Institute of British Studies

English Linguistics

Guidelines for term papers and final theses (*stylesheet*)

This document provides guidance for the writing of term papers and final theses in English Linguistics. It considers content-related aspects as well as formal requirements and recommendations, and issues of data presentation. It thus covers diverse aspects of writing conventions in linguistics and beyond, often at a considerable level of detail in order to be fully instructive. You should not feel discouraged by this. Adhering to *all* details of the present guidelines consistently will amount to more than just a solid quality of formatting and structure (required for passing an exam); it will yield an *excellent* quality close to professional publication standards.

While term papers and final theses in linguistics tend to follow a typical structure, note that topics can be quite individual and might require individual solutions. It is therefore essential that you consult your course instructor or supervisor!

Note: We will often simply refer to *papers*. However, what we say is relevant for final theses, too. If certain points are relevant for final theses only, we will indicate this.

If you spot mistakes or have suggestions for updated versions of this document, please send an email to ole.schuetzler@uni-leipzig.de .

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Contents

1   Introduction

In this section, we highlight a few points that will be developed in more detail below. When writing a paper, you should constantly bear these in mind, particularly before the final revision. If your paper meets the general description given in Section 1.1, it will likely be a success.

1.1 What a term paper or thesis in linguistics is about

In the term paper or thesis, you are supposed to show that you can apply your knowledge of linguistic facts, theories and methodologies to a concrete research topic. This involves

    (i)   the identification and formulation of a sensible research question or hypothesis,
    (ii)   motivating your research question based on what you know about language and linguistic theories,
    (iii) supporting your topic with an appropriate selection of literature,
    (iv) choosing and justifying a methodological approach to your analysis,
    (v)   presenting your results, and
    (vi) discussing your results against the background of your initial questions and hypotheses.

In addition, you need to structure and present your entire paper in such a way that it is accessible, easy to follow, and conforms to certain formal requirements.

Like term papers, final theses can be based on or inspired by the content of a particular seminar or lecture, but you can also follow your own interests. To find a suitable supervisor for your topic, have a look at the institute website, where members of the Linguistics Department list their personal research interests, then get in touch with them. Also have a look at the document "Themenvorschläge für Abschlussarbeiten" ('Suggested topics for BA/MA theses'). The idea is not to simply copy those topics, but the list can provide general inspiration.

1.2 What is important in a paper or thesis

Your paper should have a clearly defined, reasonably specific topic, typically with a research question, perhaps even with a certain expectation or hypothesis. Specific questions or hypotheses are normally not part of the title, but need to be stated clearly in the introduction. Bear in mind the difference between a general research area and a specific, more focused research topic. Your paper needs to be specific, even if you contextualise it within a broader area, and the title of your paper should reflect this.

Your paper should have a transparent, motivated, balanced and easy-to-follow general structure. The overall architecture of the paper needs to be such that it maximally supports the topic or research objective. As you write, you need to be confident that all the parts you include in your paper are necessary and serve a purpose, that they are arranged in a sensible sequence, that they have the right proportions, and that they communicate with each other, as far as

appropriate. If you catch yourself writing merely in order to fill pages or reach the word limit, take this as a warning sign. These aspects will be discussed in more detail in Section 2.

In your paper, you should respect certain formal conventions and present content in a tidy and relatively standard way. This concerns the general layout of the paper, the numbering of figures, tables, and – very importantly – providing references for works cited in your paper. These aspects are covered in depth in Sections 2.8 and 4.

Papers in linguistics will usually have an empirical component. That is, you will inspect linguistic evidence (*data*) in order to answer your research questions, or confirm or reject your hypotheses. Section 3.4 will provide a few recommendations on how to illustrate results of empirical investigations.

1.3 What is *not* important in a paper or thesis

A common fallacy is to assume that you must come up with something that is spectacularly new or original. This is not required – even professional linguists often contribute to existing research in a relatively modest, incremental way, e.g. by taking a slightly different perspective on a well-known problem, refining an existing theory or testing someone else's results against a new dataset. Do not waste your time looking for something nobody ever did before. However, if you *do* have a truly original idea, by all means go ahead!

Your responsibility is to take your academic paper through all the required stages in the appropriate way. It is *not* your responsibility to produce exciting results that support your hypothesis or answer your research question in a straightforward way. You may be disappointed if results are inconclusive or even directly run counter to what you expected, but this, too, is valuable evidence.

1.4 Length

Term papers should have a length of approximately 10 pages, if you follow the guidelines concerning page layout described in Sections 3.1 and 3.2. You can find up-to-date information concerning the length of MA- and BA-theses here. If you are studying for the Staatsexamen (Lehramt), the length of your final thesis depends on your exact degree (Gymnasium: approx. 60 pages; Mittelschule/Sonderpädagogik: approx. 50 pages; Grundschule: approx. 40 pages).

The page count includes all text from the introduction to (and including) the conclusion, also including tables, figures and formulas. It excludes the cover page, the table of contents, the bibliography, appendices and the affidavit. You should in any case provide the exact number of words of your paper or thesis at the bottom of the last page of the main text.

1.5 Submission

1.5.1 Term papers

We encourage the submission of terms papers in a digital format, sent by email. Please check with your instructor if they require a hard copy in addition to a pdf-file. In this case, the hard copy needs to be identical to the digital copy. Please do not staple the pages together or use plastic folders. See further information in the examination regulations ('Prüfungsordnung').

1.5.2 BA/MA theses

You need to submit two printed copies and two identical digital copies (e.g. CDs) of your thesis to the examination office ('Prüfungsamt'). Further instructions can be found in the documents "Hinweise zur Bachelor/Master-Arbeit" ('information concerning BA/MA theses') and the examination regulations (§ 19 Prüfungsordnung für den Bachelorstudiengang/Masterstudiengang Anglistik an der Universität Leipzig). In addition, you should send an identical digital version to you supervisors.

1.5.3 Wissenschaftliche Arbeit (State Board Examination / Lehramt)

You need to submit one printed and bound and one digital copy (on a CD or USB drive) of your thesis to the LaSuB and two printed copies and two digital copies (in this case as an email attachment) to your supervisors; see further instructions in the examination regulations for teacher training programmes (§ 11 Lehramtsprüfungsordnung/LAPO I). Digital copies must be identical to hard copies.

