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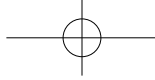
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Unit 1

This unit will give you practice in:

1. having a general idea of the category and structure of academic articles;
2. having a general idea of the Title of academic articles;
3. trying to determine the main idea of an article through the Title;
4. trying to understand the main idea of a section through the headings;
5. writing an appropriate Title for academic articles;
6. familiarizing yourself with the general linguistic features of academic English.

Part I

Introduction to the component parts of academic articles

Section I A brief introduction to academic articles

Categories of academic articles

Academic articles are professional works usually published in academic journals. They may contain original research results or review existing research results. An academic article typically belongs to a particular category such as research article and review article.

A research article analyzes a perspective or argues a point, and it presents the author's own interpretation, evaluation or argument backed up by others' ideas and information, more than the sum of sources, or a collection of different pieces of information about a topic. This type of article asks a research question or states a hypothesis, describes a specific research method, demonstrates and discusses the results, and may finally draw a conclusion. A review article analyzes or discusses researches previously published by others, rather than reports new experimental results. Review articles are sometimes called survey/overview articles, which mainly concern recent major advances and discoveries, significant gaps in the research, current debates, and possible future research.



Structure of academic articles

English research articles typically have a standard structure to follow, which is mostly composed of Title, Abstract, Keywords, Introduction, Methods, Results, Discussion, and References, although sometimes there are variations on this basic format. For example, you will not find Acknowledgements in the reading text of Unit 5, and there is a Conclusions section in the reading text of Unit 2.

In any case, it is helpful to understand the way a research article is organized before gaining information effectively from it.

Section II The Title

All articles begin with a Title, which is designed to stimulate readers' interest and inform them what the paper is about. Therefore it is sensible to study it carefully before proceeding to read the article.

Generally speaking, you may come across Titles in four different grammatical constructions:

1. Declarative-sentence construction (the Title is made up of a declarative sentence, for example "Learning induces a CDC2-related protein kinase")
2. Nominal group construction (the Title is made up of nominal phrases, for example "Acute liver failure caused by diffuse hepatic melanoma infiltration")
3. Compound construction (the Title is divided into two parts or halves, mainly by colons, for example "Romanian nominalizations: Case and aspectual structure")
4. Question (the Title is made up of an interrogative sentence, for example "Does the Flynn Effect affect IQ scores of students classified as learning-disabled?")

Constructing a good Title for an academic paper is not an easy job. As an important element of a paper that could initially leave readers with a first impression upon the paper, Titles should be carefully thought-out and well designed. The most prominent function of academic Titles is to inform readers as clearly as possible of the major issue under discussion in the paper and attract



their attention or interest as well. Therefore, Titles to be designed should be concise in form but concrete in content. Generally speaking, there are three major principles to be followed in designing article Titles.

a. Conciseness

The limit to the number of words in Titles is always 20. However, it is inappropriate to decrease purposefully the number of words in Titles, which may possibly lead to the failure of conveying or reflecting the major content of the papers. Titles that are too long or too short are inappropriate for academic papers, though there is a growing tendency that Titles in academic journals are becoming longer than before. Authors need to notice that in many cases, long Titles might contain “waste” words, which usually appear at the beginning of a Title. Typical examples are “Studies on...” and “Investigations into...”. Whenever there exists a collision between making a Title concise and making it concrete, it is advisable to give priority to the latter so that the content of the paper can be better reflected.

b. Markedness

Although a Title is what first comes into view by occupying the most prominent place in an article, it is not necessarily marked enough. Depending on the nature, topic or content of an article, authors could write Titles that are serious & formal or attractive & eye-catching or lively & interesting, varying in different aspects. An important principle is that Titles need to be as innovative as possible, but such innovation should be done in compliance with its full representativeness of the major content of the article. Without such representativeness, any Title, no matter how innovative it is, should be immediately abandoned.

c. Precision and appropriateness

Precision and appropriateness in the first place refer to grammatical considerations, which absolutely is the basic requirement. Besides, Titles need to be clearly written so as to avoid any ambiguity. To achieve this, authors should pay great attention to the wording of a Title. This process might take some time, but it is well worth doing as this will give readers a better idea of what the article is about. Moreover, Titles are expected to be written in a way that is convenient for retrieval. A good Title could help authors determine the Keywords of the article in that most Keywords might have been included in the Title itself. In addition, an appropriate Title is not supposed to contain abbreviations, proprietary names, jargon or terminology that are not commonly used. Appropriateness also lies in the format, or, to be specific, capitalization



of Titles. As is known, words could be divided into notional words and functional words. Most journals require that in Titles the initial letters of all the notional words are capitalized while all the other words are written in lower case except the first letter of the first word.

Here are two examples to illustrate what should be paid attention to when designing Titles for academic papers.

1. Parental style and academic achievement
2. Do differences in parental styles affect the academic achievement of undergraduate students?

The first Title includes two nominal phrases, and there is no denying that readers, upon reading it, are still not clear about what the paper intends to discuss. In contrast, the second Title, in the form of an interrogative sentence, puts forward directly the relationship between parental styles and students' academic achievement. What's more, the students here are confined to undergraduates, which makes the research topic narrow enough for an academic paper.

Many people tend to read only the Titles when searching for papers, and only a few people, if any, will read a whole paper. Taking this into account, we, as potential academic authors, should design Titles with great care, making sure the wording is appropriate.



Exercises

1 ▶

Read the following Titles, decide the grammatical constructions, translate them into Chinese, and then answer the questions that follow.

