

English Linguistics Manual

Department of English



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APPENDIX 1. Areas of language study in which papers might be written

1 General remarks

This manual is meant for students of English linguistics who are in the process of starting to write seminar papers at BA level (particularly level 2 and level 3), at MA level, and *mémoires* (MA theses). It gives advice on how to choose a topic, how to write and to structure a linguistics paper, and on how to tackle some of the technical aspects of a linguistics paper. It also informs you of some of the major differences between British and American English, which should help you to be consistent in the variety of English you decided to write your paper in (see Section 4.4.2.1). Please also note already at this point that the teaching staff of the English department feels strongly about plagiarism (cf. Section 4.4.8). This manual is also meant to help you avoid plagiarizing other people's work.



Image 1: Writing assignments.
Source: http://www.c2i.ntu.edu.sg/AI+CI/Humor/AI_Jokes/Academia-BillWatterson.html

2 Length of papers

The following numbers are from the study plans. It is imperative to discuss them with your lecturer or supervisor. The word count includes everything except the references and any diagrams or tables. You should aim for the word limit stated, as writing concisely is an important skill, but work may be 10% longer or shorter than the stated limit.

BA

- Level 2 group paper: 3,000 words (± 10%)
- Level 3 individual seminar paper: 3,000 words (± 10%)
- Extended essay (2 ECTS) 4,000 words (± 10%) on NEW topic

MA

- Seminar paper: 4,500 words (± 10%)
- *Mémoire* (MA thesis): approximately 100'000 characters, references, notes and appendices excluded (faculty regulation)

3 Comments on paper topics and different approaches

Before you start writing, you should approach your leturer or supervisor and discuss your topic with him or her. They will help you

- define/clarify your ideas
- flesh out these ideas
- grasp how to structure your main argument and limit its scope
- find out what methodological steps you will have to take
- decide which aspects of the subject and/or what kind of linguistic material to focus on

None of these instructions can be given in general terms because they depend on the individual needs of each student and the specificity of the topic you want to write about.

Therefore, it is *essential* for you to consult the person who will be supervising and/or assessing your work before you start working on a paper, as outlined in the regulations.

In your papers, you are supposed to show that you are able to read, understand, and critically evaluate the existing research literature and report your insights in proper academic style. This is shown by a comparison and evaluation of different theories including the identification of (apparent) contradictions and open issues, or by the application of a particular theory or approach to new data. In order to achieve this goal, you must specify your research question concisely and then focus on relevant aspects only. In other words, we expect a discussion that is deep and substantial regarding a focused research question rather than a broad and shallow summary of a large research area.

3.1 Different types of papers

There are roughly four types of paper that could be written, although a few more approaches might also be thought of:

- a critical examination of different theoretical models or aspects of research
- an empirical study of an aspect of language
- a practical analysis of an area of language
- a practical analysis of an extract of language data from one research angle

Depending on what kind of paper you choose to write, the structure will be different. More details on this will be given in Section 4.3 (on the structuring phase) and Section 5 (on presenting a concrete example).

For domain-specific ideas, please see Appendix I.

4 How to go about it

Depending on the level of your linguistics paper, i.e. BA level, MA level, or *mémoire*, the lecturer or supervisor will work in different ways with you. In the case of papers related to linguistics classes, the lecturer will explain academic linguistics paper writing in general

(structure of a paper, theoretical frameworks, methods) during one of the classes and may also find time to discuss your individual research and paper projects in class. It is important, in any case, that you have discussed the research question of your topic and your approach with the lecturer, either during class or during the lecturer's office hour. In the case of planning and writing a *mémoire*, we strongly advise you to meet your supervisor on a regular basis as the supervisor can then guide you in the writing process and give you extensive feedback on the different sections of your work.

Your work will be roughly divided into a preparatory phase, a research phase, a structuring phase and a writing phase. In what follows you can find advice on how to approach each of these stages.

4.1 Preparatory phase

- Look at Appendix 1 or Wray & Bloomer (2012) *Projects in Linguistics and Language Studies* on areas of language studies and choose a topic you like. Then go and use the library catalogue (card and online) to browse for literature. Students writing seminar papers and *mémoires* (theses) should make sure that they also use the electronic databases, which can be accessed through the University Library (BCU); cf. Section 9. This will give you an idea of what has been published on your subject worldwide. You can then go and search for the relevant titles here in Lausanne (or even in Switzerland).
- Your literature searches will unearth a plethora of information on your topic. To ensure that you are using suitable material, you should assess potential resources according to the following criteria:
 - Is the author a credible authority, e.g. an established figure in the field, or a self-proclaimed expert?
 - Who is the intended audience (academics, general public, etc.)? Is the material at an appropriate technical level?
 - Is the source relevant to the variety/period/etc. you are researching?
 - Are the theories and discussion in the source current or outdated?

Scholarly articles published in academic journals are written by and for experts, so their content can generally be considered reliable. More care must be taken when selecting Internet-based resources, particularly if the author and/or publication date is not given. (For more information on how to assess the reliability of online resources, see, e.g., http://www.virtualsalt.com/evalu8it.htm. The criteria on this site can also be applied to offline resources).

- Discuss your ideas about the topic, questions, or material that interest you with your peers: you will find it much easier to start writing if you have already formulated your argument or parts of it within a communicative oral context. For this reason, form discussion groups.
- After you have chosen a topic, and browsed through the library to find material that seems appropriate, **you must see your lecturer/supervisor** to discuss what methods and tools of analysis and interpretation you need to apply, and whether you need to limit the scope of the material you will be scrutinizing. Some lecturers/supervisors may wish to see an outline early on in the linguistics paper/mémoire planning process. You are encouraged to make use of this opportunity (see 4.4.1 on how to structure an outline).

4.2 Research phase

- When you do the research for an academic paper, write down *all* the bibliographical references (including page numbers) of any material and ideas you glean from elsewhere. Be meticulous when doing this: it will save you a lot of time at the stage of writing your paper. Also, it will help you to **avoid plagiarizing** without being aware of it.
- Be careful to transcribe quotations very precisely. Incorrect quotations are an insult to the author.
- When taking notes, carefully distinguish between your own and other people's thoughts.
- Use dictionaries and reference books to look up words and concepts.
- Try to formulate your argument and/or hypothesis, and organise questions that need to be answered in the course of the paper. Ideally, this will become part of your outline.

