sources of the ideas in the text, use citation. For example:

1. The Bristol 167 was to be Britain's great new advance on American types such as the Lockheed Constellation and Douglas DC-6, which did not have the range to fly the Atlantic non-stop. It was also to be the largest aircraft ever built in Britain. *However*, the design had run into serious difficulties by the end of the war.

2. He was born in a family, he married a family, and he has become the husband and father of his own family. *In addition*, he has a definite place of origin and more relatives than he knows what to do with, and he receives a rudimentary education at the Canadian Mission School.

3. *McGreil* (1977: 363-408) has shown that though Dubliners find the English more acceptable than the Northern Irish, Dubliners still seek a solution to the Northern problem within an all-Ireland state.

Accuracy

In academic writing you need to be accurate in your use of vocabulary. Do not confuse, for example, *phonetics* and *phonology* or *grammar* with *syntax*. Choose the correct word, such as one from *meeting*, *assembly*, *gathering* or *conference*, or from *money*, *cash*, *currency*, *capital* or *funds*.

You also need to be accurate in your use of grammar. Be very careful in the use of passives, subject-predicate correspondence in number and subordinate clauses.

Hedging

An important feature of academic writing is the concept of cautious language, often called *hedging* or *vague language*. In other words, it is necessary to make decisions about your stance on a particular subject, or the strength of the claims you are making. Different subjects prefer

to do this in different ways.

Language used in hedging can be found in Table 1-2 :

Table 1-2	Types of hedging language
1. introductory verbs	e. g. , <i>seem, tend, look like, appear to be, think, believe, doubt, be sure, indicate, suggest</i>
2. certain lexical verbs	e. g. , <i>believe, assume, suggest</i>
3. certain modal verbs	e. g. , <i>will, must, would, may, might, could</i>
4. adverbs of frequency	e. g. , <i>often, sometimes, usually</i>
5. modal adverbs	e. g. , <i>certainly, definitely, clearly, probably, possibly, perhaps, conceivably</i>
6. modal adjectives	e. g. , <i>certain, definite, clear, probable, possible</i>
7. modal nouns	e. g. , <i>assumption, possibility, probability</i>
8. that clauses	e. g. , <i>It could be the case that ...</i>
	e. g. , <i>It might be suggested that ...</i>
	e. g. , <i>There is every hope that ...</i>
9. It is + adjective + to do	e. g. , <i>It may be possible to obtain ...</i>
	e. g. , <i>It is important to develop ...</i>
	e. g. , <i>It is useful to study ...</i>

Task 6:

Study the following instances of non-academic writing and then write the corresponding sentences of academic writing.

1. There is no difficulty in explaining how a structure such as an eye or a feather contributes to survival and reproduction; the difficulty is in thinking of a series of steps by which it could have arisen.

2. For example, it is possible to see that in January this person weighed 60.8 kg for eight days.

3. There is experimental work to show that a week or ten days may not be long enough and two to three weeks is probably the best theoretical period.

Responsibility

In academic writing you are responsible for demonstrating an understanding of the source text. You must also be responsible for, and must be able to provide evidence and justification for any claims you make.

This is done by paraphrasing and summarizing what you read and acknowledging the source of this information or ideas by a system of citation. For example:

1. Original: This rewriting of history was not so much a matter of a new start.

Revised: This rewriting of history was not so much a matter of *starting again*.

2. Original: Given the extent to which deforestation increased markedly in the four southern states during 1987 and 1988, it is heartening news that during the early part of the 1989 dry season the burning seemed to have been curtailed somewhat, due to a combination of policy changes, better controls on burning, and most important of all an exceptionally wet “dry” season.

Revised: Deforestation increased markedly in the four southern states during 1987 and 1988. *On account of this*, it is heartening news that during the early part of the 1989 dry season the burning seemed to have been curtailed somewhat. *The reason for this* is a combination of policy changes, better controls on burning, and most important of all an exceptionally wet “dry” season.