1 The relationship of happiness, impulse buying and brand loyalty

Grammatical construction: _____

Translation: _____

Questions:

1. When do people buy on impulse?

2. Are people often loyal to certain brands?

3. What are your assumptions concerning the relationship between happiness, impulse buying and brand loyalty?

2 Chocolate intake is associated with better cognitive function

Grammatical construction: _____

Translation: _____

Questions:

1. What positive effects do you think chocolate intake may have on people either physically or mentally?

2. What aspects of cognitive performance may be affected by chocolate intake?



3 Does the Flynn Effect affect IQ scores of students classified as learning-disabled?

Grammatical construction: _____

Translation: _____

Questions:

1. What learning disabilities do some students have?

2. What factors do you think could affect IQ scores of students with learning disability?

3. Try to find out what the Flynn Effect is on the Internet.

4 Subhealth: Definition, criteria for diagnosis and potential prevalence in the central region of China

Grammatical construction: _____

Translation: _____

Questions:

1. What do you know about subhealth?

2. What do you think may be the criteria for diagnosis of subhealth?

3. How serious is the problem of subhealth among the people you know?

5 Psychological aspects of intellectual protection

Grammatical construction: _____

Translation: _____



Questions:

1. What is intellectual protection?

2. What are the major factors stimulating people to use unlicensed products?

6 Active versus receptive group music therapy for major depressive disorder—A pilot study

Grammatical construction: _____

Translation: _____

Questions:

1. What do you know about music therapy?

2. What do you know about major depressive disorder?

7 How do tests and summary writing tasks enhance long-term retention of students with different levels of test anxiety?

Grammatical construction: _____

Translation: _____

Questions:

1. What effects do you think tests may have on students' learning outcomes?

2. What effects do you think summary writing tasks may have on students' learning outcomes?

3. Which do you think is more likely to trigger students' anxiety, tests or summary writing tasks?



8 Media device ownership and media use: Associations with sedentary time, physical activity and fitness in English youth

Grammatical construction: _____

Translation: _____

Questions:

1. What is the relationship between media device ownership and sedentary time?

2. What is the relationship between media device ownership and physical activity?

3. What is the relationship between media device ownership and fitness?

2

Read the following Abstract of an academic paper and choose the most appropriate Title for the paper through discussion with your partner.



This study examined the effect of celebrity smoking exemplars in health news on college students' perceptions of smoking-related health risks and smoking intentions. The data were collected using a Web-based survey of 219 undergraduate students at a large midwestern university in March 2011. Separate analyses of covariance were conducted. The influence of negative exemplars of celebrity smoking on perceptions of smoking-related health risks and smoking intentions varied according to smoking status. Ever-smokers who read smoking news with negative exemplars of celebrity smoking were more likely than ever-smokers who read the same news absent any exemplar to report higher levels of perceptions of smoking-related health risks and lower levels of smoking intentions. However, these patterns were not found in never-smokers. Exemplification theory enhanced by the celebrity element may be effectively applied as a strategy to change health behavior in college students.



- A. Solutions to the problem of college students' smoking
- B. Exploration of factors contributing to college students' smoking
- C. The influence of celebrity exemplars on college students' smoking
- D. The relationship between celebrity exemplars and college students' smoking

3▶

Read the following Abstract and produce a Title that you think is the most appropriate.

○ ○ ○

This paper presents the results of a comparative investigation into the learning styles and strategies of effective and ineffective language learners. Subjects for the study were 110 undergraduate students in Hong Kong, China. They were categorized as "more effective" or "less effective" learners, on the basis of their scores on a standardized public English examination administered at the end of secondary school. Subjects completed an online questionnaire through which data were collected on their learning strategy preferences as well as patterns of language practice and use. The study revealed key differences in learning strategy preferences, learning styles and patterns of language use. Implications of the study are presented and discussed.

Your Title: _____



Section III The headings

A heading or subheading is a title given to one of the parts or divisions of a piece of writing. As an academic article is usually long and complex, most sections of an article are usually comprised of several subsections with their own headings or subheadings which indicate the main idea of the subsections respectively.

Exercises

1▶

Read the subheadings following the Title of an article, translate them into Chinese and then match them with the paragraphs marked 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6.

Article Title: Exploring well-being as a tourism product resource

Subsection headings:

Networks

Translation: _____

Infrastructure

Translation: _____

Finances

Translation: _____

Brand

Translation: _____

Market trends

Translation: _____

Perception (of wellness tourism by stakeholders)

Translation: _____



¹All stakeholders agreed that wellness tourism (or tourism focused on enhancing well-being) is a very broad concept and each individual and business defines and interprets well-being and wellness differently. The general consensus was that tourism associated with well-being is often perceived as elite so needs to be better defined for business owners and clients.

Just as individuals have different perceptions of well-being/wellness; these diverse views are also prevalent within society. Stakeholders felt that sometimes the preferences of family members may result in varying degrees of participation or even lack of engagement by individuals in well-being activities. Different ideas about well-being within the family could present a challenge for businesses when attempting to engage partners and children during their holiday.

²Stakeholders feel there are many great opportunities taking place right on their doorstep but little is being done to brand this and get the message out to consumers. Stakeholders recognized that their present location doesn't have a brand and therefore is currently not promoted in terms of a well-being or wellness destination. Additionally, stakeholders believe it is difficult to change the perception of consumers from a destination not currently associated with well-being or wellness to a destination now promoting this aspect of tourism. The general consensus was that a rebranding of mixed messages needs to be addressed.

³A common theme identified by businesses in the tourism sector was that there is no community collaborative effort on tourism and well-being initiatives. It was agreed that discovering motivated organizations to connect and work collectively with is difficult. Political members' response to networks was equally negative, suggesting that businesses often have a tendency to stay in their own "box" because if they push their boundaries there are high costs involved and a risk of potential failure.