4.3 Structuring phase

Writing a paper is not just a matter of putting your thoughts down onto a page: it also requires (a) knowing what the formal demands of academic writing are, and (b) developing a structured argument for what you want to say. While doing your research, try to learn from the structure of articles and books that you are reading.

Considering that you have a choice between different types of paper (see overview above), the structure of your linguistics paper/mémoire will very much depend on the choice that you make related to your type of paper, and the research question linked to it. Make sure that you discuss these points and the structure of your individual paper/mémoire with the respective lecturer/supervisor.

4.4 Writing phase

4.4.1 Make an outline

Make an outline according to the type of paper that you write (talk to your lecturer/supervisor about this). Your outline may include:

- main idea, hypothesis, thesis
- theoretical tools
- evidence
- argumentation

At this stage you should also rely on your reading summaries, notes and ideas. Try to specify where in your paper you want to include which sources, salient quotations, etc. You can use your outline as an argumentative template to put the pieces of gathered knowledge and insight together.

4.4.2 Word and sentence level

- When writing your paper, use as many **dictionaries** and **reference books** as possible. Even native speakers do not write papers without occasionally checking the meaning of words and their correct use in specific contexts and punctuation rules. The list of resources in English linguistics at the end of this document is a starting point.
- **Abstract concepts** in particular require careful use, as they have acquired very precise and (sometimes heavily disputed) meanings in linguistics. Even the simple word "text" is used

- differently in linguistics than in literary studies. You can only make words mean exactly what *you* want them to mean if you know what *other* people (i.e. the academic community) have made the words mean *before* you.
- Provide definitions of your analytical and methodological concepts, relying on theoretical and critical literature that is relevant both to your field of study and to your argument or hypothesis. (See also Section 6.2 on introducing such concepts). You are encouraged to make use of the Manchester Academic Phrasebank to help you with some of the phraseological 'nuts and bolts' of academic writing. The Phrasebank is a general resource for academic writers, which aims to provide you with example phrases commonly found in academic writing. The phrases can assist you in thinking about the content and organisation of your own writing, or they can be incorporated into your paper where this is appropriate (Morley 2014). You can find the Manchester Academic Phrasebank at the following website: http://www.phrasebank.manchester.ac.uk/

4.4.2.1 British versus American English

Your papers should be consistently written in either British or American English. These varieties of English differ not only in vocabulary and grammar, but there are also differences in style and layout of the paper. You are also expected to use the spell-checker of your word processor; make sure it is set to the right variety of English.

Here is a table of the most prominent differences between British English (BrE) and American English (AmE). For further details and British versus American vocabulary, see David Crystal's *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language* (1999: 306-311), Cambridge University Press.

		British English	American English
	Paragraph	Indentation	Blank line
ıt i	Dates	Day Month Year 13 March 2001	Moth Day, Year March 13, 2001
ayout	Collective	Plural option	Only singular
La	nouns	The family / government <u>is / are</u>	The family / government <u>is</u>
		-ou-	-0-
		behaviour, colour, humour	behavior, color, humor
		-re	-er
		centre, litre, metre, theatre	center, liter, meter, theater
gu		-ise	-ize
Spelling		analyse, organise, recognise	analyze, organize, recognize
S		-11-	-1-
		counsellor, labelled, travelling	counselor, labeled, traveling
		Aesthetic	Esthetic
		Programme	Program

For further information see:

- http://www.englishclub.com/vocabulary/british-american.htm
- http://www3.telus.net/linguisticsissues/BritishCanadianAmerican.htm

4.4.3Logic of your arguments

- Your paper should be focused, i.e. it should follow through the arguments presented in the introduction. (A seminar paper usually develops only one argument.)
- Remember that an academic paper is *not* an essay. Therefore, avoid giving impressionistic personal responses. This does not mean, however, that you have to withhold your own opinion or that you should not make clear where you position yourself with respect to an argument: "I maintain / argue / propose / suggest / agree / am in favor of /contest/ dispute / contend / am critical of / disagree / question").
- Aim at an evaluation that is an inherent and logical part of your argument. Also avoid broad generalizations, or pontificating about life and society.
- Your paper should not be a simple collection of notes.
- Throughout your paper, **foreground the argument** you want to make: formulate your thoughts in such a manner that *every* paragraph you write supports your argument one way or another. State your points clearly and link them with a logic that will immediately be apparent to your reader.
- While doing your research, you may find interesting details that do not really fit into your argument. Put them into footnotes, but try to keep the number of footnotes to a minimum.
- Imagine a concrete audience who might agree or disagree with the ideas you are expressing in your paper, and you will find it easier to argue. Assume that your readers are members of the linguistic community. This has several consequences:
 - a) They have a basic interest in what you are saying.
 - b) They do not want to have to read between the lines, so you have to be absolutely clear and explicit.
 - c) They need to be convinced of your ideas.
 - d) And they are not familiar with your way of thinking, so give all the steps of your thought processes through to your conclusions.

4.4.4 References to other people's ideas

- One does not write an academic paper in a void: writing is a form of communication with a community of (imagined and real) interlocutors. One way of participating in an academic debate is by quoting. Remember that your audience needs to be given exact information about the sources of your quotes and ideas.
- **Plagiarism** is the use of any resource, published or unpublished, without proper acknowledgement. Sources must always be fully credited, for quotations, paraphrased material, foundational concepts, etc. Plagiarism is not always a deliberate act; it can result from incomplete/insufficient note taking or from being in a rush. It is very important to be meticulous with this aspect of your work. In order to avoid plagiarism, to be readerfriendly, and therefore to prove that you are interested in engaging in a discussion about the material you are working on, you need to include both in-text references and a complete reference list at the end of your paper or *mémoire* whenever you refer to somebody else's writing (or speaking).
- When writing a summary of any text, only mention details that are relevant to your argument, but make sure that what you say is correct with respect to the *whole* passage

you have summarised.

