

# 英语 学术论文写作



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**ENGLISH  
RESEARCH PAPER WRITING**



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# 前 言

## 一、编写背景及原则

论文写作能力是高等学校本科人才培养的重要环节，也是衡量本科毕业生质量的重要标准。它不仅涉及语言表达的规范与地道，格式运用的严谨与合规，还涉及学生两种文化背景下思辨能力、逻辑能力、批判能力的实际展现。论文写作一直是我国英语类专业学生的一个难点，写作中各种问题层出不穷，如选题宽泛、结构混乱、逻辑不严、语言表达不妥或错误、格式不规范等。究其原因，主要有两点：一是学生知识结构单一，知识面窄，英语语言基础不扎实，综合运用语言能力薄弱，思辨能力、逻辑推理能力和批判能力等均有待提高；二是国内现有英语学术论文写作教材不尽人意，有的蜻蜓点水，内容不全面，探讨不深入，实例不丰富；有的泛泛而谈，针对性不强；有的用中文撰写，对有些知识点讲解得不够清晰（如，省略号的使用）等。

基于此，我们在参考了国内外学术论文写作相关资料的基础上，结合多年英语写作教学和学术论文写作教学经验以及指导、评审、答辩学生毕业论文过程中发现的种种问题，基于“任务型教学”理念和“知行结合”的原则，编写了这部《英语学术论文写作》教材。

## 二、教材结构

教材简明扼要地介绍了英语学术论文写作所需的基本理论和技巧，让学习者对英语学术论文写作从选题到提纲编写到资料收集及相关资料的有效使用以及论文写作规范有个全面了解，培养学习者形成初步的科研能力，提高其学术论文写作质量和学术素养。教材由三章构成，第一章简要介绍学术（研究）论文的基本特征、研究类型及学术论文的类型；第二章详尽介绍学术论文写作过程和论文的主要要素，有效融入包括英美文学、英语语言学等在内的多个英语类研究方向所涉及的相关理论、知识及研究话题，提供一些学术论文题目供学习者参阅；第三章介绍三种国际通用的论文格式在文献著录方面的规范。

## 三、教材特色

1. 参考了国内外较新的研究文献，在选材上竭力体现时代性、实用性和专业性；除提供传统文献类型的著录格式以外，补充了目前多种新型文献类型（如微博等）的

著录格式，对于信息时代的读者具有较强的指导意义。

2. 理论讲解和技巧介绍深入浅出，相辅相成；所举案例与讲到的知识要点一一对应，相得益彰，学习者可轻松理解和掌握英语学术论文写作基本知识和规范。

3. 选题部分为学习者提供了包括英美文学、英语语言学等在内的多个英语类研究方向所涉及的相关理论、知识及研究话题，学习者可从中受到启迪，确定自己的研究方向。教师也可根据教学实际进行取舍。

4. 全书用英语写成，条理清晰，表述严谨，行文简洁，学习者可沉浸在英语学术氛围中，迅速养成良好的英语学术写作习惯，提高研究论文写作质量。

5. 在“选题”“避免抄袭”等关键章节配有练习，学习者可及时巩固所学知识，提高思辨能力。

总之，《英语学术论文写作》是编写组成员多年教学经验的总结和升华，具有较强的时代性、实用性、适用性、工具性和可操作性，可供普通本科院校英语、翻译及商务英语专业高年级学生使用，对其他拟用英语撰写研究论文的使用者而言，也不失为一部指导性教材。

在编写过程中，我们参考了国内外的文献资料。在此，谨向这些文献资料的作者表示诚挚的谢意，并恳请包括这些作者在内的专家和读者提出宝贵意见！

作为四川省“高等教育质量工程”建设项目（川教函〔2011〕659号）的一部分及乐山师范学院立项教材（乐师院教〔2017〕57号），《英语学术论文写作》的编写得到了学校相关部门和外国语学院领导及老师的大力支持与帮助，乐山师范学院外国语学院院长汤红娟教授提出了宝贵的修改意见，外国语学院王林副教授做了大量校对及其他辅助性工作，在此一并表示感谢。

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# 1 Basic Information About

## Research Paper Writing



“Research” comes from the Middle French word “rechercher,” meaning “to seek out.” Writing a research paper requires us to seek out information about a subject, take a stand on it, and back it up with the opinions, ideas, and views of others. What results is a printed paper variously known as a term paper for a university course, a published article in a journal, and a thesis or dissertation as a partial requirement for a university degree, in which we present our views and findings on the chosen subject.