⁴Stakeholders were passionate about tourism focused on enhancing well-being but unfortunately the availability and accessibility of finances were an issue. As mentioned previously, activity/wellness providers are often small businesses and sometimes their financial situation does not allow them to establish the well-being/wellness product offering. Stakeholders were concerned and recognized that even if they currently provide a well-being product, businesses may not have the finances to properly market it. The costs associated with the promotion of activities focused on enhancing an



individual's well-being can be substantial, especially for small business owners working with limited budgets.

⁵Stakeholders felt the rise in domestic travel was deemed an important topic for tourism bodies and in particular for business operators within the industry. To elaborate, it was discussed that as staycations become increasingly popular, destination offerings close to home become very important for the visitor economy. Stakeholders admitted they were concerned with their inability in providing individuals with a wellness enhancing holiday in a short period of time. Stakeholders viewed staycations and shorter holidays as an increasing trend in the UK and this was seen as a barrier when promoting well-being to consumers.

⁶Another factor under discussion among stakeholders was around the topic of infrastructure. Comments were pessimistic; as businesses indicated that infrastructure (especially in rural areas) to support well-being initiatives was poor and therefore viewed as a barrier. Bus services and safe cycleways were considered inadequate and/or not supporting individuals, partners and families looking to engage in well-being activities while on holiday.

Finding an appropriate location (even to rent) for activities focused on well-being was also discussed. Most stakeholders want to provide more health and well-being initiatives but the availability of space is often problematic.



2▶

Read the subheadings following the Title of an article, translate them into Chinese and then match them with the paragraphs marked 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7.

Article Title: The learning styles and strategies of effective language learners

Subsection headings:

Differences between the individual learning strategy preferences of more effective and less effective learners

Translation: _____

Differences in perception of the importance of English between more effective and less effective learners

Translation: _____

Differences in the area of academic specialization between more effective and less effective language learners

Translation: _____

Differences between the overall learning style of more effective and less effective learners

Translation: _____

Differences in enjoyment of learning English between more effective and less effective learners

Translation: _____

Differences in self-rating of language ability between more effective and less effective learners

Translation: _____

Difference in the amount of time spent between more effective and less effective learners on practicing English outside of class

Translation: _____



¹From Table 1, it can be seen that the dominant style for more effective students was “communicative” with over 50% of the students taking part in the survey being assigned to this style. This was followed by “analytical” and then “authority-oriented”. The less effective students were split between authority-oriented and communicative, with the authority-oriented students just edging out the communicative learners. (Note that the number of subjects reported in Table 1 is fewer than 110 because some subjects were “hybrids”, receiving the equal scores for two of the styles. These were removed for the purpose of analysis.)

A chi-square analysis yielded the following results: d.f.: 3; chi-square=11.986; $p<0.01$. According to these statistics, the more and less effective students differ significantly in their overall learning styles, although it should be noted that all styles were represented in both the more and less effective groups.

²Not surprisingly, given the fact that styles are derived from strategy preferences, there were differences between the most preferred strategies of the effective and ineffective learners. The five most popular strategies of more effective learners were:

1. “I like to learn by watching/listening to native speakers.”
2. “I like to learn English words by seeing them.”
3. “At home, I like to learn by watching TV in English.”
4. “In class, I like to learn by conversation.”
5. “I like to learn many new words.”

The five most popular strategies of less effective learners were:

1. “I like the teacher to tell me all my mistakes.”
2. “I like to learn English words by seeing them.”
3. “I like the teacher to help me talk about my interests.”
4. “I like to have my own textbook.”
5. “I like to learn new English words by doing something.”

As already indicated, the specific strategy preferences favored by the more effective students reflected their “communicative” orientation. Similarly, the authority-orientation of less effective students is reflected in their apparent dependence on the teacher and the textbook.



A chi-square analysis revealed significant differences between more and less effective students on nine of the 30 items on the questionnaire. They were as follows:

Item 6. In English class, I like to learn by reading.

Item 13. I like the teacher to explain everything to us.

Item 18. I like to study English by myself (alone).

Item 24. I like to learn many new words.

Item 29. At home, I like to learn by reading newspapers, etc.

Item 30. At home, I like to learn by watching TV in English.

Item 33. I like to learn by talking to friends in English.

Item 34. I like to learn by watching, listening to native speakers.

Item 35. I like to learn by using English outside class in stores etc.

Scores were significantly higher on all of these items for the more effective students, except for item 13 “I like the teacher to explain everything to us”. On this item, it was the less effective students whose scores were significantly higher.

³This question also elicited markedly different responses from learners at different proficiency levels. Forty percent of more effective learners reported spending between 1 and 5 h a week on English out of class. Twenty-nine percent spent more than 10 h a week on English out of class. In contrast, no less effective learners spent more than 10 h a week out of class, and 70 percent spent less than an hour a week on English out of class. These data indicate that more effective learners have a much greater propensity for self-direction, independent learning and autonomy than less effective students. Of course the question that this study is not able to address is the direction of the influence. Do more effective students spend more time on English out of class because they are good at it, or are they good at it because they spend more time practicing and using it out of class?

These responses are reported in Table 2.

A chi-square analysis yielded the following results: d.f.: 3; chi-square=31.015; p is less than or equal to 0.001. According to these statistics, the difference between the more and less effective students in terms of their out of class usage was highly significant.



⁴It will probably come as no surprise to readers teaching at the tertiary level that more effective students tended to belong to either the Arts, Law or Medical faculties, while the majority of less effective students were drawn from the faculties of Engineering and Science.

⁵This was the one area where both more and less effective students converged. Virtually all of the students (97%) agreed that English was either “very” or “extremely” important. The raw data are presented in Table 3.