- **Do not simply paraphrase** what other people have said: comment on their arguments and integrate them into your own argument in a visible way.
- Quotations must be integrated into your own argument: This means that everything in a quote should be relevant to your argument, either because it illustrates what you are claiming, or because you agree or disagree and want to show how and where this is the case, or because you propose to analyze the quote bit by bit. For these reasons,
 - a) always introduce quotations.
 - b) as a rule, do not end a paragraph in someone else's words.
 - c) avoid lengthy quotations in which several ideas are expressed at the same time, especially if they are not all relevant to your own argument.
 - d) comment on every element in the quote.
 - e) make sure that you have understood what you are quoting within the context of the other author's whole argument.

4.4.5 Choosing a title

Choosing a title for your paper is an important part of the process of writing.

- It is useful to start off with a provisional *working title*, which you can modify or replace when you have completed the paper and know exactly where your initial questions and interest in the material have led you.
- Titles should not be immoderately long; a brief title followed by a more explicit subtitle can be a good solution.
- Titles of sections should help the reader follow the argument at one glance.
- Your paper title is not part of the main text, so do not refer back to it in any way. For example if you paper title is *Apartheid: a shameful chapter in human history*, do not start your paragraph with *talking about apartheid*

4.4.6 References

The end of your paper must have a list of all your sources, whether integrated in your paper as summarised facts, opinions, or quotations. This list is called **References**. A "Bibliography" contains much more material than the quoted sources; therefore, do not use this term for your list of references.

- Check Section 7 for the main bibliographical rules and ways of presenting references.
- Note that the title 'References' is not numbered.
- Begin collecting items for your list of references as soon as you start doing research on your topic. It is easier to cross out superfluous items than desperately hunt for missing references when you have finished writing. To facilitate this process, you may wish to use a reference program that helps you to keep track of your sources (e.g. Endnote)

4.4.7 Last phase: revision

- Take time to revise your paper and to correct the language and the overall logic of your argument.
- Take out sweeping statements about life and the world, about morality, broad ethical issues, vague political or philosophical ideas, and focus on the main argument, i.e. to answer your research question.
- In general, make sure your conclusion does not end in someone else's words. This is *your* paper.
- Use your computer's spell check program but make sure you do not let the computer

correct words for you automatically.

- To see whether your argument works, ask a colleague or colleagues to read through your paper and comment on it critically. Where appropriate, let their questions about what you wrote lead you to revise aspects of your paper.
- If you started off with working titles for the sections, now that you have a clear overview of where your argument has led you, revise these titles to make them reveal the development of your argument or the steps leading to the verification of your hypothesis.
- Revise your list of References and cut out or add items depending on the final version of your paper, i.e. make sure all the references you give in the paper are documented in the final list of References. Also check that you provided page numbers in all cases whether you quoted, referred to, or summarised someone else's text and that these numbers are correct.

4.4.8 Handing the paper in

- Submission guidelines may vary across courses. Unless otherwise specified, you should submit your paper in printed as well as electronic form, as a word document and a PDF. Both must be addressed to your lecturer/supervisor.
- Note that your paper will be checked for plagiarism.

5 An example of how a paper with an empirical analysis should be structured

A seminar paper dealing with an analysis of linguistic data should normally contain the sections listed below. They should be numbered, except for the table of contents. Other modes of organization are more suitable to other types of papers. Please consult your lecturer/supervisor for advice.

Formal elements	Title Page Needs to include your full name, your student number, what year you are in, date of completion of the paper, name of lecturer/supervisor, your contact details, title (and possible subtitle) of the paper, and variety of English in which it is written (British or American). Make sure that the title of your paper reflects its aim and scope.
Forma	Table of Contents Indicate sections and page references. Remember that page numbering only starts on the first page of the text, not with the table of contents. Indent subsections for clarity.
	Abstract An abstract is a short summary of your paper and needs to present the research question, the method used, and the major findings. An abstract has to be concise (c. 200 words).

Introductory

As Introductory part

1. Introduction

Present your research question in the context of related studies (previous literature), tell the reader what niche your project covers, what aspects your analysis will focus on and what the overall rationale of your inquiry is. Give a brief overview of the structure of your paper (naming its individual sections and their respective content).

2. Theoretical background

Give a brief, critical survey of earlier work dealing with your subject. Introduce the main theoretical concepts that you will use in your own study (including clear definitions of the key concepts used) and present your terminology.

NB. The discussion of previous work can be split up into more than one section (i.e. constitute Sections 2 and 3, for instance).

3. Method (material and approach used)

Present the material and method used in such a way that the study can be replicated. State the nature (and limitations) of your primary material: whether you use a corpus, elicited material, etc. Describe your method of collecting data as well as the advantages and/or limitations of your material. Consider whether your choice of data is likely to affect the results in an important way.

As regards the method,

- a) state along what lines your investigation was conducted, and, if possible, give the most important sources of your inspiration. Clearly describe all analytical categories and concepts used.
- b) if your investigation is long and complex, give a step-by-step description of what you did.

4. Presentation of Results

First present your results, then discuss them. The presentation of your results should be clearly structured. Analyze your data by applying the chosen theoretical and methodological tools. You will maybe want to present your results in the form of tables or lists of examples, or both. Try to make these as clear as possible, and concentrate on one aspect at a time. Support your arguments by giving examples from your data. Long and complicated sections should have a short summary at the end.

5. Discussion of Findings

There should be a link between the presentation of results and the discussion. Interpret the results in a factual manner, and try to synthesise the individual results. When discussing your results, incorporate/revisit previous literature (theoretical framework); this allows you to show what your findings contribute to existing research; this is also known as the *full circle principle*.

6. Conclusion

Conclusion

Give a general summary of your results and state the conclusions you can draw on the basis of them. If part of your results is inconclusive, e.g. because you did not have enough material, say so. It is common practice to indicate (a) limitations of the study, and (b) future research directions. Provide an answer to your research question in the concluding statement.

References	References Under this heading you list your sources in alphabetical order. They may be divided into Primary (the data you looked at) and Secondary sources (all works cited in the text). Note that the title 'References' is not numbered.
Appendices	Appendices If you want to include specimens of your primary sources, etc., you may do so in one or more appendices at the very end of your paper. They should have separate numbering (App. I, App. II etc.), but continuous page numbers with the rest of the paper.

