English for
Academic Purposes

The Center for Professional Communication

Guide to Icons:

 Discussion Activity

 Writing Activity

 Editing Tip
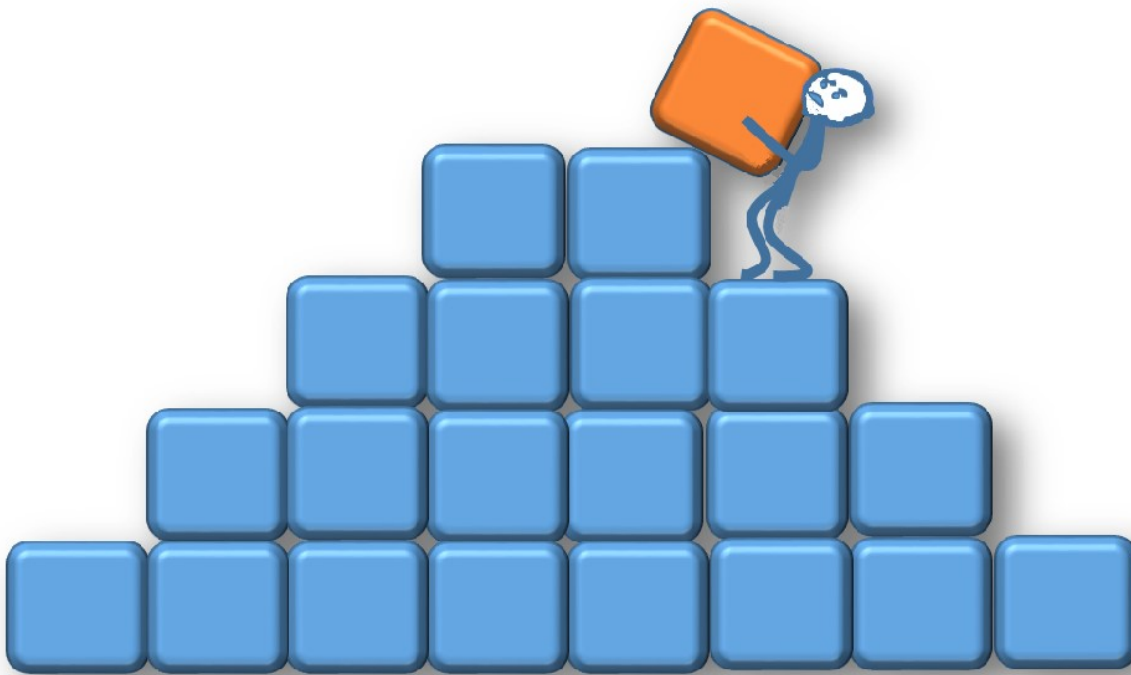
 Good Example: Reader/writer communication

 Bad Example: Reader/writer communication

 Detour to Vocabulary Building

Unit 4:
Writing as a Member of the Research Community

DISCUSSION

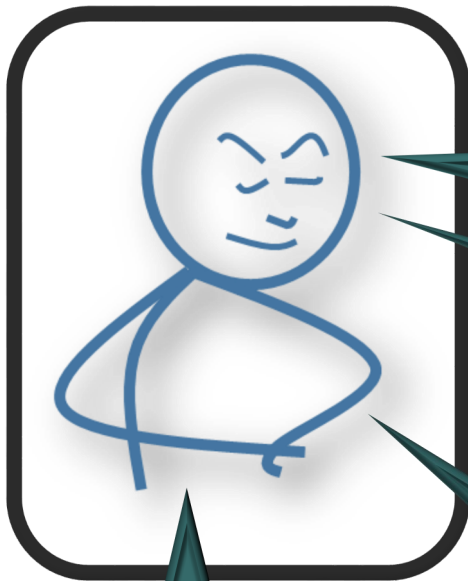"If I have seen further, it is by standing on the shoulders of giants."

- Isaac Newton/ Bernard of Chartes

Look at the title of this unit, the picture above, and the quote from Newton.
What do they suggest about the kind of writing that you will do?

What is a citation and why are they included in research papers?