### 1.1 Characteristics of a Research Paper

Writing a research paper follows the same process as other kinds of expository writing, from planning through drafting and revising. However, a research paper has its own characteristics. First, it calls for the use of external sources. We must collect information on a chosen subject from many different sources and incorporate it into the paper clearly and appropriately. Second, a research paper is a very formal piece of writing, and follows a particular form. There is little room for creativity or individualism. There is little stylistic difference between the papers written by us and other people. Besides, the information quoted in the paper, either directly or indirectly, must be carefully documented. So, a research paper expresses the author’s understanding of the topic based on experiments, facts, data and analyses. It is objective rather than subjective although the author’s personal values, insights, and experiences have a great influence on the whole writing process.

### 1.2 Types of Research

There are two types of research: *primary research* and *secondary research*.

*Primary research* means working in a laboratory, in the field, or with an archive of raw data, original documents, and authentic artifacts to make firsthand discoveries. Conducting a survey or series of experiments, viewing a series of television programs, interviewing participants in a relatively recent event of some importance, and examining authentic documents and original records—all belong in primary research.

*Secondary research* means looking to see what other people have learned and written. Knowing how to identify facts, interpretations, and evaluations is the key to good secondary research. *Facts* can be measured, observed, or independently verified in some way and therefore are objective (e.g. William Faulkner was born on September 25, 1897); *interpretations* spell out the implications of facts (e.g. he succeeded because he was extremely diligent); *evaluations* are debatable judgments about a set of facts or a situation (e.g. it is good for students to try some part-time jobs while studying at college). Once we are up-to-date on the facts, interpretations, and evaluations in a particular area, we will be able to design a research project that adds to this knowledge. Usually, what we will add is our *perspective* on the sources we found and read.

## 1.3 Types of Research Papers

Research papers fall into three categories, with each having a distinctive format.

### 1.3.1 Papers Based on Empirical Data

Papers based on empirical data, information derived from direct observations or experiments, often follow a standard format: Introduction, Literature Review, Research Methodology, Results (Findings), Interpretation and Conclusion. As to what to include in each chapter and how to write it, some writers—Slade and Perrin, Hubbuch, etc., have made a clear explanation in their books. Here we will just make a brief review.

#### 1. Introduction

In Introduction we should introduce the general area of investigation (the general subject) and the specific hypothesis we tested, inform the reader about the theories on which our study is based and about the published research projects that we have drawn on to develop our hypothesis and methodology, and explain to the reader where our study fits in the general picture of the current theories and the work that has been done. Simply put, we should briefly and clearly state our purpose in writing the paper, provide the most important background information, state the method(s) of investigation and the reasons, and

then present the principal results of the investigation and the principal conclusions suggested by the results.

## 2. Literature Review

Literature review, usually a separate section, should establish for the readers the context of our study. It should call attention to the most important previous work, identify the place of our work in relation to the other research, and delineate areas of agreement and disagreement in the field, not just make a summary of a series of books and articles; it should evaluate and interpret the existing research, not just repeat it. Organizing the review by topic rather than by author and avoiding unnecessary quotation can help us focus the review of research.

Without doubt, not every paper based on empirical data has a Literature Review section; in some papers “literature review” is briefly incorporated into Introduction.

## 3. Methodology

This chapter can also be headed Method(s), Methods and Procedures, Materials and Methods, or Experimental Section. It is intended to answer the *how* and *what* questions in a way that enables other researchers to replicate or redo a study or experiment exactly as it was first done. So the materials or subjects employed as our source for raw data, the steps taken to acquire our data and the data themselves should be described. If it is complicated or long, it can be divided with several headings or subheadings, which are devoted to such information as the participants, materials, and procedures. For instance, in the following sample paper “The Role of Exposure to Isolated Words in Early Vocabulary Development” the second part is headed Method, which includes “Subjects,” “Procedure,” and “Transcription and tabulation.”

In sum, for papers based on empirical data, the Method section typically consists of the following subsections:

- **Design**

Is it a questionnaire study or a laboratory experiment?

- **Subjects or participants**

Who took part in the study? What kind of sampling procedure did we use?