6 Other technical matters

6.1 Giving examples and quoting your primary material

In a linguistics paper, it is important to make a distinction between the expressions you are using as part of your writing and the letters, words or phrases you are discussing. When you are citing letters, words or phrases as linguistic examples, you need to distinguish it from the body of your text. The easiest way to do this is italicizing the relevant word or phrase. Letters, words or phrases cited as linguistic examples should be italicised in the text; do not use double quotes for this purpose! Glosses or other explanations of meaning should be given in inverted commas ('single quotes'), thus:

RIGHT: The quantifier *many* means 'a lot'. WRONG: The quantifier "many" means ...

Sentences quoted in the text should be italicised, thus:

Many linguists have quoted the sentence. Many arrows didn't hit the target.

Preferably, however, quoted sentences should be set apart from the main body of the text by indentation. This is especially important if they are longer than a few words. In that case they should be preceded by Arabic numerals in parentheses. Note that indented and numbered examples are not italicised. This is a good example of how you may proceed:

Consider the quantifier many 'beaucoup de' in sentences (10) and (11):

- (10) Not many arrows hit the target.
- (11) Many arrows didn't hit the target.

In both (10) and (11) the scope of the quantifier

If your examples come from another source, this must be indicated in your paper:

(10) a. I think that he will not come. b. I do not think that he will come. (Horn 2001: 315)

Notice that examples should be numbered and referred to by number, not as "the following sentence."

If you are writing about a language other than English, you may need to provide morphological glossing. You can learn more about this by consulting the Leipzig Glossing Rules:

6.2 Introducing concepts

If you introduce technical concepts in your text, you can highlight them with double quotes, single quotes or capitals. You should be consistent, however, once you have decided which format to use. Avoid italics for this purpose. This is how you can do it:

When Hamlet said *words*, *words*, *words*, he used three "tokens" but only one "type". When Hamlet said *words*, *words*, he used three 'tokens' but only one 'type'. When Hamlet said *words*, *words*, words, he used three TOKENS but only one TYPE.

Quotation marks or capital letters do not have to be repeated every time you use the concept.

6.3 Emphasis

Academic prose avoids expressions of emotion. Do not use italics to give emphasis in your text.

RIGHT: There is not a single instance of double negation in this text. WRONG: There is *not a single* instance of double negation in this text.

6.4 Tables and figures

Very often a table is a good way of displaying results of a quantitative (but often also of a descriptive) nature, because a table will help the reader to grasp at a glance what your results are. For instance, if you are reporting on the occurrence of different types of relative markers in three corpora of different text samples, your data could be presented as in Table 1.

Table 1. Relative markers in subject function with human/non-human antecedents in three corpora of spoken American and British English, the Santa Barbara Corpus, the London-Lund Corpus and the British National Corpus.

	Humai	n antec	edents				Non-human antecedents												
	SBC	%	LLC	%	BNC	SBC	%	LLC	%	BNC	%								
SUBJECTS	n=76		n=56		n=70		n=48		n=63		n=113								
zero	2	20/	-		3	407	1	20/	-		6	5%							
that	25	33%	4	7%	18	26%	46	96%	31	49%	84	74%							
who	49	64%	51	91%	47	67%	1	2%	-	-	-	-							
which	-	-	1	2%	-	-		-	32	51%	23	20%							
as, what	-	-	-	-	2	2%	-	-	-	-	-	-							

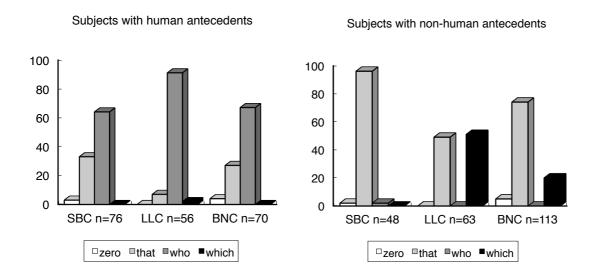
Key: SBC = Santa Barbara Corpus, LLC = London-Lund Corpus, BNC = British National Corpus.

Table 1 is a specimen of purely descriptive statistics, but as such, it nicely sums up the situation. Notice also that even though a table is a practical way of summarising information, it does not free you from also describing and interpreting your results in the text either before or after the table, and notice that all tables must be numbered so that you can refer to them in the running text. If you have a lot of abbreviations in your table, you should also have a KEY to the abbreviations.

Table 1 above gives both raw data – absolute numbers – and proportions expressed as percentages. You may find it suitable to give this information in different tables, for instance

having only raw data or only percentages, as this makes the reader's work easier. If you give only percentages, you must always give the totals on which your percentages are based.

You may also choose to display your data graphically in figures, such as bar charts, pie charts, etc. Notice that normally figures are not a substitute for tables, but a way of illustrating even more clearly what you have already shown in a table. See Figure 1 below, which provides the same information as Table 1 in graphic form. Notice that the **legend goes under a figure**.



6.5 IPA Symbols

When using IPA symbols (or, indeed, any "non-standard" symbols), make sure that the symbol you are using actually shows up in the printout/digital copy that you submit. For phonetic symbols, the easiest way is to use a Unicode font set that includes the symbols. Once they show up on your computer screen as you want them to, save the file as a .pdf file. This embeds the symbols, so that you can print your file on any printer or submit via Moodle without losing the symbols. If you do not have a Unicode font with phonetic symbols installed on your computer, you can use either an online IPA keyboard, e.g. http://ipa.typeit.org, or download fonts from the SIL or other sources, e.g. http://www.phon.ucl.ac.uk/resource/phonetics.php. Be sure to check the final copy before submission to ensure that all phonetic (or other) symbols are visible and correct.

7 Style Sheet for papers in linguistics

7.1 How to introduce references within your linguistics paper

References to all source material must be included in the body of the text within parentheses. The parentheses contain the surname of the author if it is not already mentioned in the text, the year of publication, followed by a colon, followed by the complete page numbers. Make sure that you give the reader enough information in the text to allow her or him to find the passage referred to as easily as possible, and to locate the full bibliographical information in the list of "References". Therefore, take great care in proofreading all your references.