Respond to the student's concerns about citations below.

Citations make it seem as though I am copying the ideas of others, with nothing original of my own.

The ideas in my paper come from my experience. I don't need citations.

Everybody copies a few sentences or ideas. There is no harm in it. As long as the main idea of the paper is yours, what does it matter?

I am not a native speaker of English. It is safer if I copy the text from the source. I do not want to change the meaning of the original sentence. That is worse than copying a sentence or two.

CITATIONS

Citations are a vital component of academic writing. Unfortunately, this component is often misunderstood by novice writers and even sometimes by more experienced writers.

As a general rule, the more citations the better, especially for graduate student writers.

Harwood (2009) conducted a number of interviews with professional academic writers in order to understand why professionals add citations to their texts. In all, he found 11 distinct reasons reported by the writers for the citations in their texts. Can you guess what they were?

Harwood, N. (2009). An interview-based study of the functions of citations in academic writing across two disciplines. *Journal of Pragmatics, 41,* 497-518.

Reason	Explanation
1.	
2.	
3.Credit	Credit citations acknowledged authors' debt to others for ideas or methods. While this debt was sometimes expressed in terms of ''paying respect'' to the sources, at other times informants foreground a ''self-defence'' motivation, the citation making clear they, the citer, are not claiming to be the originator of the citee's concept. (Harwood, 2009, p. 504)
4.	
5.	
6.	
7.	
8.	
9.	
10.	
11.	

Look at this Introduction from a paper on using citations. In this section, the author introduces the reader to research on citation practices. She identifies the gap in the research and the focus of her study, which fills this gap. Can you identify the most likely reasons for the citations?

Introduction

Citation, one of the distinguishing features of academic writing, is of interest not only to EAP scholars ([1] e.g., Hyland, 2000; Swales, 1986, 1990; Thompson, 2001, 2005) but also sociologists of science ([2] e.g., Gilbert, 1977; Latour, 1987) and information scientists ([3] see White, 2004, for an overview). Despite differences in approaches and methods in these fields, they agree that the role of citation in scientific discourse is not only to acknowledge the work of others but also to promote the writer's own knowledge claims. [4] Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995) aptly illustrate this by the title of their article *You are what you cite*, and [5] Latour (1987) even likens citations to weapons scientists use to transform previous literature in the field to work to their advantage ([6] see, however, White's (2004) critique of social-constructivist views of citation). Within applied linguistics, research on citation has investigated disciplinary variation in citation use ([7] Hyland, 2000), cultural differences in citation use ([8] Belcher, 1994; Bloch & Chi, 1995; Pennycook, 1996), diachronic development of citation ([9] Bazerman, 1988; Salager-Meyer, 1999) and reporting verbs accompanying citation ([10] Hawes & Thomas, 1997; Hyland, 2002).

Most of this work, however, focuses on citation in published writing. When it comes to citation and source use in student writing, especially in the second language, researchers have mostly focused on its problematic aspects, such as difficulties in paraphrasing and summarising [11] (Campbell, 1990), plagiarism ([12] Angelil-Carter, 2000; Howard, 1999; Pecorari, 2002, 2003, 2006), and difficulties in expressing one's voice, which includes lack of stance towards the cited material, inappropriately harsh criticism of other authors, tendency to make claims without reference to previous work, and unclear distinction between one's own points and those of other authors ([13] Borg, 2000; Dong, 1996; Groom, 2000). In sum, research shows that students have difficulty using sources in academically acceptable ways.   **[Petric, 2009, pp. 238-239]**

Petric, B. (2007). Rhetorical functions of citations in high- and low-rated master's theses. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 6,* 238-253.

Citation #	Reason(s)	Expression used
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		
7		
8		
9		
10		
11		
12		
13		

Look at how the author introduces the citation. Does she introduce it with a word (e.g., See), with an author's name and a verb, or with no comment? Note how each citation is introduced above.

Now look at this Findings & Discussion section from the same paper. Here, the author explains that students tend to use citations to display their knowledge of the field rather than to create new knowledge. What differences can you notice in the author's use of citations?