Not surprisingly, a chi-square analysis revealed that the differences were not significant.

⁶This question was probed with a five-level general language proficiency rating scale and the results were correlated against their “Use of English” scores. Both groups appeared to be able to give accurate ratings of their language ability. Fifty-six percent of the more effective students identified the two highest level statements as describing them, while only six percent of less effective students selected these statements.

⁷The aspect of enjoyment of learning English also revealed a significant difference between more and less effective students. Seventy-eight percent of more effective but only 27 percent of less effective students reported enjoying English a great deal. On the other hand, 24 percent of less effective students reported that they did not like learning English at all.



Part II

Understanding a full-length article

Pre-reading task

Before reading the text, consider the following questions.

1. What impact does happiness have on impulse buying?
2. What impact does happiness have on brand loyalty?
3. What impact does brand loyalty have on impulse buying?

The relationship of happiness, impulse buying and brand loyalty

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Abstract

The concept of happiness has been extensively studied in psychology but has received limited attention in the marketing field as the antecedent of the consumer behaviour aspects such as impulse buying and brand loyalty. This research considers the effect of happiness on impulse buying and brand loyalty and examines how brand loyalty affects impulse buying. The regression analysis was used to assess the assumed effects. The assumption of the existence of the relationship between happiness, impulsive buying and brand loyalty was not supported, revealing that this phenomenon still requires further scientific attention. Contrary to the predictions the brand loyalty was positively related to the affective aspect of impulsive buying tendency. This study contributes to the understanding of the reasons for the brand loyalty and impulse buying, where the latter is associated with negative outcomes with respect to the individual.

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Keywords

happiness, subjective well-being, life satisfaction, impulse buying, brand loyalty, impulsive buying tendency

1. Introduction

Due to today's economic uncertainty and excess consumption, such aspects as corporate social responsibility, public well-being and, especially, the happiness of an individual become of particular importance. Happiness or subjective well-being is associated with a preferable person's behaviour in the society. However, the results of research completed imply that those members of society who are prone to increase consumption are less happy (Podoshen, Andrzejewski, & Hunt, 2014). These tendencies lead to challenges and induce a search for new, more socially responsible marketing solutions among the companies which traditionally were oriented to short-term goals, and were seeking for as bigger as possible consumption irrespective of negative social outcomes, such as reduced happiness and subjective well-being. Happiness, subjective well-being or life satisfaction recently becomes an object of interest among scientists who work in different fields. However, there have been no comprehensive studies intended to find out how life satisfaction is related to consumer buying behaviour and attitude towards a brand (Lysonski, 2014). Silvera, Lavack & Kropp (2008) note that subjective well-being has been widely analyzed in psychological research. However, there are relatively few studies of subjective well-being performed in the field of marketing. Big attention is being paid to relation between materialism and impulse buying in the literature (Roberts, Manolis & Tanner, 2003; Dittmar, 2005). However, there is a lack of research intended to reveal how consumer happiness or subjective well-being influences impulse buying and brand loyalty. Research shows that consumers' inclination towards materialism negatively influences various facets of life satisfaction (Kashdan & Breen, 2007; Burroughs & Rindfleisch, 2002), concluding that materialists are less happy and less satisfied with life (Belk, 1985; Richins & Dawson, 1992; Roberts & Clement, 2007; Ryan & Dziurawiec, 2001; Christopher, Saliba, & Deadmarsh, 2009; Richins, 2013; Segal & Podoshen, 2013; Tsang et al., 2014). Previously mentioned association implies that less happy consumers are likely to be more prone to impulsive buying behaviour. Such assumption is also reinforced by research results which reveal the fact that impulse buying can function as a mechanism that allows avoidance of negative psychological state (Silvera et al., 2008; Verplanken, Herabadi, Perry, & Silvera, 2005). Materialists are prone to constant adjustment of their unreasonably high material aspirations by raising personal standards each time higher. They perceive material acquisitions as natural phenomena as soon as material needs are met (Podoshen & Andrzejewski, 2012). Since acquisition of material goods does not meet expectations because it is not characterized by long-term effect, this finally leads to reduced positive emotions or even dissatisfaction with



life in general (Segal & Podoshen, 2013; Tsang et al., 2014). To sustain positive emotions, these consumers are prone to new acquisitions that are perceived as a potential source of positive emotions. Consumers of materially oriented society in order to sustain a state of happiness will very likely buy such goods which, as they suppose, make them happy and will avoid experimentation in order to prevent disappointment and possible state of unhappiness that arises from a risk of change of brand (Podoshen & Andrzejewski, 2012).

Consumers who see happiness as the most important factor will not be prone to switching brands. It is stated in the literature of relationship marketing that as bigger perceived risk will arise in connection with making of future decisions, as more consumers are prone to reduce options and to become loyal to a particular brand (Sheth & Parvatiyar, 1995). According to Troisi, Christopher, & Marek (2006), it is very likely that materialists (who on the basis of research results are characterized as less happy) do not wish variety of acquisitions. On the basis of arguments expressed, the authors of this paper presuppose that the happiness of consumers should have a negative impact on brand loyalty.

This paper examines the relationship between consumer happiness, impulse buying and brand loyalty. Our study contributes to consumer behaviour field by investigating the link between consumer happiness, impulse buying and brand loyalty that have been given relatively little attention in the scientific literature.

1. Hypotheses development

1.1. Happiness and impulse buying

Subjective well-being (or happiness) is a multifaceted construct consisting of positive affect (relatively many positive emotions), lack of negative affect (relatively few unpleasant emotions) and life satisfaction judgments (Diener, Lucas, & Oishi, 2002; Hofmann, Luhmann, Fisher, Vohs, & Baumeister, 2014; Hudders & Pandelaere, 2012). Subjective well-being refers to hedonic pleasure or happiness (Chen, Yao, & Yan, 2014). In this study, subjective well-being (hereinafter happiness) is defined as the individual's global judgment of life satisfaction.