There is some flexibility in how this information is presented, depending on the structure of your sentence, as illustrated below:

Schiffrin (1994) does not agree.

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Schiffrin (1994: 97) underlines that ...
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According to Schiffrin (1994), ...

Chomsky (1980a: 3) introduced the term ...

Many syntacticians (e.g. Matthews 1981: Ch. 3) distinguish ...

This insight has gained ground in recent years (Atlas and Levinson 1981; Sperber and Wilson 1985).

You may sometimes want to quote a source which is known to you only through another secondary source because the original is not available. You can do this like this:

A collocation can be defined as "actual words in habitual company" (Firth 1957: 14, as quoted in Kennedy 1998: 108).

This means that you have Kennedy (1998) in front of you, while you did not have access to Firth (1957). **Both references must appear in the reference section** at the end of your paper.

Page reference in the text has to be made to the edition you used. However, the year of the original publication has to be mentioned as well if it differs from the year of your edition:

```
(De Saussure [1916] 1974: 13)
```

Do not use footnotes for references in linguistics papers. They should only be used for additional information which you do not want to stop the flow of your argument.

7.2 How to present the list of "References"

A style sheet determines how bibliographical information is presented in a consistent way with respect to

- the type and sequence of information (author, year, title, place, publisher, page numbers, etc.)
- capitalization
- the use of italics
- punctuation

There are different conventions for referring to whole books or articles in journals or edited volumes, as explained below.

There are many different style sheets employed in linguistics as every organization, publisher or journal may have their own house styles. For you this means that in your readings you will find several bibliographical styles, but that in your own text, all bibliographical information has to be presented according to one particular style sheet. The instructions given here basically follow the style of the journal *Language*. Other styles widely used in linguistics are Chicago Style or the APA-style by the American Psychological Association (www.apastyle.org).

7.2.1 General rule for books

Author's name, initial(s) of first name(s). Year. *Title of the Book: Subtitle*. Place: Publisher. Editor's name, initial(s) of first name(s). (ed.) Year. *Title of the Book: Subtitle*. Place: Publisher.

Note: The title is italicised and capitalised. Pay attention to punctuation.

The list of references will follow the **alphabetical order of authors' or editors' names**. Use a **hanging indent** for each bibliographical entry (see format in the rule box).

In the case of several works by the same author or editor, list the items in the **chronological order of publication**. If an author has more than one publication in the same year, **add a, b, c**, etc. to the year of publication, according to their chronological order of publication. If someone is listed as the author of some titles and as the editor of others, list the authored titles chronologically first, then the edited titles.

Fairclough, N. 1989. Language and Power. London: Longman.

Haugen, E. 1966a. Dialect, language, nation. American Anthropologist 68, 922–935.

Haugen, E. 1966b. *Language Conflict and Language Planning: The Case of Modern Norwegian*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Michaels, L. and Ch. Ricks (eds.) 1980. *The State of the Language*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Schiffrin, D. 1987. Discourse Markers. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Schiffrin, D. 1994. Approaches to Discourse. Oxford: Blackwell.

Schiffrin, D. (ed.). 1984. *Meaning, Form, and Use in Context: Linguistic Applications*. Washington D.C.: Georgetown University Press.

Van Maanen, J. (ed.). 1988. *Tales of the Field: On Writing Ethnography*. Chicago and London: University of Chicago Press.

7.2.2 Further bibliographical information

There are several possible aspects to remember:

