Academic English structure and style

1. Paraphrasing and summarizing techniques¹

1.1. Selecting and omitting information

When citing and using information from a source for their own academic writings, novice writers may make the mistake of including too much information from the source, including unnecessary details and items that are not relevant to the purpose of the paper. Experienced writers leave out less important information from the source article, such as:

- background information, historical background, or theoretical background that the potential readers would likely know already
- minor details of experimental design and procedures
- statistical results of experiments
- details of the author's line of reasoning in his/her analysis
- any information that is not relevant to the main point of the writer's paper

Instead, the main findings, conclusions, or implications are usually the focus of the summarized / paraphrased information. Based on what is included or omitted, writers then condense and restructure sentences.

1.2. Altering content words

The main meaning-bearing words – nouns, main verbs, adjectives, adverbs – are changed as much as possible with synonyms or rephrasing – except for key terms and technical terms.

1.3. Altering sentence structure

[a] Serial verb phrases

Several sentences can be condensed into one sentence with multiple verb phrases, including passive verbs (second example).

They <u>observed</u> English classes at a number of secondary schools in Seoul, <u>coded</u> the teacher and student behavior, and <u>administered</u> questionnaires to the students.

English teachers were recruited, their English classes at various schools were observed, teacher and student behaviors were coded, and questionnaires were administered to the students.

[b] Reporting verbs

Reporting and communication verbs indicate cited information and ideas, e.g.:

X suggests / reported / observed / recommends / implied that...

¹ For this and related handouts, see the seminar website, **ctlgsp.wikispaces.com**.

[c] Attributive adjectives

Some information can be reduced to descriptive adjectives and noun phrases.

A <u>standard counterbalanced experimental</u> design was used. [substituting for several sentences describing how the experiment was done]

This <u>recent</u> proposal...

Such economic disparity...

[d] Nominalizations [명사화, 名詞化]

Entire phrases, ideas and even sentences can often be reduced to shorter noun phrases or even single nouns, and this is common in technical and academic writing. For example:

simple	nominalization
they applied connectionist modeling in order to analyzing how the mind processes dreams	their application of connectionist modeling to the analysis of dream processing
how we directed the research; the direction that our research took	the direction of our research
The military invented the ARPANET, which allowed people to disseminate information like never before	The military's invention of the ARPANET revolutionized the dissemination of information
Obviously the government is concerned about how some users will react if it tries to impose restrictions on Internet usage.	Obviously the government is concerned about some users' reactions to a potential move to impose restrictions on Internet usage.

1.4. Foregrounding and backgrounding

Some material can be summarized more briefly, and also phrased in certain grammatical structures to de-emphasize it (backgrounding), so that it leads up to the more important content; the more important information can be put in a main clause for more emphasis. Subordinate clauses are particularly useful for backgrounding less critical information to connect with and lead up to important information in the main clause.

[a] Prepositional phrases

For the sake of equity and fairness in educational opportunities, students are randomly assigned to a school in their district, and teachers are regularly rotated among schools throughout the metropolitan area

[b] Participle phrases

Finding past motivation studies based solely on questionnaire data inadequate, Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) used a hybrid observational and survey study paradigm.

[c] Infinitive and gerund phrases

To provide equal educational opportunities, ...

Implementing a rotation system was found to be effective...

[d] Subordinate clauses

<u>Although</u> they decided upon a one-factor solution based on the PCA results, the second eigenvalue may be too close to significance to dismiss right away.

Since they found past studies based solely on questionnaire data inadequate, Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) decided on a hybrid observational and survey study paradigm.

[e] Resumption markers

Occasionally, a writer needs to repeat familiar information, e.g., [1] to return to a line of thought; or [2] to cite somewhat familiar information to transition to a new line of reasoning or topic. This is marked with a subordinating conjunction (*Although X has argued at length that...*) or a resumption marker (*as mentioned, the aforementioned X, as regards, as to, regarding*). This should not be overly familiar information, and it should be concise and not too redundant. In formal writing, *as regards, as to, as for, regarding* should not be used too often, as this can sound colloquial or redundant.

<u>As discussed</u> in the previous section, many physicists have pointed out serious side effects, even fatal risks, of warp drive engines. However, we would like to propose alternatives to the standard warp drive that would avoid these dangers.

1.5. Transitionals

As above, transitional or connective words not only facilitate logical flow and connections among ideas, phrases, and clauses, but they also can help to manage the information being cited.

Some have claimed that theory Y offers a better explanation than theory X. For example, Smith (2008) found that... Further evidence is offered by Jones (2009), who observed that... In fact, most recent studies have provided stronger evidence for Y.

Since they found past studies based solely on questionnaire data inadequate, ...

Sometimes it is necessary to critique, criticize, or take issue with others' claims or findings. Contrastive connectives like *however*, *although*, *whereas* and others can help to frame such information and distinguish between the cited information and your own critique.

<u>Although</u> they decided upon a one-factor solution based on the PCA results, the second eigenvalue may be too close to significance to dismiss right away.

The researchers reported the results of a factor analysis of the survey data, and concluded that one underlying factor (a general class motivation factor) was apparent from the survey data. <u>However</u>, their reported eigenvalue of 1.8 for the first factor was twice the value for a possible second factor" – yet a second factor of c. 0.9 might also be significant.

2. Counter-argumentation

A counterargument is a response to an objection (be it a real objection, or potential objection that readers might have). This is standard in much academic writing, lecturing and presentations. One must anticipate potential objections or criticisms to the points that one is trying to make, and then address them. Failure to do so will lead to a weak presentation of your ideas, and may fail to connect with or convince the readers or listeners. Counterarguments may take the following forms.