Impulse buying is defined as relatively extraordinary and exciting consumer experience that is characterized by “sudden, often powerful and persistent urge to buy something immediately” (Rook, 1987). Similarly Beatty & Ferrell (1998) explain impulse buying as the spontaneous, sudden and immediate urge to buy without pre-purchase intentions and deliberations. According to Sharma, Sivakumaran, & Marshall (2010), in this hedonically complex buying behaviour, the



rapidity of the impulse buying decisions prevents any conscious consideration of alternatives or future consequences. In addition, these authors also note that it is emotionally driven and cognitively intractable consumer behaviour which manifests itself in an irresistible desire to make a purchase in the presence of an appealing object. Therefore authors (Zhang & Shrum, 2009; Punj, 2011) assume it being the result of the internal conflict between the pleasure-seeking consumption and the self-control to resist the impulse, which translates into increased impulse buying when the desire to consume prevails over the willpower to resist.

According to Silvera et al. (2008) impulse buying might serve as an escape from negative psychological states. Verplanken et al. (2005) found that general impulse buying tendency was correlated with long-term negative mood and low self-esteem. Moreover, Sneath, Lacey, & Kennett-Hensel (2009) suggested that consumers under difficult circumstances are prone to actively make purchases that are perceived as a self-gift or reward. Therefore, the mentioned authors conclude that impulse buying could be a rational response of buyers striving to reduce the disappointment and depression associated with stressful events. The consumer propensity for impulse buying is supposed to be induced by the belief that it is usually accompanied by a positive emotional change (Amos, Holmes, & Keneson, 2014) and may be invoked to alleviate distress (Sneath et al., 2009). In addition, research demonstrates that materialistic consumers (who tend to be less happy) show higher inclination towards impulse buying (Badgaiyan & Verma, 2014). Given that, we hypothesize that:

H1: *Happiness has an adverse impact on impulse buying.*

1.2. Happiness and brand loyalty

Brand loyalty is defined as a deep commitment to buy the preferred brand repeatedly and continuously in the future despite the influences of situational factors and the marketing efforts to switch to another brand (Oliver, 1999). Exhibiting a degree of attachment (Podoshen & Andrzejewski, 2012), brand loyalty is a result of the interplay between the behavioral and attitudinal loyalty (Kuikka & Laukkanen, 2012). Attitudinal loyalty reflects the consumers' psychological disposition in terms of unique values associated with the brand (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001) and is a result of brand commitment and favorable attitude towards the brand (Odin, Odin, & Valette-Florence, 2001). Strong emotional attachment to the brand is assumed to be the strong predictor of loyalty (Dunn & Hoegg, 2014). Behavioral loyalty is described as repeat purchase behavior and the percentage of total purchases (Chiu et al., 2013).

Except few studies (Silvera et al., 2008; Chiu et al., 2013), the relationship between happiness and brand loyalty has received scarce attention. As suggested by Kukar-Kinney, Ridgway, & Monroe



(2012), the focus on well-known and higher priced brands is induced by the need of recognition that they provide better feeling and boost buyer's self-esteem. Consumers engage in materialistic consumption implicitly believing it may increase their self-esteem (Shrum et al., 2014). Other authors (Rindfleisch, Burroughs, & Wong, 2009) found that materialistic consumers (who are less happy) establish a strong connection with their brands as they are in need of the symbolic security that brand connections may provide. Albeit based on the different explanations of the prevailing psychological mechanism, the presupposed negative relationship is also evident in the research of other authors: Dunn and Hoegg (2014) found that fear may cause consumers to form attachment with brands. Thus, it is proposed that:

H2: *Happiness has an adverse impact on brand loyalty.*

1.3. Brand loyalty and impulse buying

Impulse buying and compulsive buying are classified as being qualitatively distinct albeit they have similarities in outcomes (Flight, 2012; Kwak et al., 2006) and both are determined by the same factors, such as materialism and identity concerns (Verplanken & Sato, 2011). Some authors (Thompson & Prendergast, 2015; d'Astous, 1990; Clark & Calleja, 2008) consider impulse buying as a milder manifestation of compulsive buying, where impulse purchase represents the initial stage and compulsive buying occurs on the upper extreme of the same behavioural continuum. The current research adopts this conceptualization suggesting that the two differ primarily in the strength of the behaviour. Compulsive buyers experience a lower degree of brand attachment due to their variety-seeking nature while non-compulsive buyers trust their favourite brand and perceive buying other brands as riskier (Horváth & Birgelen, 2015). As Punj (2011) states, the variety seeking in the literature is accompanied by such concepts as "satiation, boredom, curiosity, novelty, change and stimulation" that seem to conceptually overlap with impulse buying behaviour. Similarly Sharma et al. (2010) state that both variety seeking and impulse buying provide consumers with excitement and novelty in their purchase experiences, and offer a change of pace and relief from boredom. Assuming that brand loyal consumers do not desire variety we propose that:

H3: *Brand loyalty has an adverse impact on impulse buying.*

2. Method

Sampling. The research is exploratory in its nature. To test the hypothesis we conducted the survey of Lithuanian consumers using the convenience sampling method. Survey data were gathered via two methods. Questionnaires were distributed to university and college students (mainly in