- The title you are referencing may contain several volumes, or a book may be one in a series. This information needs to be given.
- If relevant, you should also mention which edition of a book you are using, whether it is revised, when the first edition appeared, or when the text was first published in another edition.
- The text may be by one author, but it is introduced, edited, compiled, or translated by someone else.
- The book may have more than one author or editor, in which case you mention them all unless there are more than three. Use the abbreviation "et al." ("et alia", lat. for "and others") when there are more than three. See the list of examples below to check on such special cases.
- If in doubt about the format of special cases, please refer to the Chicago Manual of Style, 13th edition or later.
- The following abbreviations should be used (for further abbreviations, see the Chicago Manual of Style):

```
"compiled by" or "compiler" =
comp. "edited by" or "editor" or
"edition" = ed. "editors" = eds.
"general editor" = gen. ed.
"introduced by" or "introduction by" = introd.
"manuscript" = ms. (plural mss.)
"selected by" = sel.
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"revised" or "revision"; occasionally "review" = rev. "translated by" or "translator" = trans.
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Examples:

More than one author or editor:

Atkinson, M., D. Kilby and I. Roca 1982. Foundations of General Linguistics. London: George Allen and Unwin.

Bolinger, D. and D. A. Sears 1981. *Aspects of Language*. New York etc.: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Note: Only the first person's surname is placed before the first name(s); the other(s) are given in normal order

More than one place:

If the title page of the book cited lists two places with the publisher's name, the place listed first is the one to use. It is permissible, but not necessary, to use both.

If more than two places are listed, just use the first one.

Carter, R. 1995. *Keywords in Language and Literacy*. London and New York: Routledge. Pichler, Heike. 2013. *The Structure of Discourse-Pragmatic Variation*. Amsterdam and New York: John Benjamins.

A republished book:

A republished book is listed under the date of the first publication. The date of the republished book is given at the end of the entry.

Trudgill, P. 1974. Sociolinguistics. An Introduction. Harmondsworth: Penguin, 1975.

Revised editions:

For a revised edition of a book you should give the date of the new edition.

Mathews, P. 1991. Morphology. 2nd rev. ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Reprints:

When quoting mere reprints of older works you should indicate both the original and the new publication date:

Bühler, K. 1934. *Sprachtheorie: Die Darstellungsfunktion der Sprache*. Ullstein Buch 3392. Frankfurt: Ullstein, 1978.

Trubetzkoy, N. S. 1939. Grundzüge der Phonologie. Göttingen: Vandenhoeck & Ruprecht, 1958.

A multivolume work:

Osherson, D. N. and H. Lasnik (eds.) 1990. *Language. An Invitation to Cognitive Science*. Vol. 1. Cambridge (Mass.) and London: MIT Pres. 3 vols.

The book is part of a series:

Jacobson, S. 1975. Factors Influencing the Placement of English Adverbs in Relation to Auxiliaries. Stockhom Studies in English 33. Stockholm: Almqvist & Wiksell.

The book has an author as well as an editor or other person presenting the original text:

De Saussure, F. 1916. *Course in General Linguistics*. Trans. Wade Baskin. London: Fontana, 1974.

Milner, J.-C. 1978. *For the Love of Language*. Trans. and introd. Ann Banfield. London: The Macmillan Press, 1990.

A book by a corporate author:

American Council of Education 1997. *Annual Report 1976*. Washington: American Council of Education.

An anonymous book:

Dictionary of Ancient Greek Civilization 1966. London: Methuen.

Dictionaries:

An Encyclopaedic Dictionary of Language and Languages 1992. D. Crystal. Oxford and Cambridge (Mass.): Blackwell.

A Dictionary of Grammatical Terms in Linguistics 1993. R. L. Trask. London and New York: Routledge.

7.2.3 General rule for parts of books

Titles of parts of books (e.g. titles of **chapters**, or **short texts**, or **articles**, or **sections** in books) should be given in normal font, without quotation marks and without capitalisation, and followed by the reference to the book of which it is a part:

Author's name, initials of first name(s). Year. Title of chapter or short text. In: Editor's intials of first name. and surname (ed.), *Title of the Book*. Place: Publisher, Page numbers.

Note: The title of the article is **not** italicised and **not** capitalised. The book title is italicised and capitalised. Don't forget the exact page range of the article and pay attention to punctuation.

Labov, W. 1972. Rules for ritual insults. In D. Sudnow (ed.), *Studies in Social Interaction*. New York: Free Press, 120–169.

If you list **more than one article from the same book**, you may enter the book itself, with complete publication information, and list individual items by **using cross-references to the main entry**. In a cross-reference, the last name of the editor of the book and the relevant page numbers follow the title of the article:

Labov, W. 1972. Rules for ritual insults. In Sudnow (ed.), 120–169. Sudnow, D. (ed.) 1972. *Studies in Social Interaction*. New York: Free Press.

7.2.4 General rule for articles in journals

Author's name, initials of first name(s). Year. Title of the article. *Title of the Journal* vol #.issue #, page numbers.

Note: The title of the article is **not** italicised and **not** capitalised. The journal title is italicised and capitalised. Don't forget the volume and issue number and add the exact page range of the article. Pay attention to punctuation.

Milroy, J. 1997. Internal vs external motivations for linguistic change. *Multilingua* 16.4, 311–323. McCarthy, M. and R. Carter 1997. Grammar, tails and affect: Constructing expressive choices in discourse. *Text* 17.3, 405–429.

7.2.5 General rule for an article in a reference book

If the article is signed, it is listed under the author's name, if it is not signed, it is listed under the headword.

Lyons, J. 1981. Linguistics. In *Encyclopaedia Britannica*. 15th ed. Chicago: Encyclopaedia Britannica, Inc.

Bullamakanka 1988. The Australian National Dictionary. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

7.2.6 References to electronic sources

If you quote from electronic sources, you need to find out about the author, the date of publication and you need to add your access date.

DemocracyNow! 2000. Exclusive interview with Bill Clinton as U.S. Presidency hangs in balance. *Pacifica Radio*. Available at: www.democracynow.org. Accessed on: 15/11/2000.

Herring, S. C. 1999. Interactional Coherence in CMC. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication* 4.4. Available at: http://www.ascurs.org/jcmc/vol4/issue4/herring.html. Accessed on: 16/10/2008.

8 Resources for English linguistics

8.1 Search strategies in library catalogues and databases

Keyword and subject searches in library catalogues and databases are two different things, and both are part of an effective strategy for searching databases:

- Begin with a keyword search by entering words that describe the information you are seeking.
- Once you have some results, look at the records to see what subject headings (and keywords) the database uses.
- Revise your search using the appropriate subject terms.

Depending on the type of database, you will receive bibliographical information, abstracts, or even the text itself. We recommend that you complete your bibliographical searches at least with the following databases: **BLLD**, **MLA** and **ERIC**.

More information and a list of relevant sources for linguistics can be found at the BCU's 'bibliothèque numérique RERO DOC': http://doc.rero.ch. Please also consult the linguistic encyclopedias and handbooks that are available at BCU.

8.2 Library Catalogue

Réseau Vaudois