- 1. Attempting to completely disprove or refute the objection
- 2. Dismissing it or showing that it is not relevant
- 3. Argue that your opponent's evidence does not really support the claims

- 4. Argue against your opponent's logic
- 5. Argue against the underlying assumptions of the objection
- 6. Concessive arguments granting some validity to the objection, while providing your countering viewpoint: "While X may be so, it is also true that..." or "Although they reported that..., other studies have shown that..."
- 7. Counterexamples in some fields where good counterexamples can take down a strong claim.
- 8. Contrast and comparison, e.g., your idea (experiment, data, etc.) with others' data or ideas; your experiment versus someone else's; your product with previous products

Keep in mind the following tips.

- 1. Avoid over-summarizing differing or opposing views that would be familiar to the readers.
- 2. Avoid making overly strong counter-arguments that are not convincingly supported by strong evidence or other support otherwise, use more concessive sentences
- 3. Frame the potential objections in subordinate clauses (or other backgrounding structures) when possible, to de-emphasize them in the flow of thought. Contrast markers (*although, though, however, but, while, despite, in contrast, yet, to the contrary*) are commonly used to cite these objections and then answer them, e.g., *Although X has claimed that..., our data show that this is this does not hold when...*
- 4. More detailed summaries of opposing viewpoints may belong in a literature review section of a thesis or major paper.

Writing across different fields

Examine a published academic article from your field, and compare it with other people's articles from other fields. Describe the style and structure of your article according to the following criteria. Then discuss how your paper differs from papers from different fields.

1. Structure and organization

- 1. How is the paper structured? Is there a rigid structure, e.g., literature review, research question, experimental design, methods, results, general discussion, that is typical in the field?
- 2. How are titles, subtitles, and headings used to organize the development of ideas? Are charts, tables, and graphs used, and in which parts of the paper?
- 3. To what degree is it persuasive or argumentative? How much counter-argumentation is used (or at least contrast and comparison of differing ideas, such as the author's ideas versus others)? Where in the paper do arguments and counter-arguments appear?
- 4. How does the author show a clear connection between ideas?
 - What kinds of transitional words (e.g., conjunctions) commonly used?
 - When referring to the same terms or ideas in multiple sentences, do the authors use [1] repetition of key words, [2] synonyms, [3] paraphrases², [4] pronouns (*it, this, that*), or [5] other referring forms (*such, so, this, that, there*, etc.)?
 - How are new topics introduced by means of transitional expressions, or just plainly introducing it with a full noun phrase in a new sentence or paragraph?

2. Style

- 5. **Paragraph styles.** What common paragraph styles commonly occur? For example, do paragraphs make their points by means of contrast, comparison, analytical discussion³, narrative, description, definitions, classification, or discussing examples? What kind of transitional words are common in these paragraphs? Why would such paragraphs be typical for writing in your field?
- 6. Language use. Look at the language forms that are commonly used. Are some of the following forms noticeably more common? If so, where?
 - Which tenses are most frequently used past, present, or future? Simple or progressive tenses (i.e., *-ing* verbs)? Why might such tenses be common?
 - Are any particular verb types frequently used, such as modal verbs (*can, could, shall, should, would, must, may...*), passive verbs, participle phrases, gerunds, or others? If so, why might they be used?

² E.g., "Smith's (1990) claim that..." referred to alter as "this theory," "this proposal," etc.

³ For analytical or theoretical discussions, do the authors rely on deductive or inductive reasoning, or "optimization" logic, e.g., "X is the best explanation"?

3. Source use

- 7. Summarizing / paraphrasing: How much of the contents consist of references to and discussion of other papers? How do the authors incorporate such information into their own discussion? How do authors connect ideas paraphrased / summarized from sources with their own discussion of those ideas?
- 8. How much is devoted to literature review and other discussion of of previous studies in different sections of the paper
- 9. How are sources cited within the paper, and in the bibliography? What is the format, and what kinds of information appear in the citations? In the end references section, in what order do items appear in the citations (author, year, titles, etc.)? To what kind of information does this order give prominence, and why? Are footnotes and/or endnotes used, and if so, what format do they follow, and for what purpose does the writer use them?

4. Types of rhetorical support

- 10. In what way is the author trying to persuade or convince the readers? What is the author trying to convince you about?
- 11. What kinds of support, data or information does the author provide to support the main points quantitative (e.g., statistics, experimental comparisons), qualitative (e.g., descriptive data), or theoretical argumentation?
- 12. What specific kinds of support or evidence are provided?
 - statistical or numerical data
 - experimental data
 - observational data
 - comparison data (e.g., conclusions from statistical comparison of two groups)
 - ethnographic data⁴ based on observation of people such as human social interactions
 - examples
 - anecdotes
 - historical evidence
 - historical narrative, or background

- the authority of other scholars
- legal (forensic) argumentation
- theoretical analysis or discussion
- syllogism (e.g., in philosophy) or other logical argumentation
- mathematical proofs or arguments
- logical inferences
- analogy, metaphor
- more subjective inferences, arguments, impressions, etc.
- summary
- others?

• quotations

Papers that make heavy use of statistical data, experimental data, or statistical analysis of comparative data are typically what we call quantitative research – following strict scientific criteria. Such research is common in science, engineering, and social science fields. Other papers may rely on observational data (including ethnographic data) and the researcher's own interpretation of the data. This is qualitative research, which is common in humanities and social science fields. What kinds are prevalent in your field, particularly in its academic writing? Why would these be preferred?

^{4 &#}x27;Ethno-' means people, from Greek; here it can refer to observing and recording data ('-graphic') about individuals or several people, e.g., when an anthropologist observes people in their daily lives and social interactions.