1.5.4 Cases of illness during the writing process

Should you fall ill whilst writing your paper, it is advisable to contact your supervisors. If you are writing a term paper or BA/MA thesis, you must submit your original doctor's certificate to the examination office ('Prüfungsmanagement') and submit a copy of the certificate along with the paper. If you are writing your final thesis as a teacher trainee, you must send your application for an extension along with your original doctor's certificate to the LaSuB and, once the extension is granted, submit a copy of the certificate along with the thesis.

1.6 Before you start

Before you even begin writing your paper, you should familiarize yourself with the tools you are using. In modern word processors like *Microsoft Word* or *OpenOffice Writer* (and also typesetting tools like *LaTeX*), there are many helpful functions that can assist you. For instance, instead of setting the typeface or the line spacing by hand, make use of pre-defined *formatting styles* ('Formatvorlagen'). This not only ensures that the layout of your paper is consistent, but it also makes it possible to generate the table of contents automatically. Once set up, you can re-cycle your styles for future papers (and with relatively small changes also for papers in other subjects).

1.7 Proofreading

Do not forget to thoroughly proofread your paper, or even better, have someone else proofread it for you. Spellcheckers will never find all mistakes, and a proofreader may also give you important hints concerning style or terminology. Even a well-researched paper will appear sloppy and amateurish if sprinkled with typos and grammar mistakes.

2   Content and general structure

Any (empirical) academic paper or thesis minimally consists of the following parts in the given order.

Title page (Section 2.1)

Table of contents (Section 2.2)   *Frontmatter*

Introduction (Section 2.3)

Research background

Method & data   *Main part,* or *body*

Results   (Section 2.4)

Discussion

Conclusion (Section 2.5)

Bibliography/References (Section 2.6)   *Backmatter*

Affidavit ('Eigenständigkeitserklärung'; Section 2.7)

In some cases, you might need to add an appendix (see Section 2.8), which is then inserted between the references and the affidavit and should be listed in the table of contents. In final theses, you may also want to provide a list of figures, a list of tables and a list of abbreviations, all of which are then inserted between the table of contents and the introduction and should be listed in the table of contents.

2.1 Title page

The (unnumbered) title page – or cover page – specifies the context in which the paper was written, states the title and provides information about the author, i.e. *you*. There are minor differences between term papers and final theses, as outlined below.

Figure 1 shows what kind of information needs to be given on the title page of a term paper. Note that this is a miniature example merely intended to indicate the position of content.

Title pages for final theses look very similar but differ in three points: (i) In the top left corner, instead of module, seminar, instructor and semester you simply state the two supervisors; (ii) immediately preceding the title, you need to specify the type of thesis, in the same font size, centred, but non-italic (e.g. "MA thesis", "BA thesis"); and (iii) in the bottom right corner, you do not need to state your semester of study.
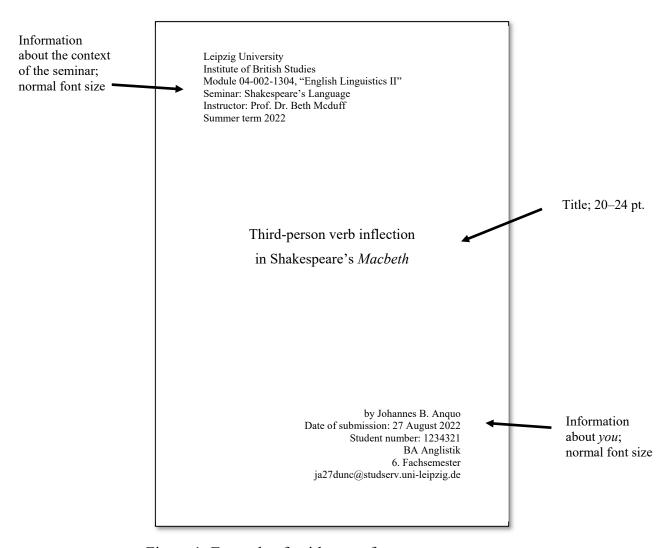
Information
about the context
of the seminar;
normal font size →

Leipzig University
Institute of British Studies
Module 04-002-1304, "English Linguistics II"
Seminar: Shakespeare's Language
Instructor: Prof. Dr. Beth Mcduff
Summer term 2022

Title; 20–24 pt.

Third-person verb inflection

in Shakespeare's *Macbeth*

by Johannes B. Anquo
Date of submission: 27 August 2022
Student number: 1234321
BA Anglistik
6. Fachsemester
ja27dunc@studserv.uni-leipzig.de

Information
about *you*;
normal font size

Figure 1: Example of a title page for a term paper

2.2 Table of contents

The table of contents is also on an unnumbered page and directly follows the title page. It lists all the chapters/sections of the paper with their respective page numbers, starting either with the introduction or any lists (e.g. of figures or tables) that precede it. The first numbered section should always be the introduction; references, appendices and the affidavit are listed but not part of the numbered chapter structure, as shown in Figure 2. Again, note that the ratio of page size and text is not realistic in the example.

A table of contents can be generated relatively easily if you use pre-defined *formatting styles* ('Formatvorlagen'), in this case headings. See Section 3.3 for further information on hierarchically organised headings.

Contents

Figure 2: Example of a table of contents

2.3 Introduction

The introduction of an academic paper is supposed to prepare the reader for the topic of the paper and give a brief outlook on what you are going to discuss and in which way you approach the topic. Essentially, it should give the reader a clear idea of what to expect and why to be interested.

You should therefore provide answers to the following questions:

- What is the general research area, and, within this, what is the more specific focus of your work?
- What is the main leading question you are going to answer in your paper? (You should be able to summarize this question in one sentence.)
- If there are any: What are your expectations or hypotheses?
- What is the theoretical background of the paper? (Theories need to be explained in more detail in the main part of the paper, but do state them in general terms here.)

- What is your methodological approach, what data will you use? (Without going into too much detail here...)
- What is the structure of your paper?

The exact nature of your data (e.g. corpora, sound files, comments collected in online forums, etc.) and methods (e.g. corpus analyses, acoustic analysis, statistical test, etc.) need to be explained in detail in the respective chapters in the main part of the paper, but in the Introduction you should give the reader a rough idea.