Kaunas) and simultaneously were placed online (www.apklausos.lt). In total 313 questionnaires were collected from 23rd of March 2015 till 13th of April 2015. The 311 questionnaires were considered valid after the incomplete and faulty questionnaires were excluded. There were 207 females (66.6%) and 104 males (33.4%) in the sample. The vast majority of the respondents belong to the age group of 18 to 24 years (50.8%) and of 25 to 35 years (25.1%). Slightly more than half of respondents (51.8%) are still studying at university or college. 49.2% of respondents fall into the low-income categories (under €300 and €301-400). However, 12.2% of respondents place themselves to the relatively high-income group (over €901). The independent-samples *t*-tests were performed to compare the dependent variables scores (impulse buying tendency total, subscales, and brand loyalty) for gender, education, age and income variables. Prior to this procedure, we reduced the number of categories of categorical variables. A significant difference was detected only in case of gender. There was a significant difference in impulse buying tendency scores for males ($M=2.99$, $SD=0.73$) and females, $M=3.38$, $SD=0.78$; $t(309)=-4.18$, $p=0.00$ (two-tailed), BCa 95%CI [-0.559, 0.21055]. Also significant differences in affective impulse buying scores for males ($M=3.06$, $SD=0.87$) and females, $M=3.596$, $SD=0.90$; $t(309)=-5.07$, $p=0.00$ (two-tailed), BCa 95%CI [-0.754, -0.33].

Measurement instrument. To measure the brand loyalty, impulse buying tendency and happiness we adopted previously established and validated scales within this study. The respondents were asked to rate the extent to which they agree with each item on a 7-point scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to agree strongly (7). We operationalized brand loyalty using the three item scale of Ailawadi, Neslin and Gedek (2001). To measure the impulsive buying tendency we used the 20 item scale developed by Verplanken and Herabadi (2001). The impulsive buying tendency is treated as the higher order construct including cognitive and affective aspect. To capture the happiness we employed the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Pavot, Diener, Colvin & Sandvik, 1991), which consists of five items. Cronbach alpha coefficients for all scales are considered acceptable (Table 1).

3. Results

Contrary to the hypotheses the Satisfaction with Life Scale is unrelated to brand loyalty, the total scale of impulsive buying tendency, the cognitive subscale of impulsive buying tendency, and affective subscale of impulsive buying tendency (Table 1). However, brand loyalty is positively related to the total scale of impulsive buying tendency ($r=0.116$, $p<0.05$) and the subscale of the affective aspect ($r=0.171$, $p<0.01$).



Table 1. The correlation matrix, descriptive statistics and reliability of scales

	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	SD	Cronbach α
1. Brand loyalty	1					3.99	1.29	0.75
2. Impulsive buying tendency	.116*	1				3.25	0.78	0.85
3. Impulsive cognitive	.036	.882**	1			3.10	0.87	0.81
4. Impulsive affective	.171**	.871**	.537**	1		3.42	0.93	0.77
5. Happiness	.051	-.073	-.073	-.055	1	4.70 (23.51)	1.08 (5.42)	0.845

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). **. Correlation is significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed). n=311. SD—standard deviation. In parenthesis—mean and SD of the total score for Satisfaction with Life

For further analysis only significantly correlated constructs were included into regression models. Utilizing SPSS20 we carried out multiple regressions to assess the ability of brand loyalty to predict the impulsive buying tendency (total scale and affective subscale). We also included gender variables into the models based on the findings of a preliminary analysis that revealed statistically significant differences in impulsive buying tendency scores. We used robust methods such as bootstrapping that does not rely on the assumption of normality or homoscedasticity. The results are shown in Table 2.

The first part of Table 2 presents results of a regression of impulsive buying tendency (Model 1) predicted by brand loyalty and gender. The Model 1 explains 7% ($R^2=0.07$, $p<0.001$) of the variance in impulse buying tendency. Both brand loyalty ($b=0.068$ [-0.004, 0.14], $p=0.067$) (balancing on the threshold of statistical significance) and gender ($b=0.38$ [0.21, 0.55], $p<0.001$) significantly predicts impulsive buying tendency (total). As the brand loyalty increases, the inclination to impulsive buying also increases. Females who are coded one unit higher relative to males are higher on average in impulsive buying. The results of the regression Model 2 ($R^2=0.1$, $p<0.001$) show similar tendencies.

Table 2. Regression models of predictors of impulsive buying tendency

Predictors	Model 1. D.V.: impulsive buying tendency (total)				Model 2. D.V.: affective aspect of impulsive buying tendency			
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	2.73, [2.40, 3.06]	0.17	17.9	0.000***	2.587, [2.242, 2.95]	0.18	2.2	0.000***
Brand loyalty	0.068, [-0.004, 0.14]	0.04	2.01	0.069+	0.119, [0.037, 0.199]	0.04	0.00	0.004**
Gender	0.38, [0.21, 0.55]	0.09	4.15	0.000***	0.535, [0.324, 0.733]	0.1	0.3	0.000***
Model characteristics: $R^2=0.07$, $p=0.000$, n=311					Model characteristics: $R^2=0.10$, $p=0.000$, n=311			

+ $p<0.1$, *** $p<0.001$, ** $p<0.01$, Bca 95%CI are based on 10,000 bootstrap samples



Both brand loyalty ($b=0.119, p=0.004$) and gender ($b=0.535, p<0.001$) significantly predict affective impulsive buying tendency. However, these relationships are not in the predicted direction.

Acknowledgements

The current findings are in contrary to our predictions. However, they can be explained employing the same rationale lying behind the inclination towards impulse buying. As suggested by Kukar-Kinney et al. (2012), compulsive buyers focus their purchase on well-known and higher priced brands because they provide recognition, enable to feel better and boost buyer's self-esteem. As found in the literature the similar motivation can be applied to impulse buying that is related to the aspiration to elevate the negative mood and escape from the undesirable psychological state. The exploratory nature of the present study limits the scope of the results. Our sample was obtained only from young adult population so generalization beyond this group should be made with caution. Low percentage of variance explained of the impulsive buying tendency construct suggests the existence of other determinants that may contribute to the explanation of the variance of the impulsive buying tendency.