- **Instruments**

What kind of measuring instruments did we use—experiments? questionnaires? interviews? observations? all of them used together? Why did we choose them? Are they valid and reliable?

- **Procedure**

How did we carry out our study? What activities were involved? How long did it take?

## 4. Results (Findings)

This chapter usually begins with a straightforward report of the results or findings and an explanation of the procedures used to obtain those results. The results of the investigation, positive as well as negative, should be presented in clear, coherent prose without interpretation or evaluation. Tables or figures are often used, but they should supplement the text, not substitute for it. The body of the paper should be comprehensible on its own, even if readers choose not to consult the tables.

## 5. Interpretation and Conclusion

After describing the results, we should evaluate and interpret the data and formulate conclusions. We need to tell the reader what we learned, in more general terms, by doing this study. The implications of the findings for revising the existing body of the knowledge, the relation of the results to previous research, limitations of the study, unexpected findings, practical applications of the findings or speculation about further research—all can be covered here.

In a word, writing research papers based on empirical studies requires us to have relevant research bases, adequate theoretical knowledge, appropriate experimental subjects and enough time for doing research and writing. Here is a journal article based on empirical data, but because it is too long, only Introduction and Conclusion (Discussion) and the section headings in the body are retained.

### **The Role of Exposure to Isolated Words in Early Vocabulary Development**

Michael R. Brent, Jeffrey Mark Siskind

#### **1. Introduction**

Between the ages of 9 and 21 months, children typically progress from speaking at most a handful of words to speaking over 200 (Fenson, Dale, Reznick, Bates, & Thal, 1994). To learn a word, a child must store its sound pattern, its meaning, and an association between the two. Since fluent speech contains no known acoustic analog of the blank spaces between words of printed English, children must segment the speech signal in order to learn words from multi-word utterances. Early in the study of language acquisition, the segmentation problem received little attention; it was tacitly assumed that children learned words primarily from isolated occurrences. In the 1980s, it was suggested (Peters, 1983; Pinker, 1984) that words learned in isolation could help children segment multi-word utterances containing novel words. However, there was little systematic empirical evidence for this hypothesis. In fact, there was some evidence that infant-directed speech does not reliably provide isolated words (Aslin, Woodward, LaMendola, & Bever, 1996).

In the last 10 years there has been tremendous progress in understanding infants' ability to segment fluent speech. By 7.5 months, infants can recognize words that they have heard in

fluent speech when those words are later presented in isolation (Jusczyk & Aslin, 1995) and can even do so after a 2-week delay (Jusczyk & Hohne, 1997). Further, 8-month-old infants are able to exploit patterns in sequences of nonsense syllables to help isolate word-like units from synthesized speech that lacks any other segmentation cue (Saffran, Aslin, & Newport, 1996). This research has been accompanied by a shift away from the view that early vocabularies are learned primarily from isolated words.

In this paper, we revisit the potential role of isolated words in early word learning. It has long been known that infant-directed speech tends to consist of short utterances (e.g. Snow, 1977) separated by relatively long silent pauses (Fernald et al., 1989). Recently, the question of isolated-word frequency has been addressed in a study of a single subject (van de Weijer, 1998). This paper reports a multi-subject investigation of four empirical questions:

1. Are isolated words a normal and reliable feature of spontaneous infant-directed speech?
2. Do children hear repeated instances of a variety of distinct words in isolation?
3. Does a significant proportion of children's earliest vocabularies consist of words that they have heard in isolation?
4. Does exposure to isolated instances of a word predict later knowledge of that word, above and beyond total frequency of exposure?

If the answer to all four questions is "yes", that would suggest that children may benefit from the presence of isolated words during the first year of word learning.

## **2. Method**

- 2.1 Subjects
- 2.2 Procedure
- 2.3 Transcription and tabulation

## **3. Results**

- 3.1 Frequency and reliability of isolated words
- 3.2 Diversity and repetition of isolated words
- 3.3 Proportion of early vocabulary heard in isolation
- 3.4 Predictive power of exposure to isolated words for subsequent vocabulary

## **4. Discussion**

The data and analyses described above provide positive answers to the four empirical questions posed in Section 1. First, isolated words are a regular occurrence in the experience of almost every infant in the population from which this sample was drawn. Second, the isolated words to which infants are exposed comprise a variety of distinct word types, a number of which are repeated in close temporal proximity. Third, a substantial proportion of the first 30–50 words produced are words typically spoken in isolation by mothers to their infants before they are used by the infants. Finally, the frequency with which a given mother speaks a given word in isolation is a statistically significant predictor of whether her child will be able to use that word at a later

date. However, the total frequency with which she speaks a word is not a statistically significant predictor of her child's later word use.