2.4 Main part (*Body*)

The structure of the main part of your paper largely depends on the length of the submission, the approach, methodology, and goals of the paper and the research topic; it should therefore be tailored to the individual submission. It makes a big difference whether you write an empirical paper (based on language data) or an argumentative/theoretical paper. The individual sections below mainly focus on the empirical type of paper.

When your work is based on empirical data, there will usually be a section describing the methodology you used and at least one section in which you present and discuss the results. The discussion of the results may also take place in the conclusion (see 2.4.3).

Non-empirical papers may have a different structure. Please talk to your supervisor for more information.

When writing the main part of your paper, pay attention to the following points:

- Be coherent: There should be clear links between paragraphs and chapters, so that each builds upon the previous and the relations that hold between different parts of the paper are clear. Within sections, this can be supported by conjuncts such as *therefore*, *moreover*, *on the other hand*, etc.
- Be concise: Discuss only what is relevant to your leading question(s) and do not get side-tracked by matters like biographical information about a linguist, unnecessary historical detail, or funny occurrences during your data collection.[1] Do not let data and quotations speak for themselves. Both are no more than the means that help you to argue your point, so tell your reader to what extent they support your hypothesis and which conclusions you draw from them. *You* may be aware of what things mean, but your reader(s) may need more guidance.
- Chapter headings should support your linguistic narrative. They should be short and precise, i.e. they should not suggest more to the reader than what is actually dealt with in the respective part. Also avoid overly general headings such as "Chapter 1" or "Main Part" and do not use the title of your whole paper as a chapter heading.

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[1] Sometimes a very short anecdotal opener (some personal observation, some statement that you found controversial) can be appropriate at the very beginning of a paper to pique the reader's curiosity and to start on a somewhat more personal note. However, if you employ this sort of thing at all, you should do so with moderation and transition very quickly into an academic style.

2.4.1 Research background

Depending on the scope of the topic and the length of the paper, the research background for your paper may be presented in a relatively simple chapter, a chapter subdivided into several subchapters, or even in more than one chapter.

Neither the methodology nor the data are described in this part (see 2.4.2).

In everything you do here, choose what is relevant and contributes to answering your leading research question. Quote the most important pieces of information, summarize different authors' arguments and express your own well-founded thoughts on them. Do not try to be comprehensive: If some piece of previous work fits your general topic but takes a completely different methodological approach, or uses completely different data and thus does not easily compare to what you have in mind, you can explain very briefly why you do not discuss those sources in detail.

2.4.2 Data and Methods

In this section, you should enable the reader to understand and evaluate how you arrived at your results:

- Specify the source of your data, how you retrieved them, and explain their structure and quality.
- Describe your method of analysis (e.g. annotation of corpus material, annotation of sound files, categorisation of responses given in a survey on language attitudes, quantification and perhaps statistical analysis of results etc.).
- Be transparent and clear, and do not keep silent about shortcomings and aspects that turned out to be problematic. Ideally, a reader will be able to replicate the same study, if they are given access to your data source, and they will also be able to adapt your method to their specific needs.

The order of the "Method" and "Data" parts is free, and sometimes the two are closely intertwined, e.g. because a certain method is employed to generate the data in the first place. It therefore makes sense to think about this as a sequence – simply describe the steps you took in your study. It may also make sense to subdivide the chapter into sections such as "Corpora", "Data retrieval and annotation" and "Statistical analysis", or the like.

2.4.3 Results

In a term paper, results can often be presented and discussed in the same chapter. In a thesis, you may wish to have separate chapters for the presentation (or description) of your results and their discussion (or interpretation).

Results can include the following, for example:

- the number of times a phenomenon occurred in one type of text compared to another (e.g. in speech vs writing),
- the proportion or percentage of a variant – e.g. articulated postvocalic /r/ as opposed to nonrhotic pronunciation – in one group of speakers as compared to another,
- the average reading time for one type of sentence (e.g. ambiguous ones) as compared to another type (e.g. non-ambiguous), or
- changes in the text frequency of a word or construction over a certain period of time.

Make sure that your results are maximally accessible to readers. Many term papers present numerical evidence (e.g. percentages for different linguistic phenomena and social groups or speakers) purely within the text. This is not wrong, but it will often be difficult to follow – even simple percentages can be very hard to process if there are many of them, and they are embedded in the general narrative! So consider making use of tables and graphs, or a combination of both. Graphs (e.g. generated in Microsoft Excel) are in most cases preferable, but it really depends on the complexity of your results. You can also present easy-to-read graphs in the text and relegate the precise numbers to a table in the appendix.

2.4.4 Discussion

Very importantly, discuss what answers to your research questions are suggested by your results, and also discuss their wider implications for theory, if appropriate. It is here that your paper is beginning to come full circle: Results must connect directly to the research questions and the theoretical chapter(s). It does not hurt to occasionally remind the reader why you are presenting this or that graph or table, and to which part of your topic it contributes.

2.5 Conclusion

The concluding chapter presents a concise summary of the entire paper:

- Briefly re-state the goals and expectations of your study and the data and method(s) you employed,
- summarise your findings, and whether or not they confirmed your expectations or hypotheses,
- discuss aspects you may not have been able to discuss, and
- if appropriate, give an outlook to open questions that can be addressed in future research.

Remember that the introduction and conclusion form the "frame" of your paper. Their contents should thus match very closely; in other words, you should not promise something in the introduction which you cannot keep in the conclusion.

2.6 References

The list of references must contain all the works that you mention in the text in alphabetical order. While the greater omission is to cite a text without listing it here, you should also check that you do not list works that do not actually feature in your text. References are not part of the numbered chapter structure of your paper. The format of the bibliography and the conventions for in-text citations are described in more detail in Section 4.

A common question concerns the number of sources required for a term paper or final thesis. This depends strongly on your topic, and your supervisor can give you advice.

2.7 Affidavit

You must abide by the terms of the following affidavit and include it on a separate, signed sheet at the very end of your submission:

I hereby certify that the submitted work is wholly my own work, and that all quotations and lines of reasoning from primary and secondary sources have been acknowledged. I further certify that the work has not been submitted previously, in the present or a modified form, including submission in a different language, by myself or any other person. Plagiarism and other unacknowledged debts will be penalised and may lead to failure in the whole examination and degree.