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Glossary

- acquisition** *n.* 获得, 取得
- affective subscale** 情感量表
- albeit** *conj.* 尽管, 即使
- antecedent** *n.* 前例, 前事
- attitudinal loyalty** 态度忠诚度
- behavioural continuum** 行为连续体
- behavioural loyalty** 行为忠诚度
- brand commitment** 品牌认同
- brand loyalty** 品牌忠诚
- cognitive subscale** 认知分量表
- compulsive buying** 强迫性购物
- conceptualization** *n.* 概念
- corporate social responsibility** 企业社会责任
- correlation matrix** 相关系数矩阵
- Cronbach alpha coefficient** 克隆巴赫 (信度) 系数
- descriptive statistics** 描述统计学
- facet** *n.* (问题等的) 一个方面
- hereinafter** *adv.* 在下文中
- identity concern** 身份忧虑
- impulse buying** 冲动购物
- inclination** *n.* 倾向, 意向
- interplay** *n.* 相互影响, 相互作用
- life satisfaction** 生活满意度
- Lithuanian** *adj.* 立陶宛的
- marketing** *n.* 营销, 销售
- materialism** *n.* 实利主义, 物质主义
- mean** *n.* 平均数
- outcome** *n.* 结果, 后果
- preferable** *adj.* 更好的, 更可取的
- propensity** *n.* 倾向, 习性
- psychological disposition** 心理倾向
- qualitatively** *adv.* 定性地, 在质的方面
- regression analysis** 回归分析
- reinforce** *v.* 强化, 进一步证实
- reliability** *n.* 可靠度
- satiation** *n.* 满足, 饱和
- simultaneously** *adv.* 同时地, 同步地
- subjective well-being** 主观幸福感
- switch** *v.* 改变, 转变
- threshold** *n.* 阈值, 临界值
- two-tailed** *adj.* (统计学上显著性检验) 双尾的
- variable** *n.* 变量, 可变因素
- variety-seeking** *adj.* 寻求多样化的

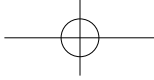


Exercises

- 1▶ Read through the text to get a general idea about the content and then answer the following questions.
1. What are the major factors influencing customer purchasing behavior?
 2. What kind of people tend to buy on impulse?
 3. What kind of people tend to be loyal to a certain brand?
 4. What methods are adopted to conduct the research?
 5. What findings of the research are inconsistent with those of the previous assumptions?

- 2▶ Fill in the following blanks according to the article.

Hypotheses	Emotional factors	Characteristics
Happiness has an adverse impact on impulse buying.	_____ _____ _____	_____ _____ _____
Happiness has an adverse impact on brand loyalty.	_____ _____ _____	_____ _____ _____
Brand loyalty has an adverse impact on impulse buying.	_____ _____ _____	_____ _____ _____



3▶

Summarize information from the text.

1. Write a one-sentence summary of the Results of the research.

2. Write a one-paragraph summary of the Introduction of the research in no more than 100 words.



Part III

The language in academic articles

1. Linguistic features of academic English

The diction of the English language in academic articles is by no means the same as that in other ordinary essays appearing in newspapers or magazines. The former aims at, through introduction to and analysis of the results of an experiment, persuading readers to acknowledge and accept certain opinions or arguments, thus requiring special organization of the language used. As a result, the English language used in academic articles presents features that are unique enough to establish its own style. The following are some typical linguistic features of academic English.

a. Preference for noun phrases

Authors of English academic articles prefer to transform verbs or adjectives into nouns or noun phrases. For instance:

If you integrate theory and practice, you will...

Integration of theory and practice enables you to...

It is obvious, from the above example, that the two sentences express the same meaning, but their structures are entirely different. The first sentence consists of two clauses (the predicate of the former one is “integrate”), while the second adopts the noun form of “integrate” and conveys the meaning in a simple sentence.

Academic articles typically report the results of experiments conducted, in other words, a significant task of academic articles is to report facts. Nouns can in many cases meet such a requirement. Another reason for the popularity of nouns is that language in academic articles needs to be as succinct as possible, and nouns and noun phrases can often communicate more with few words. Here are another two examples:

Another illustration of the theoretical basis of the experiment is...

The inclusion of other factors contributing to the phenomenon makes...

b. Use of long sentences

In academic articles, long sentences enable authors to make what they write as serious and solemn as possible, which is mainly achieved by complicated structures of the language. Such long sentences cover much more information than simple ones and seem more concise. Subordinate



clauses, absolute phrases, etc. are common and prevailing devices adopted to lengthen sentences. The following is a typical example:

There was a concern, though, that self-selection, a distinct element of the content-linked ESL program initially in place from Spring 1995 to Spring 1998 when enrollment in the program was by choice rather than by mandate, may account for the superior performance of the content-linked group since a majority of its subjects were from that period.