The finding that about 9% of infant-direct utterances are isolated words is consistent with several previous analyses of single subjects (Siskind, 1996; van de Weijer, 1998). However, the finding that isolated word use is reliable across mothers is not consistent with an earlier study (Aslin et al., 1996). This difference may result from differences in the experimental methods. First, the current study analyzed spontaneous speech produced in the home, whereas the earlier study analyzed speech produced in the lab in response to a specific task. Second, the current study analyzed a much larger sample per subject. Third, the current study analyzed all isolated words produced by the mother, whereas the previous study focused on words related to the task.

A number of previous studies have measured the potential of maternal speech to influence children's later knowledge. Studies focusing on syntax have found a very limited influence of maternal speech on children's later productions (e.g. Newport, Gleitman, & Gleitman, 1977). In the domain of word learning, Huttenlocher, Haight, Bryk, Seltzer, and Lyons (1991) found that the amount a mother speaks to her child is correlated with the child's rate of vocabulary growth at 16–24 months. However, the current study is the first to focus on isolated words. The results are consistent with the findings of Huttenlocher et al. (1991), and suggest that the greater number of isolated words resulting from greater total maternal speech may have been the mechanism of influence. Our results are also consistent with recent findings that suggest possible routes of influence but do not measure that influence directly. For example, cross-linguistic studies have shown that infant-directed speech is slower, higher pitched, and exhibits a wider, more sing-song pitch range (Fernald et al., 1989) and clearer vowels (Kuhl et al., 1997; Ratner, 1984) than adult-directed speech. Further, infants prefer listening to infant-directed over adult-directed speech (Cooper & Aslin, 1990; Fernald & Kuhl, 1987; Werker, Pegg, & McLeod, 1994).

The findings reported above are based on an English-speaking population. Ultimately, it will be important to extend these results to other languages and cultures. Nonetheless, there are several reasons to be optimistic that the phenomena reported here are characteristic of caretaker–child interaction in general. First, a number of other qualitative properties of child-directed speech have been found in several languages (e.g. Fernald et al., 1989; Kuhl et al., 1997). Second, our finding regarding the frequency of isolated words in infant-direct speech is consistent with results reported for a Dutch–German bilingual household (van de Weijer, 1998). Third, although naming objects for children is rarer in some cultures than it is in America (e.g. Fernald & Morikawa, 1993; Gopnik & Choi, 1995), naming does not account for a preponderance of the isolated words in our sample; many are utterances such as “come”, “go”, “now”, and “up”. These utterances serve mundane communicative functions that are likely to exist in any culture. Finally, it appears that even in agglutinative languages like Finnish and Inuktitut, child-directed speech contains many words in citation form (Inuktitut: S. Allen, pers. commun.; Crago & Allen, 1998; Finnish: A. Vainikka, pers. commun.). If child-directed speech were like adult-directed speech in these languages, children might hear each inflected form of a word very rarely.

This study supports a model in which young children typically acquire a small, initial vocabulary from exposure to isolated words. This does not imply that exposure to isolated words is essential for native-language acquisition, any more than the beneficial effects of mother's milk imply that consuming mother's milk is essential for healthy development. Indeed, laboratory studies of infant speech segmentation suggest that isolated words are probably not essential. Nonetheless, the abundance of isolated words in infant-directed speech may help explain why so many children develop language so rapidly. Once children have acquired a small initial vocabulary, they could use that vocabulary to segment novel words out of multi-word utterances by recognizing adjacent familiar words. Such mechanisms have been proposed (Peters, 1983; Pinker, 1984) and have been formalized and shown to be effective via computer simulation (Brent, 1999; Brent & Cartwright, 1996). Until now, however, empirical evidence that the word-learning environment supports such a mechanism has been lacking.

### 1.3.2 Papers Based on Critical Analysis

Papers based on critical analysis or philosophical speculation, also called critical papers, are the most common type of research paper. The key to writing a good critical paper is that the writer makes an assertion or claim about a particular subject. Although no specific format governs such papers, they contain a number of common elements, either developed in separate chapters or interwoven in each chapter.