2.8 Appendices

Material is optionally included in an appendix if it is too long or elaborate for the main text. Thus, an appendix typically contains supplementary and further illustrative material like sample concordances, stimulus sentences used in an experiment, parts of (or an entire) questionnaire, tables with results that are too detailed to be of use in the main parts of your paper (where you may rely on simplified tables and/or plots).

Appendices provide extra information for readers who want to see more details, and it also further documents the work and thought you have put into your paper. Bear in mind that the main paper still needs to be a complete and convincing piece of work in itself, and readers need to understand your conclusions and arguments without referring to the appendix.

3   Layout, formatting and typography

3.1 Page layout, indentation and justification

Pages should be in A4 (portrait), with margins of 3 cm on the left and right and 2.5 cm at the top and bottom. The table of contents, the first chapter, the references, the appendix and the affidavit all start on a fresh page.

The text should be *justified* on both sides ('Blocksatz') and paragraphs should either have their first lines indented by half an inch (1.25 cm), or have a small extra space of about 6 points between them. If you choose to indent the paragraphs, make sure that the first paragraph after a headline does not have such an indentation.

Check for *orphans* and *widows* ('Absatzkontrolle'). An orphan is a single line which appears at the bottom of one page, while the rest of the paragraph is on the next page. Avoid widow lines as well, i.e. the last line of a paragraph should not happen to be isolated on the next page.

3.2 Fonts, font sizes and line spacing

The standard font is Times New Roman 12 pt. The *line spacing* ('Zeilenabstand') of your running text should be set to factor 1.5. Longer quotations, footnotes and the list of references should be single-spaced (see Section 4.2.2 for longer quotations).

3.3 Numbering of pages and headings

Starting from the Introduction, each page with the exception of the affidavit needs to have a page number in Arabic numerals. If there are lists of tables, figures and abbreviations that

intervene between table of contents and first chapter in a longer paper, these are typically counted in small Roman numerals. You can achieve different formats for page numbers by introducing a *section break* ('Abschnittswechsel') in Word.

Use Arabic numerals for headings (e.g. "2", "2.3" or "5.1.2"). Three levels should be sufficient in term papers, maximally four levels in final theses. If you think you require more than that, you should consider revising the outline of your paper – as a rule of thumb, a subsection should contain more than just a single idea expressed in a single paragraph.

Each lower level in the hierarchy of chapters should at least consist of two headings – for instance, you should not have a single "dangling" subsection 2.1 within chapter 2. Note again that the references section and (optional) appendices do not have numbered headings. For a suggestion as to what the table of contents can look like see Figure 2 in Section 2.2 above.

3.4 Tables and figures

You may wish to summarise and illustrate your results with the help of tables and figures. Tables present information in rows and columns. Figures may include graphs, photographs, maps etc. The function of figures and tables is to support what you discuss in the text, *not* to replace the text. Therefore never just insert the table or figure without discussing them. Do not use both a table and a figure for representing the same data; instead, decide on the more effective illustration.

Tables and figures should be horizontally centred on the page. They must be numbered consecutively and have a *caption* (title), which is also centred and placed consistently either below or above the table/figure.

When referring to a figure or table in the text, mention the number given in the caption and spell *Table* and *Figure* with capital letters, e.g. "cf. Table 1", or "this contrast is shown in Figure 2". Tables should have single line spacing (although some additional space between rows may be appropriate) and avoid vertical lines. See Table 1 for an example.

Speaker	Age	Gender	Occupation
Hannah	23	f.	student
Josh	35	m.	accountant
Peter	20	m.	student
Kay	31	other	teacher

Table 1: Example of a data table

When using figures to illustrate numerical data, make sure that axes are correctly labelled: Readers need to know if they are looking at raw frequencies or normalised frequencies found in a corpus, or if you are using a percentage scale.

3.5 Linguistic examples

Linguistic examples (e.g. from corpora, from the literature or of your own making) should be numbered consecutively throughout your paper and may be referred to in the text by means of

these numbers. A basic example is shown in (1), where the corpus source (corpus and text identifier) is given in square brackets.

> (1)   I am scared about grammar <,> what about you <,> [ICE-IND:S1A-064]

Examples considered ungrammatical are marked by an asterisk (*), as in (2):

> (2)   * My brother, what lives in Washington, is a corporate lawyer.

Related examples can be subsumed under a single number and distinguished by adding a letter. This is shown in (3), where the original corpus example is again given with its source, examples derived by the author are given under letters "b" and "c".

> (3) a.   I suspect I need to adjust something there. [ICE-NIG, social letters 13]
>
>   b.   I suspect I have to adjust something there.
>
>   c.   I suspect I must adjust something there.

In your text you can then refer to the instances listed in (3) as "(3a)", "(3b)" and "(3c)", respectively. Always be explicit about the source of your examples if they are not your own. Instead of the corpus source, as in (1) above, you can also state a publication in which you found the example. This can be seen in (4), which is also maximally transparent about the highlighting italics:

> (4)   I didn't invite her. She wouldn't have come, *anyway*.
>   [Quirk et al. 1985: 441; italics in original]

It is possible to create a *formatting style* ('Formatvorlage') for your examples, so that you do not have to keep track of numbering yourself.

3.6 Typography

3.6.1 Quotation marks

Use typographically correct quotation marks in your paper. Opening and closing marks in English look like a tiny 6 and a tiny 9 respectively ('…', "…") and are referred to as *typographic*, *curved* or *curly quotation marks*. Do not use what is variously called *neutral*, *vertical*, *straight* or *typewriter quotation marks* ('…', "…"), nor use German-style quotation marks („…").

Double quotation marks are used for shorter, direct quotations, and for terminology that you mention but do not intend to use yourself.

Aarts (1988: 40) describes concession as "a fuzzy semantic notion".

Quirk et al. (1985: 1036) introduce the term "resolution" when describing complex sentences with the maximally emphasised clause in final position. In this thesis, however, clausal constructions like this are explained via the principle of *end-focus*.

Single quotation marks are used for meanings and definitions (including translations from languages other than English) and quotations within quotations.