Findings and Discussion

Percentages of different functions of citations in the high- and low-rated theses in Table 1 show that in both sets of theses the most common rhetorical function of citations is attribution **[Harwood's Credit/Competence].** This may be characteristic of student writing in general, since this citation function helps writers display their knowledge of the topic. While in published writing ultimately any mention of sources is related to the writer's own argumentation, in student writing knowledge display may constitute a function of its own, as students need to show that they are familiar with the literature. Attribution can therefore be considered an unmarked citation function since it is the most common and rhetorically the simplest one. Data in Table 1 also show, however, that the percentage of attribution citations is considerably higher in the low-rated theses, while other, rhetorically more complex citation types requiring analytical skills are used less often than in the high-rated theses, suggesting that in low-rated theses knowledge display is overemphasised at the expense of other thesis requirements. This tendency of low-rated theses towards descriptiveness rather than analysis also reflects the grading criteria, which specify that lower grades are awarded for theses lacking in analytical aspects but showing the knowledge of the field. Attribution citations can then be associated with (1) Bereiter & Scardamalia's (1987) knowledge telling mode of writing, i.e., re-telling what other authors stated, in contrast to knowledge transformation, which requires novel associations to be established among different sources and links to be made between sources and one's own findings. A parallel can be made here with (2) Dong's (1996) study of mentors teaching non-native doctoral students to use citation to support their knowledge claims. The students in Dong's study, accustomed to writing in the knowledge telling mode encouraged in their previous education, needed instruction in using citations for knowledge transformation and construction of new knowledge claims. While at the doctoral level knowledge transformation as a writing mode is an essential requirement, it may be the case that at the master's level the ability to use citation for knowledge transformation is generally found in top grade theses only.

[Petric, 2009, pp. 247-248]

Citation #	Reason (s)	Expression used
1		
2		

Look at how the author now introduces the citation.

1.   How is the strategy for introducing citations different?

2.   Why do you think this is?

3.   Note how each citation is introduced above.

Look back at the student's concerns at the beginning of this unit. How would you respond to the student's comments now?

INTRODUCING CITATIONS

The citations in the example texts that we have seen so far in this unit follow American Psychological Association (APA) formatting style. This style is common in social sciences. Below is a summary of the in-text citation formats in APA.

	Version	Example
1	Name (YEAR)	Smith (1999) states that . . .
2	(Name, YEAR)	Research suggests that this is not the case (Smith, 1999).
3	Name **and** Name (YEAR)	Smith and Jones (1999) consider this theory to be . . .
4	(Name **&** Name, YEAR) or (Name, Name**, &** Name, YEAR)	Research suggests that this is not the case (Smith & Jones, 1999). *[Notice the comma after the second name and before the ampersand (&): This is required in APA.]*
5	(Name, YEAR**;** Name, YEAR**;** Name, YEAR)	Research suggests that this is not the case (Adams, 2015; Fields, Smith, & Jones, 1999; Xavier, 2007) *[Lists of names should be alphabetized, not in chronological order by year of publication.]*
6	"quote" (Name, YEAR, Page Number) or Name (YEAR) "quote" (Page Number)	"This theory is nonsense" (Smith, 1999, p. 16). According to Smith (1999), "this theory is nonsense" (p. 16). *[Quotes longer than 40 words should be in a block (indented) paragraph and do not require quotation marks, but the page number is needed.]*

As we have seen, these citations appear in various places in a research paper. Below are some general guidelines for citations.

AUTHOR-FRONTED CITATION: USING THE AUTHOR'S NAME IN THE TEXT (APA VERSIONS 1, 3, & 6)

These citations are often used when the author wishes to focus on a particular piece of research and may intend to describe it in some detail or compare or contrast it with other research.

Often used for

- important studies in the literature review

- studies compared to the findings of the author

Form

- Author (s) (YEAR) + reporting verb + that + SVO

Smith (1999) claims that most studies on this topic have employed the wrong methodology. Smith recommends that researchers use . . .

According to Smith and Jones (2007), there is no real difference between the two methodologies proposed by earlier researchers.