http://opac.rero.ch/gateway?skin=vd

Includes books available in Lausanne and the Canton de Vaud.

Réseau Romand

http://opac.rero.ch/gateway

Includes books available in all of French-speaking Switzerland.

(Note: The catalogues only present results of monographs and edited books available in French-speaking Switzerland; therefore the are not general bibliographical search tools)

8.3 Online databases available through the BCU or other university libraries (see http://dbserv1-bcu.unil.ch/dbbcu/cds/menu.php)

- **BLLD**: Bibliography of Linguistic Literature Database
- Bibliographie Linguistique BL Online
- Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics
- **ERIC**: Education Resources Information Centre
- International Encyclopedia of Linguistics
- LexisNexis
- Linguistics Abstracts Online: 15,000 abstracts from nearly 300 linguistics journals published since 1985
- Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts LLBA
- MLA: Modern Languages Association International Bibliography
- Oxford English Dictionary
- ProQuest. Dissertation Abstracts Database and Digital Dissertations

8.4 Journals

The BCU provides access to electronic and hard copy journals. In order to verify whether one or the other is available, go to http://www2.unil.ch/perunil/pu2/ and search for the title. Please consult the links below for lists of relevant journals for linguistics. In addition, there are many online databases that provide access to texts online. JSTOR, MUSE and PAO are among the most relevant for linguistics.

There are also journals that are entirely free and published online, such as *Linguistics Online* (http://www.linguistik-online.de/) or the *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication* (http://jcmc.indiana.edu/).

JSTOR: http://www.jstor.org/

Scientific journals, excluding the most recent issues. It contains the following scientific journals amongst many others:

- The American Journal of Philology 1880-2002
- American Speech 1925-1999
- Language 1925-2002
- The Modern Language Journal 1916-2004
- Poetics Today 1979-1999

Periodicals Archive Online (PAO)

http://pao.chadwyck.co.uk/marketing.do

Project MUSE

http://muse.jhu.edu/

Scientific journals from 1993 to today

A **selection** of linguistics journals:

- Applied Linguistics
- Behavioral and Cognitive Neuroscience Reviews
- Bilingualism
- British Journalism Review
- Child Language Teaching and Therapy
- Cognitive Linguistics
- Corpus Linguistics and Linguistic Theory
- Gender and Language
- Discourse
- Discourse: Journal for Theoretical Studies in Media and Culture
- Discourse Studies
- International Journal of Corpus Linguistics
- International Journal of the Sociology of Language
- Journal of Applied Linguistics
- Journal of Child Language
- Journal of Computer-mediated Communication
- Journal of Historical Pragmatics
- Journal of Linguistic anthropology
- Journal of Linguistics
- Journal of Logic, Language and Information
- Journal of Neurolinguistics
- Journal of Phonetics
- Journal of Pidgin and Creole Languages
- Journal of Politeness Research
- Journal of Pragmatics
- Journal of Semantics
- Journal of Sociolinguistics

- Language
- Language@internet
- Language and Literature
- Language & Communication
- Language and Society
- Language in Society
- Language Learning
- Language Policy
- Language Variation and Change
- LiLi: Zeitschrift für Literaturwissenschaft und Linguistik
- Lingua
- Linguistic Inquiry
- Linguistics
- Linguistics and Education
- Mind & Language
- Morphology
- Multilingua
- Pragmatics and Cognition
- Speech Communication
- Text and Talk

8.5 Communal Online Platform

The LINGUISTLIST: www.linglist.org

This site offers a wealth of information. Subscribe to LINGUIST or LINGLITE to receive information on the newest publications.

8.6 Recommended Professional Websites

GOOGLE Scholar: http://scholar.google.ch/

Allows more specific searches for research related sites only, gives access to many previews of publications

Language Log University of Pennsylvania: http://itre.cis.upenn.edu/~myl/languagelog/
Linguistic Resources on the Internet: http://www.sil.org/linguistics/topical.html
Linguistic Data Consortium: http://www.ldc.upenn.edu/ Access to corpus data and corpus software

Corpus linguistics: http://www.helsinki.fi/varieng/CoRD/corpora/ Bibliography of various corpora (alphabetical list available)

Linguistic Society of America: http://www.linguisticsociety.org A variety of resources about linguistics for linguists, for media, for the general public

9 What do we base our evaluation of your paper on

Level 2 - Research Paper Assessment Form (English Linguistics) For empirical studies and practical analyses Student's name: Course: Student no.: Date: Variety: BrEng / NAmEng Examiner: Basic structure and layout 1 2 3 4 5 6 TITLE APPROPRIATE LENGTH OF RESEARCH PAPER SECTIONS REFERENCES IN THE TEXT AND A REFERENCE SECTION AT THE END OF THE PAPER LAY-OUT PARAGRAPHING Style, grammar and vocabulary 1 2 3 4 5 6 TENSE USE COMPLEX STRUCTURES (CLAUSE COMBINING) OVERALL GRAMMATICALITY ACADEMIC FORMAL REGISTER CONCISENESS WORD FORM & SPELLING (INCLUDING CONSISTENT USE OF ADOPTED VARIETY OF ENGLISH) PUNCTUATION ☐ VARIATION / AVOID REPETITION OF WORDS AND PHRASES [NB: SEE MANCHESTER ACADEMIC PHRASEBANK FOR HELP -HTTP://WWW.PHRASEBANK.MANCHESTER.AC.UK/] APPROPRIATENESS OF TERMINOLOGY AND STYLE Abstract (c. 200 words) PRESENCE OF RESEARCH QUESTION PRESENCE OF METHOD PRESENCE OF MAJOR FINDINGS CONCISENESS Introduction 1 2 3 4 5 6 PURPOSE PAPER, DATA AND METHOD NICHE AND REFERENCE TO PREVIOUS RESEARCH FORMULATION OF THE RESEARCH QUESTION OR RESEARCH STATEMENT OUTLINE Previous research 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 SUMMARY OF PREVIOUS RESEARCH QUALITY AND RANGE OF BACKGROUND READING

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Level 3 - Research Paper Assessment Form (E	English	ı Liı	ıgı	iist	ics)	
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Level MA - Research Paper Assessment Form (English For critical examination	Li	ing	uis	tics	s)		
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Appendix I: Areas of language study in which papers might be written

Theoretical linguistics

- a comparison of two or more approaches to the description of language data
- the historical development of one major approach to language description
- a contrastive description of one structure (syntactic, morphological, phonological, etc.) using English and one other language (e.g. French, German, Italian, Spanish, Russian, Swahili, etc.)
- a critical evaluation of some of the literature on any one aspect of language structure (syntactic, morphological, phonological, etc.), e.g. passive vs. active, aspect/tense/modality, word ordering, noun phrase modification, question formation, quantifiers, etc.
- a critical evaluation of the empirical validation of linguistic theories in, for example, usage-based models or corpus linguistics

Problems of meaning

- a comparison of two or more approaches to lexical meaning
- a presentation of some of the problems involved in sense and reference relations
- a review of some of the problems of sentence meaning, e.g. compositional semantics vs. truth conditional semantics
- a review of processes of meaning extension and change and/or the cognitive processes underlying semantic and pragmatic interpretation (metaphor theory, mental space theory, frame semantics)
- a presentation of an approach to the problem of interpreting/deriving meaning, e.g. semiotics and the code model of meaning, Grice's Cooperative Principle, the theory of relevance, the cognitive approach to language and communication, etc.
- one area within the field of pragmatics, e.g. presuppositions, implicatures, utterance meaning vs. sentence meaning, etc.
- an illustration, using data, of the analytical usefulness of speech act theory
- a critical presentation of one work within the area of speech act theory or pragmatics

The study of discourse