The Old English verb *sellan* had the general meaning of 'give'; Middle English *sellen*, however, was narrowed to 'sell', that is, 'give for money'.

In the German original, Menzerath (1941: 19) refers to this property of a diphthong as "Eingipfligkeit" ('having a single peak').

Never use quotation marks for emphasis, since a reader is likely to interpret this as irony. For single quotation marks, use the apostrophe, which is found on the same key as the hash sign (#) on a German standard keyboard. Your word processor will normally recognise from the context whether you are using an opening or closing mark, but there are cases in which this goes wrong.

3.6.2 Italics, bold print and underlining

Italics are the main highlighting device. They are used in the following cases:

• For marking what is called "object-language forms", i.e. letters, words, phrases or sentences that are cited within your text. This does not apply to whole corpus examples that are indicated and numbered as such (see Section 3.5), or to phonetic or phonological representations that are bracketed accordingly (see Section 3.6.6).

The word *catalytic* only becomes more frequent in the second half of the twentieth century.

• For the indication of titles of books, journals, or films, and the like:

The language of Irvine Welsh's novel *Trainspotting* was greeted as a realistic kind of urban Scots by many, but condemned as pure gutter language by some.

• For technical terms that you introduce and specify for use in your work. This only needs to be done once, or if you contrast your use of a term with that of another author:

Throughout this thesis, I use the term *stylistic variation* to denote all kinds of context-dependent variation within a single speech community.

• For emphasis of a particular word that is not a technical term:

It is remarkable that the authors found this particular variant in New York City, but *only* in New York City.

• For emphasis within a quotation, with the indication ["emphasis mine"] or ["my italics"] at the end of the quotation:

However, 'Liverpool also continued to do well on the *culture* front' (Juskan 2018: 21; emphasis mine).

Italics are not used for commonly used loanwords (ad hoc, façon de parler, e.g., et al., Sprachbund, a priori, vis-à-vis). If in doubt as to whether or not some such expression is "commonly used", it might be a good idea to rephrase. If you have to italicize something within a stretch of italics, the type is normally switched back to roman type.

There is typically no need for you to use underlining in your paper, and the same goes for bold print. If you do need to highlight elements at different levels, make sure that you use a consistent system.

3.6.3 Hyphens and dashes

You need to distinguish between hyphens (-) and dashes (–). While hyphens are used to join words or syllables (e.g. twenty-three), dashes indicate parenthetical expressions – such as this one – and ranges of numerical values (e.g. page numbers or percentage ranges in an empirical paper, such as "20–30 years of age"). Dashes used in parenthetical expressions are surrounded by spaces, those indicating a range are not.

3.6.4 IPA characters

If you need to include IPA symbols, make sure to use an appropriate Unicode font that roughly matches the look of your running text. Widely used character sets (e.g. Times New Roman or Cambria) now include all the standard IPA symbols needed for English transcription. In addition, SIL International offers two standard typefaces (Doulos SIL and Charis SIL) that provide well designed, free-of-charge IPA fonts. Do not forget to enclose phonemic transcriptions in slashes /…/ and phonetic transcriptions in square brackets […].

In order to add IPA characters to your document, you can either work directly from Word, using the path Insert > Symbol > Other symbols ('Einfügen > Symbol > Weitere Symbole'). The IPA Character Picker (Ishida 2010) is a helpful online tool for selecting the appropriate IPA symbols, as is the website https://ipa.typeit.org/. Both of these enable you to generate IPA transcriptions online, either by clicking on buttons or using keyboard shortcuts. You can then copy your characters and paste them into Word.

3.6.5 Numbers

As term papers are written in English, you need to use the respective decimal marks (.) and separators for thousands (,) when discussing numbers, as in the second column of Table 2.

German-style number	English-style number
203,51	203.51
1.250,7	1,250.7
2.000.000	2,000,000

Table 2: German and English conventions for writing numbers

If you tabulate numbers, make sure that the decimal separators are aligned within columns. Think about how many places after the comma you need to report. Fewer is usually better, but this also depends on the overall magnitude of your numbers. For instance, "31% vs. 42%" is typically good enough; "31.2% vs. 42.1%% is more precise but still rather clear, while "31.24% vs. 42.13%" is unnecessarily precise.

3.6.6 Conventionalised brackets

Square brackets [...] are used for phonetic transcription, *slashes* or *slant brackets* /.../ for phonemic transcription.

In this study, all occurrences of /r/ in syllable codas are classified as one of four possible variants: [r], [ɾ], [ɹ] or the vocalised zero variant.

Curly (or *brace*) *brackets* {...} are used for morphemes, *angle brackets* <...> for graphemes.

According to the Scottish Vowel Length Rule, the vowel in *brewed* is only long because that particular word can be analysed into {brew} + {past}, and the vowel is therefore positioned immediately before a morpheme boundary.

This text shows the typical Early Modern English distribution of <v> and <u> in words such as *vniuersitie* ('university'), *uerilie* ('verily') and *inuent* ('invent').

Square brackets are also used when you make a legitimate (often minimal) change or add a comment to a direct quotation or a corpus example. These cases are explained in Section 4.2 ("In-text citation").

3.6.7 Footnotes

Footnotes can provide additional information that is relevant in the given context but not of central importance to understanding your argument. You should use them sparingly, particularly in a term paper, and consider in each case whether they should not rather be incorporated into the main text or left out altogether.

You should ask yourself two questions: (i) Is this information important and interesting enough to be stated, and (ii) would including the information in the text distract the reader from what you mainly want to say? If the answer is "yes" to both questions, you can add a footnote.

4 Citations, referencing and plagiarism

Our guidelines for referencing closely follow the *Unified Style Sheet* of the *Linguistic Society of America*.

4.1 General remarks

Knowing how and what to cite is essential when writing an academic paper. Failure to use references and citations correctly not only withholds important information from your readers, but can even result in charges of plagiarism and academic dishonesty. It is therefore vital that you present correct and complete information on the sources you use.

There are different ways of documenting cited material. The method presented here is one of the most commonly used in linguistics and convenient both for the reader and the author of a paper. We strongly recommend that you follow this model.

Sources used in your paper need to be presented in two places: (i) the short reference within the running text and (ii) the complete list of references at the end of the paper (see Section 2.6). If an idea or fact you present is not your own and cannot be assumed to be common knowledge, you are expected to cite it in the text.