The introductory section usually places the study against the background of previous work in the field. Generally, the previous work related to the topic under discussion, the importance of the topic, its role in current controversies or developments, and the scholarly tradition in which the paper belongs are discussed. The studies that have influenced or guided our work as well as those that we may have reacted against can also be discussed. Some theories advanced by other writers can be critically and impartially evaluated.

The central chapters present clearly and systematically the results of our research and analysis to convince readers that we have considered every facet of the topic and that the material uncovered by our research confirms our thesis statement.

The concluding chapter(s) usually interprets the significance of the paper, which may be integrated with exposition of the findings. It might include the implications of the work for the revision of previous interpretations, proof or disproof of assumptions or theories in the field, or new areas of inquiry opened by the study.

Here are the Introduction and the Conclusion of a critical paper.

#### **On Improving Text Readability by Creating a Personal Writing Style**

Shen Yuru

##### **1. Introduction**

John Galsworthy (1867—1933), an English novelist and playwright, once said, "As a man

lives and thinks, so will he write," which well illustrates the importance of writing. English writing is one of the four indispensable skills that English learners need to master, but unfortunately, many Chinese college students have much difficulty composing clear, concise and coherent essays although they have studied English for at least over six years. They may know clearly why to write and what to write about, but for various reasons they always make mistakes of this or that kind, of which the following are the most commonly seen in their writing: syntax errors, like sentence fragments, false parallelism, misplaced modifiers, dangling modifiers, run-together sentences and comma splices; grammatical mistakes, such as subject-verb disagreement and improper or wrong use of tenses and voices; inappropriate or unidiomatic or repetitive or even wrong use of words and phrases; word-for-word translation from Chinese to English; lack of cohesion and coherence either between sentences or between paragraphs; lack of a strong thesis; lack of evidence or details; and so on.

To address the problems, the researchers and teachers in China have tried various methods, such as offering them excellent essays written by native English speakers in the hope that they can learn from the sample essays how to write an essay with a strong thesis supported with adequate evidence and details, how to construct effective sentences and how to use words and phrases exactly, idiomatically and appropriately, and assigning them large numbers of after-class reading tasks in the hope of expanding their vocabulary because it is believed that the larger vocabulary a person has, the better essays he or she can write. The approaches employed have undoubtedly more or less played a role in helping students improve their writing, but with no obvious result. Besides, although much research has been done on readability formulas, the main factors that influence text readability, and so on, little research has been done on how to improve text readability, or how to produce readable writing. This paper, based on a brief introduction to readability and a brief account of the studies on readability and an analysis of the factors that affect text readability, proposes that we can improve the readability of a text by creating our own writing style.

## 6. Conclusion

From the discussions above we get to know that "how easy a text is for an individual to read is the result of the interaction of a number of different factors" (Bailin & Grafstein, 2001, p. 292). Just as we take into account the reader's interest, background knowledge and abilities as well as the text's format and difficulty so as to select a book that is suitable for a particular reader, to create our own unique writing style, we need to consider all these factors too. Besides, we must have something to say and employ the "right" words to express ourselves as clearly as we can because "the difference between the right word and the almost-right word is as great as that between lightning and the lightning bug" (Mark Twain, qtd. in Li & Diao, 2006, p. 60). With a personal writing style, we are most likely to produce more readable texts for the general reading public and as a result, elicit a positive response from the reader and achieve our writing purpose.

### 1.3.3 Papers Based on Historical Research

A paper based on historical research, also called “a review paper,” “a review-of-the-literature paper,” or “a historical paper,” is a summary of the “state of the art” of a particular area of investigation, whose purpose is to help experts, who become more and more specialized because of the knowledge explosion, to stay informed about scholarly work in their discipline that lies outside their areas of specialization.

To write a review paper, we need to keep in mind a few things. First, we must read a great deal of literature on the subject selected (e.g. how to teach foreign languages in middle school), and then narrow the topic by narrowing the area of investigation (e.g. how to teach English reading in middle school) or by restricting the research to a given period of time. Second, although the review paper follows no established format, we should remember that our purpose of writing a review is to tell the reader about the main trends and patterns we see in the work that has been done on a particular subject, so it is a good idea for us to inform the reader clearly in the thesis statement of the conclusions we have reached about the major trends and developments we see in the research that has been done on the subject. Third, although we may illustrate and support our argument by referring to specific works, this can be done with summary statements and some descriptions of actual studies. We needn’t describe every study or book we looked at. Besides, we usually end the paper with a few paragraphs devoted to our conclusions about the work that still needs to be done in the field.