- a presentation of some of the concepts of text linguistics, e.g. the notions of coherence and cohesion, notions such as topic vs. comment, focus, new vs. given information, etc.
- an analysis of a written text (literary or non-literary) along the lines of one set of theoretical principles, e.g. text linguistics, conversation analytic, narratological, interactional, etc.
- a contrastive presentation of some of the principles of two or more approaches to discourse, e.g. principles of the ethnography of communication, principles of conversation analysis, principles of ethnomethodology, etc.
- an interpretive analysis of an extract of real language data, e.g. radio phone-in programmes, discussions, TV programmes, family discourse, etc.
- a presentation of one form of discourse with concrete examples, e.g. magazine, newspaper or TV advertising, newspaper articles, academic discourse, public discussion/debate, lectures, etc.
- an analysis of one discourse structure, e.g. tag questions, pauses and silence, discourse markers like *well* or *you know*, rhythm and prosody, repetition, formulaic language such as

greetings, leave-takings, apologies, requests for information, etc.

Sociolinguistics and the sociology of language

- a critical evaluation of one well-known, influential work in quantitative sociolinguistics, e.g. Trudgill, Labov, Milroy, Cheshire, Horvath, etc.
- a critical discussion of some of the methodological problems in doing sociolinguistic research, e.g. devising questionnaires, choosing the linguistic and social variables to be tested, setting up a representative informant sample, statistical methods of evaluation, etc.
- a contrastive presentation of two or more approaches to the study of language and society, language and social interaction, e.g. the ethnography of speech/communication (or interactional sociolinguistics), large-scale quantitative field studies, language planning, etc.
- an analysis of data with regard to one aspect of language in society, e.g. male vs. female discourse strategies, power and status in language (doctor/patient discourse, teacher/student discourse, etc.), linguistic variation, code-switching and mixing, social discrimination through language use (racism, sexism, etc.), etc.
- the presentation of one problem of language maintenance in the English- speaking world, e.g. Irish in Ireland, Welsh and Gaelic in Britain, North American Indian languages in the USA and Canada, aboriginal languages in Australia, Maori in New Zealand, etc.
- a discussion of the status and support of community languages other than English in Britain, the USA, Canada, Australia, etc.
- a presentation of some work on English-based pidgins and creoles
- a description of one or more English-based pidgin or creole
- a presentation of some of the problems involved in bilingualism

Anthropological linguistics

- the presentation of one or more works on the significance of language for the development of ethnic identity
- a presentation of some problems in cross-cultural (or intercultural) communication, e.g. in certain forms of discourse (courts, business, education, etc.), involving cultural differences (pausing, prosodic structure, intervention and interruption, use of discourse markers, etc.)
- a critical assessment of studies on the relationship between language, culture, and thought (linguistic relativity; Sapir-Whorf hypothesis)
- a presentation of the methods of ethnography and participant observation, including the problem of the observer's paradox
- a critical appraisal of a choice of texts on politeness phenomena across cultures

Standard and dialect

- a presentation of works assessing the distinction between formal vs. informal styles, colloquial language vs. slang, etc.
- a presentation of works dealing with the notion of standard language and processes of standardization
- a review of dialect studies and studies on accent
- a discussion of attitudes towards language as these are presented in the literature, e.g. stigmatisation of dialect, prescriptive teaching methods, etc.

Corpus linguistics

- the qualitative and/or quantitative analysis of select features in a large publicly available corpus (e.g. BNC) or a corpus available under licence (e.g. ANC, ICE corpora, Helsinki Corpus, Toronto Corpus)
- The collection of own corpus material based on written data, or on transcribed oral data and a description of the material in comparison with existing descriptions in descriptive grammars or in comparison with other sets of data
- re-evaluation of previous corpus studies under different criteria
- studies on the distributional behaviour of lexemes or constructions
- corpus based studies on features of social, regional, or genre variation or historical development of features

Historical linguistics

- a critical presentation of the development of one linguistic structure in English, e.g. syntactic, morphological, phonological, lexical, etc.
- a description of early grammars of English either from the sixteenth or the seventeenth century a critical evaluation of one work on historical linguistics
- an analysis of a text from an earlier period of English (up to 1600) to display typical features of that period in the development of English and changes that have taken place since then

Linguistics and the study of literature

- a presentation of linguistic analyses of literary texts
- a critical appraisal of two or more theories of narratology (i.e. the structural / functional approach to the study of narrative texts)
- a presentation of approach(es) to the area of style and language, e.g. linguistic differences in the style of two authors, linguistic differences in the dominant styles of two different historical periods, the empirical stylistic approach to literary texts, etc. a brief analysis of one short literary text based on linguistic methods

The acquisition of language

- a presentation of different theoretical approaches to the question of child language acquisition
- a presentation of aspects of language acquisition using data from the literature, e.g. the acquisition of word meanings, the acquisition of syntax, the acquisition of phonology, etc.
- a brief review of interactional aspects of language acquisition, e.g. nature of the input data, Child Directed Speech, prelinguistic development, etc.
- a critical presentation of form(s) of impairment in language acquisition, i.e. a form of disability
- a critical presentation of theory/theories of natural second language acquisition in comparison with the processes of first language acquisition

Language teaching/learning

- a contrastive presentation of theories of language learning in an institutional (school) framework
- a critical presentation of error analysis and the theory of interlanguage
- a presentation of new ideas on language teaching/learning, e.g. immersion programmes, suggestopedia, the silent method, communicative approaches, group interaction, etc.

- a critical assessment of some of the forms of bilingual education
- a description of aspects of language in the education systems of English- speaking countries, e.g. in Britain (problems of multiculturalism / multilingualism, Welsh and English, new forms of oral evaluation in language examinations, etc.), in the USA (the problem of African American Vernacular English in the educational system, Spanish and English, etc.), in Canada (immersion programmes, problems of migrant groups), in Australia (new forms of language education in the light of the national policy on languages), etc.

Neurolinguistics

• a description of what is known about areas of the brain associated with language - a brief presentation of some of the clinical and therapeutic problems associated with language, e.g. forms of aphasia caused through brain damage, dyslexia, autism, etc.

Psycholinguistics

- a critical presentation of some models of language comprehension or production
- an explanation of some examples of performance errors in language
- a brief critical appraisal of ideas concerning the psychological reality of linguistic theories