You should focus on citing up-to-date literature including journal articles. Good starting points for your literature search are Google Scholar, the MLA International Bibliography and the Bibliography of Linguistic Literature, accessible via DBIS (Datenbank-Infosystem).

In general, do not overuse direct quotation since your own voice and line of argument can easily be lost in a "patchwork" of other authors' writing. Make paraphrases of the original content, your default instead. Sources for paraphrases also need to be given. Do not quote your lecture or seminar.

4.2 In-text citation

You can cite literature either by using quotations or by paraphrasing the content. In both cases, you must provide a reference. Shorter direct quotations within the text are marked by double quotation marks. The source of a quotation within the text is rendered as "AUTHOR (YEAR:

PAGE)" if the author is actually a constituent of your sentence, but as "(Author Year: Page)" if it is not. Note that the reference is never placed after a punctuation mark.

Aijmer (2013: 4) suggests that pragmatic markers function as "overt indicators of (or windows on) ongoing metalinguistic activity in the speaker's mind."

For this reason, pragmatic markers have been described as "overt indicators of (or windows on) ongoing metalinguistic activity in the speaker's mind" (Aijmer 2013: 4).

If you cite entire works (e.g. books, chapters in edited volumes or journal articles) in a general way, stating page numbers is not necessary.

First-generation (Labovian) sociolinguistic research in Scotland was undertaken by Macaulay & Trevelyan (1977), Romaine (1978) and Speitel & Johnston (1983), for example.

If you provide several sources within a single pair of parentheses, separate them with semicolons or commas.

The late 1970s and early 1980s saw the emergence of sociolinguistic studies on Scottish English that followed a traditional Labovian approach (e.g. Macaulay & Trevelyan 1977; Romaine 1978; Speitel & Johnston 1983).

For citations with two or three authors, cite all author names (e.g. "Biber & Conrad 2009" or "Stuart-Smith, Timmins & Tweedie 2007"). If there are more than three authors, the abbreviation "et al." (for Latin *et alii* 'and others') can be substituted for all but the first author (e.g. "Quirk et al. 1985" instead of "Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik 1985"). However, in the list of references *all* author names must be given. For cases in which there are multiple publications by a single author form the same year see Section 4.3.1.

If the same source is quoted multiple times in a single paragraph, you may use the abbreviation "ibid." (short for Latin *ibidem* 'in this place'). If the subsequent citation refers to the same page(s) as the earlier one, no page numbers are necessary, else you need to state the page or page range.

According to Cleveland (1993: 2), two processes are involved in visualization: (i) Encoding quantitative and categorical information into a display and (ii) visually decoding the information. Successful visualization methods result in "efficient, accurate decoding", while unsuccessful visualization results in "inefficient, inaccurate decoding" (ibid.). If successful, visualization conveys more information than other approaches (ibid.: 5).

4.2.1 Comments and omissions

It is unacceptable to change the form or content of a quotation, e.g. giving a translation or adding italics not present in the original. You may, however, make minor typographical adaptations, e.g. adding or removing capitalization at the beginning of a quotation so that it fits into the embedding sentence. Such changes must be made transparent by putting them in square brackets. In the following case, the original text has *Attention* with a capital *A*, because it starts a sentence. The change makes the direct quote compatible with the surrounding syntax of *your* text without distorting or altering its meaning.

As Bell (1984: 150) explains, "[a]ttention is at most a mechanism of response intervening between a situation and a style."

Omissions within quotation marks are marked by three dots in square brackets "[…]". This also applies to corpus examples, which should basically be treated like direct quotations, except that you do not need to put them in quotation marks if they occur as numbered examples. In the next

(corpus) example, the author's interest may be only on the complementation pattern of the verb *start* (i.e. *start to protest* vs. *start protesting*), and much of the original corpus example is thus redundant and therefore left out.

> (5)   Kumi's mother started to protest […]. [ICE_NZ:W2F-010]

The next example once again has a lower-case letter substituted for a capital letter, and it additionally leaves out parts of the original sentence.

> As Goldstein (2011: 1) explains, "[i]ndividual people differ […], and this differentiation is mirrored in all kinds of social activity [...]."

Comments necessary to fully understand a direct quotation can be inserted in square brackets and need to be followed by your initials. A special kind of comment is "[sic]" (Latin for 'so', 'like this') to highlight a mistake in the original text, or a form so unusual that your readers might otherwise think that you quoted incorrectly.

> Hay & Sudbury (2005: 803) add the following caveat: "All of these claims about possible linguistic conditioning [of linking and intrusive /r/; OS], however, are based on informal observation and/or introspection."

> However, Sloppy (2022: 17) concedes that "the opprosite [sic] may also sometimes be the case."

4.2.2   Long direct quotations

Longer direct quotations of three or more lines begin on a new line, are single-spaced and indented by 1.25 cm on the left, and should be given a little extra interlinear space above and below. In this case, no quotation marks are needed. The exact source can be stated either in the text preceding the long quotation, or at the end of the indented text. In the following example, this would be after the full stop, thus: "... syntactic, or semantic information. (McMahon 1994: 70)". Note that the text *following* a long quotation – like text following a table or figure – is indented only if you start a new paragraph.

> McMahon (1994: 70) describes sound change proper as a relatively mechanistic process uninfluenced by other linguistic levels:
>
> > One major difference between sound change and analogy is that the former tends to involve only phonetic factors – in fact, both the Neogrammarians and the Structuralists made this a primary condition on sound change, which could never be sensitive to morphological, syntactic, or semantic information.
>
> She also explains that the irregularities generated by this kind of sound change are then partly reduced via analogical change (ibid.).

For long quotes, you may add an additional indent on the right, and you may also use a slightly reduced font size of (10 pt.). The use of long quotes is recommended only if the original wording of an idea is of particular relevance.

4.2.3   Quotations in other languages and indirect quotations

If you directly quote a source written in a language other than English, an English translation needs to be provided in single quotation marks. Make sure the quotation does not clash with the English syntax of the embedding text. For instance, a formulation like the following is rather awkward:

Menzerath (1941: 96) argues that "Diphthonge können in der Silbenstruktur keine andere Rolle spielen als die sonstigen Lautfolgen" ('within the structure of a syllable, diphthongs cannot play a different role than other sound sequences').