TOPIC-FRONTED: PUTTING THE AUTHOR'S NAME IN PARENTHESIS (APA VERSIONS 2, 4, & 5)

These citations are often used when the author would prefer to either simply mention the research (but not discuss it in detail) or would like to focus on the ideas from the research rather than a particular researcher.

Often used for

- overviews of literature in the introduction

- discussions of background studies in the literature review (not particularly related to the author's study)

Form

A great deal of research has been done in this area (Adams, 2015; Fields, Smith, & Jones, 1999; Xavier, 2007).

Similar results have been found in other studies (for a review see Jones, 2010)

THE LANGUAGE OF CITING

Below is some of the language that can be used when citing sources

Author-Fronted Citation

- According to [name] (Year),

- Recent research by [name] (Year) has found

- A study by [name] (Year) indicated that that

- [name] (Year) claimed that

- In his analysis of [something], [name] (Year) found that

Topic-Fronted Citation

- Several studies have found … (names & years)

- More recent research suggests that … (names & years)

- [Any Claim] (names & years)

- Research in this area has traditionally focused on Topic A (names & years), Topic B (names & years), and Topic C (names & years).

Verbs Usually Used for Researchers (People)

Argue	Examine
Ask	Explain
Attempt to	Explore
Claim	Focus on
Compare	Interpret
Consider	Investigate
Conclude	Maintain
Define	Mention
Describe	Note
Discover	Points Out
Discuss	State

Verbs Usually Used for Research (Inanimate Objects)

Begin	Illustrate
Confirm*	Indicate
Contribute to	Report
Deal with	Show*
Demonstrate	Suggest*
Find*	Uncover
Focus on	Use*
Highlight	Utilize*
Include	
Identify*	* = Often used for people as well
Illuminate	

Note. The meanings of these words are not identical. Check the meaning of each word in the dictionary (https://www.merriam-webster.com/) before attempting to use it (see Vocabulary Building section for more

Vocabulary Builder

Citation Activity 4

Copy your answers from *Citation Activity 1* into the left-hand column below. Then, decide if authors usually use an author-fronted citation or a topic-fronted citation and provide an example expression.

Reason for Citation	Type of Citation Used	Example Citation
1.	Topic-Fronted	Several studies have found … (names & years)
2.		
3. Credit	Author-Fronted	Smith (1999) argues that . . .
4.		
5.		
6.		
7.		
8.		
9.		
10.		
11.		

Avoiding plagiarism

Research has Identified three kinds of plagiarism that the reader can encounter.

Adapted from Pecorari, D. (2013). *Teaching to avoid plagiarism: How to promote good source use*. Berkshire: Open University Press.

Plagiarism Types

Intentional Plagiarism

- The copying of large sections of text without citation of quotation marks
- The copying of ideas without citation

The author intends to deceive the reader into believing that another person's work is actually the work of the author. This type of plagiarism sometimes occurs when students feel overwhelmed by assignments or the writing of a thesis or dissertation.

Patchwriting

- Sections of text are copied and pasted from the source with only a few minor changes; there are no quotation marks, but there are citations

The author attempts to cite the sources for his or her information but does not sufficiently change the original text during paraphrasing. The version in the author's text is too similar to the original text. This suggests a lack of writing competence or an uncertainty about the rules of source-use and citation.

Textual Plagiarism

- There are problems with source-use (citation and/or quotation) but the reason for these is unclear (i.e., a lack of knowledge about source-use or an intentional attempt at deception).

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It must be noted that all three are instances of inappropriate source-use and will have a negative consequence for the author. It is, therefore, imperative that writers, especially student writers, make every effort to avoid any misuse of sources in their writing.

3 TIPS TO AVOID PLAGIARISM

1. Cite everything. Remember that there are many reasons to cite, not just to give credit to another researcher. Many citations will create an impression in the reader of a more professional and well-researched paper. This is especially true for students, who must display their knowledge of the field in their assignments, theses, and dissertations. In addition, sign-posting is greatly appreciated by readers as it allows them to find sources that are of interest to them.