Generally speaking, writing a review paper requires that the writer have sufficient data and strong analytical ability. Then it is not advisable for undergraduates to write review papers.

In a word, writing a research paper is a systematic process of exploration, including finding and proposing a question/problem or a hypothesis/assumption, collecting information and analyzing and interpreting the data, and finally drawing a conclusion. No matter what kind of research paper we are writing, it is a report that we present to others about the conclusions we have reached after investigating a subject and critically assessing the evidence we have gathered. Doing a research project not only gives us the chance to learn about the problems the experts are puzzling over, but also allows us to strengthen the same skills that an expert uses when he or she sets out to investigate a subject. A research paper, then, is an invitation to sharpen our ability to think critically.

# 2 Stages of Writing a Research Paper



Writing a research paper, as mentioned in the previous part, is much like, although different from, writing a long expository or persuasive essay and therefore follows the same writing process. So, in the following we are going to dwell on the stages of writing a research paper one by one.

## 2.1 Pre-writing

Different from common essay writing, whose ideas derive mainly from our own head, research paper writing, whose ideas come mainly from books or periodical articles, requires much more preparations before writing.

### 2.1.1 Selecting and Narrowing a Topic

Probably no single step is as important to the whole process of writing a research paper as the choice of a topic. We are like travelers who are choosing where to go. If it is someplace we like, we will enjoy getting there. If it turns out to be a place we do not like, getting there will make us miserable. Ideally, we should choose topics that interest us and our readers, or that we can find sufficient material, or that are complex enough to need several research sources, or that we can prove something about, instead of choosing topics that are too subjective, or that are too big, or that are based on a single source, or that are

too specialized or technical, or that are trivial or too autobiographical, or that are too narrow or contemporary, or that are overused. In other words, to write an effective research paper, we should choose a significant, interesting, manageable, and researchable topic that we are curious about, or are experts on, or are genuinely interested in, no matter whether the topic is contemporary or historical. We had better avoid topics like “Reactions of German-American pacifists to the Great Sioux Massacre of 1864,” which is too specialized, or topics like “Translation of English film titles,” “Translation of public signs” and “Tess’s tragic fate,” which are overused.

After selecting a topic, we should try to narrow it without making it trivial. A genuine example is offered here to illustrate how to narrow a chosen topic to get a good title. A graduating English major in a newly-upgraded local normal university was interested in the translation of English film titles, so she chose “On the Translation of English Film Titles” as the title for her graduation thesis. But the instructor told her the topic was too big to write about, and advised her to read more and think over. After reading more relevant books and research papers, she decided to write about the use of culture-loaded words in translating English film titles, which was, of course, much more specific, but not focused enough and did not sound academic. After careful consideration and discussion with the instructor, she decided on the third title in the box below for her graduation thesis, which is, without doubt, the best.

- On the Translation of English Film Titles [Too big]
- On Use of Culture-Loaded Words in Translating English Film Titles [Specific]
- Use of Culture-Loaded Words: An Effective Method of Translating English Film Titles from the Perspective of Skopos Theory [Focused]

Generally speaking, a good title should be terse and concise, which means that expressions like “A Critical Analysis and Evaluation of . . . ,” “An Investigation of . . . ,” “Observations on . . . ,” “Investigations of . . . ,” “Studies on . . . ,” and the like should be avoided if possible because these processes are, given the nature of the project, assumed. It should also be descriptive, comprehensive and error-free. Besides, it should contain content and methodology, or content and potential significance, or content and expected results. Without doubt, it will be the best if it contains content, methodology, and potential contribution at the same time. As to its length, there is no fixed rule. But, generally, a Chinese title should have no more than 20 characters; an English title should not exceed two lines. Here are two journal article titles:

- On the Translation Strategy of Novel Metaphors from the Perspective of Translators’ Visibility: A Case Study of *Trout Fishing in America*’s Chinese Version
- A Study of FL Teacher Learning in the Context of Teacher-student Interaction Dissonance