Here and in other cases, it might be more elegant to simply paraphrase into English and then give the German original in parentheses, or in a directly attached footnote.

Reproducing a direct or indirect quote you find in the literature without having seen the original should be the exception – you should only quote what you have actually checked against the original publication. Sometimes this may be unavailable, for instance if it is too old or un-published. In this case, your quotation might look like this:

In his following statement, Jamieson is quite vocal about the status of Scots: "I do not hesitate to call that the Scottish *Language*, which has generally been considered in no other light than as merely on a level with the different provincial dialects of the English" (Jamieson 1808: iv; quoted according to Beal 1997: 339).

If you quote Jamieson (1808) from Beal (1997) in this manner, you do not see the context of the original statement, and you need to trust Beal to have quoted accurately (which she has), including the italics in the original. It is easy to see how this can lead to small mistakes, inaccuracies or misrepresentations.

When quoting from second-hand sources, you still have to include bibliographical information on both the original text (Jamieson 1808) and the text from which you are quoting (Beal 1997) in your list of references. The same is true if you merely name studies that are quoted in the literature, e.g.:

Romaine (1978) mentions descriptions of early twentieth-century realisations of /r/ by Williams (1912) and Grant (1914).

In this case, you need to provide the reference for all three sources, even if you have not looked at Williams and Grant.

4.2.4 **Introducing quotations**

When you include a paraphrase, summary or direct quotation, you should introduce it with a signal phrase. This often employs the source text as the grammatical subject of the sentence, followed by a verb that is then appropriately complemented by what you wish to quote:

As Romaine (1982: 4) observes, "… ."

Krug (2000: 251) concludes that … .

Jowitt (2019: 32) claims "… ."

As claimed by Jowitt (2019: 32), ...

You are quoting texts, rather than persons. This is also why you generally use the present tense for the introduction of quotations and when referring to results and ideas from a source. Phrases like "As the famous linguist Randolph Quirk and his colleagues wrote in their ground-breaking grammar …" are not appropriate, and you should also not quote what your lecturer said in class.

4.2.5 **Citing corpora**

When introducing the corpus or corpora you use, give their full titles, cite their sources/compilers and introduce the abbreviation(s) you will be using to refer to the corpora. It can be tricky to obtain precise bibliographical information for corpora, and there is no standard

way of doing this – just be as explicit as you can. Apart from citing the corpus, it is crucial that you explain in your methodology section how you searched: Which online interface did you use, and when? If you searched text files, how did you obtain them?

The sources of individual corpus examples should be given in square brackets as described in Section 3.5 above. Typically you state the corpus abbreviation and the unique text identifier.

> (6)   Notwithstanding her high superiority both in capacity and knowledge, Mrs. Arlbery felt piqued by this behavior [...]. [ARCHER: 1796burn_f4b]

> (7)   We believe that there are good reasons to be confident of our future notwithstanding the hiccups that are bound to arise in the run-up to the nineteen ninety-seven [...]. [ICE-HK:S2B-050#68:1:A]

If there is no unique text identifier, provide other information that helps to pinpoint the exact location of the example in the corpus:

> (8)   And just because you don't understand it doesn't mean it's crazy. [COHA TV/movie, 1991]

If in doubt, consult your instructor/supervisor.

4.3 Bibliography

At the end of the paper (and before a potential appendix) a complete alphabetical list of the sources used for your work is placed, ordered according to the last name of the authors. It begins on a new page, is entitled "References" and does not carry a chapter number. All books and articles referred to in the text must be listed and, conversely, all those listed in the references must have been referred to in the text.

In some cases, it can make sense to subdivide your list of references into different parts. For example, if you use a large number of corpora, if you analyse the content of several different dictionaries, or if you use several audio databases, it might be tidier to present these under a separate sub-header ("Corpora", "Dictionaries" and "Audio sources", respectively).

4.3.1   Monographs, chapters in edited volumes and journal articles

In the titles of books and chapters/articles, follow the general capitalization rules you would use if writing a normal text (i.e. in English titles, only the first word as well as proper names are capitalized; in German titles, nouns are generally capitalized). Starting from the second line, each entry in your list of references should be indented by 1.25 cm. If there are several references that agree in author and year, the letters "a", "b" etc. are added after the year, both in the references in the text and in the list of references. First names of authors are spelled out, middle names may be abbreviated.

Monographs state the name(s) of the author(s), the year of publication, the title and subtitle (in italics), the number of the edition (if there is more than one), the number of volumes (if more than one) or the number of the volume that was used (in which case the subtitle of the volume may follow this information), the series and series volume number (if applicable), the place of publication and the publisher. An entry begins with the first author's surname; from the second author onwards, the surname *follows* the first name, without a comma.

> Jones, Charles (ed.). 1997. *The Edinburgh History of the Scots Language*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Kortmann, Bernd & Clive Upton (eds.). 2008. *Varieties of English*. Vol. 1: *The British Isles*. Berlin/New York: Mouton de Gruyter.

Rosen, Anna. 2014. *Grammatical variation and change in Jersey English* (Varieties of English Around the World 48). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Schmid, Hans-Jörg. 2005. *Englische Morphologie und Wortbildung: Eine Einführung* (Grundlagen der Anglistik und Amerikanistik 25). Berlin: Erich Schmidt.

Trudgill, Peter & Jean Hannah. 1994. *International English: A guide to the varieties of Standard English*. 3rd edition. London: Arnold.

Wells, John C. 1982. *Accents of English*. 3 vols. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

For a chapter published in a collection, you must cite its author and title etc., followed by a citation of the whole collection, which is preceded by "In:". In this context, "(ed.)" and "(eds.)" stand for "editor" and "editors", respectively. When stating the collection's editor(s), the sequence "SURNAME, FIRST NAME" is abandoned in favour of "FIRST NAME, SURNAME" for all authors. Note that only the title of the main collection is in italics and that the page numbers of the chapter that is cited stand at the very end of the entry.

Gut, Ulrike. 2012. Standards of English in West Africa. In: Raymond Hickey (ed.), *Standards of English: Codified varieties around the world.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 213–228.