2. Be careful when taking notes. Unintentional plagiarism is often the result of careless and sloppy note-taking. Students will sometimes paraphrase research in their notes and will sometimes copy and paste from the source into their notes. When it comes time to include that source information into their texts, they forget which notes were paraphrased and which were copied and end up reproducing text without quotation marks. You may choose to paraphrase or to copy and paste from your sources, but make sure that you are consistent in your strategy. That way, you will know if you need to alter the text from your notes or not

3. Don't worry about your originality. Many student writers worry that if they cite too much, the reader will think that the writer has contributed little to the text. Remember that you contribution comes from the synthesis of sources, the collection of new data, the analysis of that data, and the discussion and interpretation of your findings. In short, the vast majority of your paper will be reporting on what other researchers have done.

Paraphrasing

Many writers, especially English-learner writers, find it difficult to paraphrase the sentences from sources that they wish to include in their own texts. This can lead to excessive quotation, patchwriting, or even intentional plagiarism. It is therefore important that writers hone their paraphrasing skills. With some effort, it is possible for writers to become quite adept at paraphrasing.

Recommended Paraphrasing Technique

Step 1.

When reading a text, the researcher should read with his or her own research questions in mind. Anything that is relevant to the researcher's research question should be highlighted or copied into another document. When the researcher has finished reading a section of the text, **he or she should close the original text and any copied notes and write from memory how the information from that source relates to the researcher's research question.** Once finished, the researcher can then check the highlighted information in the original text or the document with copied passages from the original text to make sure that they have remembered accurately. This process will develop the researcher's paraphrasing skills very quickly and should be done for the first 10 papers the researcher reads.

Step 2.

Now that his or her paraphrasing skills have been developed, the researcher can paraphrase as they read. This will save time but should not be attempted before the researcher feels confident in their ability to paraphrase.

Citation Activity 5

Look at the text on the opposite page. Read the text with the following research question in mind and underline/highlight any relevant information:

What factors influence a professor's grading of a student research paper?

Adapted from Petric, B. (2007). Rhetorical functions of citations in high- and low-rated master's theses. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *6*, 238-253.

Further differences in citation use in the two groups of theses [high-rated and low-rated] are revealed when citations are compared for each section of the thesis: introduction, literature review, context of the study, methods, data analysis and discussion, and conclusion (see Tables 2 and 3). The data confirm the low-rated theses' tendency towards greater descriptiveness since they use citations for attribution [Harwood's Credit] to a greater extent than the high-rated theses in all thesis parts. The most remarkable differences include the five times higher percentage of evaluation citations [Harwood's Engaging] in the theoretical chapter in the high-rated theses (7.12% as compared with 1.40%) and the four times higher percentage of application citations [Harwood's Supporting or Building] in the analysis chapter in the high-rated theses (15.2% as compared with 3.61%). These figures can be interpreted in light of the functions of these thesis parts. The literature review, for example, serves a variety of complex purposes (Ridley, 2000; Swales & Lindemann, 2002), including justification of the focus of the research and the choice of the theoretical framework, operationalisation of major concepts and establishment of the grounds for the analysis that follows. This complexity requires the use of a variety of types of citation. The prevalence of attribution citations, then, suggests the type of literature review that writing teachers often complain about, where a selection of studies is summarised and presented without much elaboration on the links among them or on their relevance to the writer's own research. Interestingly, citation density in the literature review chapters in the low-rated theses is slightly higher (15.31 citations per 1000 words as compared with 14.17 in high-rated theses), indicating more frequent reference to sources, but more often for the purposes of attribution. In contrast, in literature reviews in the high- rated theses, writers refer to the work of others for a greater variety of rhetorical purposes, most frequently to establish links among sources and to evaluate them. (pp. 248-249)

Now turn the page and write from memory how this source helps to answer you research question.

Notes on Petric, B. (2007). Rhetorical functions of citations in high- and low-rated master's theses. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *6*, 238-253.

Now, check the original text to make sure your memory is accurate.

Finally, convert your notes into at least one paragraph.

THE GRAMMAR OF CITATION

As a general rule, you can use three tenses when citing; however, this is by no means a rule and can vary greatly from journal to journal.