The basic structure of the sentence is “There was a concern”, while the rest are all elements of the whole sentence attached to the basic structure.

c. Use of premodification

Similar to abbreviations, premodification (putting modifiers before nouns) adopted in academic articles also enables authors to make their articles more concise and succinct. The reason is that premodification can make information highly condensed. Typical examples are:

classroom-based research

end-of-semester assignments

a recently developed food preservation process

Without premodification, the above three examples could have been written as “research that is based on classroom”, “assignments that should be finished at the end of the semester” and “a process that has recently been developed for food preservation” respectively.

d. The active voice vs. the passive voice

Researchers used to prefer the passive voice to the active voice in their papers, believing that the passive emphasizes the action itself rather than the person who performed the action and seems, therefore, more objective. In recent years, however, authors are encouraged to employ the active voice in their articles since it is considered to be more direct and less wordy, thus being consistent with the overall style of academic papers. For example, it is widely acknowledged that “*I found that...*” seems better than “*It was found that...*”. Another suggestion concerning the issue is recommending the use of “*the author(s)/the researcher(s) found that...*” or “*we found that...*” instead of “*I found that...*” if people consider “I” to be a bit personal and subjective.

The tendency to use the active does not mean we should remove the passive completely from our papers. The reason is that the passive can be more effective and appropriate in Methods, where readers are more interested in how an experiment was conducted and the specific procedure of the whole research. Take the following two sentences for example:



- ① *We calculated least significant differences to compare means.*
- ② *Least significant differences were calculated to compare means.*

It is believed that sentence ② is better than sentence ① in the Methods section because the former directly presents what has been done without having to mention the person, thus highlighting the research procedure itself and helping readers to focus on what they are interested in.

e. Significance of formality

Academic articles differentiate themselves from other forms of writing particularly in terms of the extent of formality in language use. As is known to all, academic articles are the device with which researchers introduce to the academic circle their research achievements. Such academic circle only accepts, without doubt, academic and formal language use, thus emphasizing the formality of language. For instance, the expressions *do the experiment* and *conduct the experiment* are the same in meaning, but the latter is more formal, thus being regarded as more appropriate for academic articles. Other similar examples are *look into* vs. *investigate*, *goal* vs. *objective*.

2. Examples of common inappropriate expressions in academic English

The following are some typical examples of inappropriate expressions in academic articles produced by Chinese students. In each example, ① is the inappropriate English version, and ② is the appropriate English version.

Example 1:

本次试验失败的原因大致有 5 个。

- ① *There are about five causes for the failure of the experiment.*
- ② *There are approximately five causes for the failure of the experiment.*

The words “about” and “approximately” here share the same meaning, both indicating that the author is not quite sure about the exact number of the causes of the failure. Such expressions of uncertainty in academic articles are very common as in scientific research, no one could guarantee that his/her argument is absolutely correct. The point is that “about” is much less formal than “approximately” and is usually adopted in oral English rather than in written English, let alone academic papers.

Example 2:

如果我们认识不到废气这一严重问题，那么这个地球将面临毁灭。

- ① *If we don't recognize the serious problem of waste gas, our planet will be faced with disaster.*
- ② *Failure to recognize the seriousness of waste gas will lead to a disaster for our planet.*



If we take into consideration the “Preference for noun phrases” in academic English, it is not difficult to understand why it is better to replace the subordinate clause “If we...” with simply “Failure to...”. Such a change makes the expression more succinct and academic. The transformation of “serious” to “seriousness” is also made for the same reason.

Example 3:

为进一步探寻引起学习效率下降的原因，我们对实验组和参照组进行了对比研究。

① *In order to look into the reason for the decrease of learning efficiency, we conducted a comparative study between the experimental group and the control group.*

② *In order to investigate the reason for the decrease of learning efficiency, a comparative study was conducted between the experimental group and the control group.*

The phrase “look into” is undoubtedly much more widely used in informal English while “investigate” suits academic English for its high level of formality. In addition, “we conducted a study” is changed into “a study was conducted” for the reason mentioned towards the end of **d. The active voice vs. the passive voice.**

Example 4:

以理论为基础的这种深度分析往往比纯粹的实验手段更加权威和具有说服力。

① *Such profound analysis which is based on theories is usually more authoritative and convincing than pure experiments.*

② *Such theory-based profound analysis is usually more authoritative and convincing than pure experiments.*

The clause “which is based on theories” and the phrase “theory-based” are identical in meaning but the latter is obviously more succinct than the former.

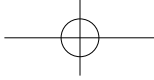
Example 5:

云智能是一项新技术，近年来引入国内，可以为用户提供更多的便捷。

① *Cloud Intelligence is a new technology. It has been introduced into China in recent years. It can offer its users much more convenience.*

② *Cloud Intelligence, a new technology, has been introduced into China in recent years, offering its users much more convenience.*

In this example, three short and simple sentences are combined into one single complicated sentence while keeping the original meaning unchanged. The reason is that academic English usually prefers long and complicated sentence structures and sentence ① is more possible in spoken English.



Exercise

Translate the following sentences into English, paying attention to the five linguistic features of academic English mentioned in this part.

1. 由于量子的存在，我们不能按照惯常的方法描述原子微粒的运动。(量子 quanta；原子微粒 atomic particles)
2. 纵观当前语言测试领域的代表性研究成果，我们发现相当一部分语言测试研究是以定量研究为基础，采用愈来愈成熟和复杂的测量或统计程序来探索测试构念等一系列问题。(构念 construct)
3. 如今，有许多理论家将“活动理论”视为人类活动的哲学和跨学科理论框架，从而使该理论广泛地应用于哲学、心理学、人类学、教育学等领域。(活动理论 Activity Theory)
4. 目前已涌现出大量有关电子芯片技术在临床医学中应用的研究，但我们还是不太清楚这种技术应用的背后隐藏着什么样的风险和挑战。(电子芯片 electronic chip；临床医学 clinical medicine)
5. 研究表明：决定小型企业经营方式的理念需要作出改变以面对不断加剧的市场竞争。
6. 通过和来自不同地区的 30 名业务经理的深度访谈，我们综合了 4 套初步方案的优点和缺点，最终形成一套可直接用于市场调研的成熟的方案。