Hawkins, John A. 2003. Why are zero-marked phrases close to their heads? In: Günter Rohdenburg & Britta Mondorf (eds.), *Determinants of grammatical variation in English* (Topics in English Linguistics 43). Berlin/New York: Mouton de Gruyter. 175–204.

Stuart-Smith, Jane, Eleanor Lawson & James M. Scobbie. 2014. Derhoticisation in Scottish English. A sociophonetic journey. In: Chiara Celata & Silvia Calamai (eds.), *Advances in sociophonetics* (Studies in Language Variation 15). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins. 59–96.

For journal articles, you begin your entry with the author of the article, the year of publication and the article's title. This is followed by the journal's name (in italics), the volume and issue numbers and the page range of the article.

Coupland, Nikolas. 2003. Sociolinguistic authenticities. *Journal of Sociolinguistics* 7(3). 417–431.

Grafmiller, Jason & Benedikt Szmrecsanyi. 2018. Mapping out particle placement in Englishes around the world. A case study in comparative sociolinguistic analysis. *Language Variation and Change* 30(3). 385–412.

In the second entry, "30(3)" refers to volume 30 (the volume for the year 2018) and the third issue within that volume.

4.3.2   Corpora

If the corpus is accessed via an online interface, or if files are retrieved from a website, this should be cited as a source. Stating the access date is important since sometimes updates are made to such corpora.

Davies, Mark. 2010. *The Corpus of Historical American English (COHA)*. Available online at https://www.english-corpora.org/coha/ (17 October 2022)

Du Bois, John W., Wallace L. Chafe, Charles Meyer, Sandra A. Thompson, Robert Englebretson & Nii Martey. 2000–2005. *Santa Barbara Corpus of Spoken American English, Parts 1–4*. Philadelphia: Linguistic Data Consortium. Available online at https://www.linguistics.ucsb.edu/research/santa-barbara-corpus (17 October 2022)

There will sometimes be a manual or guide accompanying the corpus, often provided online, which can then also be cited.

Hundt, Marianne, Andrea Sand & Rainer Siemund. 1998. *Manual of Information to accompany The Freiburg - LOB Corpus of British English ('FLOB')*. Albert-Ludwigs-Universität Freiburg: Englisches Seminar. Available online at http://korpus.uib.no/icame/manuals/FLOB/INDEX.HTM (8 April 2023)

Some corpora provide information in a "how to cite" section in the documentation.

4.3.3   Dictionaries

Most dictionaries are available either as an online resource or as a hard copy and should be cited accordingly. Unless you have good reasons to do otherwise, it is preferable to include only the citation for the entire dictionary in your list of references and to refer to the individual entries in the running text; e.g. "(cf. OED, s.v. *despite*, prep.)", which means the entry for *despite* ("s.v.": Latin *sub verbo* 'under the word') as a preposition.

Kjellmer, Göran. 1994. A dictionary of English collocations. Based on the Brown Corpus. 3 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

OED: Oxford English Dictionary online. Oxford University Press. https://www.oed.com/ (17 October 2022)

Soanes, Catherine & Angus Stevenson (eds.). 2004. *Concise Oxford English Dictionary*. 11th edition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

4.3.4   Online sources

You should primarily cite trustworthy, printed sources or equivalent electronic books or online journals. If you use online sources, make sure that the information presented there is reliable. Find the author, title and date of the source and make the entry in the list of references as precise and complete as possible. The date given in the reference is the date on which you last accessed the site.

Miller Center, The. 2022. *Famous presidential speeches.* https://millercenter.org/the-presidency/presidential-speeches (17 October 2022)

Scotland's Census. https://www.scotlandscensus.gov.uk/ (17 October 2022)

4.3.5   Software

It becomes increasingly common to also cite software that has been used. In linguistics, this mostly refers to either concordance programs such as *AntConc* or scripting languages such as *R*. Make sure to cite the version of the program that you have actually used.

Anthony, Laurence. 2022. *AntConc* (software version 4.1.2). http://www.laurenceanthony.net/ (17 October 2022)

R Core Team. 2016. *R: A language and environment for statistical computing* (software version 3.3.2). https://www.R-project.org .

RStudio Team. 2009–2021. *RStudio: Integrated development for R* (computer program version 2022.07.2+576. Boston, MA: RStudio PBC. https://www.rstudio.com/ . (17 October 2022)

Boersma, Paul & David Weenink. 2022. *Praat: doing phonetics by computer* (Computer program version 6.2.23). http://www.praat.org/ (17 October 2022)

4.4 Plagiarism

Plagiarism is defined as any unacknowledged use of another's ideas, information or expressions. If detected, plagiarism will result in a fail (mark 5.0) for the respective paper or thesis. You risk being disqualified from the award of a degree, regardless of whether plagiarism is detected in a term paper or thesis (cf. §§13, 15 Prüfungsordnung für den Bachelorstudiengang/Masterstudiengang Anglistik; § 19 LAPO I; §14 Prüfungsordnung für den Lehramtsstudiengang mit dem Abschluss Erste Staatsprüfung für das Höhere Lehramt an Gymnasien/das Lehramt an Grundschulen/das Lehramt an Mittelschulen/das Lehramt Sonderpädagogik, Erster Teil: Allgemeine Vorschriften).

5   Further reading

Aczel, Richard. 2007. *How to write an essay*. Stuttgart: Klett-Lerntraining.

Day, Trevor. 2018. *Success in academic writing*. 2nd edn. London: Red Globe Press.

Glasman-Deal, Hilary. 2010. *Science research writing for non-native speakers of English.* London: Imperial College Press.

Hacker, Diana & Nancy Sommers. 2019. *Rules for writers.* 9th edn. Boston/New York: Bedford/St. Martin's.

Joseph, Brian, Keren Rice & Joe Salmons. 2007. *Unified stylesheet for linguistics.* https://www.linguisticsociety.org/files/style-sheet_0.pdf (17 October 2022).

Modern Language Association of America. 2009. *MLA handbook for writers of research papers*, 7th edn. New York: MLA.

Wray, Alison & Aileen Bloomer. 2006. *Projects in linguistics and language studies: A practical guide to researching language*. 3rd edn. London/New York: Routledge.