Giving an overview of research in a field

The present perfect tense

- A great deal of research has been done on this area of decentralization (Jones, 1997).

- Poor communication between local and central governments has been identified as a major factor in local governments failure to act on central government recommendations (Blair, 2001; Smith, 2003)

Talking about a specific study

The past tense

- Smith (1999) found that most local governments were not implementing the best practices recommended by the central government.

- Franton (2003) studied the interaction between central and local governments in Europe and concluded that only about 57% of communication between the two could be considered successful, according to his criteria.

Talking about what is known about a subject

The present tense

- Local governments implement less than 50% of the recommended best practices from central government (Williams, 2003).

- Because the implementation of these recommendations is so important for the success of decentralization projects (Burr, 2009), it is vital that the situation be improved.

Children and television watching: A study of New Zealand parents' perceptions and views

Dorey,* V. Roberts,* R. Maddison,* P. Meagher-Lundberg,† R. Dixon† and C. Ni Mhurchu*

Children and adolescents in developed countries watch on average 2.5–3 h of television (TV) per day (World Health Organization, 2000). Young New Zealanders (5–14 years) spend an average of 131 min/day watching TV (Nielsen, 2004). Because TV watching is so prevalent and is hypothesized to displace physical activity and encourage overeating (French et al., 2001), it has been widely implicated in the aetiology of youth obesity (Bar-Or et al., 1998). In New Zealand, almost one-third of children (31%) aged 5–14 years are overweight or obese, with a higher prevalence among Māori (indigenous people) and Pacific children (Ministry of Health, 2003). Increased TV viewing has also been associated with poor academic performance (Hancock et al., 2005) as well as attention and behavioral issues in school-aged children (Christakis et al., 2004; Christakis & Zimmerman, 2007).

Present simple: State of current knowledge

A number of intervention studies have been conducted with the aim of decreasing children's TV watching (Epstein et al., 2004; Faith et al., 2001; Jason & Fries, 2004; Robinson, 1999), and results from these few studies have been encouraging. As TV viewing is often a collective family activity, the home environment offers a good opportunity to intervene to decrease TV watching. An Australian study involving 1926 children aged 4–12 years (49% boys, 28% overweight) suggested that simple strategies such as having family rules restricting TV viewing and not having the TV on during dinner were promising approaches to reducing time children spend watching TV (van Zutphen et al., 2007). Despite this, implementing family rules may work to reduce TV viewing in some cultures; while other cultures may require different strategies. Cultural-specific research is needed to determine the types of strategies used, thereby avoiding making assumptions around the role TV plays within families and how this behavior is perceived by both children and adults.

Research in the USA with 180 parents and their children highlighted a number of barriers to reducing TV viewing time. Watching TV staves off boredom, reduces bickering between siblings, and serves as a low-cost-effective babysitter, with parents also reluctant to alter their own viewing behavior (Jordan et al., 2006). Similar research among New Zealand parents is lacking. In order to develop appropriate and effective TV watching interventions for New Zealand children, it is necessary to determine parents' attitudes regarding their children's TV watching. Thus the current study was conducted to assess parents' views about their children's TV viewing, strategies they use to reduce viewing, obstacles faced when trying to implement such strategies, and their views of two types of electronic monitors that can be used to restrict TV viewing.

Vocabulary Builder

The following words appear throughout this unit and are from the Academic Word List. They will be important for writing and reading academic texts written in English. Fill out the form by adding in the related words.

Keyword Verb form	Noun form	Verb + noun form	Meaning & use
Argue	Argument	To make an argument	Used when the author believes something that others may not accept. For example, used for interpretations of results that may be debatable.
e.g.	Smith (1999) argues/makes the argument that this drop in production may be the result of a lack of investment in human capital.		
Attempt to			
e.g.			
Claim			
e.g.			
Compare			
e.g.			

Vocabulary Builder

Keyword	Noun form	Verb + noun form	Meaning & use
Conclude			
e.g.			
Determine			
e.g.			
Interpret			
e.g.			
Investigate			
e.g.			
Suggest			
e.g.			