Remember

- Academic writing differs from non-academic writing in terms of three aspects: structure, content, and language.
- Academic writing is often characterized by eight features: complexity, formality, precision, objectivity, explicitness, accuracy, hedging, and responsibility.

Chapter 2

Reading Academic Articles

Aims

- Understand the principles of reading academic articles;
- Get to know the steps involved in reading academic articles;
- Understand how to write reviews.



Quiz

Self-evaluation

For each statement below, circle the word which is true for you.

I know the purpose of reading academic articles.	agree disagree not sure
I understand how to read academic articles.	agree disagree not sure
I have some ideas on the principles and strategies of reading academic articles.	agree disagree not sure
I know how to read academic articles step by step.	agree disagree not sure
I know how to write reviews.	agree disagree not sure
I understand what a good book review is like.	agree disagree not sure

Purposes of reading academic articles

Completing reading assignments is one of the biggest challenges in academia. However, are you managing your reading efficiently?

Task 1 :

Read the following texts, consider this cooking analogy, and note the differences in process.

1. Shannon has to make dinner. He goes to the store and walks through every aisle. He decides to make spaghetti, so he revisits aisles and reads many packages thoroughly before deciding which groceries to buy. Once he arrives home, he finds a recipe for spaghetti, but needs to go back to the store for ingredients he forgot.

2. Taylor also has to make dinner. He wants lots of carbohydrates because he's running a marathon soon so he decides to make spaghetti. After checking some recipes, he makes a list of ingredients. At the grocery store, he skims aisles to find his ingredients and chooses products that meet his diet.

Taylor's process is more efficient because his purpose is clear. Figure out the reason why you are reading something will help you decide how to read it, which saves time and improves comprehension. This guide lists some purposes for reading as well as different strategies to try at different stages of the reading process.

People read different kinds of texts (for example scholarly articles, textbooks, reviews) for different reasons. Some purposes for reading might be:

- to scan for specific information;
- to skim to get an overview of the text;
- to relate new content to existing knowledge;
- to write something (often depends on a prompt);
- to critique an argument;
- to learn something;
- for general comprehension.

Task 2:

Discuss in groups and ask each other what your reading purpose is when you are reading academic articles. Besides the purposes above, what other purposes we have while reading academically?

	Reading purposes
Student A	
Student B	
Student C	

Strategies of reading academic articles

Strategies of reading academic articles differ from reader to reader. The same reader may use different strategies for different contexts because their purpose for reading changes. Ask yourself “Why am I reading?” and “What am I reading?” when deciding which strategies to try.

Before reading

- To clear your purpose for reading.
- Speculate about the author's purpose for writing.
- Review what you have already known and want to learn about the topic.
- Preview the text to get an overview of its structure, looking at the headings, figures, tables, glossary and so on.
- Predict the contents of the text and pose questions about it. If the authors have provided discussion questions, read them and write them on a not-taking sheet.
- Note any discussion questions that have been provided.

During reading

- Annotate and mark (sparingly) sections of the text to easily recall important or interesting ideas;
- Check your predictions and find answers to posed questions;
- Use headings and transition words to identify relationships in the text;
- Create a vocabulary list of unfamiliar words to define later;
- Try to infer unfamiliar words' meanings by identifying their relationship to the main idea;
- Connect the text to what you have already known about the topic;
- Take breaks (split the text into segments if necessary).

After reading

- Summarize the text in your own words (note what you learned, impressions, and reactions) in an outline, a concept map, or a matrix (for several texts);
- Talk to someone about the author's ideas to check your comprehension;
- Identify and reread difficult parts of the text;
- Define words on your vocabulary list (try a learner's dictionary) and practice using them.

Guiding principles of reading academic articles

When you are reading academic articles, some guiding principles might help you. These principles are:

Principle 1: Establish principle

Before you read, you have to be clear what your reading purpose is. Then you can use